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ICHSS 2013 - September 20-22, 2013, Rome, Italy

VOLUME 6

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About the Conference

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

Co-Partners

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

Publications

All papers presented in the 3\textsuperscript{rd} ICHSS 2013 will be published in the following Journals:

- Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences
- Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies
- Journal of Educational and Social Research
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Relationships of Socioeconomic Level with Eating Behavior of Traditional Food among Adolescents

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Abstract

Traditional food is never just about eating and fulfilling our biological needs; nevertheless it preserves the culture and tradition properties of a nation. Traditional food is known as representation of identity and embraces the components of cultural and heritage of a particular group of people in particular region. Malaysia has created distinctively traditional food based on the multi-ethnicity roots that lives together throughout the years such as Malay, Chinese and Indian communities. Presently, in this new and modern environment with economic prosperity of the country, young generation seems unappreciated the traditional food. They had been showered with Western fast food and other foreign foods, whereby traditional food is not their only option. Previous studies found socioeconomic level effects the eating behavior of traditional food, especially in adolescents. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the impact of socioeconomic level on adolescents’ eating behavior of traditional food in Malaysia situation by implementing Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as a background theory. Self-administered questionnaire was distributed to 655 secondary school students by using cluster sampling technique. Multiple linear regression (MLR) results indicated adolescents belong to lower (B = 0.28) and middle (B = 0.46) socioeconomic level family have the capability to control their intention to eat traditional food; whereas adolescents came from high socioeconomic level proved to rely on their attitudes towards traditional food (B = 0.34) to drive the intention to eat traditional food.

Keywords: Socioeconomic level, Traditional food, Adolescents, Eating behavior, Malaysia

1. Introduction

1.1 Traditional food in Malaysia

EUROFIR defined traditional food as a food of special properties which clearly distinguished from other similar food products from same category in terms of the “traditional ingredients” (raw materials) used or “traditional composition” added or “traditional preparation and processing methods” applied in making the particular food (Tajkarimi, Ibrahim, & Fraser, 2013). Moreover, Williams, Crockett, Harrison, and Thomas (2012) stated that traditional food served as repertoire of a country which portrayed the people’s traditions, cultures, lifestyles plus eating behaviors of that nation. Historically, Malaysian traditional food is created from the multi-ethnicity that lived harmonically for years in Malaysia. Most of traditional food in Malaysia is well-influenced from the three major ethnics, who are Malays, Chinese and Indians.

Rice is staple food in Asian countries including Malaysia. Rice becomes the primary ingredient in daily meals and source for many traditional foods in Malaysia. Some Asian citizens are intensely emphasizing meals are not considered as meals without rice as main character (Franzen & Smith, 2009). In Malaysia, a traditional meal composed of rice, vegetables and protein dishes which served during breakfast, lunch as well as dinner. Together with rice, local herbs and spices are added as flavor enhancer in the traditional fish or meat and vegetables dishes. Commonly used herbs and spices are lemongrass, Vietnamese mint, cilantro, curry leaves, turmeric, torch ginger flower; kafir lime leaves, tamarind and various types of herbs, wild roots and tree leaves that locally found such as “ulam raja”, fern leaves, “pegaga”, “daun kaduk”, tapioca leaves and water spinach. Apart from being balanced diet meals, traditional food also stores beneficial nutrients required for maintaining body health and diminishes chronic diseases (Salleh, 2006). Some of traditional food in
Malaysia such as “nasi lemak”, “roti canai” and “char kuetiaw” are getting more popular, particularly in Asia regions. Few Malaysian’s restaurants and food festival in other countries indirectly promote the traditional food to world. Consequently, many tourists came to Malaysia just for the gastronomic reasons and they found that Malaysian traditional food is nice, tasty, reasonable price; besides freshly prepared and healthy (Jalis, Mohd Zahari, Zulkifly, & Othman, 2009).

1.2 Changes in socioeconomic level

Socioeconomic level sets as indicators of one’s lifestyles included educational background, occupation and also household incomes of a family. People from different level of socioeconomic might experienced different ways of lifestyles. Obviously, the way of food consumption patterns and eating behavior of a person may determine largely from the socioeconomic background. For example, people from higher socioeconomic level are consumed more expensive food than others from moderate and low socioeconomic level (da Veiga & Sichieri, 2006).

Like others developing countries in Asia, Malaysia undergoes several changes in industrialization, modern development, economic improvement and globalization as well. Thus, these changes enable the Malaysians to enjoy luxurious lifestyles with better education, job opportunities and more spending power today’s, also known as the socioeconomic components. Simultaneously, eating behavior and food consumption patterns of Malaysians are also shifted from traditional to modern route, especially among young generations (Ganasegeran, et al., 2012).

1.3 Adolescent’s eating behavior

Eating behavior is a complex series of behaviors, which includes the food choice, meal patterns (composition of food into meals), eating environments and after eating scenario (Yannakoulia, Ntalla, Papoutsakis, Farmaki, & Dedoussis, 2010). Meanwhile, adolescence is a vulnerable period in human growth where an optimal diet with balanced nutrients must be adequate enough to support normal development of the body and avoid nutrition-related diseases (Ahn, Engelhardt, & Joung, 2006). However, eating behavior among adolescents currently is changing to food composed of high fat, high sodium or high sugar such as cookies, candies, salty chips, and soft drinks) and low intake of fruits and vegetables (Fitzgerald, Heary, Kelly, Nixon, & Shevlin, 2013). There are several factors that affecting adolescents’ food choice, exclusively the food must be appealing, tasty, convenience, fast, available at all time and affordable by their pocket money (Meehan, Yeh, & Spark, 2008).

Major contribution for eating behavior of adolescents is the socioeconomic level of the family. da Veiga and Sichieri (2006) revealed the eating behavior of young generations is fundamentally determined by the family background. For example, adolescents from high household incomes tend to have more spending power in buying food compare to their peers from low or moderate socioeconomic level. Additionally, family where both parents are working, family meals have become less traditional due to time restriction at workplace (Inglis, Ball, & Crawford, 2005). So, the food consumed by adolescents is selected independently by them. In the similar vein, the parental control over their children food choice has been diminished with age. Older their children had become, the parents shown less concerned on the children’s eating behavior (MacFarlane, Crawford, Ball, Savige, & Worsley, 2007).

Besides that, educational whether informal or formal at home may directly furnish the adolescents eating behavior. Some adolescents are well-rehearsed by their parents about healthy eating and how to make the correct choice for food to eat. Particularly, high socioeconomic level’s parents with higher educational level preferred modern healthy food choice with reduction of traditional healthy food (Delva, O’Malley, & Johnston, 2007). As mention earlier, traditional food embraces not only good taste, yet it offers balanced nutrients meals for the eaters. It has been proven about 85% of adults are still practicing traditional diet; however, about 70% of adolescents have already shifting their eating behavior towards western diet in most of Asian regions (Ahn, Engelhardt, & Joung, 2006).

1.4 Eating behavior of traditional food

Above all, it is an important issue to study in order to understand the adolescents’ eating behavior and consumption patterns of traditional food in Malaysia nowadays. Due to globalization and economic prosperity, adolescents are overwhelmed by different kinds of food surrounding them and their current eating behavior is believed that they draw lots on the western food and snacks (Adnan & Muniandy, 2012). Ironically, the Malaysia traditional food becomes less popular among adolescents. Many efforts had been done by the Malaysian government to promote traditional food throughout the world. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Malaysia held a Malaysian traditional food festival at various countries in
Europe such as England and Romania as their effort to promote traditional food to foreigners, meanwhile Department of Intangible Heritage, Malaysia proudly presented 100 Heritage Food in September 2009 to enhance the consumption of traditional food among tourists and specifically towards Malaysians. This situation had drawn attention to this study where the main objective of the study was to examine eating behavior of traditional food among adolescents from different socioeconomic level. The specific objectives for this study were listed as followed:

1. To record traditional food consumption patterns of adolescents at school, including the foods brought to school and foods purchased from school canteen and food stores (vendors, local restaurants, tuck shop) nearby the schools.
2. To investigate the differences in socioeconomic level of adolescents were related to the adolescents’ intention to eat traditional food.

2. Methodology

2.1 Design and sample

The study was carried out in the state of Selangor, due to the highest population capacity in Malaysia (Department of Statistics, 2011). Using stratified sampling technique for the study, public secondary schools in Selangor had been divided into four zone based on the geographical area. There were east, west, north and south zones. Out of 357,571 registered secondary school students in Selangor, only 700 of them were selected to be the respondents for this study; where later, the amount assorted into population ratio for each zone. Yamane (1967) sample population formula was applied to calculate total amount of sample needed:

\[
N \approx \frac{1}{1 + N(e)^2}
\]

Where, 
\[N = \text{Total population}\]
\[e = 5\%\]
\[n = \text{Sample size}\]
\[n = \frac{357,571}{1 + 357,571(0.05)^2} = 399.553 = 400\text{ respondents}\]

From the formula, 400 respondents were necessary to gather the information about eating behavior of traditional food. However, additional two hundreds of respondents were hopefully able to obtain more persistence findings. The respondents were required to complete a self-administered questionnaire designed to achieve the objective stated for the study. Eventually, 655 students aged from 15 to 19 years old had participated to fill up the questionnaire.

2.2 Procedure

Approval letters from Malaysia Ministry of Education and Selangor Department of Education as well as permission letter from Faculty Food Science and Technology, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) were obtained prior to data collection process. Self-administered questionnaire used as instrument was distributed to the secondary students through the assigned teachers by principal. All the data collection was performed on October 2012 and completed at the end of the month.

2.3 Instrument

Six sections of self-administered questionnaire were designed that extracted the information about respondents’ (1) attitudes towards traditional food, (2) social influential parties and (3) perceived behavioral control on eating traditional food; (4) intention to eat traditional food; and (5) traditional food consumption patterns and lastly (6) demographic profile. The questionnaire was adopted from various questionnaires in eating behavior studies. As backbone structure of the instrument, Theory of Planned Behavior variables by Icek Ajzen (1991) were implemented as dependent and independent variables of this study. Shepherd and Dennison (1996) mentioned that this theory had been well-applied across wide range of human behaviors, especially eating behaviors and food choices studies.
2.4 Statistical analyses

Basically, the questionnaires were assorted out into three socioeconomic level set by the Malaysia Department of Statistic in 2010 comprised of low, medium and high household incomes by using SPSS version 20. Particularly, respondents in low socioeconomic level categorized by below RM 1500 of their household incomes; whereas those came from moderate socioeconomic level approximately had RM 2000 till RM 4000 range of household income. However, respondents with RM 5000 and above household incomes were considered as high socioeconomic level. Similarly, all statistical analyses were also conducted by the SPSS program. For the first objective, descriptive statistic such as frequencies and percentage used to describe the consumption patterns of traditional food among respondents. Meanwhile, multiple linear regression (MLR) was used to figure out the most and least influential variable to determine the respondent’s intention to eat traditional food. 95% confidence interval was used for the MLR analyses where independent variables with p < 0.05 only were accepted for the regression models.

3. Findings and Discussion

3.1 Respondents profile

Table 1: Profile of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent's profile</th>
<th>Household income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s educational level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s educational level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s occupation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher / Academician</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive / Manager</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration support / Clerical</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective / Security service</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s occupation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher / Academician</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive / Manager</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration support / Clerical</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective / Security service</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 described the respondent's profile according to their reported household income in the questionnaire. The sample consisted of 655 adolescent students with 93.57% response rate. 170 students were in high socioeconomic level; meanwhile about 209 and 218 adolescents were classified as low and moderate socioeconomic level, respectively. The race proportions for the sample represented precisely the ethnic ratios in Malaysia. Most of the students were Malays, Chinese, and Indians and minority ethnics. Apart from that, the majority of high educational level parents were belongs to high socioeconomic category with frequencies of 25 and 20 for fathers and mothers, correspondingly. Among all, parents' occupations of low socioeconomic were self-employed (109); while most of their spouses were full time housewives. Meanwhile, greater numbers of adolescent’s fathers from moderate socioeconomic families were working as manager (24), administration support (38) and also self-employed (77) and similarly, about 120 mothers were housewives and had their some small business (38).

3.2 Traditional food consumption patterns

Overall, table 2 showed the traditional food consumption patterns of the adolescents. Only 20.6% of them eat traditional food more than five times per week. The highest percentage of traditional food intakes was three times a week; while there were adolescents (11.9%) that only eat traditional food less than a time. 54.5% of adolescents enjoyed eating traditional food at home. Most of them felt that traditional food is a family meal and some of the food is not suitable to eat at school; so they felt comfortable to eat traditional food at home. Furthermore, during the school days, the adolescents usually bought traditional food at school canteen (55.4%) and street stalls outside the school (22.3%). Lastly, approximately 65.0% of adolescents did not bring food to school because they observed it as troublesome, especially among boys. They also stated that school canteen already prepared traditional food and their parents provided enough pocket money to them to buy from canteen. Differently, there were 31.6% of adolescents did bring traditional food to school. For them, they wanted to share with their friends, besides served as breakfast and energy booster in the morning. However, some of adolescents reported that their mothers always prepared traditional food for them to bring to school due to lack of money. Follow was the list of traditional food most commonly brought to school by the secondary students: “Nasi lemak”, “Karipap”, “Nasi goreng varieties”, “Banana fritters”, “Keropok lekor”, “Tosai”, “Kuih bulan”, “Roti canai”, “Bak kut teh” and “Nasi ayam”.

Table 2: Consumption patterns of traditional food

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where do you usually eat your traditional food</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canteen</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street stalls</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local ethnic restaurant</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where do you usually purchase traditional food during school days</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local ethnic restaurant</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canteen</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street stalls</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you bring any traditional food from home to school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Differences of intention to eat traditional food for three level of socioeconomic

Regression analyses were conducted to figure out the contribution of each variable for all level of socioeconomic and the present findings explained in table 3 for low, table 4 for moderate and table 5 for high socioeconomic level based on their household income. The three variables adapted from Theory of Planned Behavior showed significant results for all regression models (p < 0.05).

Table 3: Regression model for low household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards traditional food</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social norms</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioral control</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( F = 49.03 \) (Sig. = 0.00)
\( R = 0.64 \)
\( R^2 = 0.41 \)
\( \text{Adjusted } R^2 = 0.40 \)
\( \text{Std. error} = 0.55 \)

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to eat traditional food

Table 4: Regression model for moderate household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards traditional food</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social norms</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioral control</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>7.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( F = 72.39 \) (Sig. = 0.00)
\( R = 0.70 \)
\( R^2 = 0.49 \)
\( \text{Adjusted } R^2 = 0.49 \)
\( \text{Std. error} = 0.49 \)

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to eat traditional food

Table 5: Regression model for high household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>-1.83</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards traditional food</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>4.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social norms</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived behavioral control</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( F = 64.18 \) (Sig. = 0.00)
\( R = 0.73 \)
\( R^2 = 0.53 \)
\( \text{Adjusted } R^2 = 0.52 \)
\( \text{Std. error} = 0.49 \)

Intention to eat traditional food among adolescents from low and moderate socioeconomic level strongly associated by perceived behavioral control variable (low SEL: \( B = 0.28 \) and moderate SEL: \( B = 0.46 \)). Perceived behavioral control explained as one’s perceptions of control over eating traditional food and also the obstacles and easiness to attend that behavior (Shepherd & Dennison, 1996). This indicated that low and moderate adolescents had capabilities to control their own intention to eat traditional food without outside influences such from the parents and friends. However, adolescents from high socioeconomic level mainly depended on their attitudes towards traditional food (B = 0.34) in order
to light up the intention to eat. Attitudes on traditional food represent as overall evaluation of adolescent over the food includes the sensory appeal, emotion, knowledge, appreciation and health concern (Benarroch, Perez, & Perales, 2011). Generally, social influences from parents and peers were the least contributors to enhance adolescents’ intention to eat traditional food for all socioeconomic groups. It contributed $B = 0.20$ for low SEL, $B = 0.13$ for moderate SEL and $B = 0.22$ for high SEL.

Living area of the adolescents played an important role in determining the intention to eat traditional food. Low and moderate socioeconomic level families usually lived in rural and suburban area of the country. They had been exposed to the traditional food since childhood and due to lack of money, they seem to choose traditional food because it is cheaper and affordable for them buy (Temple, Steyn, Myburgh, & Nel, 2006; Jalis, Mohd Zahani, Zulkifly, & Othman, 2009). Moreover, without availability to other kind of food, traditional food became that adolescent’s favorite food in terms of taste, appearance and price (Riggio, Valenzuela, & Weiser, 2010). Contradictory, high socioeconomic level families were living in the centre of the metropolitan area where they surrounded by various types of modern foods such as fast food and traditional food of other countries likes sushi from Japan. With accessibility and enough money in hand, high socioeconomic adolescents managed to pay for non-Malaysian traditional food. Previous literature supported that adolescents lived near fast food restaurants were often eating from those restaurants (Forsyth, Wall, Larson, Story, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2012).

Another possibility of the differences in eating behavior of traditional food among different socioeconomic adolescent was the family practices at home. Previously, adolescents felt that traditional food is family meals where they often ate it at home. Besides giving the parents chance to control their children eating behavior, family meals also applied beneficial time for useful conversation within family members. Additionally, parents who shared the knowledge about the food, family history and culture resulted to have knowledgeable, higher self-esteem and greater admiration children of their background (Fruh, Fulkerson, Mulekar, & Clanton, 2011). From the result (table 1), higher household income closely related to higher occupation rank such as professional, academician and self-employed parents. Consequently, with both parents were working, family meals became less traditional due to limited preparation time. The mothers were choosing more convenience and quick food for the family and fast food take away usually pop up as easiest food choices (Adnan & Muniandy, 2012). If compare to low and moderate socioeconomic level adolescents, most of their mothers were fulltime housewives who prepared every meal at home. Likewise, those adolescents mentioned that their mothers loved to cook traditional food and packed traditional food in lunch box for them to bring to school.

Majority of parents from high socioeconomic level had better educational status. Nevertheless, higher educational level parents did not assured to have children that adored traditional food. Adnan and Muniandy (2012) proved that high intakes of fast food among children with higher educational level mothers. The most possible explanation to this situation was lack of nutrients knowledge and awareness of healthy foods as well as availability of those foods at home. On the other hand, high educational level parents appeared to have higher-quality diet and concerned to their children health (Tur, Puig, Benito, & Pons, 2004). Even though they were aware of healthy diet of the children, but the parents preferred to choose modern healthy food and consumed less traditional healthy food. They believed traditional food is unhealthy and not suitable to their modern diets.

4. Conclusion

In Malaysia, socioeconomic of adolescents families may directly or indirectly effect the eating behavior of traditional food. Low and moderate socioeconomic adolescents were capable to control their intentions to eat traditional food; while high socioeconomic adolescents were depended on the overall perceptions of traditional food to decide their intention. Nevertheless, social influence from parents and friends was not the major contributor; however, family structure and home food environment of the adolescents known to be influenced the eating of traditional food (Lhuissier, et al., 2013). The close relationships between family members would shape adolescents’ self-esteem, self-efficacy and eating behavior of traditional food (Berge, Wall, Larson, Loth, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2013). Furthermore, availability and accessibility of traditional food at home and also in surrounding the neighborhood were shown to be forecaster of adolescents eating behavior (Kelly, Flood, & Yeatman, 2011). Apart from that, findings reported that adolescent’s diet in Malaysia seems to become less traditional. Majority numbers of adolescents ate traditional food at home only and they favored more modern food when dining out.

For years now, this study shines some light on the currently adolescent’s eating behavior of traditional food. A better approach such as advertisement on the beneficial effect of traditional food should be done by responsible authorities on mass media, especially at school. Finally, sample size was the limitation of our study. Future research
should increase the number of respondents and explore different angles of eating traditional food among adolescents in Malaysia.

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Wishing to Feel Better... Perceptions of Health and Illness in Persons with Rheumatic Diseases

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Abstract

About a third of the Portuguese population suffers from some form of rheumatic disease. Although the pathology in several persons is mild, these illnesses are chronic and incurable, have a progressive evolution, and the symptoms tend to become increasingly severe. Rheumatic illnesses frequently lead to major consequences for the person's life disturbing their social relationships, work and leisure. The present work is part of a larger project, and aim to understand how health and illness are represented among adults with rheumatic disease. The data was collected by free associations of words and processed through factorial correspondence analysis. Participants were questioned on what they think and feel about their health and illness. Their perceptions were analysed considering their age, sex and years of illness. The participants point out the illness as their major source of suffering and sadness, revealing they frequently feel discouraged, thinking they are different from other people. Women, more than men, express negative emotions and serious difficulties to maintain a healthy and independent lifestyle - they emphasize their functional limitations that seriously affect daily activities, in particular their mobility and housekeeping tasks. In general, men almost accept their health condition - it is as if they feel strong enough to face their illness and to find ways to improve their wellbeing. What the patients think and feel about their health and illness may convey important information for health professionals, working with patients with rheumatoid disease, in order to help them to improve strategies to deal with this population.

Keywords: chronic illness, health, rheumatic disease, pain, representations

1. Introduction

Rheumatic diseases\(^1\) can be considered as chronic, leading to irreversible changes or physical disabilities and, in most cases, requiring progressive adaptations according to the illness condition (Cruz & Branco, 2001; Queirós, 2002).

The rheumatic diseases include over one hundred and twenty different diseases, their causes are frequently unknown and the most common are, first of all, osteoarthritis, and rheumatoid arthritis (RA).\(^2\) They are progressive and incurable, with an uncertain prognosis. Rheumatic diseases affect hundreds of millions of people around the world. In fact, about 12% of people over the age of twenty five years old are affected; and 60% of people over the age of sixty five years old have at least one joint with moderate to severe deformations.

Nowadays, about 38% of the Portuguese population - circa 2.7 millions - suffer from some form of these illnesses - about 1.7 million men, and 970 thousand women. The incidence of many of these illnesses increases markedly with age (Lucas & Monjardino, 2010; Faustino, 2003).

These diseases are usually characterized by pain, suffering and discomfort, degeneration of joints, alterations on the body, loss of mobility and autonomy, temporary or permanent disability, limitation and incapacity (Boyington, et al. 2008;

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\(^1\) Rheumatic diseases can be defined as functional alterations of musculoskeletal system without traumatic source (Queirós, 2002).

\(^2\) Approximately 1% of the Portuguese population suffers from rheumatoid arthritis.
Lucas & Monjardino, 2010). Their impact is a heavy burden to any personal and social condition. They are the most common cause of severe long term pain and physical disability, significantly affecting the ability to perform several activities of daily living, the careers and the psychosocial status of all patients, as well as their families (Woolf & Åkesson, 2001).

Pain is the most prominent symptom in most people with arthritis, (Jackobsson & Hallberg, 2002), and is among the most frequently reported, bothersome, and disabling symptoms described by patients with rheumatic diseases. The experience of pain is a primary determinant of disability in patients with rheumatic conditions (Edwards et al., 2006), affecting health and diminishing the patient's quality of life (Woolf & Pfleger, 2003; Woolf, 2003). However, the impact felt by each person may be different considering the individual personality traits, beliefs, attitudes, ideology and values.

Among the more obvious physical limitations, patients report decreased capacity and dependence, primarily for carrying out activities such as walking, dressing, feeding and taking care of your personal hygiene.

The loss of mobility not only affects the realization of many activities of daily living but can also lead to gradual loss of independence of the individual.

Melanson and Downe-Wonboldt (2003) verified that the majority of patients with rheumatic diseases pointed their physical limitations as their main difficulties (e.g., physical limitations in relation to household chores, on driving or general mobility - mobility at home, in the community or using transport).

For example, the joints of the upper limbs, when compromised, can sometimes hamper the manipulation of the cutlery and the ability for cutting food; taking a simple cup of tea may become difficult and dangerous, especially if it is hard for someone hold the handle. For these reasons, some people get embarrassed when they eat in public, often leading them to isolation and non-participation in social events. It is not hard to imagine the impact of these diseases in domestic life (e.g., Allaire, Meenam & Anderson, 1991).

A rheumatic disease restricts people's ability to perform social and occupational roles. It is the single greatest cause of disability in the elderly, with more than 53% of adults over the age of 65 years complaining because of this significant health problem (Pimm & Weinman, 1998).

Moreover, the aging of the Portuguese population associated to the increase of rheumatic diseases triggers profound implications, specially, in plant's caring for older people, with rheumatic problems (Lucas & Monjardino, 2010).

All rheumatic diseases may play important roles in shaping the cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes underlying each person's symptoms and adaptations to illness.

The diagnosis may be difficult, and people with rheumatic disease may experience unpredictable symptoms of severe pain, fatigue, stiffness, immobility, disability and disfigurement. This illness frequently leads to major consequences for the person's health and life affecting their social relationships, work and leisure.

The perception of pain, disability and dependence, influence the representations of disease and health (Miguel, Carvalho & Baptista, 2000). In time, health's concept have been less focused on the absence of pain, illness or disability, giving emphasis to positive aspects (at personal and social levels), longevity and better quality of life. The health is linked to well-being and all human life experiences.

In fact, the concepts of health and disease are mutually influent and evolve simultaneously. They make part of our existence, emerging to us, in some degree, at different times (Ribeiro, 1998). Illness is centred on subjective experiences (including physical, psychological, emotional, social and cultural), has always some meaning, beyond indicating the absence of health. Somehow, health only becomes meaningful when confronted with illness, particularly with a chronic illness (Lindsey, 1996). Any illness is an experience of symptoms or suffering.

It is also important to realize 'how the sick person and the members of the family or wider social network perceive, live with and respond to symptoms and disability' (Skevington, 1996).

It urges to understand the perceptions of health and illness in patients with chronic or disabling conditions, such as the people suffering with rheumatic disease (Corbin & Strauss, 1988). There are also expectations and beliefs about health, and health care effect, in the people's responses to illness and to the treatments that they subsequently receive (even to survive). Inevitably, this is linked to health and illness conceptualisations. In that way, living with a chronic illness leads to a variety of changes and consequences for everyday life (Corbin & Strauss, 1987; Morse, 1997).

In this paper we approached the representations of health and illness in patients with chronic disease, especially with rheumatic disease. We considered some of people's beliefs, images and memories, about heath and illness, and the way these are associated to emotions and to the way of feeling (Thorne, 1993).

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3 The chronic diseases are defined as those who don't have known cure, causing general malaise and affecting the patient's everyday life.
2. Objectives

The present work is part of a larger project, in order to understand how health and illness are represented among adults with rheumatic diseases. Briefly, we intended to:

- Understand how health and illness are represented among adult patients;
- Examine how these representations may differ according to the age, sex and degree of illness (time in years) of the participants;
- Verify how illness can interfere in the daily activities, and the way how patients usually feel.

3. Method

3.1 Population

This study was developed with a population of patients with rheumatic diseases (N=129), 64% women and 36% men, from 20 to 72 years old (21% with ages between 20 to 39 years old, 53% with 40-64 years old, and 26% with more than 65 years old); 24% of the participants are ill for less than five years, 38% suffer from this chronic disease for, at least, five years, and less than ten, and 38% of this population is ill for ten years or more.

3.2 Variables

As independent variables we considered gender/sex (men and women), age and the years of illness. The dimensions of health and illness, the way as illness could limit the daily activities, and the way the participants usually feel, were the dependent variables.

3.3 Questionnaire and Procedure

It was previously conducted a short focus-group, where we listened to what patients generally think and feel about pain, health and illness. After, having the indicators derived (from the dimensions obtained) from the focus-group, we developed a questionnaire including several open questions, such as:

- What do you think about your health?
- How do you feel about your health?
- What do you think about your illness?
- How do you feel about your illness?
- What changes did the disease implied in your daily activities?

These questions constituted different situations/stimuli, to which the participants responded individually and anonymously, with simple words or phrases. So, the data was collected by free associations of words, in a hospital (with outpatients), and was processed through factorial correspondences analysis.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

The participants were informed that their participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. Accordingly, we obtained a written consent from each participant. The confidentiality and anonymity were assured by us.

4. Results

When we asked the participants for “What do you think about your health?”, their most frequent answers were poor health (to 26%), threatened, fragile, malaise and affected or impaired (cf. Table 1). Health is perceived as something that compromises the lives of the participants, as a real threat, making them feel, above all, weak, uneasiness or harmed.

The conceptions of women and men differ in some issues. Women expressed more negative thoughts about their health, while men almost seem to accept their condition, considering they are strong enough to deal with it. Particularly, women affirm to be delicate and fragile, feeling unbalanced by health problems.

Men, more than women, prefer to think that their health is reasonable, although they recognize their health as committed and precarious.
Both age and the year in which the disease was diagnosed, seem to have no effect on the perceptions of health. Rheumatic diseases imply malaise and bothering changes in health and in life, for all the participants/patients. The experience of living with rheumatic disease can truly change the representations of health, and the patients realize that their health is very committed.

Table 1. Classification of the most frequent words from the answers to: ‘What do you think about your health’ and ‘How do you feel about your health’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thoughts about health</th>
<th>Feelings about health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened</td>
<td>Adapted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragile</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaise</td>
<td>Well / Unhappy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affected</td>
<td>Hopeless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impaired</td>
<td>Tranquil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sequence of the question ‘How do you feel about your health?’, we obtained more negative emotions and feelings (sadness, adapted, dependent, unhappy, hopeless, limited, inability, fear) than positive (well, tranquil). When the patients represent health they always think about their illness and of what it emotionally implies for them. The concepts of health and illness are often mixed. In fact, the concept of health is affected by a illness state, characterized by a condition of pain or suffering, perceived as unbearable, uncomfortable and embarrassing, requiring some dependence from others, and also fear of the future. In some cases, patients divulge a feeling of adaptation, conveying a certain well-being and tranquillity (cf. Table 1).

Men reveal a more positive view of health than women, showing a greater will to have some expectation in their progressive condition and to keep calm, accepting their state and striving for adaptation and to be comfortable, despite the fear of what may happen to them, if they cannot control the symptoms or their reactions. Women feel more sad, unmotivated and dependent on their care and needs. For the younger participants, it is natural expressing a need for adaptation and feeling optimistic, in contrast with the others that repeatedly complain for their dependency and uncertainty on their future.

The most usual answers to ‘What do you think about your illness?’ refer to the illness as a personal situation that became chronic. Participants emphasize that the illness causes pain, disability, limitations, discomfort, implying relevant changes in their routines or daily activities - it may become complicated and uneasy accepting the situation, anyone would have difficulties in the unavoidable process of adaptation (cf. Table 2).

Women put the accent on the disease as a very painful process, at all levels, leading to disability or dependency of others; men give more significance to the consequences of the illness at a physical level, thinking on the deformation of the body or incapacity, particularly to work.

The older the patients are the greater is the tendency to represent the illness negatively - a patient, who suffers from this kind of illness since a long time, denotes more complaints about the dependence and the changes he needs to assume on his life.

The most recurrent emotion, or sentiment, derived from ‘How do you feel about your illness?’, was dependent, followed by adapted, hopeful, sadness, inability, fear. The participants feel malaise, revealing a strong discomfort with the suffering and disability the disease implies (cf. Table 2).

The responses less negative (or neutral) are adapted/adaptation and acceptance, mainly because men have a more positive perception of health than women, showing a need for adaptation and some hope on the future; women feel more ill, apprehensive, misunderstood, discouraged and alone. Younger people are more optimistic, showing feelings of hope and acceptance; the older tend to complain for their dependency, sadness and incoherence by family and friends.
Table 2. Classification of the most frequent words from the answers to: 'What do you think about your illness' and 'How do you feel about your illness'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thoughts about illness</th>
<th>Feelings about illness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chronic</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>Adapted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disabled</td>
<td>Hopeless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painful</td>
<td>Inability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to make changes</td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complicated</td>
<td>Revolted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malaise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worried ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faced with the question ‘What changes did the disease implied in your daily activities?’, the participants showed that they feel limited or affected by the rheumatic disease, even in the most common daily needs and performance, just as walking, household tasks and professional tasks, personal hygiene, dressing up, getting up or combing up (cf. Table 3).

All of the patients, regardless of gender, age and years of disease duration, revealed that the disease interfere with their routines, especially in their work, underlying that since they became more ill they feel slower, inefficient or limited when performing many daily tasks, mainly due to the constant or frequent pain they feel. So, most of them disclose sad feelings, discouragement and even, in some cases, depression symptoms. However, there are still patients that really make an effort to maintain hope and optimism about their situation.

Women, more than men, feel misunderstood, and alone, lamenting, above all, from the difficulty to correspond to the household tasks. Men have more confidence in the efficacy of the treatments and medications, and on the healthcare professionals’ capacity, to help them, in the moments they need more.

Table 3. Classification of the most frequent words from the answers to: ‘What changes did the disease implied in your daily activities?’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in daily activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional / Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dressing up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combing up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climbing up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleeping</td>
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<tr>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion

The rheumatic diseases are devastating to the lives of individuals either by direct impact on daily activities, as by the implications on family, profession and at a social level. The limitation or disability to do some tasks may also imply a strong psychological impact associated to feelings of failure, frustration and depression (e.g. Gaião, 1990).

With no cure for chronic conditions, especially in the case of osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis (the medical treatments are only partially effective), it urges to explore the process that mediates between the health and the disease perception, among these patients. Some of them know how to manage their disease very successfully. Our understanding of how they do it, will help us to develop interventions to assist people who show more difficulties.

It is also important to understand some shared beliefs; these have implications on the interactions between health professionals and patients. The person with rheumatic disease may regard pain as the most important indication of the seriousness of her health or illness state, while health professionals may view inflammation and joint damage as more
important indication of disease severity. Such difference, between these two perceptions, may produce some misunderstanding or disrupt communication.

The rheumatic disease and particularly the pain associated to it, is accompanied by a great personal suffering, with great repercussions on individual, family, social and professional level. Being a multidimensional phenomenon, this illness affects a person in different areas: cognitive, emotional, behavioural and physical. Living with pain implies changes in the way a person represents the body and herself.

Regardless of their age and the moment when the disease was diagnosed, most participants showed difficulties to live with this disease, which makes them feel sad, disillusioned and discouraged.

Women described with more precision the severe physical and functional problems of living with a rheumatoid disease. They expressed more suffering, and negative emotions, complaining about limitations and disabilities and revealing a more negative perception of illness, than men.

Women emphasized the difficulties to maintain health and independency, considering that pain and functional limitations affect several daily activities, like work, mobility and housekeeping.

With regard to household tasks, limitation of joint function and disability can lead to loss of dexterity, preventing the patient to perform activities such as cooking, lift the pans, peel vegetables, turn on the stove, opening and closing taps and packaging, as well how to use some appliances (Sturdy, 1998).

The physical pain and emotional pain are deeply interconnected, and both are immeasurable and intimate for each human being. Patients with a rheumatic disease seem to feel different from others, without a chronic disease. This reveals part of the psychological impact of this kind of illness.

6. Conclusion

The notion of health is linked to pain and suffering, generally considered as unbearable, causing dependence on others and fear of the future, as well as sadness and discouragement (Sá & Oliveira, 2011). However, some patients show ability to accept or adapt, revealing relative well-being, and tranquillity. Rheumatic diseases affect a significant part of the population and have a strong social impact, on the public health, at a professional level and even in economic-financial terms.

The rheumatic patients are faced with problems that impose various restrictions, causing them to have low self-esteem, dependence on others and social isolation. These problems are often portrayed by the uncertainty of the disease, and the significant changes in the way of living, involving rebuilding the everyday and develop strategies to face personal difficulties and social relations.

Pain becomes strongly meaningful when is constantly present - even if its intensity varies over time. It makes us question the hope and all that we are. In face of it, patients may reply with courage, adaptation, fear or uncertainty. Pain and suffering affect the individual, in all his areas of action. So, the ill condition cannot be resolved only at a physical level, or by a magical way, but rather with the knowledge that healthcare professionals have about each person affected.

Knowing also the functional and emotional difficulties, and the limitations of the patients, health professionals may have a better understanding of patients’ priorities and improve their strategies to deal with them, providing the adequate care to help them facing the everyday life, contributing as much as possible for their wellbeing.

In this sense, it is urgent to understand the representations of health and illness among people with rheumatic diseases. Thereby we intend to contribute to understand the condition of living with a rheumatic disease, and of how we may find ways to help someone in suffering, to face the daily tasks and activities more positively and with more hope.

References


Sociolinguistic Functions of Igbo Language: 
Implications for Education and Mass Communication

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate whether the plausibility of Igbo language being neglected and will soon suffer attrition is a reality or not. It takes a close look at some language functions which the Igbo language is able to perform over a stipulated period of time. The theoretical framework of ethnolinguistic vitality forms the basis of this study. This study used descriptive design and questionnaire was the instrument used for data collection. The population of the study comprised three (3) Colleges of Education in the South East Educational Zone of Nigeria that offer courses for the acquisition of both Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) and Bachelor in Education (B.Ed), and six (6) radio stations were randomly selected; those that broadcast Igbo programmes from six (6) states in Nigeria viz: Abia, Anambra, Delta, Enugu, Imo and Lagos. Data collected were analyzed based on the language functionalities of education and mass communication. The analysis reveals that Igbo language still has strong ethnolinguistic vitality and a great chance of survival since it still serves as a veritable tool of communication in many sociolinguistic contexts such as educational school subjects and mass communication. The paper concludes by stating that Igbo language is not greatly endangered as some people think, and that the outcry that the Igbo language will soon go extinct is just an overstatement. However, the paper goes on to suggest some ways of concretizing and promoting Igbo language so as to prevent it from suffering extinction.

Keywords: Igbo language, ethnolinguistic vitality, language functionalities

1. Introduction

Language is primarily a tool to be used, to uphold and protect the reason for the core existence of certain group of people. It has a complex nature. Language is the strongest of all the unconscious agreements which hold a society together (Gleason, 1969). Linguistics is a scientific study of language. Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbol. It is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used by human communication by means of which a social group co-operators.

Sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to the society. It is also a relative newcomer to the linguistic fold. According to Tiwale(2011),sociolinguistics is more interested in real speech, within and among communities. Their overriding concern is with the way in which language varies according to the social context in which it used and the social group to which it belongs. The social variables that influence speech include personal factors such as age and education, as well as more general ones like nationality, race and gender.

Evidently, speech which is the fastest means of communication is an aspect of language. Speech is not only a social activity but also a social property owned by the society and the speech community of any speaker. It is in this line of thought that Yule (2004) avers that speech is a form of social identity and is used, consciously or unconsciously, to indicate membership of different social groups or different speech communities.

For language to serve its primary function of communication and for it to be preserved, it must be spoken by its
owners lest it will be endangered. Every language existed first as a spoken language before being committed to writing. Even today, some languages of the world are serving their owners but they have not been committed to writing because they have no orthography. Such languages are still valued and safeguarded by their owners such that they are still viable. On the contrary, some languages have lost some or all their speakers and are greatly endangered. Agbedo (2004) posits that the number of languages in the world is shrinking. Out of the roughly 6,909 languages now spoken, up to half are already endangered or on the brink of extinction. Agbedo further notes that, it is being estimated that globally some 4,000 languages have already been lost, with some 6,000 remaining but with the majority facing one level of risk or the other. In Nigeria, Lewis (2009: 78) observes that in all, the country has a total of 527 languages, 514 living languages, 2 second languages without mother tongue speakers, 11 with no known speakers.

According to Amfani (2010), language loss is always attributed to a domineering influence of a particular language on the dying language, and this accusation often turns into several social crises. He further forecasts that without a strong national policy on Nigerian languages, the languages will continue to decay and eventually die, and one day, every Nigerian will lose his or her linguistic identity since language is accepted to be the people’s identity.

Over the years, there has been an outcry that Igbo language is fast dying and will soon suffer extinction. The outcry has made many people believe that the Igbo language is the most neglected of the three major Nigerian languages (Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba).

This study therefore sets out to investigate the level of this plausibility especially in the areas of mass communication and educational system.

2. Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the framework of Ethnolinguistic Vitality (EV). Vitality as a concept is found in a variety of contexts, each of which offers different insights. Ethnolinguistic Vitality according to Giles and Bourhis (1994) is that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive, active and collective entity within the intergroup setting.

Fishman (1989) opines that interaction network that employs the language for one or more vital language functions is an important indicator of ethnolinguistic vitality. The more speakers of a language variety are, the higher their status and the greater the groups’ language vitality, the greater the chance for linguistic survival. Stewart (1968) asserts that for language to have a given function, it should serve at least minimally, as a vehicle of communication in a specific sociolinguistic context. He goes further to list the language functions which included: official, provincial, language of wider communication, international, capital city, group, educational, school subjects, literacy and religious. To Stewart’s list Edward (1994) added many other functions such as work, speech acts and events.

According to Johnson, Giles and Bourhis (1983), the more vitality an ethnolinguistic group enjoys, the more it will be able to use its own language so as to survive and thrive as a collective entity. They outlined three dimensions of socio-structural variables which influence the vitality of ethno-linguistic groups to include demographic, institutional support and status. Demographic variables are those related to the absolute number of speakers and their distribution through the national, regional, or urban territory. Institutional support consists of the recognition accorded the group either in the use of the language in terms of research, educational policies and the use of the language in both the print and the electronic media. Status factor refers to a community’s social prestige in its language and culture.

Language endangerment according to Agbedo (2011) is a serious problem; he posits that endangered languages are languages that are threatened by extinction because they are not passed on to younger generations. He further avers that an endangered language is not used in formal education and its communicative role is limited to in-group communication and with such traditional domains as rituals, festivals, and communal meetings.

Emenanjo (2010) asserts that all living phenomenon human beings, groups (tribal, ethnic or racial), plants, animals and languages become endangered when their original, natural, indigenous habitats, ecologies or environments become hostile, unfriendly, uncomfortable, in-conducive, or spent. This assertion shows that endangerment is not peculiar to languages but linguists are concerned with language endangerment. Thus, this study would look into the situation of Igbo language to know whether the outcry that Igbo language is endangered is true or not, taking the situations in the mass communication and educational system.

3. Literature Review

Emenanjo (2010) posited a research carried out in College of Education, Agbor, Delta State, Nigeria to know the people’s level of attachment to their language. It was revealed that the people had obvious attachment or love for their language.
as it was depicted that 90% of the respondents wanted their mother tongue revived and modernized while 82% of the respondents were strongly against English displacing their mother tongue and thus becoming the only language available in their posterity.

Again, research carried out about Usen, a Yoruboid language spoken in the Ovia North East Local Government Area of Edo State in Nigeria revealed that Usen was indeed endangered due to the attitude of its speakers which was as a result of political and linguistic dominion as well as rural-urban migration. Some intervention strategies were outlined to help to rescue the Usen language from going into extinct, since it was not being taught in schools in the Usen Community.

Ohiri-Aniche (2007) studied some adults from four randomly selected states in Nigeria to know whether the Nigerians were aware of the phenomenon of language endangerment and especially that their own language could become extinct before the end of the century. Findings of that study revealed that most Nigerians were unaware of the phenomenon of language endangerment and especially about the possibility of their own language becoming extinct within a few generations. Most of them would not want their language to cease to exist. So there was room for right actions to be pursued to halt the present march of the country's indigenous languages towards death and ultimate extinction.

This study differs from the above empirical studies because it looked at language endangerment from the angle of language vitality with focus on the Igbo language based on the language functions of an important indication of ethnolinguistic vitality.

The scope of this study covered the language functions of the Igbo language in the areas of teachers teaching Igbo language, students studying the Igbo language, and radio stations broadcasting Igbo programmes.

4. Research Methodology

Descriptive survey design was used for this study. It covered teachers teaching Igbo language between the years 2008 to 2012 in a given College of Education; and radio stations that broadcast Igbo programmes.

5. Population

The population of this study comprised three (3) Colleges of Education in the South East Educational Zone that offer courses for the acquisition of both Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) and Bachelor in Education (B.Ed). There were 45 lecturers in the Department of Igbo and other Nigerian language. Six (6) states that broadcast Igbo programmes in the radio were randomly selected which include: Abia, Anambra, Enugu, Imo and Lagos form the population for this study. Out of the entire population, one (1) College of Education with 17 lecturers; and 3 radio stations were randomly selected.

6. Instrumentation

Questionnaire was used to elicit the necessary information (data) and respondents cooperated very well. The data collected were analyzed based on how they are able to satisfy the language functions outlined by Stewart (1968) and Edward (1994) viz: educational, school subjects, literacy radio etc. The ability of the data to satisfy or not to satisfy the above findings will help to determine the ethnolinguistic vitality of the Igbo language and its status of endangerment.

7. Data Presentation Analysis

Here, data collected were analyzed and presented

Table I: Shows the three radio stations sampled and the number of Igbo programmes offered by each weekly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Radio Station</th>
<th>No of Igbo Programme per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bond FM 92.9, Radio Nigeria Ikoyi Lagos</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra Broadcasting Services Radio 188.5FM Awka</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio Sapientia, 95.3FM Onitsha</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the signs of language ethnolinguistic vitality is its ability to be used in radio and television broadcasting. For the purpose of radio broadcasting, three radio stations were sampled one national, one state and one privately owned.

Table 1 above shows that the national radio station in a non-Igbo speaking state offers sixty-six Igbo radio programmes per week. While the state radio station in an Igbo speaking area offers one hundred and forty one (141) Igbo programmes per week. On the other hand, the private radio station in an Igbo speaking area offers up to nine (9) Igbo programmes per week. This shows that radio broadcasting is one of the active functions which the Igbo language serves in the society. This implies that the Igbo language still has a strong ethnolinguistic vitality in the area of mass communication.

Table 2a: Staff Strength in Igbo Language Department

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fulltime lecturers</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time lecturer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 above shows the staff strength of Igbo language teachers in the Department of Igbo and other Nigerian languages of Nwafor Orizu College of Education, Nsugbe (NOCEN) Anambra State from 2008 to 2012. It revealed that the number of fulltime lecturers is on the increase while that of the part-time lecturers is declining within the stipulated period under review.

Table 2b: NCE students’ enrolment in the Department of Igbo and other Nigerian languages.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>275</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>96</td>
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</table>

Table 2c: B.Ed students’ enrolment in the Department of Education/Igbo linguistic

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Entry Student</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandwich Students</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTME student</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2b shows decrease in the number of students’ enrolment for those pursuing NCE while table 2c shows an increase in the number of students’ enrolment for those pursuing first degree in the Department of Education/Linguistics in affiliation with the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The simple explanation to this decrease and increase in the tables 2a and b above is that people want to acquire higher certificates. Thus, these tables confirm the educational function of the Igbo language as an aspect of ethno linguistics vitality. Language is said to serve educational function if it is used to educate people formally and informally or both. The above data revealed that Igbo language is still being used for communicative media and in education. Again, teachers teaching Igbo language and students studying Igbo language for the acquisition of higher certificate are on the increase as shown above in table 2a above.

8. Findings

The findings of this study show that Igbo language is employed for many vital language functions such as education and mass communication. The speaking of Igbo language is encouraged by law and radio broadcasters through radio broadcasters. Students in tertiary institutions studying Igbo language are increasing yearly. These show that the Igbo language is enjoying strong ethnolinguistic vitality and has a great chance for survival in the face of other languages that encroach on it due to the various social functions it serves. Thus the outcry that Igbo language will soon suffer extinction is not a reality but an overstatement.
9. Recommendations

However, recommendations are being made for proper preservation of Igbo language because prevention is better than cure:

1. Parents and guardians should be communicating with children/wards in their mother tongue/Igbo language in this context.
2. Policy makers and government should make sure that policy concerning mother tongue (Igbo language inclusive) is being implemented properly and the defaulters be brought to book.
3. Awareness should be created for the masses to know and understand the importance of safeguarding and promoting one’s mother tongue which is the carrier of one’s cultural heritage.
4. Investing in the research, text materials development of the Igbo language should be encouraged so that Igbo language would be in line with the globalization trend.

10. Conclusion

The finding of this study concerns with the revalorization of indigenous Nigerian languages strategy. This, according to Agbedo, Abata-Ahura and Edward (2012) postulated that revalorization refers to the new ideology which brings fresh dimensions to the mother tongue schooling system whereby indigenous languages of ex-colonial states of Africa and Asia are given added impetus in terms of value. The essential objective has been to invest in local language with added value and by so doing guarantee their advantage and practical use in education and other official purposes. Thus, considering the various language function which the Igbo language performs as discussed in this study, it should be said that Igbo language has taken bold steps towards the revalorization strategy.

It also agrees with Salawu (2004), that the mass media that use indigenous languages are important for the purpose of information, mobilization and continuity (survival of the language and culture). Again, the findings of this study was also supported by Salawu (2006) that radio stations across Nigeria actually contributed to the promotion of a number of the nation’s languages through various message types and programmes, chit-chats, and musical programmes.

References

English as a Global Language; Threat or Opportunity for Minority Languages?

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Deakin University

Abstract

The fast spread of English across the world has given an omnipresent status to the language and the reason to such worldwide dominance must be sought from various perspectives. In hot debates over global spread of English an issue which remains controversial is the threat of English to other languages, particularly those of less known communities and minority languages. Minority languages are rich reflection of multiethnic cultures and societies and carry a wealth of linguistic, historical, social, cultural, and anthropological information. Since these languages are under constant threat of marginalization and extinction, any attempt to protect and revitalize them would contribute to keep the linguistic diversity for future generation. As will be discussed, the idea of English as the killer language is simplification of a more complex phenomenon. For this purpose, first roles of minority languages are reviewed, next the literature for language shift and death is investigated and three challenging issues which seem to be concerns of global spread of English are discussed, then new roles of English in global scale are explored.

1. Introduction

Our world is home to 7,105 living languages; among them 1,481 are in trouble and 906 are dying (Ethnologue, 2013). As statistics of The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization indicate, it is estimated that if nothing is done half these languages spoken today will disappear by the end of this century. Seemingly, with the extinction of unwritten and undocumented languages, humanity would lose not only a cultural wealth but also important ancestral knowledge embedded, in particular, in indigenous languages (UNESCO, 2013). Among all these languages “English” is the only language which is spoken by more people as a second language than a first language and as observed by Crystal (2003) non native speakers of English outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1.

Crystal (2003) states that “a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country” (p. 3). He indicates that English is not the most significant global language because it is the mother tongue in most countries, but rather it is because of the special roles English plays within countries. The socioeconomic power embedded in English language gives it a high social status and encourages people to adopt it as the language in global context. Warschauer (2000) focuses on three critical issues which contribute to spread of English; globalization, academic and employment trend, new information technology. The revolution of ‘Information Technology’ and its combination with peoples’ everyday life promoted communication from local to international scale and did play a significant role to export English language to countries around the world. Accordingly, launch of World Wide Web, as the global medium of gaining and exchanging information, has ultimately fixed the dominance of English in the world. However, with so many social, cultural and linguistic variations in the world the metaphor of “global village” has not yet been accepted among critical sociolinguists and they believe in composition of the world as a complex web of villages (Blommaert, 2010; Jacobson, 2003). This particular approach to globalization seems promising and would have positive applications in teaching and learning English to students from various linguistics and sociocultural background.

2. Minority Languages

Language is a central feature of human identity and it is inextricably bound with identity and every language, as an integral part of a culture, is a rich heritage of that culture which mirrors its speakers’ identity. Gumperz (1982) believes that language “not only creates identity for its speakers but also identifies their social group membership” (p. 239). Like majority languages, minority languages are one of the influential ways to keep a nation in touch with its heritage. Such languages are valuable sources of human accomplishments and on-going manifestations of human civilisation, development and originality. They are also core values of ethnic cultures and identity. Minority languages, Lesser Used languages or Small languages as defined by European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages refer to languages
3. Language Death

A language is said to be dead or extinct when no one speaks it any more. Crystal (2002) explains that languages with only one speaker are already dead languages for language is considered alive only as long as there is someone to speak it to. He refers to implicit and explicit role of in extinction of Australian indigenous language and states that “in Australia, the presence of English has, directly or indirectly, caused great linguistic devastation, with 90% of languages moribund” (p. 87). Holmes (2008), on the contrary, believes that “many of Australian indigenous languages disappeared as a direct massacre of the aboriginal people or their death from diseases introduced by Europeans” (p. 58). As an example she refers to Tasmanian indigenous language which was exterminated with the death of its speakers. Even if accepting in Australia the dominance of English killed minority languages, this cannot be the basis for generalization. There were some extinct or disappeared minority languages which had never been exposed to English but disappeared (Holmes, 2008; Crystal, 2002). As in Latin America Crystal (2002) expounds that “English is not the language which is dominant throughout Latin America: if languages are dying there, it is not through any ‘fault’ of English” (p. 59).

The death of a language is not a social, cultural and linguistic concern. Ecolinguistics as a new paradigm of linguistic research equals linguistic loss as a symbol of a crisis of biodiversity by putting special emphasis on indigenous languages. They maintain that a wealth of ecological information will be lost as the language is lost. This school of thought regards saving endangered languages as an important part of the larger challenge of preserving biodiversity. For example, according to Keebe (2003) loss of a language is the permanent, irrevocable loss of a certain vision of the world and is comparable to the loss of an animal or a plant.

Languages die not just for one reason but due to a mixture of reasons. Draw on studies (Holmes, 2008; Crystal, 2002) there seems to be three general reasons for death of minority languages; physical damage to people (can include either massacre or epidemic), active antipathy to individual languages, globalisation and assimilation of one culture within a more dominant culture. The role of English as the dominant language cannot be traced in first and second reasons; moreover the second reason seems to be a personal choice. But the last reason, which according to Crystal (2002) is the biggest reason and encompasses range of areas, causes language shift and consequently gradual death for a minority language. In this sense it is necessary to differentiate between language death and language shift. Holmes (2008) explains difference between language shift and death maintains that “language shift generally refers to the process by which one language displaces in the linguistic repertoire of a community. A key word in this definition is “process” which implies as a series of actions, language shift happens in several steps and gradually.

4. Language Shift

Language shift refers to gradual displacement of one language by another. Hornberger (2010) proposes that language shift is manifested as loss in number of speakers, level of proficiency, or functional use of the language. According to Hoffman (1991) when a community does not maintain its language, but gradually adopts another one, we talk about
language shift. Fishman (1991) explains that language shift happens in "speech communities whose native languages are threatened because their intergenerational continuity is proceeding negatively, with fewer and fewer users or uses every generation" (p. 1). As the definitions imply 'use' or 'domain' of a language is a crucial factor to maintain it. Also, language shift is always preceded by bilingualism or multilingualism. People cannot shift to a new language unless they learn (have learnt) to speak the language.

Linguists and sociolinguists discuss range of factors contributing to language shift. Holmes (2008), mentions 3 reasons; first; economic, social and political factors, second; demographic reasons and third; attitudes and values. According to Kamwangamalu (2007) several factors are responsible for language maintenance or shift, “the most important among them being generation, the numerical strength of a group in relation to other minorities and majorities, language status and language attitude, socioeconomic value, education, institutional support, and government policies” (p. 227). Batibo (1992) also attributes language shift to a number of possible causes such as economic change, size of speech community, urbanization and relative degree of language prestige. As the studies on language shift suggest among the so many different reasons contributing to the phenomenon of language shift, socioeconomic, urbanization, attitudes and values are considered as the most influential ones. However, an important issue as Kamwangamalu explains is that these factors do not operate independently of one another but interact in complex ways to cause language shift in minority languages.

4.1 Socioeconomic Factors

In the era of intensified globalization, mobility of people across the world has increased too. English is accepted as the language of global discourse and gaining mastery in English language promises financial security as well as social adjustment. Paulston (1988) maintains that language shift only takes place if the language being shifted to has “social prestige and economic advantage, primarily in the form of source of income” (p. 5). Like Paulston, Holmes (2008) believes that obtaining work is the most obvious economic reason for learning another language. She indicates that job seekers see the importance of learning a new language which is widely used in business. The high demand from industries for employees with English fluency has successfully encouraged job seekers to equip themselves with English and being competent in English leads to well-paid jobs too. A clear example of this category is “immigrants”. When a group of different minority language communities live in a dominant context, they would have very little chance to practice their own language. This could happen both in internal and external migration. In both situations the speakers of minority languages have little chance to practice their local language and would have to shift to the dominant language; otherwise they would not be able to survive and would be isolated. Without shifting to the language of host context the risk of isolation and being isolated would increase too. Holmes (2008) explains that they (i.e. immigrants) see no reason to keep their language therefore shift to the dominant one. Moreover, in external migration the chance of practicing the local language is even more limited and the shift happens more consciously and at a faster pace. For example, the applicants who wish to work, live or study in Australia are required to pass English language proficiency test to be eligible to apply. This indicates that such applicants make a conscious choice to choose English otherwise they would not be eligible. In such cases pressure from wider society pushes them to gradually shift the language and adapt the language and culture of dominant context. The study of Borbely (2000) on the process and factors of language shift in the Romanian minority community in Hungary also confirms that one of the factors contributing to language shift is a new social, economic or political situation that greatly alerts the life of the community.

4.2 Urbanization

One of the most notable effects of urbanization is high degree of geographic mobility within a certain territory or community. The geographic mobility which is gained by urbanization creates opportunities for people from different language and culture or different varieties of the same language and culture to come into contact with one to another. As a result of these changes, some features of local language and culture are exchanged with wider culture and language or one culture is assimilated within a more dominant culture. This phenomenon has some negative sides too for it will lead to reduction in the number of languages spoken in the world and one possible reason could be the 'prestige' and 'usefulness' of some certain languages in the world and marginalization of some other ones (Tandefelt, 1994). A clear example of this is the status of Brazil's indigenous languages which have lost their speakers and been recognized as 'endangered' since the process of urbanization has been accelerated in different areas of Brazil (Muller, 2001). The same concerning story has happened in India; the development of urban centres in the tribal areas is one of the most important
causes of language shift and the direct relationship between urbanization and language shift indicates that “the higher the level of urbanization in an area, the higher the degree of language shift” (Ishtiaq, 1999, p. 108).

The study of Soylemez (2004) shows that language shifts during urbanization takes place at several stages; change in accent, assimilation of culture, change in language. These stages have a consequential order and happen one after another. His study showed meaningful relation between education and urbanization; “the higher one’s access to education, the more likely he or she is to undergo an advanced urbanization process” (p. 110). Therefore it seems reasonable to conclude that level of language shift can be attributed to degree of education during urbanization process. Although studies prove language shift in urbanization, this cannot be generalized to everyone who moved from rural regions to urban areas. Still there are some individual differences which play strong role and such individual characteristics might help people to maintain their first language.

4.3 Attitudes and Values

One of the important factors that impact on shift and maintenance of language is attitude (Holmes & Harlow, 1991). The speakers’ outlook and value system which is part of social value and system is the main determinant of language choice and influences people’s choice of which language to speak and which one to abandon. Baker (1992) defines attitude as “a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour” (p. 10). Personal attitudes and values in language maintenance or language shift are such strong forces that can cast a shadow over all aforementioned factors. Bilinguals or multilinguals have the freedom to choose the language they want in various situations.

Crystal (2002) uses the term ‘language suicide’ to explain how peoples’ attitudes and values toward their own language can kill that language. He argues that “people make a conscious decision to stop using a language or not to pass it on to their children” (p. 86). As can be seen in life of immigrants, those who wish to pass on their first language to next generation create more situations to expose children with the language such as holding regular meetings, reading their first language publication, and arranging cultural and religious ceremonies. In these cases living in a foreign country and presence of English as the global language not only fades their local language but also gets a powerful medium that enables them to convey cultural dynamics to the dominant context. The findings Hatoss’s study on Hungarian families living in Australia suggests that attitudes to the host society as well as the home culture play a significant role in language maintenance or shift (Hatoss, 2003). The findings of her study also indicate that keeping a strong Hungarian identity is a strong factor in intergenerational language maintenance, and the development of dual identities does not necessarily lead to language shift.


As it has been pointed at the outset of the study, critical sociolinguists view globalized world as a complex web of settlements connected by material and symbolic ties (Blommaert, 2010). Such approach to the globalized world has positive outcomes particularly in educational context, as it will lead educationalists to develop methodologies which will focus on English as a medium to connect the heterogeneous structure of the world. Jacobson (2003) mentions that having an appropriate sociolinguistic knowledge of one’s native language is an important tool in learning English. In case of minority speakers, such approach in teaching English minimizes the risk of cultural or linguistic imperialism.

Intensity, scale and scope of globalization which increases day by day make people learn English as a medium to compete internationally. In this view English is no more the killer language; rather it is a means of international communication which enhances cultural dynamics among speakers of different languages without threatening minority languages. Mc Kay (2002) discusses the significance of English as an International Language (EIL) and suggests that that “English is the key as an international language in a global sense in enabling countries to discuss and negotiate political, social, educational, and economic concerns” (p. 17). She emphasizes that learning English is necessary to have access for global discourses. Mc Kay’s view of English as an International Language frames English as an instrument of communication and expression of culture as she mentions that in global scale English enables speakers to exchange culture and idea. House (2003) differentiates between language for communication and language for identification. She explains how English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) enables people from different language background to converse in international scale and that this role of English minimizes threat to other languages. Clyne and Shanfian (2008) state that “English as the medium of international communication empowers all rather than just a particular group of speakers” (p. 8). Obviously favouring one particular variety of English as the Standard English gets threatening to minority language
speakers' identity and defers international communication, therefore scholars emphasize on different variations of English rather than one certain type (e.g. American or British English).

New roles of English (EIL or ELF) in global scale seem promising in process of globalization. Nevertheless, actualisation of detailed components in new roles of English requires revolutionary change in language policy and practice and the main obstacle would be ‘attitudinal’ (Clyne & Sharifian, 2008).

6. Conclusion

Every language (either minority or majority) carries a part of human culture, identity, history and civilization, thus their maintenance and revitalization is significant. The studies show that death of a language is a complicated and multi layer phenomenon which happens due to so many reasons. Among all reasons contributing to language death, socioeconomic factors, urbanization and attitudes and values are the commonly accepted reasons of languages shift. Research suggests that implementing English as either an International Language or Lingua Franca (EIL or EFL) not only provides the opportunities for social mobility and modernity but also eliminates the probability of losing the national language, which is the carrier of identity, by helping people to be identified to the whole world as they are given voices.

To keep native languages alive, it is not enough to value them; it is essential to use them. To survive language loss which is also identity loss, getting involved in international interactions and communications is required. In this sense globalized media can have a crucial role to support local languages. World Wide Web provides endless support to introduce local and minority languages interactively. Keeping written records or video records of minority languages also can help to pass it on to next generations. Educational strategies and suitable methodology to teach English increases people’s awareness and provides insights about the value of their local language.

Though in recent decades with increasing number of internal and external migration language shift has been studied extensively, still we are left with some dilemmas. Studies show that immigrant languages disappear through mother-tongue shift within three generations when immigrants or their immediate descendants do not teach their non-English language to the next generation (Ortman & Stevens, 2008). This is for sure a tragic ending for human languages. If this is the story of minority languages, then all aforementioned strategies are just suggestions to postpone language shift and let minority languages live longer. None of them can stop the process forever unless speakers change attitudes about their local language.

7. Acknowledgement

The author would like to express her sincere appreciation to her advisor Dr. Tricia Henry (faculty of arts and education, Deakin University) for her enthusiastic guidance and advice throughout this paper. Special thanks also go to the anonymous reviewers and editors for their valuable comments and suggestions to improve the article.

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Efficiency of the Extracts of Some Plants on Squash Powdery Mildew

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Abstract

Experiments were conducted under laboratory, greenhouse and field conditions to investigate the possible utilization of plant extracts to control Sphaerotheca fuliginea, the causal pathogen of squash powdery mildew. Six air dried plant materials, i.e. anise seeds, blue gum leaves, chamomile flowers, cumin seeds, marjoram herb and thyme herb, as well as three organic solvents (acetone, methanol, and petroleum ether) were used for extraction. Methanolic extracts (ME) of blue gum and thyme gave significant decrease in spore germination of S. fuliginea. Treating detached leaves with the organic solvents extracts (OSE) as preventive and curative treatments proved that the first was more effective than the second in controlling the disease. Spraying with (ME) of blue gum and thyme decreased powdery mildew disease incidence and increased total phenols. Also, spraying squash in greenhouse and field with the (OSE) as preventive and curative treatments gave sufficient control to the disease in most cases. However, the efficiency of the methanolic extract of thyme herb in controlling the disease as curative treatment was always comparable to that of the fungicide Aflugan.

Abbreviations: (ME) Methanolic extracts, (OSE) Organic solvents extracts, (D.S) disease severity, (LSD) least significant difference, (PEE) the petroleum ether extracts, (AE) acetone extracts.

1. Introduction

Saudi Arabia is an arid country which is located at 16° N and 32° E. Climate is characterized by long, hot, dry summer and mild, cool and short winter. The agricultural lands of Saudi Arabia, which are coarse textured containing salts to varying degrees and mostly irrigated with saline groundwater, are not considered suitable for some of the commonly grown crops (Al-Jaloud et al., 2001).

Powdery mildew of squash caused by (Sphaerotheca fuliginea, Schlect). Pollacci is the most serious disease attacked this vegetable crop. The disease causes considerable losses in yields in the field and greenhouse all over the world including Saudi Arabia (Martin, 1972; Aboul-Hayja et al., 1980; McGrath and Staniszewska, 1996; Mosa, 1997, Aly et al., 2003; Deliopoulos et al., 2008 and Kang, 2008).

The chemical fungicides have been used as the main strategy for control of powdery mildew disease and subsequently increases yield production (Abdel-Moneim et al., 1980; Keinath and DuBose, 2004; Wolf and Verreet, 2008). Unfortunately, the current and indiscriminate use of the fungicides posed a serious threat to human health, environment and production of fungicide resistant pathogen strains (McGrath, 1991; Garcia, 1993 and Durmusoglu et al., 1997 and Fernandez-Aparicio et al., 2009). The development of nontoxic alternative to chemical fungicides would be useful in reducing the undesirable effects of their uses. Fortunately, many plant extracts, including the medicinal and aromatic plants, were found to be effective in controlling squash powdery mildew disease (Ahmed, 1995; Tohamy et al., 2002; Mamdouh and Eweis, 2007 and Gilardi et al., 2008).

The antifungal substances present in the organic solvent plant extracts differed according to the solvent used in the extraction of medicinal plants (Qasem and Abu-Blan, 1996). Spraying cucurbit plants with some organic solvent plant extracts decreased the severity of powdery mildew under both greenhouse and field conditions (Cheah and Cox, 1995; Paik et al., 1996; Konstantinidou and Schmitt, 1998; Tohamy et al., 2002; La Torre et al., 2004; Mamdouh and Eweis, 2007 and Remus-Borel et al., 2009).

This investigation aimed to study the effect of organic solvent extracts (OSE) of six medicinal and aromatic plants on spore germination of S. fuliginea, the causal organism of squash powdery mildew. The effect of these (OSE) on the disease incidence and severity on detached leaves under laboratory as well as greenhouse and field conditions, was also studied. Moreover, the effect of spraying with (OSE) on squash leaves, previously inoculated with S. fuliginea, on phenolic compounds in the leaves was determined.
2. Materials and Methods

Six Saudi Arabia medicinal and aromatic plant materials namely anise seeds (Pimpinella anisum L.), blue gum leaves (Eucalyptus globules Labill.), chamomile flowers (Matricaria chamomilla L.), cumin seeds (Cuminum cyminum L.), marjoram herb (Majorana hortensis L.) and thyme herb (Thymus vulgaris L.) were used as fresh and air dried materials throughout this investigation to prepare organic solvent extracts (OSE). The finely ground air dried plant materials (25 and 50 gm) were soaked for 48 h in one liter of the used (OSE) (acetone, methanol and petroleum ether). The soaked plant materials were then extracted as mentioned by Kshirsagar and Mehta (1972).

2.1 Laboratory experiments:

2.1.1 Effect of the organic solvent extracts (OSE) on spore germination of S. fuliginea:

According to the methods described by Nair and Ellingboe (1962), powdery mildew spores of S. fuliginea (Schlect.) Pollacci, were harvested from only young leaves of summer squash (eskandarany var.). The new conidia were spread on dry clean glass slides carrying 1 ml. of each one of OSE at different concentrations Glass slides carrying 1 ml of sterile distilled water served as control. Each slide was then placed in a U-shaped glass rod in Petri-dish lined with moistened blotting filter paper with sterile distilled water and incubated at 25°C for 25 h. Five replicates were used for each treatment. After incubation, percentage of spore germination and germ tube length were determined in ten microscopic fields (X=10×40) for each replicate (slide). However, percentages of germinated spores were estimated according to the following formula:-

\[
\text{Percentage of germination} = \left( \frac{\text{No. of germinated spores}}{\text{Total number of spores}} \right) \times 100
\]

Whereas, germ tube length of germinated spore was measured using slide micrometer 2 mm long (2000µ).

2.1.2 Effect of organic solvents plant extracts (OSE) on powdery mildew disease incidence and severity of detached leaves:

This experiment was carried out according to the technique reported by Nagy (1983). Ten discs (each 2-cm-diam.) / Petri-dish of healthy squash leaves were placed on the polystyrene balls, then divided into groups. Discs of the first group were sprayed with each one of plant extract (50 gm/l water) 24 h before inoculation with powdery mildew conidia (preventive treatment), while those of the second one were sprayed 24 h after inoculation (curative treatment). For control treatments, discs were sprayed with distilled water only. Four plates were used for each particular treatment. Percent of infected discs as well as disease severity were determined after 7 days from spraying, according to Townsend and Heuberger (1943) and Biswas at al. (1992).

2.1.3 Effect of spraying leaves, infected by S. fuliginea, on their contents of phenolic compounds:

Squash plants, naturally infected by powdery mildew, were sprayed with the plant extracts tested just after the disease symptoms appeared. Phenolic compounds in the sprayed leaves were determined colourimetrically (Snell and Snell, 1953) as follows:

a) Phosphotungstic Phosphomolybdic acid reagent: Folin and ciocalteau phenol reagent according to Snell and Snell (1953), was prepared by transferring 100 gm sodium tungstate, 25 gm sodium molybdate and 700 ml. of water into a 1500 ml. flask. Then, 50 ml. of 85% phosphoric acid and 100 ml. of concentrated hydrochloric acid were added, attached to a reflex condenser and boiled gently for 10 hrs., then 150 gm of lithium sulfate (Li2SO4), 50 ml. of water and few drops of liquid bromine were added. To remove excess bromine, the mixture was boiled without the attachment of the condenser, cooled and diluted to one liter.

b) Determination of total phenols: Total phenols were determined as follows: 2.5 ml. of concentrated HCL were added to the 0.1 ml. of the sample, heated rapidly until boiling over a free flame, with provision for condensation, and placed in a boiling water bath for 10 minutes. After cooling, 1 ml. of the reagent and 5 ml. of
a 20% Na₂CO₃ were added. The mixture was diluted to 10 ml by water and after 20 minutes was determined at 520 nm against a reagent blank. The concentration of phenols was calculated as mg catechol from the standard curve.

c) Determination of free phenols: Free phenols were determined by adding 1 ml. of the reagent and 3 ml. of a 20% solution of sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃) to 0.1 ml. of the sample diluted to 10 ml. with warm water, 30-35°C, left to stand for 20 minutes and was read at 520 nm against a reagent blank. The concentration of phenols was calculated as previously mentioned.

d) Determination of conjugated phenols

The differences between the total and free phenols were calculated as the value of conjugated phenols.

2.2 Greenhouse experiments

2.2.1 Effect of organic solvent plant extracts (OSE) on squash powdery mildew incidence and severity:

Twenty-days-old, plants sprayed with water, were dusted with conidia of S. fuliginea by shaking mildew leaf samples over plant leaves. Plants were then sprayed with each one of the extracts tested, one week after inoculation. Plants sprayed with only tap water and Afugan fungicide[chemical formula: Diethyl-thionophosphory1) 5-methy1-6-carbethoxy pyrozolo-(1,5a)pyrimidine-0,0)-2, common name: pyrazophos Manufactured by Bayer Crop science Germany – imported by agreematco Agricultural company] (1 ml/l water) served as control treatments. Plant extracts were sprayed four times at 7-days-interval after inoculation. Four replicates (pots) were used for each treatment and control. Inoculated pot plants were kept on wet benches until disease development was realized.

Percentages of disease incidence and severity (disease parameters) were determined after 7 days from the last spray. Percentage of infected leaves relative to the total number of leaves per plant were considered as percentages of disease incidence. Whereas, disease severity was determined according to the scale of Townsend and Heuberger (1943) and Biswas et al. (1992). Plants of each particular treatment were classified into categories as follows:

0 = leaves completely healthy.
1 = 1-2 spots per leaf.
2 = 3-5 spots per leaf.
3 = 6-10 spots per leaf.
4 = up to 25 percent of the leaf area affected.
5 = up to 50 percent of the leaf area affected.
6 = up to 75 percent of the leaf area affected.
7 = more than 75 percent of the leaf area affected.

The percentage of disease severity (D.S) for each particular treatment was calculated using the following formula:

\[ D.S = \frac{\text{Sum of (n x v)}}{\text{Total no. of leaves observed in sample x max. gradings (7)}} \times 100 \]

Where

\( n \) = number of infected leaves in each category.
\( V \) = numerical value of each category.

The sum of numerical values were obtained by multiplying the number of leaves (observed in a particular grade) with their respective grading. Percentage of infection was determined on both upper and lower leaf surfaces and averaged.

2.3 Field experiments:

2.3.1 Effect of spraying OSE’s on disease incidence and severity

The effect of the aforementioned organic solvent extracts of six medicinal and aromatic plant extracts against squash powdery mildew disease incidence and severity were tested in the field during 2007 and 2008 growing seasons. The plants were sprayed with 50 gm/l water concentration of plant extracts as soon as the first signs of powdery mildew
symptoms were observed on leaves. Spray treatments were repeated four times at 7-days-interval. Plants sprayed with water and Afugan fungicide served as control treatment.

Percentages of powdery mildew incidence and severity were determined seven days after the last spray following the same procedures of greenhouse experiments.

3. **Statistics**

All measurements are the means of five replicates; the results obtained were processed by analysis of variance, and the significance was determined at the least significant difference (LSD) levels of 1 and 5% (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967).

4. **Results and Discussion**

4.1 **Laboratory experiments:**

4.1.1 **Effect of the organic solvent extracts (OSE) on spore germination of S. fuliginea:**

Data in Table (1) demonstrated that all the organic solvent plant extracts tested (OSE) were highly effective in reducing conidiospores germination and shorting germ tube length compared to the control treatment (water only). Percentages of reduction in germination were (15.77- 100%) with low dose (25 gm/l) and (28.39- 100%) in case of the high dose (50 gm/l). The length of germ tube was reduced by (1.85- 100%) and (9.32- 100%) with the low and high doses, respectively. The methanolic extracts (ME) of blue gum, marjoram and thyme as well as the petroleum ether extracts (PEE) of blue gum and marjoram inhibited spores germination completely at both concentrations. (25 & 50 gm/l), and were the superior treatments in this respect. In general, blue gum, marjoram and thyme were the best in terms of inhibitory activity, irrespective of the organic solvents and concentrations, exerting a reduction in spore germination of 33.46- 100% and shortening germ tubes in the range of 8.79- 100% relative to the control. Anise and chamomile as well as chamomile and cumin, however, were the least effective extracts on spore germination (15.77- 53.50% reduction) and on germ tubes length (1.85- 39.19%), respectively. As for all treatments, a significant positive correlation between the tested concentrations and the decrease in spores germination and shortening of germ tubes, was realized.

These results are in agreement with those obtained by Ahmed (1995) and Seddon & Schmitt (1999). Whereas, the inhibitory effect of the tested organic solvent extracts might be due to the solvent used in the extraction (Qasem and Abu-Blan, 1996), it is also might be due to bioactive materials present in these extracts (Taiz and Zeiger, 1991; Bogh-Sorensen, 1994 and Nakatani, 1994).

4.1.2 **Effect of organic solvents plant extracts (OSE) on powdery mildew disease incidence and severity of detached leaves:**

Data in Table (2) showed that spraying (OSE) tested decreased powdery mildew incidence and severity on detached leaves compared to the control. Disease reduction was significant when spraying was carried out 24 h before (preventive treatment) or after (curative treatment) artificial inoculation. Reduction percentages in disease incidence reached (24.81-100.00%) and (6.25- 37.50%) in the preventive and curative treatments, respectively. Similar trend was experienced with the reduction in disease severity (16.86- 100% and 6.05- 42.52%, respectively).

The methanolic extracts (ME) of blue gum and thyme plants completely prevented infection by powdery mildew, therefore, they were the best treatments among all the plant extracts tested. As for the time of spraying, all (OSE) applied as a preventive treatment were more effective in decreasing infection parameters than those applied as a curative treatment. Differences between the data obtained in these two cases, were significant.

Generally, the methanolic extract was more effective than those of the acetone extract and the petroleum ether extract in decreasing powdery mildew infection parameters in case of both spraying 24 h before or after inoculation. However, the best treatments in the same type of solvent extract were blue gum, thyme and marjoram when applied before or after inoculation.

These results could be attributed to the antifungal compounds in the extracts, which completely prevented infection in the preventive treatment (Herger et al., 1988; Ahmed, 1995; Seddon & Schmitt, 1999 and Tohamy et al., 2002).
4.1.3 Effect of extracts on phenolic compound contents in S. fuliginea inoculated leaves:

Data in Table (3) indicated that all plant extracts tested increased total phenols in leaves compared to these in the control (water only). The highest level of total phenolic compounds (1.21 mg/gm leaves) was obtained with ME of thyme which also reflected the lowest percentage of infection and severity. The lowest (0.69 mg/gm fresh leaves) was realized with the (ME) of anise and was accompanied with the higher infection and severity among (OSE) treatments. As regards to conjugated phenols, all treatments decreased their levels in treated leaves compared with the control, except in case of the (ME) of marjoram and thyme as well as the (PEE) of marjoram. In this respect, the (ME) of thyme gave the highest amount (0.48 mg/gm fresh weight), while the least (0.30 mg/gm fresh weight) was obtained with the (ME) of anise and the (AE) of thyme. On the other hand, all treatments increased free-phenols over the control, with the highest value with the (ME) of thyme (0.74 mg/gm fresh leaves). On the contrary, the least of 0.39 mg/gm fresh leaves was obtained with the (ME) and the (AE) of anise.

These results are in harmony with those reported by Daayf et al. (1995 and 1997) and Aly et al. (2003). This increase in total phenolic may have attributed to increase in the defense capability of plants to infection disease and development. The toxic phenolic compounds in plant cells were found to be act through: (1) the structure of bond form with cell wall components of plant tissues (Mahadevan and Sridhar, 1986), (2) enhance host resistant by stimulating host defense mechanisms (Subba Rao et al., 1988), (3) prevent the spread of fungal growth in plant tissues (Soni et al., 1992) and (4) penetrate the microorganisms and cause considerable damage to the cell metabolism (Kalaichelvan and Elangoven, 1995).

4.2 Greenhouse experiment:

4.2.1 Effect of organic solvent plant extracts (OSE) on squash powdery mildew incidence and severity

Data presented in Table (4) revealed that the application of extracts as curative treatment reduced percentages of incidence and severity of powdery mildew on squash plants. In this respect, differences between these treatment and the control were always significant. Among all the plant extracts tested, the (ME) of thyme, marjoram and blue gum as well as the (PEE) of chamomile was the least effective extract against powdery mildew infection if compared with the other treatment.

The highest reduction in disease incidence (76.83%) and severity (68.40%) was occurred with the (ME) of thyme if compared with all treatments tested, including Afugan fungicide (control). Efficacy of that plant extract in controlling powdery mildew was approximately equal to Afugan fungicide, which reduced disease incidence and severity by (76.12%) and (65.57%), respectively.

Good control against powdery mildew of cucumber (S. fuliginea) using different plant extracts, including organic solvent extracts was reported by several investigators all over the world (Hano et al., 1993; Reimers et al., 1993; Steck & Schneider, 1993; Dik et al., 1994 and Wurms et al., 1999). The success of these plant extract as effective curative treatment under adverse conditions of artificial inoculation might be attributed to their direct and/or indirect action on S. fuliginea present on the plant surfaces, disease infection and development as well as the host plant.

4.3 Field experiment

4.3.1 Effect of spraying OSE's on disease incidence and severity:

Spraying OSE's tested significantly reduced percentages of powdery mildew incidence and severity in the two experimental seasons (2007 & 2008) if compared with spraying with water only (Table 5 & 6 and Photo 1).

Among all the treatments tested in both trial seasons, the (ME) of blue gum, marjoram and thyme plant materials were the most effective in reducing powdery mildew disease parameters, without significant differences between them. However, the (ME) of anise and cumin as well as the (PEE) of anise were the least effective during the season (2007) (Table, 5). Whereas, the same reaction was recorded in the second season (2008) with the (PEE) of anise, chamomile and cumin plant materials as well as the (AE) of chamomile (Table 6).

Spraying with the (ME) of marjoram and thyme in the first season (2007) and the same type of extract of thyme at the second season (2008) were generally more effective than Afugan fungicide in reducing severity of powdery mildew. However, differences were not significant. Reductions by (68.98%, 70.36% and 66.95) were recorded in disease severity
at first season when the (ME) of marjoram, thyme and Afugan were tested, respectively, whereas, they were 67.75% and 68.31% for the (ME) of thyme and Afugan respectively in second season (2008).

Qualitative and/or quantitative toxicity of plant substances(S) in the (ME) of thyme herb might be more effective in controlling the disease than that of the other organic solvent extracts under field conditions (2007 and 2008). The success of this extract as effective control mean might attributed to its effect on the physiology of the causal fungus and/or host plant. In this respect, Natarajan and Lalithakumari (1987) found significant inhibition in respiration (oxygen uptake) in the fungal cells of Drechslera oryzae resulted in a general reduction of total protein, DNA and RNA as a result of the antifungal activity of plant extract.

Milasan flussong (a commercial product of plant extract as preventive treatment effectively controlled powdery mildew (S. fuliginea) of cucumber and seemed to involve the induction of plant defense responses (Herger & Klingauf, 1990 and Daayf et al., 1997). Wurms et al. (1999) provided, however, an evidence on the appearance of localized resistance from that prophylactic compounds resulted in collapse of powdery mildew mycelial and haustoria.

Control of the disease by spraying with (ME) of thyme herb was always comparable to that of the fungicide tested. This result was similar to those reported by Rovesti et al. (1992) and Abdel-Megid et al. (2001) on powdery and downy mildew diseases, respectively. On the contrary, the fungicide Afugan was more effective than some organic solvent extracts in controlling the disease. This action might be expected because the active ingredient of this fungicide is more effective in controlling the disease than that of the other organic solvent extracts under field conditions (2007 and 2008). The success of this extract as effective control mean might attributed to its effect on the physiology of the causal fungus and/or host plant. In this respect, Natarajan and Lalithakumari (1987) found significant inhibition in respiration (oxygen uptake) in the fungal cells of Drechslera oryzae resulted in a general reduction of total protein, DNA and RNA as a result of the antifungal activity of plant extract.

Table 1: Effect of organic solvent plant extracts on spore germination criteria in lab., 24 h. after incubation at 25°C and 100% relative humidity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Solvent*</th>
<th>25 gm/1</th>
<th>Red.**</th>
<th>50 gm/1</th>
<th>Red.**</th>
<th>25 gm/1</th>
<th>Red.**</th>
<th>50 gm/1</th>
<th>Red.**</th>
</tr>
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<td>39.47</td>
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* The extracted plant parts with the organic solvents; methanol (A), Acetone (B) and petroleum ether (C).

** Reduction relative to the control treatment.

L.S.D. at 5% for:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>The extracted plant</th>
<th>Disease incidence</th>
<th>Disease severity</th>
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<td>(E)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(T)</td>
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<td>(C)</td>
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<td>E x T x C</td>
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...
Table 2: Effect of organic solvent plant extracts on powdery mildew incidence and severity on detached leaves, artificially inoculated with S. fuligines spores, 24 h before or after spraying.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
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<th>24 h before inoculation (%)</th>
<th>24 h before inoculation (%)</th>
<th>Disease incidence (%) on sprayed leaves at:</th>
<th>Disease severity (%) on sprayed leaves at:</th>
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<td>64.00</td>
<td>-</td>
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* The extracted plant parts with the organic solvents; methanol (A), Acetone (B) and petroleum ether (C).
L.S.D. at 5% for:
- Disease incidence
- Disease severity

Table 3: Effect of foliar spraying with organic solvent plant extracts on phenolic compound contents of leaves.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Solvent*</th>
<th>Disease incidence (%)</th>
<th>Disease severity (%)</th>
<th>Free-Phenolic compounds (mg/gm) as:Conjugated-Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Anise</td>
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<td>49.71</td>
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<td>48.17</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>41.26</td>
<td>50.72</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>41.94</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>45.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43.94</td>
<td>41.90</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control (water only)</td>
<td></td>
<td>73.33</td>
<td>80.67</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Extraction from plant parts obtained with the organic solvents; methanol (A), Acetone (B) and petroleum ether (C).
Table 4: Effect of foliar spray of OSE’s on incidence and severity of powdery mildew, 7 days after artificial inoculation with S. fuliginea spores under greenhouse conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Solvent*</th>
<th>Disease incidence (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
<th>Disease severity (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anise</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>48.98</td>
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<td>30.77</td>
<td>62.31</td>
<td>42.48</td>
<td>43.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>47.61</td>
<td>41.69</td>
<td>48.89</td>
<td>34.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue gum</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>21.91</td>
<td>73.17</td>
<td>31.85</td>
<td>57.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>51.01</td>
<td>37.78</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
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<td>67.43</td>
<td>31.66</td>
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<td>Chamomile</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>57.41</td>
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</tr>
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<td>40.55</td>
<td>49.19</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>46.11</td>
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<td>C</td>
<td>43.32</td>
<td>46.94</td>
<td>51.08</td>
<td>31.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marjoram</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>21.83</td>
<td>73.26</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>50.95</td>
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<td>42.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thyme</td>
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<td>76.83</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
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<td>19.50</td>
<td>76.12</td>
<td>25.66</td>
<td>65.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Plants were sprayed weekly for 4 weeks with methanolic extract (A), acetonic extract (B) and petroleum ether extract (C).
** Reduction relative to the control (spraying with water only).

L.S.D. at 5% for:
- Disease incidence: 5.79
- Disease severity: 2.50

The extracted plant (E) = 5.79
Solvent (T) = 3.18
E x S = 7.79

Table 5: Effect of foliar spray of OSE’s on incidence and severity of powdery mildew on squash plants, grown under natural infection in the field during season 2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Solvent*</th>
<th>Disease incidence (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
<th>Disease severity (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>21.59</td>
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<td>45.93</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>49.71</td>
<td>32.21</td>
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<td>28.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue gum</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>59.09</td>
<td>31.65</td>
<td>60.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>35.78</td>
<td>51.21</td>
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<td>47.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>57.89</td>
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</tr>
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<td>40.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>34.50</td>
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<td>56.06</td>
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<tr>
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<td>13.72</td>
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<td>66.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
** Extraction from plant parts obtained with the organic solvents; methanol (A), Acetone (B) and petroleum ether (C).
** Reduction relative to the control (spraying with water only).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Solvent*</th>
<th>Disease incidence (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
<th>Disease severity (%)</th>
<th>Reduction**(%)</th>
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<td>water only</td>
<td>60.11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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</table>

* Extraction from plant parts obtained with the organic solvents; methanol (A), Acetone (B) and petroleum ether (C).
** Reduction relative to the control (spraying with water only).

L.S.D. at 5% for:

- Disease incidence: The extracted plant (E) = 3.43
- Disease severity: The extracted plant (E) = -2.68
- Disease incidence: Solvent (T) = 3.41
- Disease severity: Solvent (T) = 2.21
- Disease incidence: E x T = 8.36
- Disease severity: E x T = 5.42

Table 6: Effect of foliar spray of OSE's on incidence and severity of powdery mildew on squash plants, grown under natural infection in the field during season 2008.

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* Photo 1: Effect of foliar spraying ME plant extracts on severity of powdery mildew (S. fuliginea) on squash. ME of: thyme (A), blue gum (B) and marjoram (D).

C = Untreated control (Spraying with only water).
References


Art and Technology:  
Visual Literacy as an Effective Way of Manipulating the Environment

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Abstract

‘Technology’ derives from the Greek word ‘τέχνη’= techni (=art). The term ‘technology’ could be perceived as a means of control and imposition of man on his natural environment. Moreover, because of technological changes and the success of new products, the processes which reduce the feeling of uncertainty are strengthened. However, human standards secede from man and the equation of living organisms, human societies, systems, concepts is not slow to cast doubt upon the cybernetic control models which manipulate these equations and their natural surroundings. At a time when limits, symbols, associations, experiences no longer stand and the new postmodern world is made up of simulations that are not based on ‘reality’, visual learning sets constants, since it allows an insight in the perceptual relations of the surrounding forms and the internal structures. According to contemporary neurobiological findings, our everyday life is filled with secondary references to phenomena, while the brain is programmed to process authentic sensory data and compare causalities. In a pixel world, the distinct convention between perceptor and stimulus, signifier and signified does not exist. Art functions in an abstract way, not additionally. The structures of the work of art inform per se and not inductively. Therefore, the way of perception, analysis and use of image is based on a non-verbal neuronal organization.

Keywords: Visual Culture, Visual Percepts, Simulacra, Era of Images, Visual Thinking

1. Project objective

A point of major importance for this study is the realization that until the mid 20th century and soon afterwards an escape that was not geographical was leading to interesting artistic forms of creation, full of extreme existential tensions; was creating a new art based on great artistic traditions such as Dadaism, in movements such as expressionism, critical realism; an art that was conversing with the history and the soul of a place, of a city on the world map, with people as a physical presence, as viewers. However as of the late 20th century onwards, with the advance of representational mechanisms, we witness an interruption of limits, symbols, associations, experiences, continuity as an escape is intended through the new technologies. Yet this entails the risk that man is nullified within the world of machines, apparatuses, tools.

Edgar Morin states that if we want to see the world correctly, we must watch ourselves watching the world. Today, there is no return to things, the pair of concepts being and appear is not legitimized since we do not start from the forms of things, from their possibilities to be formulated, so as to proceed to the interpretation of the modes of their representations using a methodology -a guide- to comprehend their objective adaptation. In a world of virtual reality, we can not discern similarities, since the reference is not to a realistic or transcendental reality, but to a constructed reality anew in the form of a digital, mathematical model. The real has to be described, not constructed or established, so according to Merleau Ponty, the world is not a matter of a composition, but a natural environment and the field of all thoughts and explicit perceptions of each and every observer.

In antiquity, Murray Peter¹ (Murray Peter, 1997) argued, the column was perceived as similar to the human body and often in proportion to it. So, the classic building is analogous to the human body. Since then however, and more specifically from the early 20th century, the non-figurative representations of the world (eg K. Malevich)² prevail and as a consequence the level, and thus the man at its center, disappears. Man ceases to be a participant in a fight for the

reorganization of the experiential (Sherman W., Craig A., 2002); he turns instead to his close ties with machines, not as objects regardless of human nature, but as bonds of the human body with them. Machines are considered artificial extensions of human skill for movement and work, computer keys are an extension of our body. Yet the machine implies a reckoning of the temporary, destruction and death, while the structure is associated with a sense of eternity (Guattari F., 1995). Today, the tendency is for the manner of interaction with computer not to be defined by keyboards and monitors anymore, but by wireless networks, neural implants. In this way the digital world is incorporated in our daily life, no separation exists.

2. Introduction

The new postmodern world is made up of simulations. Baudrillard discusses the topic of simulation and simulacra that are not based on 'reality'. Virilio disagrees with Baudrillard on the issue of simulation and proposes the term substitution. Virilio believes that there are two kinds of reality: active and virtual reality. The new reality being proposed is the non-material, alongside the existing. Thus, many researchers argue that the disappearance of syntax and semiotics and the creation of the absolutely operative formula for everything, for digital, not as a second immaterial reality, but to a grid of capabilities, open up to a universe with limitless potentialities, a simultaneous management of digital and natural space. The focus remains on the main features of virtual environments as open-ended educational environments. Virtual and physical coexist and intertwine. The quality that allows us to be both physically and virtually into a representation is called virtualization.

The excitement for virtual reality is founded on its reshaping of our vision of people and the world we live. Virtual reality will be a place to overcome the natural laws of gravity, a space of projection of the imaginary. This satisfies the interest due to finding new evidence, overcoming the data and participating of the operators of specialized technology without any effort to defend any plausibility, any ambiguous perception of viewers. Holographic images, electronic networks, decorporalisation within the web, complexes and clusterings of data in a non-space of the mind; the user moves as disembodied information. All this could be considered as victories of space and time, echoing a distant desire for a transcendental world, in accordance with the transcendental world of the soul of Plato. It is the replacement of an old historical world of empirical immediacy (Eddings, 1994), the limits of space and time, with the theories of light and velocity.

In a world like this, the images are attached to the retina of the eye, are implanted in the brain and are perceived as our own. The world of computers, now a tactile world, does not allow the observation and the distance for an understanding of the world. Thus we are talking about a space without considering the body, and subsequently the resistances, the friction, the needs and we translate any feeling or sense in visual subjects. Virtual environments have brought on several devices of new technologies, but the basic direction is for these technologies to be adapted to the human particularities and not vice versa. Bricken says that the essence is inclusion, that the primary defining characteristic of virtual reality is inclusion, being surrounded by an environment. The users have experiences in the virtual environment (Pimentel and Teixeira, 1992), interacting and changing parameters of this environment.

According to Bartle (2003) virtual environments are persistent, because there is a common feeling of space (spatiality), the illusion of presence in the same place (virtuality) (also, see Hamit, 1993), the common sense of presence, which takes place mostly through anthropomorphic characters (avatars) and that they continue to exist despite the user’s non-participation. The comparison is highly interesting between the virtual environments with the communication model of D.Hymes (1967), the SPEAKING, (S: setting P: participants E: ends K: Key l: instrumentalities N: norms G: genre). He sought to analyze empirically the discourses through the communicative circumstances in the

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rituals of primitive societies.

This communicative model proves that the multiple process of communication must be approached in a more global way. Hymes claims that the setting is no “blank space”, but that settings reveal experiences, cultural demands, social data of every region and period. Participants with flesh and bones do not wander about, nor are transferred, but they act in a certain place under special circumstances, so the goal/end is not just that the user is not kicked out of the game and ‘Game Over!’ The keys of action recall some basic themes of the fantastic according to Tzvetan Todorov, such as the distortion of time and space, the dark places of hell, death, the journey to the beyond, the return of the dead. Norms in this chaos, hardly defined, as Sartre says in Nausea that if there is order, what have I to fear? In a state of uncertainty, in a state of constant changes, though, we no longer learn to negotiate lifestyle choices, to give them meaning, but it is impossible to understand and feel the experience of living and the experience of human life, as a setting of desires, conflicts and resistances. The genre today is in danger, since the nature of the human body has been radically modified and its hitherto specific biological limits have been challenged. In the Age of the Images, in a world of screens, the new language is polysemic and not precise, based on the logic of Family Resemblance Theory, a "communality of use" because it facilitates everyone's identification with the subject. The fewer the details, the easier it becomes to see the person displayed as a symbol, a reference concerning everyone, or the display of a leveling logic. The logic of the global village is after all leveling. When no issues of a consensual culture are raised, a hybrid form develops, even if it appears extremely controversial. Manners of a genuinely interactive critique are eliminated and in a world constantly supervised the perceiver is an object of information, never an active subject of communication.

Today the question should be asked why information is transmitted freely in such a volume globally putting aside sociological, historical differences and addressed to a heterogeneous audience with success. Ambiguity allows 'communality of use' because it facilitates everyone's identification with the subject. The fewer the details, the easier it becomes to see the person displayed as a symbol, a reference concerning everyone, or the display of a leveling logic. The logic of the global village is after all leveling. When no issues of a consensual culture are raised, a hybrid form develops, even if it appears extremely controversial. Manners of a genuinely interactive critique are eliminated and in a world constantly supervised the perceiver is an object of information, never an active subject of communication. Aesthetics is presented as a way of life, as if ceaseless production an end in itself. A universal human fate is predicted or collective human targets are prescribed. We must ask ourselves if we focus on what we see or what we know and also if something captures our attention.

Baudrillard had described the postmodern condition as a state of affairs where the clearly separate spheres of economy, politics, art and sexuality at the modernist period collapse into another. Moreover, the dream of inseparability between art and life is realized and, according to Baudrillard, with the materialization of art in everyday life art as an isolated and transcendentual phenomenon disappears. Baudrillard calls this condition transaesthetics -everything becomes a sign, an image, a spectacle, a transaesthetic object- which he relates to similar phenomena of transeconomics, transpolitics, transsexuality, just as everything also becomes trans-economic, -political, and -sexual, since among various fields of sciences and knowledge the dividing lines are eroded and the boundaries are blurred. The result is a hazy condition where there are no more criteria of value, judgment, or taste, and where the function of the normative thus collapses in a morass of indifference and inertia. And precisely this is the reason why art has become more necessary than ever for the construction of contemporary social order.

If the strong observational criterion is dissolved, then the ethic of the actual fact is introduced as a new ethical issue. Art has fought for a long time to free itself from this ethic using the Aristotelian definition of ‘as if’. Especially today that the human experiences of real life have been substituted by the experiences one lives through the digital reconstruction of the most superficial features of life, a need is created to review concepts such as spacetime, matter-

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energy, information, virtual, real, intelligence, life and humanity. The new semantic environment requires a corresponding approach in comparison to the monotropic, relatively limited cultural products of the past. The current complex phenomenon of fluxes and formations, which is constantly being transformed in atopic spaces, and also the hybrid entity, the result of the integration of digital imagery in social structures and functions, continuously transform human consciousness and social body.

According to contemporary neurobiological findings, our everyday life is filled with secondary references to phenomena, while the brain is programmed to process authentic sensory data and compare causalities. Humans think well-roundedly when there is an equivalent and complementary function of the two hemispheres of the brain. The logical- analytical classifications, calculations, numbering, details, the conceptualization of individual elements take place in the left hemisphere, while the right hemisphere specializes in the holistic conception of complex situations, relationships, recall, corrects decisions. It uses all elements, such as images, allegory, parable, metaphor, synecdoche, ratio, ambiguity, pun, implicature, paradox, the seemingly absurd, and these exactly are all qualities of modern art. Art allows the discovery of different dimensions of reality, various modes of behavior, distinctive types of personality or social groups and are included emotional, intuitive and imaginary dimensions in a basically rational process.

In a pixel world the magnitude has changed, because images are magnified to million times their size and pixels are isolated. An excessive focus on isolated settings overturns compactness, where it was expected to be perceived from previous experience. A time delay is possible between the identification of the contour and the function of recognition of compactness. The effect is to upset the whole process that starts by the reception of the percept and ends in the concretion of a concept. The human retina is driven to a training for passive vision. An awareness substitutes the process of consciousness as a result of constantly training the human retina for passive vision. With faint differences and habits we end in a series of generalizations, a Propp's type of logic. The desire to bring things closer and render them manageable destroys the natural way of relating to objects.

Systems consume energy -we know that living systems are open systems, organizational complexes which are far from balanced; Prigozine classifies them in dissipative structures and only art works precisely as an open field away from the closed concept systems and alienated relationships. In a tumult of aesthetic forms and hedonism -without classical and modernist terms- but with an art as eidolon, artifact, object, simulation or commodity, we should keenly proceed to movements of thawing knowledge and changing the limits of consciousness, attempts to change and defend versus reflexes and visual delusions through advertising, entertainment and market demand. The sensualist education needs to be positioned anew in the intersection of critical pedagogy and political practice. Art is not a commodity and unlike marketable visual results from the entertainment industry, it is preoccupied with the production of endosystemic data, wants to produce the minimum, ie the internal consistency required of art works, so that they can eventually produce a meaning.

The common global pool of culture, information, advertising and entertainment manipulates viewers’ gaze so they peep. Let us call this peep shortgaze, because it is weak, blurred or short-circuited. Berger argues that humans have become fully immune to the emotional power of pictures that depict suffering. Pure war in the field of culture is mapped out, according to Virilio, but a visual ‘buffer zone’ is created, that there is a false distance by the media between war and the rest of us. Sophie Ristelhuber Sophie depicts only places of war, and not participants, craters created by the bombs, burning oil wells, debris in the abandoned battlefield.

The flaws and the gaps between an image and reality will be detected by visual literacy and in reality will positively taken advantage of. One needs to use the inverted mechanism of advertising seduction and the technique of photomontage, such as Martha’s Rosler work. Art feeds vision, memory and ultimately consciousness, since art is not consistent with short gaze. Visuality doesn’t allow for adhering to outdated ideals, nor to be carried away by the current zeitgeist. Adorno argues that art knows us better than we know ourselves, intensifies processes of self-examination and attempts to try new roles, positions, relationships, ultimately a transformed vision.

4. Methods

The construction of any image employs a grammar, a syntax, that is a sequence is constructed with a choice of sizes, equations which establish the concept that is managed by the projected image. Everything is possible through the image, but now with image printing, digital printing, everyone with an image archive, what legislate the creation of the image is the absence of a new language, but the adoption of the common taste and for the impression to be given that everything

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is being committed and everything is repealed. A escapist ethic is a proposed, no need for active thought. Standardized and prefabricated products are offered, market principles are followed to the letter leading to an erosion of authenticity and meaning of social life and also the non-occurrence of broader social goals18.

The observation of art works activates reflective thinking. The term ‘Sehformen’ defined psychologically by Wölfflin as ‘forms of beholding’ is not simply perceptual readiness, not only requires familiarity, empathy, but homeostatic capacity, homeostasis, an ability that demands persistent training of vision, comparable to that of the artist. We must be fully aware and supervise the special character of art mediums and the internal structural elements of art. Not only a favourable social environment but also the exposure to the arts constitutes protective situations for maintaining homeostasis. Burch17 gives a definition of the form in cinema that is both temporal and spacial: The form of a work is that mode of being which ensures its unity while tending to promote, at the same time, the greatest possible diversity. Therefore, art forms enhance the ability of individuals to cope with these stimuli that cause disruption of the sense of well-being.

Perception is a creative process and the aesthetic processes should be assessed by understanding the necessary volume of calculations, as well as the subtle abstract processes that resulted in the aesthetic experience. The technique of triangulation -an imaginary triangle defined by the eyes and the object- provide a way to estimate the size and the position of the object. Visual ability is directly related to the perception of extracorporeal space and mainly its three-dimensional (3-D) perception. We humans perceive color in very subjective terms and there are many colours that artists can use in their paintings to increase the sense of space and atmosphere. A painting in vibrant colors activates the brain area V4, such as works of Matice, Bram van Velde, Hans Hofmann etc. In paintings of the Fauves and the Expressionists color becomes a way of seeing. Barnett Newman showed how the amount of autonomous color can be expanded explosively without turning the painting into a decorative object. Color acts as a receptive vehicle, is a means or a material object in the hands of the artist. Rudolf Arnheim argues that the painting focuses more on our sensibilities for the lines, colors and composition than representationality.

The creation of a painterly and emotional space simultaneously, either the artist managing to produce meaningful lines or the line not being there to describe or settle things with the aim of narration -ie it is not there in any way to represent objects belonging to world (see the work of Twombly), therefore either the boundaries between drawing and painting are settled or else merge, the aim being for the visual feelings to penetrate consciousness in a deeper way than the simple act of observation and recording of its findings. The small difference between the data of the pure phenomenological observation, awareness and recording fragments of memory becomes the defining difference between the action of drawing and painting. From the middle to the end of the 20th century the philosophy of the sketch followed the general migratory trend of period, a trend that ultimately affected the consistency of the endosystemic elements of the medium itself, which until then appeared “grosso modo” as compact, but limited as to the potential for autonomy in the area of high art.

The manner in which the artist handles their visual intelligence and makes a decision and not another -ie the preliminary sketches for Picasso’s Guernica or how much the landscape at Lake Thun and the surrounding area fascinated artists such as August Macke, Paul Klee and Louis Molliset in April 1914 in their trip to Tunis- but also the position of the spectators regarding these issues pose questions of attitudes and positions regarding crucial issues touching on life itself. Our familiarity is achieved by the interpretation of complex and controversial issues and the willingness to be receptive to alternative perspectives beyond the given and the mainstream18.

Edward Tufte claims that the principles of visual analytical design are universal and not linked to any particular language, culture, style, gender or optical information technology. He explains in detail the six fundamental principles of analytical design: 1. an emphasis on the depiction of comparisons, contrasts, differences, 2. an emphasis on causality, possible underlying mechanisms of similarity and difference, explanation, systematic structure, 3. precise appearance of all the possible multivariate data with more than one or two variables, 4. attentive integration of words, numbers, images, diagrams, 5. thorough description of the evidence, use of detailed titles, substantiation, mention of authors and sponsors, of the data sources, complete measurement scales, pointing out relevant issues, 6. analytical presentations from which the reception or not of the work depending on the quality, relevance and the integrity of the content is primarily based on. He declares that the purpose of an evidence presentation is to assist thinking and that these six principles of analytical design are derived from the principles of analytical thinking. The request that the art work presupposes is the special observation, the energetic looking at. Visual literacy sets constants since it allows one to indulge in the perceptive

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relations of the forms around one and the internal structures.

The response to the data of contour, texture, color, full scale and vacuum, the background and the figure and the relations between them, the scale problems, led to the enforcement of the so-called "hard" criteria. The necessity for the existence of criteria such as time, space and their angle of convergence, signals such as form, color, features, deeds, intensity, duration, purpose, are the necessary tools to approach works of art, even if works of art are not representative samples of scenes into the real world, certainly they refer to the real world. So, a reorientation of educational purposes is necessary for all students, in practice, in a real educational environment, an artistic training educational curriculum must be implemented and surely the expected outcome will be very interesting and will bring out a variety of remarkable results. We applied the formalistic model of Karl Aschenbrenner in students (in the Greek Second Chance School in Kozani, during the years 2008/2009 - 2009/2010 and in Higher Education, in the Technological Educational Institute of Western Macedonia in the academic years 2006/2007 until 2010/2011) and our students developed resistance to sentimental excitations, learned to encode images and use formalistic criteria (criteria of form, of structure, of color) to explore the elements of two types of images (art pictures and utilitarian, such as advertising, mainstream cinema, video games, acute visual reportage, etc.). We developed sets of criteria, criteria of coherence, criteria of clarity, criteria of settings, criteria of proportion, criteria of story line and decoding and deciphering the images' structural elements. A high resolution imaging that almost blurs into the images of mainstream cinema ended in an excellent technical photographic library, to which we are entitled to 'commit sacrilege'. Also, as concerns spatial requirements we examined if a space is a closed or open place, if it is a city or the countryside, if there is difficulty in locating or there is ease respectively, the extent, the continuity, an order, not simply a range, a proximity between any action and the first reaction. As concerns the temporality we studied the duration, the rhythm, the frequency, the continuity, the order, so as to clarify the function of visual percepts as a means of border, as a means of warning or as a medium of discrimination or of orientation, as a means of communication, as a means of learning, as a means of overlapping, as a means of harassment, as a means of identification, or as a medium stimulant or calmative.

The aesthetic experience –particular practices of individual artists, such as in the atlas of visual and mnemonic redesign of Aby Warburg- enhances additional forms of intelligence, such as the kinesthetic, virtual, spatial-temporal, interpersonal, intrapersonal since they process a multitude of symbols and their use, as it becomes possible to express holistic and subtle meanings and also to delineate of emotional states.

5. Results and Discussion

Visual learning in the public educational system -such as the work of Addison, Burgess, Steers, Towell- tries to overturn the climate that has been created is so aptly described by a Greek poet, Titos Patrikios, in one of his poems: ‘There are small deaths / Secondary amputations: teeth falling, hair, glands function slowly / It is mainly the current sensations that hardly transforms into images’ (my translation). This poem is entitled Today's consciousness. Aesthetic functions as way of action and “existence”, that means there is no ‘direct’, no personal experience, but visual percepts depend on forms suggested by advertising, mainstream cinema, video games, etc. A new phenomenon being observed, a strange return of the presumed universality which is based on subjective principles. Today's narratives have solved the fundamental problem that lies in the dilemma of intellectuality and naivety. Tried forms of fairytales, which have no rules and parameters. The story is fantastic, but has common codes. Stories addressed to a global audience, thus it is necessarily to smooth over any differences. Stories are dominated by an exoticism, avoid reality, which has a decorative function. The fighter is confused with someone who consumes his power in agonistic displays. It lacks any sense of proportion of the scale of deeds, so the conflicts conform to these errors of judgement or are adjusted to the absence of any measure. The style and ethos of this constantly revolving stage disguise is cultivated, making easier changes in cultural fields, not to emphasize attempts to smooth progress through social structures autonomous (per se), but as a change imposed from external powers that emerges as a positive strength, so there is no need for any resistance. Adorno claims that form cannot fail to express the crisis, in times where history is in crisis.

The intended purpose is for students to get used to dealing with works of art productively, since art enables them to explore issues and practices, but also to generate knowledge on the school premises, as opposed to the traditional educational techniques of passive reception of knowledge. Till now, the cornerstone of an educational programme is the philosophy of language, which is everywhere and leads to the reproduction of hierarchies in power relations and the setting is used to determine relationships: eg “figure is an index of containing space,” and many times, the primary

"stable" figure is the institution, according to Cornelius Castoriadis\textsuperscript{20}, whereas in the pictures of visual art (sculpture, painting etc.) the figure used by itself. A work of art must be accompanied by a condition sine qua non: the absence of functional cause and pronunciation of aesthetic cause. The seemingly neutral indications of where, when, how, what, as elements of everyday life of people, imply a rich and complex stratification of information. Visual literacy offers a new perception to consciousness for familiar surroundings and terra incognita and its topological recordings, eg the characteristic work of Julie Mehretu (Dispersion, 2002, Black Ground, 2006). The composition, the title of the painting in artists such as Kandinsky (Kandinsky\textsuperscript{21}) claims that composition is the necessary internally subordination of isolated elements and construction with a specific pictorial view) or Mondrian, seems to signify that their works reflect the very process of their creation. The emphasis is on the use of learning environments outside school, with students participating in debates, exhibitions, activities and on the creation and maintenance of collective social relations, on the interactive and equal communication. In the foregoing analysis we see that these are the prerequisites for achieving any learning goal and one should try to master the heap of visual fragments ‘debris’ and the excessive production of images.

Visual thinking cultivates the development of communication skills, the ability of expression, self-awareness and empathy as it feeds the reflective imagination. According to Stafford\textsuperscript{22}, the ways of learning based on the senses help achieve the transcendence of the limitations of logocentrism and the hierarchies that dominate it, such as read/see, text/image, mind/body. The most important thing is for students to discover what they want to do, while imagining themselves and how they might do it, on the heuristic problem-posing model of Addison mapping the possibilities of art practice as a mode of research within education (personal training of students, primarily, who are driven to request a special observation that implies the artwork). A commitment between teachers and students that learning is approached through continuous research, with strategies that are changed and redefined in response to each new learning experience. A critical attitude emerges, not so much as concerns the narrative, but the form, which acts as a counterpart of the practice of gaze denial. This acquires the role of a reaction to the emancipation of our gaze from spectacles (eg war as a spectacle) in media. The great contribution of the intelligence of sight and the other ways of learning through our senses strengthen our efforts to survive in post-modern urban receptors (megacities). Visual training acts in opposition to the education of other cognitive fields, and that while the teacher intervenes in an abstractive way, through precisely this release of the image from concepts, we will be able to recognize the difference.

6. Conclusion

The basic aim is that students make a resolve to avoid mechanical answers, to clarify terms and concepts without knowing ways of labeling, codifying and deciphering the structural elements of images, in effect without external guidance. Only in works of art is it the case that there are no presupposed key concepts, as in science and artifacts, but art proceeds by presenting a certain inevitability, although this inevitability is not based on objectives. The process of an artwork production involves random movements, risks and danger, but only in the meaning of the composition can modern art be interpreted. An art which serves purposes does not become a mechanism. The gaze "penetrates" the observable form and penetrates additionally a "hidden" meaning. Seeing is an experience. Virilio said that the field of vision always seemed to him similar to the archaeological field that is ready for excavation. The really interesting pedagogical tool for vision training is the way in which the continuous modification of the basic coordinates in the pictorial space is visualized in a desirable way using the liquidity of the semantic context of the line as an drawing instrument.

Art detects the boundaries of time and space upsetting the borderline of History. The past is activated dynamically through the work of contemporary art, and the postmodern is presented as an affirmation of historical continuity. Besides, the artwork has a cultural value, inevitably connected to the dialectic of history and culture, whether functioning as an affirmation of history or as denier of it. We can only speak for the structural elements of art work, producing qualities in relationships in the perceiver, to construct aesthetic sentences, thereby accomplishing the detachment from the prejudices imposed by the current Zeitgeist. Visual learning, in contrast to the scientific one, functions abstractively, not cumulatively. An object of active perception addresses first the sensory organs, and visual sign systems become comprehensible coming from either computer games or advertising, photography, architecture, art. The aim is to become understandable if in the presented images we can see relations of power and truth, if we recognize the dissolved ego presented as an ideology, as the basis of modern self-preservation and whether these images are ready for

consumption, attempting to restore the moral code as desired and cause only facile, rapid affective reaction. The tropistic behavior “stimulus-reflex-response” guarantees a blind obedience to the interests it occasionally serves.

The scale, movement, arrangement, color, perspective, size of the elements in images, line, shape, direction, balance, harmony, contrast, emphasis, parody, simplification, symbolism, inverted image, similarity, the visual relationship in texts, in the foreground, in the background are some examples of visual language: syntax & semiotics. Images are full of indications of their true structure: it lies in the subtlety, education, the consciousness and the willingness of the perceivers to receive, evaluate, classify them and infer their conclusions.

The predominantly critical dimension of Art achieved through the observation of art works, training of the sensory apparatuses so as to render them more pervasive and more intense, from primary to tertiary education will awake from conceptual languor, editing a comprehensive, integrated pedagogic “ordino” that is based on contemporary neurophysiological data, able to check the immediate affective reactions and it will also allow not only aesthetic evaluation, but will develop a critique against such an unstructured ‘wave’ of visual information through advertising, the Internet and the entertainment industry.
Dissident Bodies and Migrant Hogra among Young Maghrebi during Two Years of the ‘Arab Spring’ (Tangiers 2011, Morocco; Turin 2010-2013, Italy).

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Abstract

The immense so-called Arab Spring mobilization suggested a politically-produced process; created by contingent dimensions and fluent coalitions that influence the current migration dynamics and policies in Europe. The present contribution is part of a multi-local ethnography effectuated in Morocco (Khouribga 2007; Tangiers 2011) and Turin among the ultimate-decade’s Moroccan immigrants and Tunisian migrants from the so-called North African Emergency. During summer 2011, Moroccan media renamed Tangiers: ‘People’s Capital of the 20 February Movement’; depicted as young and new, albeit heterogeneous in age, genre and of socio-political appurtenance. Furthermore, the last decade has witnessed populace protests throughout Morocco; particularly in small, medium-sized cities like Khouribga; emigration springboard towards Turin since the eighties. Here the 20 F movement redefined and integrated itself with local-migration policies. Crucial, politically-related events within an intimate and familiar sphere - concomitant with intergenerational, social breakdowns and continuity amplified by emigration will emerge through life-stories. Migrants, both in Tangiers and Turin, criticize the hogra as standing for vulnerability and a lifestyle when confronted by power. My analysis shows how this sentiment - publicized during the Arab Spring, but rooted in Moroccan history - emigrates by accompanying people, who encounter growing migration-policy and life-condition difficulties in a new context. In conclusion, I will show how corporeity can transmute into a manipulatively exploitable power-element; culminating in individual and collective violence. This occurred both during Tangier’s movement and in Turin amongst Tunisian Asylum-seekers and migrants held within the CIE (Centre of Identification and Expulsion).

Keywords: Imagery and Practices of Dissent; Secular and Religious Movements; Maghrebi Migration; Hogra (humiliation); Corporeity; Violence.

1. Introduction: A Succinct Historical Prospective of Contemporaneous Dissidence in Morocco

The 20 February 2011 Movement in Morocco had been preceded by multiple protests by the populace (Al Hoceïma, Khenifra, Sidi Ifni, Beni Mellal…) during the last decade in different zones of so-called ‘useless Morocco’ (Bennafla; 2009, 2010). In the past, as also nowadays, cases of violent repression and censorship are manifest even in the face of pacific forms of dissidence.

Nominated by the media and the Moroccan activists with the date reminiscent of the first manifestation that was diffused throughout national territory, the Movement had been influenced by its impact with the Arab Spring; criticizing the Country’s ramified corruption and demanding the breakdown of absolutism. During the course of 2011, the official Press, which sustained the theory of Morocco’s Exceptionalism, discredited the Movement by likening it to Fronte Polisario (García; 2011). It, furthermore, attributed acts of vandalism to the Movement with a negative sway on public opinion.

1The distinction between useful and useless Morocco dates back to the colonial period in Morocco.
2 In Karine Bennafla’s opinion, engaged with political geography at Jacques Berque Center in Rabat, these mobilization movements, which became the subject of the workshop ‘Fabrication et sens des marges au Maroc’(2009), have a socio-economical, political character, as it appears from the specific focus on ‘les mobilisations de périphérie au Maroc: les cas de Sidi Ifni et Bouarfa’. All the episodes express the collective exasperation towards the deterioration or mediocrity in living conditions, towards the abuses by the authorities, the indifference and the oblivion in front of popular poverty. From Karine Bennafla’s analyses it appears that – if movements initially have pacific expressions (hunger march, sit-in…), their evolutions are very unpredictable and the repressive machine acts in the same manner, establishing an emergency status and resorting to arrests, searches, trials and detentions; as is the occurrence in contemporary protests.
3 It is an army and a political movement active in Western Sahara; it represents the Saharawi people’s right to self-determination.
The first part of the present contribution concerns the context of Tangiers, particularly so one of its quarters, Beni Makada, a popular zone notorious for its insubordination ever since the times of contestations against Hassan II. This urban context suffers a governmental, investment deficit, which has been accumulating since the fifties and is rooted within the history of North-Moroccan dissidence. At Beni Makada in the square of the cinema Tarek, renamed as the square of ‘change’, the first manifestations of the Movement were organized.

To historify the constructive process of protests despite official rhetoric towards the process of democratization of the new Morocco – central theme at the end of the reign of Hassan II - more analytical levels need to be taken into account; starting with the voice of those that have participated and with special consideration for activists’ types of credence and practices (Geertz; 1968).

“We won’t give in (mamfakinch)!” This is one of the past and present slogan of the demonstrators in Morocco. It is also the name of the site⁵, where the mapping of protests had been published instantly and where copious documentation had been filed; inclusive of the irregularity of the constitutional referendum (01.07.2011), of the Makhzen’s intimidating methodology, which has been used to exploit the media, imams, brotherhoods and demonstrators paid by the king (baltajia’, royalistes...). The website asserted that it was not a matter of a “plebiscitary victory” but a “cosmetic reform” conceded by the king, who should be “reigning instead of governing”. If the website is a novelty, student protests instead date back to the struggles of the Students’ National Union (UNEM); a clandestine movement, which has been violently repressed for the last three decades.

In fact, since Independence (1956), the scholastic-education environment has been representing an arena of conflict between the political regime and the population. During the course of the seventies, the politics concerning the exploitation of Islam, which targeted the schooled youth as an objective (Gandolfi; 2010) had led to discussions of “re-Islamizing society” (Vermeren; 2002). The gradual process of “re-inventing” religious tradition (Tozy; 1999), combined with the territorial-unity concept – emblematically represented by the famed “green march”⁸, has consecrated the effective hegemony of the monarchy. The official rhetoric, the repression and control over the students’ environment⁹ contribute to the formation of that which Foucault defined as the practices through which you construct the subject. These practices themselves are not something the individual creates on his own but they are constructed in accordance with schemes that are proposed and suggested; imposed upon the individual by “his” culture, “his” society and by “his” group (Martin, Gutman, Hutton; 1988).

In the past, student uprisings have been renamed and “publicised through the media” as “bread revolutions” applying the use of a depoliticized lexis, which has concealed the socio-economic and political reasons for these struggles. In the summer of 2011, the Press described Beni Makada as the capital of the 20F Movement in virtue of the massive adhesion among members of the populace, while it did not examine possible links of profound roots with the Jamaa d’Al Adl Wal Ihssane ¹¹, Islamic Group; especially so, orientated towards recruitment and training within the ambience of the more marginalized classes. Moreover, the 20F Movement - as I intent demonstrating – is involved within a rhetoric that postulates ‘Novelty’; thus negating the historicity of claims and determining the emergence of a moral economy (Fassin, 2009; Thompson, 1971; Scott, 1983), which represents a young movement without roots in the past.

2. The Tangerine Movement: ‘Atheist-traitors and bearded-Islamites’

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⁴ During the Rif war (1921-1926) against Spain (and later on against France and the very King of Morocco), the Emir Abd El-Krim El-Khattabi declared the Republic Confederation of Rif tribes. 
⁵ https://www.mamfakinch.com/
⁶ Vernacular term indicating the power-net of the central Government.
⁷ Delinquents.
⁸ The march led by King Hassan II in 1975 in order to cross the West Saharan border; at that time autonomous, Spanish territory, disputed by Morocco against Spain..
⁹ The Association Nationale des Diplômés Chômeurs (ANDC) has to be mentioned among the more represented components of the present student movement
¹⁰ In “Self-technologies” (1988), its authors -Luther H. Martin, Huck Gutman, Patrick H. Hutton – face the Foucault treatise of sciences meant as very specific “truth game”, linked to particular techniques human beings utilize in order to understand themselves (p. 13). Four technology-types have been individuated (of production, sign system, power and oneself), interrelated and associated to particular supremacy forms, which imply specific methods of education and modification of the individual (p. 13-14).
¹¹ In French Justice et Charité;, in its own activists’ opinion, there are 3 million supporters in Morocco.
In the next few ensuing paragraphs, I intend showing how “dissident bodies” are objects-subjects of more or less symbolic, violent practices. During summer 2011 the language of the media has, in stereotypical fashion, renamed leftist dissidents ‘atheist-traitors’ and Islamic activists ‘bearded-Islamites’; re-proposing a political, cultural and religious dichotomy between secular-French-speaking modernists on the one side and Islamic-Arab-speaking traditionalists on the other side (Jerad; 2012)\(^\text{12}\). Nonetheless, it has to be kept in mind that, during my multi-sited research, all activists encountered by me defined themselves as Muslims independently from their political adherence. The current conflict appears rather to emanate from the diverse interpretations of being Muslims. To this effect, it is interesting to observe the manner in which they produce various models to give form to the modern, Muslim self (Osella, Soares, Salvatore; 2010) in contexts of social activism and migratory mobility. As I could notice in my different fields, heterogeneous emerging embodied forms of life prevail over dichotomous view on religion and secularism (Asad; 2003).

In the opinion of Mohammed, a Moroccan activist of the Leninist formation: “It’s counterfeit love; a created compromise to resist the confrontational oppression exerted by the monarchy and the hogra.” (11 July 2011). Simultaneously though, the perception of the activists was that of it concerning a political macro-design based on the capacity of the Makhzen to currently capitalize on its own dissidence in the same way as in the historical past.

By comparing the activists’ rhetoric with their practice, it appears that left-wing “atheist-traitors” and “bearded-Islamites” shared manifestations during the course of 2011.

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During the elapse of 2011, the Movement had to confront the handling of complex relations and contradictions involving political and social entities of great diversity, like the Islamic group Justice et Charité forbidden but tolerated by the government, or the La Voie Démocratique party.

At the end of 2011 (18.12.2011) Justice et Charité has left the 20F Movement and this has caused a reduced participation. In the public communication, however supporting the struggle’s claims, the Islamic group has evidenced the internal difficulties linked to the fragmentation of the movement; with the invitation aimed to the International Community not to support any despotic regime.

Whilst allowing for dialogues amongst voices of activists from distant political derivations, I will concentrate on their testimonies.

Amid\(^\text{13}\), a thirty-year-old activist, was born in the quarters of Beni Makada and lives there. He has relocated to Morocco, where he is presently occupied in the ambience of social assistance after having been a migrant in Spain. Ever since our first meeting, he had stressed his free-will to return and “to fight for change in his country”. But today he is no longer convinced of anything subsequent to firsthand experience with the heavy-handedness of police repression; “embodied memory” (Beneduce; 1998) within the corporal evidence of scars and with which Amid lives his inter-subjective rapports (Passerini; 2003) with his family terrorised by his role as an activist. According to his parents, he is an unfaithful enemy of the king, who is father to all Moroccans Amid’s political comportment falls within the sphere of haram (illicit); mining his relationships with elderly parents. Haram, in fact, is a religious term, which means prohibited and is the antithesis of halal (permitted) and with which to share its dimension that combines religious discussion to that appertaining to the family. According to an Islamic precept, Haram is the position of a transgressor; in that whoever exists as such activates a sort of curse, sakct, at work on the part of the entire family ready to assail and disown the perpetrator. On the contrary, halal is the accepted position, which is embraced to redeem family membership and relations by restoring a blessing, r’da (Rossi; 2012).

Regarding this subject, the liaison between power and subject needs consideration (Foucault 1980; 1982), which I intend examining in its double meaning of subject/subjected (Foucault 1976; 1988). Judith Butler has performed a detailed analysis on that disjunction; defined by her as “the paradox of subjectivity”, for which the processes and the

\(^{12}\) Still today, the multi-lingual scenario in Morocco reflects different statuses, meanings and the social uses of local dialects; the classical Arab and French ones.

\(^{13}\) All names utilized for activists are fictitious.
conditions that ensure subordination, end in guaranteeing the same possibilities of self-consciousness and action. This is at the bottom of the subjectivity/subjugation process, which the activists of various political affiliations describe with regard to their fear of checks; to a condition or mental state of “war” (Mbembe; 2005) and permanent alert; implicating suspicion and ‘paranoia’ since anyone could be a government informer.

Amid “...It’s not a matter of physical violence only but also that of psychological pressure; a sense of diffused humiliation (hagra); threats that impress through the king’s power with fear of control and repression” (meeting 25 June 2011). Amid appears rather suspicious about associations and parties: “Checks are diffused; there are infiltrators everywhere...” he expounded to me one day, “I have a friend in the police force. We are distant in political positions but respect each other. He told me that in Rabat, on occasions of manifestations, the police get orders with real mandates from their overseers to involve their family members by sending them to form a movement against the 20F Movement; to this effect the wives of the police have been influenced to realize this! Also their friends have been mobilised to give the YES vote at the referendum of constitutional reform (meeting 05 July 2011)”. For a few years now in Tangiers as well as in Beni Makada, a process of re-qualification and development has been running via the logic of reforms. From the activists’ viewpoint these are more concerned with general rhetoric pertinent to the process of democratization and of cooptation of power nowadays; like matters were during the colonial epoch.

According to Hibou, political economist at SciencesPo, CERI CNRS (Paris), it was not a question of a process to democratize but rather that of the pluralisation of relationships concerning power, which has opened space for liberty and places for debates; amplifying possibilities of handling and quelling conflicts (2011; 2009). The authoress emphasises that this anti-political dynamic has converted itself in Morocco as on a global level in two ways; one via technocracy, which accentuates the neutral apolitical aspect and the other via the development of associative means; thus translating it into the handling of discontent through partial resolutions to a few problems (Hibou; 2011). The politician’s discrediting movement, contributes towards the translocation of the politician’s ‘battlefields’ to non-battlefields without polemics and conflicts; new arenas of power; like development agencies, committees and the associative world. Hibou is of the idea that the present moment is characterised by ‘a way of thinking which prohibits itself to think’; in which the participation rhetoric becomes a technique concerning domain. The associative world at Tangiers represents the link with old and new political entities. Mohammed, a militant member of the Attac15 organization, reckoned that skirmishes between left-wing manifestants and Islamiests often in disagreement about where to end processes – as I personally have often observed – involve a political strategy, which is nothing new and dates back to the latter part of Hassan II’s reign. Moreover, the rhetoric of the historical novelty is functional to emphasize dissoer from the past. If this on the one hand allows the 20F Movement to eschew the inheritance of certain historical, clandestine, left-wing organizations (Adelante, Trabajar para el pueblo, 23 March), on the other hand it consents to the Makhzenitan apparatus breaking with the heavy years and repressions through the media.

“Today like yesterday,” said Mohamed, “ideological pressure consists in defaming opponents even among relatives; infiltrating within their families, who continue to be subjected to the sense of being threatened and live the terror of possible violence against their children and the disgrace of being labelled ‘parents of traitors and atheists...this is haram! The people believe that the king is like a father!” (10 August 2011).

Reflecting on the cultural-religious bases of maestro-disciple relationships, Hammoudi (2001) describes the way in which this model transforms into absolute power on the one side and an attitude of submission on the other side; that of the disciple renouncing to his ‘ego’. According to this prospective, the hierarchies that from the micro to the macro concern the structuring of the entire society (family, schooling, work, the State) reflect these said relations, which nowadays are reiterated with the envisioning of the King as the father-figure described by various activists when referring to relationships with their own parents.

In order to comprehend the manner in which Moroccan society interprets its rapport with authority, one needs to make reference to the principle of uniqueness of monarchical power, of which God represents perfection (Tozy; 1999, p. 51). Hassan II’s conception of power is an example of an invention of tradition (Hobsbawm, Ranger; 1989), which through rehabilitation of the bay’a (ceremony of an alliance) has legitimated the idea of a power that attenuates the importance of negotiation forms; thus preserving and revamping the ritual of subordination between the people and the king/sultan (Hibou; 2011). The appearance of an Islamic flow has accelerated and transformed this process, which has transmuted from a traditionalizing project to the revival of tradition; the room for sacredness has become unlimited

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15 http://www.attac.org/
3. The lexicon of the migrant Hogra

“Subjected to the Hogra means to be vulnerable. It’s not a question of age but that of position in front of the power” Bigg (rapper from Casablanca)

The migratory link, related to French-Spanish, colonial remnants, inherited in terms of dependence - even though only in various forms, has never really ceased but poses another crucial element representative of indisposition and that sense

16 The ‘new’ constitution, voted by a presumed majority, which does not reflect the real participation (considering that only 44% of the rightful voters collected their voter registration card) reasserts the commanders’ statute of the believers, personalized expression of this hegemony, which allows for a symbolic and spiritual dimension to overflow and supports a political, exclusive system. In Hammoudi’s words: “as a descendent of the Prophet, the Monarch – in the eye of the people – embodies his ancestors’ miracle: the apparition of a community, which restores a Primordial Word and the order founded by it. For this reason, this lineage – by God’s will, placed above all others lineages – has the right to transcend all the differences” (2001; p. 34).

17 During 2011, the main Islamic presence in the 20F Movement in Tangiers was that of the Jamaâ d’Al Adl Wal Ihssane organization, established in the eighties; founded on obedience (sufi) and corporatism. Its structure cannot be divorced from the central role of its founder and leader Abdessalam Yassine, who lived as a Saint and was described as a ‘genius’ even by his opponents. The movement is related to another type of syncretic Islamism, which associates the mystical dimension with the political one. During the testing period, the initiate-supporter (nacir) has to sustain the movement – for instance – by attending public demonstrations. Supporters gathered during public demonstrations in order to create a mass-effect; with the aim of frightening political competitors (Tozy; 1999).
of humiliation (hogra)\(^\text{18}\). In contexts of a high emigration rate like the frontier-city of Tangiers in the North – privileged destination of rural exodus from Rif – or South in the region of Souss-Massa-Draâ at Sidi Ifni, where since 2005, a collective has been constituted by various political forces and associations; the common objective of protests being the defeat of marginalization. During the decades of the eighties and nineties, when the migratory phenomenon was transformed into a structural component of relationships between Maghreb and the European Union, the portal city of Tangiers with an ‘international statute’ (1923-1956) and historical frontier towards Europe, had become one of the principal borders for clandestine Moroccan emigration and subsequently also that of sub-Saharan regions\(^\text{19}\).

Migratory mobility can also be a factor of diffusion for protests in Europe. This is what actually happened in Turin (North Italy), where the 20F Movement had sprung up; all thanks to the creation of the trans-national networks (Vertovec, 1999; Riccio, 2008) following the massive exodus from the provinces of Khouribga and Beni Mellal; the aftermath of the ‘phosphate crises’ of the eighties. On the other hand, Moroccan immigrants, resident in Europe (MRE), represent an electoral potential for a future migrant political party; already in the air as a positive form to take charge of dissidence.

Turin, as an industrial city in North Italy, used to be regarded as one of the destinations privileged by immigration from the South of Italy. Today it is amongst those enticing places that attract immigrants not only, especially so, from sub-Saharan regions but also from Tunisia, ensuing the so-called North African Emergency. Moreover, it is a city steeped in a long history of social activism of Marxist and anarchical orientation; related to migrant activism through networks of numerous Occupied Houses and Social Centres found in the metropolis. Tunisian immigration is not a recent phenomenon. Since the seventies, the influx of Tunisian emigrants towards Europe has been waxing noticeably and Italy happens to be one of the main countries of destination for Tunisian workers that take the plunge to go abroad (Gigliotti; 2005). Resident migrant networks have contributed towards welcoming compatriot-refugees, who had fled from the so-called ‘Arab Spring’; they intervened whenever the efficacy of institutes proved over-challenged.

The testimonies that follow are a few voices I had the opportunity to listen to after a lapse in my research when silence was prevalent. In fact, what then ensued my camp experience in Morocco was my persistent search for the social sufferance (Kleinman, Das, Lock; 1996) of street juveniles; dissidence in its deafest and most obstinate form; these youths being critical of social order, authoritarian rapport and violence. In any case, considering the street as a place of ‘choleric’ expressions and of rebellion, my questions were also addressed to a few juvenile Moroccans, whose acquaintance I had made within my work ambience as a social worker. This occurred whenever clandestine minors arrived in Turin unaccompanied in 2001, 2002. Often their response to me simply asserted their total support for the King of Morocco. But there were also those, who lauded the old policy of Hassan II (1961-1999): “Hassan II once said: If you have something that proves you’re Moroccan, you can be repatriated, otherwise no” (interview 16 March 2012). With regard to street culture, Bourgois (2005) demonstrated how this situation turns out to be a factor of personal degradation and destruction of the community in a final analysis; despite it emanating from the individual’s desire for dignity, the rejection of racism and of subordination. Such individuals thus contribute to the formation of oppression; exposed as they are to the vasteast of social dynamics (Bourgois, 2005).

\(^{18}\) The hogra feeling expresses the humiliation inflicted through power abuse by old leaders; via contempt and arrogance of the authorities.

\(^{19}\) For further information on border towns and transmigration studies, refer to Ali Bensaad’s and Ruben Gielis’s works.

\(^{20}\) On the appeal signed (06.12.2011) by numerous Italian associations with the ‘Request for granting permits on humanitarian grounds to those fleeing the war’, we read: “Following rebellions in Northern Africa and the surging war in Libya, since the first months of 2011, arrivals of people in great numbers on Italian coast had been witnessed; fugitives, who left Tunisian and Libyan coasts but hailing from various African countries. After declaring the emergency status on the national territory – initially meant to finish 31.12.2011 – the Government in charge at that time decided to grant permission to stay for 6 months on humanitarian grounds to those North African countries’ citizens, who inundated the national territory from January 1st 2011 to midnight of April 5th, 2011. Differentiated treatment had been applied to those migrants, who arrived after April 5th. Thousands of Tunisians, in fact, were forced back at the borders, whilst other migrants, arriving mainly from Libya but with credentials of different citizenship, were allowed to present - in a quasi-automatic manner - the request for international protection. Nevertheless, great numbers of said requests for international protection were rejected by territorial commissions; accompanied by wording of rejection which appeared ready-made; no motives were expressed that adequately took into account the circumstances relating to a war-ridden country.”
My endeavour was also to explore the dimension of conflict behind the silence, obedience and immobilization. That which emerged was discordant subjectivity; as if the memory - once emigrated – splits up between past life and present life; as if there were apparently no connection. What emerged via their recounts were differences in timing, fragmented perceptions of their Country and some of them described the uprisings of the Arab Spring as if they were talking about a post card; of a remote envisagisment.

I have stumbled across a possible key regarding this distorted perception and fragmentations by reading the analyses of Kleinman (1986) on depressive syndromes; generated through frustration and violence during the Chinese Cultural Revolution. Also in the case of those migrants I had occasion to meet in Turin, their auto-reflexive difficulties could be interpreted as the sign of a device that impedes the individual from executing certain connections. Apropos of splitting and dissolution forms related to the conditions of the colonized individual, Fanon (1952; 1956; 1961) wrote that these conditions favour the stability of the colonial dominion. An approach directed at denaturalizing the processes and techniques of the memory can be gathered from the anthropological look, which has already evidenced how we imagine the past and remember the future (Quaranta; 2007). The past is, in fact, an unstable terrain of cultural moulding and political confrontation.

In the specific context in which I am occupied, you may refer to a process of migrant, political de-subjectivity (Fassin; 2001) or, as Hibou has written, a configuration, which the authoress defines as anti-political. The migrants' political capacity is annulled by the burden of the individual dimension related to a condition of life legally regulated similar to that of homo sacer (Agamben, 2005)21. In the case of Turinese migrants, today’s “sacred men”, the analogy is with the State that regard those arrivals of individuals in Italy after 5th April 2011 22 and then their requesting for political asylum, as clandestine economic migrants legislating within the double meaning of inclusion-exclusion. What it entails is a kind of thanato-politics (Martin, Gutman, Hutton; 1988, p. 151), which manifests itself in the form of violence on the part of the police; involving deportations, zero tolerance (Wacquant; 2004) within the internal detention of the so-called C.I.E. and within the continuous and rather deliberate oscillations on the subject of immigration.

For these reasons, I lingered over what I have synthesized in the expression hogra migrante (migrant hogra); the feeling of humiliation in the emigration-immigration continuum. In fact, the term hogra not only recurs in the media; but during my research, I have encountered it often among Moroccan activists and Maghrebi immigrants living in Turin. The diffusion of this term beyond the national borders of various Countries in North Africa, like Morocco and Tunisia, is strictly related – at least so in the West – to the mediatic covering of the Arab Spring. It is a vernacular term, which appears to have survived a process of trans-nationalization with different forms of local appropriation and which has acquired a higher visibility in the public sphere. This directly implicates the European trans-national migration, the global, neo-liberal, political economy and the growth of European Islam as strictly intertwined phenomena; contributing to the transformation and creation of representations, manifold identities and plural forms of spirituality, religion and laity.

The meaning of hogra has the concise capacity of expressing a common, collective feeling, which overcomes religious-secular dichotomies, perhaps outlining one of those post-secular configurations of which this very 20F Movement appears to be the most recent expression. I am not referring to post-secular notion (Habermas, 2002, 2006; Casanova, 2009) as the completion of the secularization process, but as the coexistence of various, secular and humanistic religions (Beaumont; 2010), or rather an organizational and conceptual sphere in which post-colonial themes had their development.

Further on, through various stories, different interpretations of hogra will emerge. As a matter of fact, we are dealing with meanings which are, at the same time, common and subjective, contingent, variable; depending on the context and the type of relation I managed to instil with my interlocutors during our meetings.

3.1 Amid, 22 April 201223

“[…], Hogra is Moroccan dialect; it means humiliation, when you find yourself under conditions in which you don’t recognize yourself; an unbearable situation. For me, Hogra is a wonderful synthesis derived from various languages on

21 In his text “Homo sacer. The sovereign power and the naked life”, Agamben quotes Festo’s word about this figure in the Roman archaic law: “Sacred man is, however, he, whom the people judged for a crime; and he cannot be legitimately sacrificed, but he, who kills him, shall not be convicted of homicide. In fact, in the first tribunal law it was cautioned that “if someone should kill him, who is sacred for plebiscite, shall not be considered a murderer”. From this it is derived that an infamous or impure man is usually called sacred.” (Agamben, 1995, nota1 p. 79).
22 Reference in footnote 25.
23 A Marxist militant, immigrated towards France but passing through Turin.
this side of the Mediterranean; it expresses rejection and the struggle, as in the slogan “NO to hogra”. Where it concerns me, it is not a program, but a term allowing for mutual recognition mutual amongst people; a mobilization vector."

The term hogra appears in Amid’s words as a “linguistic act”, a true political, pragmatic act (Austin; 1991), which characterizes the subjects’ senses of belonging, since it is part of that process of word appropriation in the public sphere occurred through the Web and in the rallies, yet without representing a homogeneous space. The dialectal use with reference to “rejection, to struggle” against the abuse of institutional powers, generally associated with classic Arab and colonial French, appears to be intentioned towards expanding the socio-linguistic sphere. Both in Morocco and in Tunisia, the o derja dialect is the commonly-spoken, daily language in families, relationships and in more frequent social exchanges; their mother-tongue. It is through this that in the referenced social context, which unites the humiliated majority, it is expanded; almost with the aim of exorcizing the regime-derived frustrations and traumatisms starting with the overthrowing of the conventional, multilingual model, in which standard Arab and French are the dominant languages with official communications. The fact of publicly mentioning fear, perhaps allows for the softening of its impact. Hogra exists in the collective memory (Halbwachs; 1968) in Morocco, but, whilst it once used to sound familiar only in a dialectal ambience, this term has today penetrated its lexical and social borders; establishing itself as being a slogan and a political act concomitantly. Deducing from Amid’s assertions, it appears that the sense of belonging determined by the feeling of hogra is based upon that denial of self-identification within a specific situation; thus a kind of identity in the negative which, through trauma revivification – as in the mechanism of traumatophilia – creates the possibility of affiliation, that of belonging (Beneduce; 1998). The practice of traumatophilia – wishing to resort to an anthropological category, which restores some agency to the subject – expresses the subject’s rifts, new expressions of desire, and the crisis of social bonds (Beneduce; 2007). It is a practice which expresses the attempt at granting literacy to a social difficulty; a gesture of protestation, of disobedience and rebellion. In this sense, we can speak of a sort of infinite simulation of death and renaissance, through a traumatic act of regressing to - and bouncing back from - a chronological zero each time.

3.2 Khalid 19 May 2012

He is a Marxist militant, who immigrated to Turin in 2008. He declares himself a ‘basist’24, that is, a Marxist-Leninist-materialist and atheist.

“In Turin, the 20F Movement (he has explained to me) gained impetus around Justice and Charity, with the presence of some independent or autonomous members who, however, both here and in Morocco, are often connected to the Secret Services system rather than to anarchic ideologies; they are spies. In Turin, therefore, the existence of an internal contradiction between the revolutionary leftwing on the one side and the leftwing and reformist Islamists on the other side, had never been founded. Generally speaking, immigrants are neither here nor there. They are well treated by the Government because they contribute remittances. They do not participate because they lack economic and social interest. They are not simply a case of fear…”

In Turin, the Yassin movement is considered neither illegal nor an “Islamist lair”. On the contrary, it enjoys an advantageous position in relation to local institutions, with which it actively cooperates. Taiba, the Alps Mosque, it’s a cultural center, and is a reference point for all Muslim migrants. Tariq Ramadan, a nephew of the founder of the Association of Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt, is one of the thinkers, who gets suggested as such amongst reference authors in the field of Islamic Reformism; in favour of a European Islam25. “Hogra applies to any type of humiliation” continued Kalid. “It is also used among kids when they make fun of one another, but in a common social sense, it is indicative of the relationship the individual feels with the State. It is social, collective hogra, which people identify the moment they become aware of their rights being violated; for instance, when a policeman slaps your face. It is a common feeling among the poorer masses; among youngsters. Reactions can differ; for example, there are these suicides through the fire... They represent a sacrifice, not just a form of protest, because the risk of dying exists. It means to deny life, to refuse it, not life in itself but one’s own life. For me, it is neither halal nor

24 It is a non-reformist but revolutionary trend, well-rooted at the Fes University in Morocco. Its militants differentiate themselves from the Voie Démocratique Party, which is considered to be moderate and reformist.
haram; I’m an atheist. In my opinion, they are weak; from an economic and intellectual viewpoint. They are anonymous, who gain recognition. It is not they, who look for a spectacular popularity. We bestow prestige unto them. They are neither like Kamikaze, because they killed themselves for an organized, political reason, nor are they like the similarly well-organized Jiadists. For example, the first girl, who set herself alight, Fadwa Laroui26, close to Beni Mellal, was 23 or 24 and used to live in an area of shacks. She was divorced and enlisted as having the right to receive State ground onto which to build herself a house. Yet, it was never given to her. After having complained in vain, she set herself on fire in front of the City Hall. These are the psychological dynamics that surge; they have to do with social conditions; an economic dearth, desperation…! Nonetheless, in my opinion, these suicides have not created anything as they are devoid of coherence of interpretation, which depends on political interests of that current moment.*

Burning suicides seem to be the ultimate expression of affiliation possibilities that have failed miserably; of powerlessness in planning one’s one future. They comprise mostly young men, who can become neither fathers nor husbands, nor can they hope to become workers, who in Italy, as in their Countries of origin, live under conditions of social and moral death (Kleinman; 2011)27, of no acknowledgement of their being socio-economic and political subjects. Suicides may be interpreted as a reaction strategy by people facing the powerlessness in organizing their experiences and, more in general, in giving a meaning pattern to events which have none, or in promoting an opportunity of collective reprocessing. It is a trans-objective problem, which deals with psychical, collective transformations, produced by structural violence (Farmer, 2003; 2006) or by terror, as in the contexts pertinent to the reproduction of violence as in the ex-colonial Countries.

If “burning the borders” 28 is the metaphor which, in Moroccan and Tunisian dialects, translates the risk of dying during illegal immigration, burning one’s own body is the result of “thanato-politics”, which can be re-produced and “consumed” on-line. Suicide appears as a strategy of extreme manipulation of one’s own body in order to obtain power which, even after death, will serve to focus attention onto one’s personal events, hoping that perhaps some help for involved family members, left behind, will be achieved.

The turning into a show (Debord; 1967) of these violent deaths was launched by Mohamed Bouazizí’s29 suicide. Which became notorious because it preceded the Tunisian revolution. The diffusion of images and videos of “human burning” is a component not to be neglected in the “burning suicide wave”, that have been occurring during the last two years. As a matter of fact, not only in Morocco and Tunisia, but also in Italy, Maghrebi immigrants and both Italian entrepreneurs and workers 30 took their lives in this way because of the current global, economic and social crisis.

By conducting dialogues with some Tunisians, who escaped during the revolution, I had the opportunity of retracing the moments of their participation in Tunisian riots until their arrival in Italy. From their accounts, the prominence of the body – a power subject-object – has resurfaced. “Body proofs” (Fassin; 2001) have to be exhibited as an incarnated document, which testifies the truthfulness of declarations given to commissions, that evaluate the requests for Political Asylum; as if biology were, for its own sake, not vulnerable to “processes of social construction” (Farmer in Annuary 2006, p. 23).

3.3 Ibrahim 1st August 2012

I met Ibrahim at the center of Via Agliè, situated in one of those so-called, Turin suburban neighborhoods; an area meant for urban and social redevelopment.

“I left the North of Tunisia on board an 8-m boat with thirty two other people; all of them men between eighteen and twenty eight, with no food and no water […] I spent all my time in prayer, I am a Muslim, I was very scared because it was my first time of crossing. I had decided to leave since we couldn’t live comfortably due to poverty. For three months

26 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wSm4WRBJV74
27 Arthur Kleinman, Chapter 5 “Medical Anthropology and Mental Health: Five Questions for the Next Fifty Years”, in Marcia Inhorn, eds., 2012.
28 The boys who immigrated to Turin through chance trips, with the passeur, or under trucks, identify themselves in the term “harrâga”, which means “burned” (from the verb to burn, to cut off, to leave). Precisely, they are those that burn. They burn from desire, they burn down the boundaries within which they feel constrained, assuming the risk to die out completely. (Master’s graduation thesis by Alice Rossi ‘Etologia della violenza strutturale tra minori e giovani marocchini a Porta Palazzo’, Università degli Studi di Milano-Bicocca, 2007/2008).
29 Young, graduated Tunisian who, to survive, had to be a stallholder. He set himself on fire on December 17th, 2010 in front of the local Governor’s building, following the confiscation of his goods by the police.
during the war I did not work because the war had destroyed my work. My cousin, the son of my mother’s sister, died. He was a mechanic; a good friend of mine. We were always together after work”

To my question: “What do you think of the war?”, Ibrahim answered: “we need twenty more years to change things. All those, who used to work for the regime, can do whatever they want to today. They are free […] Whatever is happening, is a movie, it is not the truth, what you see on TV is not true. I believe all Tunisian journalists lie. Today there is the same Ben Ali system. There is still war. Yesterday a friend of mine phoned. In a village, two people died because of racism… Since there is no work any more, the locals have become racists against the internal migrants coming from another village. Talking about the hogra feeling, he explained to me: “It is someone who doesn’t think of others. But you have hogra here as well, without my fellow countrymen I wouldn’t do anything here. Only a few Italians helped me… I am at the second renewal of my permit to stay on grounds of temporary protection, since I arrived before the 5th April 2011. Now that I’ve found a job, the renewal will be on working grounds but I have to pay €450 in contributions. During the war, only two things existed. You either live or you die. In the war I lost my cousin and my job. It is as if I had lost my youth. I cannot go back to Tunisia; you need at least two years. My cousin has been killed by a gunshot perhaps by the police, who are the most corrupt. Every policeman owns four places where to live, three cars and hegets his shopping through the taxi drivers, who otherwise get fined. The poor stays poor. At the beginning of the war I believed in the change but afterwards I lost everything because I realized that, even though Ben Ali was no longer there, everything else had remained unchanged”.

Ibrahim has no faith in the revolution and he is rather disillusioned by life conditions he found in Italy. He cannot go back because his cousin’s murderer has been arrested and he fears retaliations by that family. In Italy, he has to pay taxes instead of his employer in order to have the guarantee of a permit to stay on working grounds. And he lives in a sort of double absence (Sayad; 1999) one of those who lives “neither here nor there”.

In the collected stories, frequent events of self-mutilation emerged on the part of those Tunisian, so-called “rebutted” migrants, kept at the C.I.E. for identification and expulsion. These are resistance practices, as a dialectic answer to tangible attempts of dispossession of one’s reacting capacity (Pizza; 2005). The said behaviour can also be read in the light of what James Clifford defines as displacement practices, constituting cultural meanings, that is capable of actively producing cultural meanings (Pizza; 2005).

3.4 Ajej, Moroccan, unaccompanied ex-minor, 15th February 2012

“I stayed at C.I.E. for two months. I got out because of this knock in my eye, I hurt myself… so I left to go to hospital and from there, they could not keep me. At C.I.E. they always give you rice and put medicines in your food to keep you quiet. After eating, we always felt sleepy. They put Rivotril in there so you eat and you sleep… I recognized it because I used to get high on it, outside. My Tunisian friend has been repatriated with a broken rib, another one tied his arm, cut himself and spattered the bathrooms, blood everywhere…”

It has to be noted how these practices, for example, the swallowing of razor blades, of self-inflicting deep cuts onto one’s arms, of swallowing batteries, bear the objective of obtaining hospitalization because, this being an administrative restrain, it is not possible to force the person to go back, once he is out of the camp. In fact, the C.I.E. is not classified as a detention area; on the contrary, migrants are defined by law as “guests”. Therefore one could say that, in this case, physical pain is more of a life strategy; functional towards freedom and escape, than a practice of resistance. The body is an element to be manipulated in order to escape or to produce the proofs required for the acknowledgement of your status as Applicant for Politic Asylum, as it has been confirmed by a general practitioner, who visited the migrants hosted in C.A.R.A. (Centers for Reception of Asylum Petitioners).

Detention of Maghrebis in the Italian C.I.E. corresponds to a political choice, related to the rebut easiness based on agreements for re-admittance. Moreover, according to the Caritas Dossier 201131, the Moroccans represent the majority of those, who do not obey the expulsion and the C.I.E. in Turin is populated by Tunisians, together with Moroccans and Egyptians.

Jamal, a Tunisian thirty-eight-year-old man, arrived after the 5th of April. He has submitted a Politic Asylum request, but he must produce some proof of the death threats, he claims, he had suffered. His body has no wounds, his family in Tunisia undergoes continuous harassment and intimidations because of his participation in revolution events. In spite of all this, for the evaluating commission, he is an economic migrant, who illegally entered Italy, thus he can be expelled.

31 http://www.caritasitaliana.it/pls/caritasitaliana/v3_s2ew_Consultazione.mostra_pagina?id_pagina=404
The C.I.E.\textsuperscript{32} is a contemporary form of “camp”, a bio-political paradigm of Modernity (Agamben; 1995), situated inside the town. It is made invisible by high walls, hiding it from the passer-by’s gaze, whilst the so-called “cages” – the enclosures where the migrants live in small, separated houses - are open. This total visibility, accessible only from above, is for those responsible for the Red Cross, great pride in comparison with other existent structures in Italy and in Europe. In the recounts of those, who had instead been there, the C.I.E. appears to be a space where “social suffering” (Kleinman, Das, Lock; 1996) duplicates; where power hierarchies, which exist outside the walls, are repeated – between those who have money and those who don’t – and where the relations between identity and memory alter themselves (Fabietti, 1995; Fabietti, Matera, 1999; Beneduce, 1993; Halbwachs, 1968; Assmann, 1999), thus generating out-of-focus and fragmented perceptions of oneself and of one’s own context of origin. In this total institution (Goffman; 1961), clandestineness and illegality re-produce themselves (De Genova; 2004). The Centers of identification and expulsion in Italy are places where rights are suspended, which de-politicize the concept of trauma, transforming it into an issue of police control and citizen safety.

4. Conclusions

\textit{“The subjectivity of the free man becomes subjugation: on one side, the submission to the other through control and dependence [...], on the other side the “attachment” to one’s own identity through the conscience and knowledge of the self, with all the techniques of moral sciences and human sciences, which will give way to a knowledge of the subject”} (Deleuze 1987, p. 104)

Hogra as a trans-national feeling crossing over different geographic areas, but also the history of various Countries since the colonial era up till the new-born colony of the Turin metropolis. The violence of the colonial system seems to be able to still tell us something today; within the system of capitalist economy, which again presents the dichotomous logic of exclusion and inclusion. The street boys in Turin or Tangiers stray on the edges of movement forms, or they get recruited into the troops of regime supporters; as has been denounced during the present protests in Morocco. Explicit, physical and psychological violence and tangible freedom encaging reflect the colonial logic, which becomes a natural item like that occurring in the C.I.E.

Often, we speak about adaptation without reflecting on the theme of incorporation; there is no body as a place separated from the mind, but a “mindful body” (Scheper Hughes, Lock; 1987). A body-full-of-mind is therefore full of context, relations, history, reconstructed memories and, as in the case of highly controversial dynamics - involving life and death spheres - the body-fills-up-with violence. With this interpretation, violence has an enticing power; that which draws violence, as it has been seen in the history of disobedience in the North of Morocco up till the present-day; protest forms, of which the suicides through fire are the extreme expressions. The present 20F Movement links activists, local political bodies, migrants and global nets. Migration, in itself is a potential form of dissonance and becomes a means of transmission and transformation of protests, which locally redefine themselves, in Tangiers as in Turin. Notwithstanding the interest of media and politics for the strong participation at Beni Makada and the recent debut of the 20F Movement in Turin, during my research no explicit connection came into sight between the anger of those living in an extremely marginalized condition – like the Moroccan street boys – and those who give vent to through protests. Polyphony and the contradictory alliances of Moroccan activism in Tangiers are amazing compared with the silence among Turinese migrants. In this latter case, what seems to “inhibit” the auto-reflective faculties depends on life conditions in a context of arrival and migratory path-types. According to an immigrated activist, “The difference between the Arab Spring and the Moroccan Spring is not a matter of quality but a degree in dissident management by the monarchy. Reforms have been taking place since the end of Hassan II’s reign… this has been appeasing, at least in the form…” (18th January 2013)

My perception of contemporary dissident forms is that they are sparked off within a logic founded on the capacity of the Makhzen to take advantage of its own dissidents today, as it has been in past history: “… if the effect of protests has been that of pushing the king towards constitutional reform, the Movement should thus be thanked! The king is a good guy, we, the Moroccans, love him…” (7th July 2011, a Beni Makala girl; not a supporter of the 20F Movement).

\textsuperscript{32} “The C.I.E. in Italy represent the legal dimension of the “camp”, which, within the theoretical frame of consideration proposed by Agamben (1995, p. 186), is a “modern-type nomos”. The camp, not emanating from common rights but from a status of an exception and from the martial law, finds its legal basis in the Schutzhaft (protection custody); a legal institution of Prussian origin, which allowed for “taking people in custody” irrespectively of any criminally-relevant comportment and with the sole aim of precluding danger towards State security […]” (Master’s graduation thesis by Alice Rossi “Etinografia della violenza strutturale tra minori e giovani marocchini a Porta Palazzo”, Università degli Studi di Milano-Bicocca, a.a. 2007/2008, p. 82).
In the evaluation of the formation processes of activists’ subjectivity, various levels of analyses have to be taken into account. They involve, as we have already seen, biographic, contextual, historical-economic, political aspects and, last but not least, religious values.

Forms of fracture and continuity with the past history cross over society and generations, sometimes contrasting activists and parents loyal to the king-father-figure. The accusation of “treacherous atheist” is a disgrace on the entire family. In other cases, instead, the parents’ military is transmitted on to their children, with those forms of coercion and intimidation, going on in the family schemes and in the collective memory (Halbwachs; 1968), from generation to generation.

Social suffering (Kleinman, Das, Locke; 1997) that surfaces from the imagery and practices of some migrants in Turin - even though issues might appear to be remote from the real political struggle – is the result of the intersecting political, economic and institutional powers.

Consequently, some forms of migrant dissidence allow for better interpretation from the viewpoint of their generative power to produce other perceptions rather than those of politically explicit-and-conscious forms of dissidence. As is the case of embodied practices of resistance and life-strategy in the C.I.E. or the hybrid and heterogeneous emerging forms of religion and secularism.

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Abstract

Writing in a second language is not an easy task for students. Yet, it is an important skill for them to acquire in order to succeed in university. The aim of this study is to investigate ESL tertiary students’ perception on the importance and effectiveness of written feedback in their academic writing assignments. The study also aims to examine students’ preferred feedback in helping them revise and improve their written assignments. The subjects are 34 Diploma students. Data was gathered via a questionnaire adapted from Ferris (1995), Leki (1999) and Hedgecock and Leftkowitz (1994). Findings reveal that students view feedback as important and necessary to help them improve their writing ability. Findings also revealed that students prefer feedback in the form of grammar correction and suggestions on how to improve. The least preferred feedback are questions and one-word comments.

Keywords: Learner perceptions, learner preferences written feedback

1. Introduction

The traditional approach to writing has been interested mainly in the final product of students’ text. Teachers were concerned with how well students are able to write error free sentences. This approach is called the product approach where the focus is on students’ ability to use the target language competently and fluently. This approach believes that students should be taught how to form and write grammatically correct sentences before they are able to produce a piece of writing (Nunan, 2000).

In the product approach writing classes, students are given writing assignments, which are handed in to their teacher to be corrected as a final product. The assignment is corrected and returned by the teacher with the hope that students will remember their mistakes and avoid repeating it in the next writing assignment. The advantage of this is students’ ability to write increases as they are provided with models of writing. However, it often see little awareness from the students of their mistakes as most of the time students will put their papers away and forget about the comments given. More recently, a new approach to writing called the process approach emerged. This approach introduces a different way of dealing with the complexity of producing a good piece of writing. In this approach, writing is seen as a recursive process that involves a lot of planning, drafting and redrafting of ideas.

A direct result of the emergence of process writing is the many ways by which a teacher can help students to formulate their ideas. In addition, teachers are able to provide them with an audience’s view of their text. Such
intervention can come in the form of teacher-student conferences, peer feedback, taped commentary (Hyland, 1990) students’ self-monitoring technique (Charles, 1990) or teacher written feedback. All these technique provide different ways of responding to students’ writing. The main aim of all these techniques is that the responses or feedback given by the teacher will help to improve students’ writing ability and minimise the repetition of mistakes. In addition, the emergence of process writing also sees revision as central in the teaching of writing (Zamel, 1982: 206) particularly in a process writing class. How students revise is greatly influenced by the way they perceive their teacher’s comments. It is therefore necessary that the teachers provide students with appropriate feedback that can help them to improve their writing ability.

1.1 Significance of the study

The study is carried out with the hope that both teachers and students will be aware of the types of written teacher feedback that students prefer as well as feedback that will help students revise effectively. It is also the aim of this study to find out what causes students’ tendency to repeat their mistakes despite attempts by their teachers to raise their awareness towards those mistakes.

Previous studies have looked at the roles of teachers and how teachers are to respond to students’ writing. Based on the findings of previous studies, many theories have come up in order to ensure that feedback is effective in helping students develop their writing ability. Among them, teachers are advised to take the role of a reader, coach, facilitator and guide. Teachers are also advised to prioritise their comments as well as provide a balance of both praise and criticism.

Past researches have also looked at students’ reactions to teacher feedback and their perception towards it. However, most of the studies available were carried out in the West. There are a limited number of researches on written teacher feedback in Malaysian ESL context. Moreover, much of what is available is studies on L1 or studies in L2 that are based on L1. Therefore it is still vague as to whether local ESL students have the same view of teacher feedback as reported by existing research in this area. In addition, it is not known as to how students would respond to their teacher feedback in their rewrites and how effective do students view teacher feedback is in helping them improve as ESL writers.

Therefore, it is hoped that the insights from this study will be able to help ESL teachers and students particularly in UiTM Sarawak to better improve the teaching and learning of ESL writing.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Most teachers would agree that it is necessary to give feedback when giving students writing assignments. Prior to the study, the researcher had an informal talk with some teachers in the context of the study concerning students’ reactions towards feedback on their writing. All of them agree that giving feedback is important however, a majority of them express disappointments over students’ tendency to repeat mistakes. Students’ often failed to revise and would respond to their teachers’ comments by making minor adjustments such as correcting grammar errors or rearranging their sentences. Students were also found to correct only mistakes highlighted by the teacher but do not actually revise their ideas.

In writing classes, feedback is viewed as essential in writing. Written comments can be given to students at any point in the writing process. It is a form of intervention and is one of the most common ways of responding to students’ writing. It helps students to know whether their message or ideas is well conveyed or not. It helps students to know what their audience felt when the writing was read. It gives students the opportunity to revise, rethink and rewrite their ideas. Muncie, (1999) asserts that “feedback is vital to writing and in helping learners to improve their writing skills and whatever form it takes, it can have the positive effect of producing in the learner a sense of reader awareness and of giving him/her an outside view of texts” (p.52).

Yet, despite the perceived importance of teacher feedback and considerable attention given to it, research has remain inconclusive as to whether feedback is beneficial and effective in helping students revise and improve their writing. A lot of things are still not known such as the lack of knowledge on this poses problems to teachers and students.

This prompted the researcher to investigate and find out students’ perception and preferences for teacher feedback. A majority of the students in this particular institution are weak in their command of the language. Therefore, the research hopes to find the types and forms of feedback that will help students make progress in their writing and how teachers can improve their responding behaviour to suit the students’ needs and proficiency level.
1.3 Objective

The objectives of this study is

(a) To identify the types of written feedback that students prefer.
(b) To identify students' perception of the written feedback they receive.

2. Literature review

Writing is an essential skill that every tertiary students need to possess. The ability to write and express oneself is important if students want to pass a course. It is also a necessary skill to have when students start working. However, writing is also a complex skill. To be able to write a writer “must learn how to remove redundancy...how to combine sentences, how to make reference to other elements in order to create syntactic and lexical variety and much more” (Brown 2001 p 342). As writing in the L2 requires the student to be able to master the above and much more, ESL students often face a lot of demands in writing which the student may not be able to cope with in ways a native speaker could.

A lot of early researches on teacher feedback have been based on L1 studies despite the fact that writing in L1 and L2 employs different processes. ESL students are different from native English speakers in their “Linguistic, contextual and rhetorical schemata” Reid (1994). Compared to L1 students, ESL students are dependent on their teachers to play the role of information provider and guide to help them in their writing. As for L1 students, writing is less demanding as writers are familiar with the structure and are proficient in the language. In addition, Brown (2001) reported that L2 writers “did less planning...were less fluent...less accurate and less effective in stating goals and organising materials. As such it is also necessary for teachers to help students in their language proficiency before these students are able to write confidently in the target language.

Ferris and Hedgecock (1998) stressed that L2 students often regard their teacher highly and often look up to their teachers as information providers. Hedgecock & Leftkowitz (1996) was quoted by Ferris that “If composition teachers do not give students clear and direct feedback and instructions about how to correct and improve their texts, ESL students may feel that their instructors are incompetent or lazy or that there must be nothing wrong with their papers because they were not told what to fix.” (p.133). The implication of this is, ESL writing teachers need to balance their role of judge and evaluator of students' work with being facilitator and coach. This will enhance ESL students’ confidence, especially those with low English proficiency levels who face problems in communicating their thoughts in writing.

2.1 Research on Teacher Feedback in L1

One of the earliest researches carried out on teacher feedback in L1 was by Arnold (1964). Arnold’s experimental study investigated the difference between giving feedback on all errors in the students’ paper and giving feedback on one particular error paper. However, the result revealed that both treatments did not give any significant difference on student's writing ability. A similar study by Sommers (1982) investigated the way teachers respond to students' writing. In her study, she examined the responses made by 35 teachers on students' writing and found that most comments were vague, not specific, "arbitrary and idiosyncratic" (p.149). She also discovered that teachers give general comments that can "be interchanged, rubber-stamped, from text to text (p.152). This, according to Sommers is probably the reason why students do not show improvement in their revision.

Nevertheless, recent research proves that despite the negative claims, teacher feedback is reported to be most effective when given during early drafts (Ferris & Hedgecock 1998, p. 124). In addition, Schroeder (1973) found that when positive comments were given on content, students were found to use a lot more description in their writing. Beason (1993) points out that feedback and revision are very important in the teaching of writing. He noted that students' subsequent drafts improved when they receive feedback.

2.2 Research on Teacher Feedback in L2

Similarly, research on teacher response in L2 found that teacher response is not effective as a tool to improve students writing. Past research found that teachers often ignore serious problems in context and are mostly concerned about pinpointing every mistakes student make. Such comments are inefficient tools for helping students (Zamel 1985).
Despite the grim conclusion, recent research has arguments that prove otherwise. Berger (1991) in a review of research concerning teacher feedback listed a few studies that support teacher feedback as helpful in helping students. Among the studies listed were the studies carried out by Chaudron (1983), Zhang (1985), and Zhang & Halpern (1988). These studies concluded that teacher feedback actually helps students to revise better. In addition, Keh (1990) stressed that teacher comments “are useful for pointing out specific problems, for explaining the reasons for them and for making suggestions” (p. 303). Hyland (1990) pointed out that “diligent marking provides students with an idea of the criteria by which their work is judged, and should offer useful information that will help them avoid similar errors in the future” (p. 279).

2.3 Research on students’ preferences on teacher feedback

Results of early research in this area found that students seem to prefer feedback on grammar as compared to content in their writing. However, a more recent study revealed that ESL students seem to prefer feedback on both content and grammar. ESL students were also reported to value comments on form. Students were also reported to prefer comments on ideas and organization in their early drafts and comments on grammar in their later drafts (Hedgecock & LeFkowitz (1994). Cohen & Calalcanti (1990) discovered a similar pattern where a majority of students were found to prefer comments on content and organisation as compared to form.

In a similar study by Keh (1997), it was discovered that students prefer elaborate comments as compared to one word comments. Feedbacks that highlight specific problems and provide suggestions were also found to be most helpful. This finding is also shared by Reed & Burton (1985) and Ziv (1984). Comments in the form of questions were also found to be effective as it pushes students to think. On the other hand, short comments such as ‘good’ or ‘good point’ were found to cause problems, as students were not sure of what they mean. This also applies to questions such as ‘why’. A similar finding was reported by Lim (1994) where the students reported that feedback such as ‘so’, ‘rewrite’ and ‘please explain’ confused them. According to Raines (1983), comments such as ‘Revise’ and anything similar do not mean anything, as they are unclear and do not provide specific direction for students.

2.4 Contents versus Form Feedback

Research in the area of whether to focus on form or content when giving feedback has come to various conclusions. Many researchers believed that teachers should provide comments on content and organization first before giving any comments on grammar. However, there are some who believe that concentrating on form is useful in helping students improve their writing ability. Although giving feedback on content and organisation is recommended, some researchers such as South (1998) disagrees on the basis that too many grammatical, spelling and punctuation mistakes may hinder reader comprehension of the text thus suggesting that grammar errors should be pointed out in early drafts. This is supported by Lalande (1982) who discovered that students’ writing improved significantly when they were given information on the mistakes they made as compared to students whose writing were simply marked. In addition, despite recommendations by researchers to give feedback on content before form, most language teachers are reported to continue the practice of giving feedback on form (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fathman & Whalley, 1990).

Researchers have also come to various conclusions on when feedback should be given. Fathman & Whalley (1990) argued that it is not necessary for students to engage in the multiple drafts essays but others believe that feedback given in early drafts are more effective than those given in the final drafts. Zamel (1995) encourages teachers to provide comments at every draft and that teachers should prioritise their comments. Keh (1997) agreed and emphasised that teachers should “limit comments according to fundamental problems”. Furthermore, Keh recommended that teachers respond as an interested reader and not as an evaluator of students’ work in order to be effective in giving feedback. In Keh’s study, students were reported to read their teacher’s comments because “they wanted to know what they did well and how they could improve” (p. 302). Students were also reported to read comments first and they also find praise very important.

The practice of giving both praise and criticism has been proven to help enhance students’ writing (Cardelle & Como 1981). The researchers advocate that teachers “provide specific feedback on [composition] that identifies students’ errors, guides the students toward a better attempt next time and provides some positive comments on work particularly well done” (p. 260). Nevertheless some researchers found that giving too much praise may hinder students from revising. Students may misinterpret praise as a signal for them to keep their text as it is. Praise may also mislead students into thinking that they deserve a higher mark for their writing. Therefore it is necessary that praise be balanced
with criticism. Ferris (1995) found that L2 writers expect their teachers to provide them with criticism in addition to praise. These students were reported to appreciate and remember praise and at the same time expect to receive constructive criticism.

In another similar research carried out by Ellen Lipp (1995), it was discovered that more than 90% of the students achieved higher scores on revision when the teachers provide feedback on both content along with a few comments on grammar, spelling and punctuation. Lipp’s study, which incorporated the use of praise, questions and encouragement, found that students respond to teacher feedback positively and revise better in their content. Leki (1992) shares this view and stresses that teachers write comments on content with a limited amount of feedback on grammar punctuation and spelling.

The information gathered from these researches proves significant to both teachers and learners of English. They suggest that it is necessary for teachers to provide a balance of both feedback on content and form in order to help students improve.

2.5 Research on Students’ Perceptions of Teacher Feedback

Leki (1990) conducted a survey on students’ perception on teacher feedback. The study established that the samples ignored their teachers’ feedback; often finding teacher feedback hard to comprehend, as well as feeling a sense of hostility when teachers correct their writing. The possibility that students may not read the feedback given could not explain its ineffectiveness in helping students. Burkland and Grimm (1986) found that students are more interested in their grades rather than the comments given by their teachers. In a survey research in L2, conducted by Cohen (1987) on a single draft writing suggested that ‘the activity of teacher feedback as currently constituted and realised may have a more limited impact than the teachers would desire’ (p. 66). Participants of this study were found to use ‘a limited repertoire of strategies for processing teacher feedback’. A majority only made mental notes of the teacher’s comments and some did nothing at all (p. 65). The findings of this study showed that students did not do much to revise their writing. Most of them reread their papers but quite a number reported that they did not.

The same result was also shared by Leki (1991b; Radecki & Swales, 1988). However, Ferris (1995) and Sim (1997) discovered a more encouraging result as she found that students do use a variety of strategies to revise their essays. Students were reported to use outside sources as well as consulting their tutors, checking up the dictionary and grammar books, along with asking their friends. A similar study carried out by Cohen & Cavalcanti (1990), reported that students view their teacher’s feedback as helpful. Students were also found to pay a great attention to teacher feedback and there was a good match between the types of feedback students prefer and the types of feedback that the teacher gave them. Ferris (1995) also reported that students received feedback on grammar along with content in their early drafts. Her study also found that students pay more attention to the comments given in the early drafts. Positive comments are appreciated and on a whole, the students believed that their teacher’s comments are useful in helping them to improve their writing.

3. Research methodology

3.1 Participants

34 students, 29 females and 5 males, from an intermediate ESL class at the Faculty of Accountancy of the Universiti Teknologi MARA participated in the study whose age range from 18-20 years old. Convenience sampling was used to select the respondents.

3.2 Instrument

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire adapted from Ferris (1995) Leki (1999) and Hedgecock and Leftkowitz (1994) and consisted of 27 items each item in the questionnaire tries to address a particular issue in teacher feedback. They can be divided into three major categories namely students’ demographic data, students’ perception of feedback they receive and students’ preferences of the types of feedback they receive.
4. Findings and discussion

Table 1. Students’ perception of the nature of teacher feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many of your teacher’s comments and correction involve:</th>
<th>A lot</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>A little</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Organization</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Content/Ideas</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grammar/language use</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Vocabulary</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mechanics</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A high percentage of the students prefer that the teacher provide suggestions (85%). Another 71% of the students prefer that their teacher provide them with the correct form or correct answers for their errors. 62% of the students prefer that the teacher identifies all the errors they made while 21% would like their teacher to provide them feedback in the form of questions. Finally only one student reported that the teacher provide positive comments.

Table 2. Students’ perceptions of the effectiveness of teacher feedback in helping them improve as writers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you feel that your teacher’s comments and corrections are effective in helping you to improve your composition writing skill? Why?</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher comments are the key to improve my writing skill.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A reminder so as to avoid similar mistakes.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Helps to think and teaches me how to write properly.</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Yes, so that I know my mistake and weaknesses.</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It motivates and helps me write better.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It helps improve my desire to write, my ability to read and my work is not in vain when teacher comments on my work.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not effective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I seldom refer to it thoroughly.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It depends on whether I feel the comments are important or not.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A high percentage of the students believe that teacher comments are effective in helping them improve (94%). They felt that teacher is important and expresses that “it helps me improve because it is the key to improve my writing skill”. Some students also claim that the presence of the teacher feedback show that their work has been appreciated and read by the teacher. Other students claim that the teacher feedback helps them to think and teaches them how to write properly. 18% believes it motivates them to write better.

Table 3. Comments students’ perceive as most helpful in helping them improve their composition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which specific comments did you find most helpful in improving your composition? Least helpful? Why?</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most helpful comments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Suggestions</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Highlighting all my errors</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Comments on grammar</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Criticism</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Praise</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Providing correct answers for my mistakes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Asking questions</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Firm and sincere comments</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A significant number of students reported that comments in the form of suggestions helped them improved most (26%). These students perceive that suggestions helped them by providing new ideas and new ways to rewrite their essays. The
also reported that suggestions aid them in organizing a better draft part from acting as guidance. This view is consistent with students’ preferences for comments in the form of suggestions as discussed above.

### Table 4. Comments students’ perceive to be least helpful in helping them improve their composition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Least helpful comments</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-word comments</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praise</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the correct answers</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on organization</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on vocabulary</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative comments</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments without suggestions</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments that do not include grammar</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, there are no comments that are not helpful</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5. Students’ preferences of teacher feedback form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What types of comments and corrections do you prefer on your paper?</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving suggestions</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying all errors</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing the correct answer over errors made</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving positive comments</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A significant number of students reported that comments in the form of suggestions helped them improved most (26%). These students perceive that suggestions helped them by providing new ideas and new ways to rewrite their essays. The also reported that suggestions aid them in organizing a better draft part from acting as guidance. This view is consistent with students’ preferences for comments in the form of suggestions as discussed above.

### Table 6. Students’ preferences on comments and corrections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which types of comments and corrections is most useful to you?</th>
<th>Most useful</th>
<th>Useful</th>
<th>Not useful</th>
<th>Most unuseful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. (%) n=35</td>
<td>No. (%) n=35</td>
<td>No. (%) n=35</td>
<td>No. (%) n=35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>8 24</td>
<td>11 32</td>
<td>10 29</td>
<td>4 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content/Ideas</td>
<td>15 44</td>
<td>9 26</td>
<td>6 18</td>
<td>3 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar/language use</td>
<td>30 88</td>
<td>4 12</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>18 53</td>
<td>11 32</td>
<td>4 12</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics</td>
<td>17 50</td>
<td>7 21</td>
<td>5 15</td>
<td>5 15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results from the study revealed that a significant number of students reported that they found comments regarding grammar most useful. More specifically, 88% of the students reported grammar as most useful. This is followed by vocabulary where 53% of the students reported it is most useful and 32% reported it as being useful. As for mechanics, 71% reported it is useful and 21% ‘useful’. 70% of the students claim that comments on content/ideas are most useful and 26% reported it is useful. Finally, 56% of the students view organization as most useful and 32% useful.

The findings from this study indicated that students read their teacher’s feedback because they view teacher feedback as important and necessary in helping them know their strength and weaknesses in writing. They were also found to expect their teacher to provide them with feedback as the lack of it shows that the teacher does not appreciate the efforts they put in writing. Additionally, students reported that they received a significant amount of feedback on
They also reported that they pay a lot of attention to grammar. This may be the result of the emphasis on grammar in the course. In addition, grammar is perceived to be important as it is viewed to help make sentences and compositions clearer.

Students also indicated an overwhelming preference for comments in the form of suggestion. Suggestion is perceived to help by giving ways and ideas of making improvements in their compositions. Apart from that, suggestion is viewed as a way for helping them to solve their writing problems and organise a better draft. In addition, comments that were framed as guidance and presented in positive ways were also found to offer help in their revisions. The findings also indicate that questions and one-word comments are viewed as the least useful type of feedback. It was reported by the students that such comments confused them and hinders them from making appropriate revision as they do not know what the teacher expects them to do. It was also found that students values both positive and negative comments. Negative comments did not hinder students from making progress but was welcomed as a challenge to push them to do better.

5. Concluding Remarks

The results and findings of this study suggest that, teachers need to think about their comments more thoroughly before putting them on students’ paper. It may also be necessary that teachers complement written feedback with teacher student conferences or other forms of feedback that will help low proficiency students make appropriate development in writing. Furthermore, “students must also be trained to use the feedback in ways that will improve their writing” (Kroll 2001, p.227). As research and theory has advocated, teachers may need to balance both grammar and content feedback. In the case of students in this study, a lot of emphasis are placed on grammar in their course. Therefore they felt that they need feedback on grammar as it helps make their sentences and compositions clearer and is also important in their exams. Furthermore this study suggests that students appreciate both positive and negative comments. They perceive both of feedback as a source of motivation, and challenge that pushes them to do better in future compositions. It is therefore necessary that teacher provide students with feedback that praises their strength and constructive comments that highlight their weaknesses in order to avoid repetition of mistakes in future writings (Cardelle & Corro, 1981). Finally, it seems that students in this study prefer comments that are elaborate and specific. This implies that teachers need to show genuine interest in the students’ composition and respond to it by referring to specific points or details written in the piece as elaborate and specific comments were found to generate positive changes in students' rewrites (Ferris, 1997).

References


Leadership Behaviour Preferences of Student-Athletes: A Comparative Study of South Africa and India

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Abstract

The athlete-coach relationship is a vertical dyadic relationship in which the coach plays a critical leadership role. The direct influence of coaches on their athletes has been widely reported in many studies from various perspectives. These perspectives include sport involvement, enjoyment, and withdrawal, athlete satisfaction; athletes' physical and psychological status; optimal sport performance; and successful sport performance. The majority of research in sport leadership has focused on the coach, with particular emphasis on personality traits, behavioural attributes, and situational determinants. The current study focuses on a comparison of coach leadership preferences of athletes in South Africa and India. The study used a quantitative research approach using the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) to collect data from student-athletes in South Africa and India. There were 221 South African participants with ages ranging between 18 years and 60 years (M = 23.8, SD = 6.0). On the other hand, there were 400 Indian participants with ages ranging between 18 years and 25 years (M = 21.4, SD = 2.1). To analyse data, descriptive statistics in terms of means and standard deviations were computed. Comparisons of different variables between the two countries were determined through computing unpaired samples t-tests. The results revealed that Indian participants had higher mean scores for all the leadership behaviour preferences compared to their South African counterparts. In fact, all the means were statistically significant (p < 0.0001). It is concluded that athletes in India appear not to set the bar too high regarding their preferences and expectations of their coaches compared to South African athletes.

1. Introduction

Globally sport has emerged into an immensely lucrative and highly competitive market which churns huge amounts of revenue. The key players in the industry are the sport organisations, the fans and sponsors. Within the sport organisations athletes and sport coaches play a huge role in producing a service for sport consumers. Without these two critical 'players' it is highly unlikely that any sport event would ever be staged. The athlete-coach relationship is a vertical dyadic relationship in which the coach plays a critical leadership role. Many studies (e.g. Horn, 2008; Riemer, 2007; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) refer to coaches as leaders. Research on leadership has been conducted in a variety of disciplines such as psychology, history, philosophy, education, political science, theology, industry, and sport (Klenke, 1993).

The direct influence of coaches on their athletes has been widely reported in many studies from various perspectives. These perspectives include sport involvement, enjoyment, and withdrawal (Liukkonen, 1999), athlete satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995); athletes' physical and psychological status (Reinboth, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2004; Serpa, 1999); optimal sport performance (Vealey, 2005); and successful sport performance (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). In most studies which explored the coach-athlete relationship, the critical role of the coaches' leadership behaviour has been hugely attested to. The majority of research in sport leadership has focused on the coach, with particular emphasis on personality traits, behavioural attributes, and situational determinants (Chelladurai, 1984; Dupuis, Bloom & Loughead, 2006). The current study focuses on coach leadership preferences of athletes.

Consensus has not yet been reached on a universal conceptualization of leadership (Loughead, Hardy & Eys, 2006). This may perhaps be due to the complexity of the leadership construct. Mannie (2005) defines leadership as the ability to influence human behaviour, bring everyone together for a common cause, delegates responsibility, takes ownership of the programme, and work with a purpose. Riemer (2007), on the other hand, describes leadership as a phenomenon that deals with group dynamics and interpersonal communication. Its effectiveness is determined by the relationship between factors such as coach and athlete behaviour, situational factors and athlete characteristics (Horn, 2008).
For well over two decades the most prominent, researched and discussed leadership model in sport was the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978), which comprises elements of several leadership theories from other disciplines. The MML focuses upon three states of leader behaviour which determine leadership effectiveness. These are: 1) the actual coaching behaviour which includes what is done or can be done to influence athletes; 2) required behaviour which is behaviour prescribed by the situation and 3) preferred behaviour which is the type of behaviour that athletes would like from their coaches. The main concern with the MML was the compatibility between coach and athlete which is dependent on the degree of congruence among the afore-mentioned three states of leadership behaviour. Previous studies on leadership in sport (e.g. Horn, 2008; Riemer, 2007; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Mondello & Janelle, 2001; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978) have adopted the MML as a source model to identify the most effective leadership styles adopted by sport coaches.

Arising from the MML, Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) developed the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), an inventory that measures five dimensions of leader behaviour, namely training and instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback. This scale examined the relationships in the MML, taking into account situational, leader and team member characteristics. These variables are believed to influence three states of leader behaviour; namely required, preferred, and actual (Dupuis et al., 2006). Several other studies were conceptualized from the LSS (e.g. Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998; Martin & Barnes, 1999, Kozub & Pease, 2001; Loughead & Hardy, 2005). The current study adopted the LSS to examine and compare coach leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from India and South Africa.

Kent and Chelladurai (2001) asserted that leadership is an important determinant of effective functioning for any sport organisation or team. Success in sport coaching depends, to a large extent, on the leadership style of the coach. Despite this assertion, leadership research, especially on the coach-athlete relationship is sparse, peripheral and sporadic (Loughead et al., 2006; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). The student-athlete represents an important member of the sport leadership dyad. The complex and multifaceted nature of the coach-athlete interpersonal relationship is intriguing and often little understood. Coaches, in their leadership role, have an enormous influence on athletes’ physical and psychological status (Reinboth et al., 2004; Serpa, 1999).

2. Theoretical framework

Leadership has been researched from various theoretical perspectives. One of the dominant theories used previously was the contingency theory (Yashfro, 2008). The underlying theme of this theory is based on the fact that leadership is contingent on bringing into sync leadership style and situational favourableness. The basic premise of this theory is that leadership styles are not generically effective across all situations. The contingency theory focuses on the relations between the situation of leaders’ work (in this study the coach’s job) and their actions, goals, and behaviours (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004; Fiedler 1970). The assumption is that that there is no one best approach to coaching and the most effective method of coaching depends on organisational factors and the athletes themselves.

Some researchers have focussed on such situational aspects as relations between coaches and athletes while others concentrated on the athletes and the extent to which the coaching task is structured as well the athlete’s preparedness to achieve the coach’s goal. The contingency theory assumes that for coaching to be effective, coaches need to draw on a repertoire of styles which respond to the coach’s leadership style, the situation and the receptiveness of athletes.

The normative decision theory was derived from the contingency theory (Chemers, 2000). Leadership effectiveness is achieved through the integration of coaches’ strategies and situational factors. In this approach coaches can either be autocratic, i.e. make unilateral decisions; consultative, i.e. taking into account the input of athletes; or participative, i.e. creating a situation in which both the coach and athlete arrive at a decision together (Yashfro, 2008). In this approach it is hypothesized that the most effective decision making style is dependent on the clarity and structure of the coaching activity; the degree of support from athletes and the sport organization; the timeframe for coaches to make decisions and the level of conflict among athletes. The leadership style that the coach will adopt is dependent on any of the afore-mentioned situations. While the normative theory has not been empirically tested to make judgments in an athletic context (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998), it is still relevant in the sporting context.

3. Multidimensional Nature of the Coaching Job

Coaches have received the most attention from sport leadership researchers because of the multifaceted nature of the
responsibilities they assume. They spend a considerable amount of time training and counselling the athletes in their charge. They fulfil multiple roles such as setting goal priorities, developing skills, analysing tactics and techniques, and adjusting their behaviours to meet individual needs (Smoll & Smith, 1989). They are often called upon to develop significant relationships with athletes, assistant coaches, and managers (Jowett, 2003). They also take responsibility for making final decisions in numerous team related issues such as strategy, tactics, and team personnel (Loughead et al., 2006). At colleges and universities they are expected to guide and counsel student-athletes who have academic concerns, social difficulties, or career decisions. Coaches also have the responsibility of building sound positive relationships with their athletes because they have “a great impact on the athletes’ training processes, performance outcomes, and many aspects of their personal lives” (Poczwardowski, Barott & Henschen, 2002:117). Coaches play a significant role in the physical and psychological development of their athletes (Gould, Dieffenbach & Moffett, 2002) as well as contribute to their overall sport performance (Horn, 2002).

In order to bring about improvement in athletic performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behaviours to which athletes are receptive. What may be an appropriate coaching behaviour to one athlete may be an ineffective approach for another. Similarly, specific behaviour by the coach may be more productive of certain outcomes than others (Tinning, 1982). Different needs and preferences from individual athletes within the team confront coaches of team sports. The coach may adopt either a homogenous approach that treats all athletes equally, or alternatively create a heterogeneous style that provides differential treatment to individual athletes. As a result of this, it is important for the coach to be aware of the coaching preferences of his/her athletes in order to provide satisfactory experiences and improve athletic performance. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1983), if a coach adapts his or her behaviour to comply with the athletes’ preferred behaviour, the athlete may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through improved performance.

4. Significance of the Study

The study will contribute to the body of knowledge and understanding of leadership qualities as perceived by the student-athletes. Furthermore the results of this study could help better predict student-athletes’ preferred leadership behaviour of their coaches. By modifying and adapting their behaviour in relation to athlete preferences, coaches could build congruence between preferred and actual behaviours which could ultimately result in improved performance and satisfaction among student-athletes. The findings of the study could also contribute to the development of improved coaching and training programmes.

5. Purpose of the Study

Considering the fact that coaches are often referred to as leaders who define, supply, and deliver the sport experience for the athlete (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2011), it is important that for coaches to be aware of the leadership behaviour preferences of the athletes in their charge. The purpose of this study was therefore to identify and compare the leadership behaviour preferences of student-athletes from tertiary institutions in South Africa and India. This means that there were two questions investigated here. The first was: what are the leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from the two countries? The second was: is there a difference between South African and Indian students’ leadership behaviour preferences with respect to their measured biographical variables. The comparisons here were for preferences of students belonging in a specific group. For instance, in terms of gender, females were compared to each other while with regard to the preferred age of the coach; specific age categories in each country were compared. The specific sub-questions constituting the second question was: is there a statistically significant difference between the two countries in respect of:

- Each country and each of Training and instruction, Democratic behaviour, Autocratic behaviour, Social support, and Positive feedback
- Gender and each of Training and instruction, Democratic behaviour, Autocratic behaviour, Social support, and Positive feedback
- Years in competitive sport and each of Training and instruction, Democratic behaviour, Autocratic behaviour, Social support, and Positive feedback
- Preferred coach and each of Training and instruction, Democratic behaviour, Autocratic behaviour, Social support, and Positive feedback
- Age of preferred coach and each of Training and instruction, Democratic behaviour, Autocratic behaviour,
6. Research methodology

An extensive literature study on leadership in sport was undertaken to develop the theoretical framework for the study. In addition, the study adopted a quantitative research approach which involved the administration of questionnaires to student-athletes at different tertiary institutions in India and South Africa.

6.1 Sample

The sample for the study comprised student-athletes. For purposes of this study the student-athlete is regarded as an individual who is a skilled performer who participates competitively in sport and was eligible to participate in inter-university/college sports. In India the subjects for the present investigation were selected from tertiary institutions in Kerala, South India. In South Africa, the subjects were selected from two universities in the Gauteng Province. In both instances the sample size comprised 400 student-athletes.

6.2 Instrument

In this study, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) was used to collect data. This scale is made up of 40 items grading athlete’s leadership preferences on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Always) to 5 (Never). The scoring of each item was as follows: 5 = Never; 4 = Seldom (about 25% of the time); 3 = Occasionally (about 50% of the time); 2 = Often (about 75% of the time); 1 = Always. Each item was prefaced with the words ‘I prefer my coach to. . .’. The instrument comprised 5 subscales namely Training and Instruction (13 items); Democratic Behaviour (9 items); Autocratic Behaviour (5 items); Social Support (8 items); and Positive Feedback (5 items). In terms of the reliability of the LSS from athletes’ perceptions, alpha values as measures of internal consistency were reported in a study conducted among Canadian athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The values were: Training and Instruction (α = .93); Democratic Behaviour (α = .87); Autocratic Behaviour (α = .79); Social Support (α = .86); and Positive Feedback (α = .92). Studies conducted in Japan and Canada reported similar alpha values as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Internal consistency estimates for athletes’ perception version of the LSS for each subscale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Canada</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training and Instruction</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Behaviour</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic Behaviour</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Feedback</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* adapted from Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinnuma, & Miyauchi (1988)

In terms of the validity of the LSS, content validity was reported where the subscales of the LSS were found to be consistent with literature on leadership as described in the construction of the questionnaire (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). Factorial validity in which items had similar factor structure across three samples was also reported by Chelladurai (1990).

6.3 Procedure

In India the questionnaire was administered to the subjects by Masters graduate residing in Kerala. In South Africa trained fieldworkers were used to administer the questionnaire to participants. Participants were identified at different stadia at which they trained. Participants were informed through a covering letter that their participation was voluntary could be discontinued at any time without repercussions, their responses would be confidential and their participation would remain anonymous. In most instances the questionnaires were completed in the presence of the fieldworker or researcher after training sessions. In other instances they were completed by the student-athletes at their convenience and later collected by the fieldworker or researcher.
6.4 Data analysis

To analyse data, descriptive statistics in respect of the 5 subscales of the LSS were computed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS - version 20). That is, means and standard deviations were computed for each of the subscales, Training and Instruction; Democratic Behaviour; Autocratic Behaviour; Social Support; and Positive Feedback. Following the computation of the descriptive statistics, comparisons of means from the two countries in respect of the five subscales were determined by calculating unpaired samples t-tests. The unpaired samples t-tests were computed using GraphPad Software © (2013). Further, comparisons between the two countries involving the subscales were evaluated against variables such as gender, competitive sport in years, the preferred gender of the coach, and the preferred age of coach. All the tests were computed with the significance level set at $p < 0.0001$.

7. Results and Discussion

The results presented here are in the following order: first the biographical data of both the South African and Indian participants is provided. This is followed by a presentation of the reliability and validity of data from the two countries. Reporting the reliability and validity is important because without this being acceptable, it makes it difficult to draw reasonable conclusions about the collected data. The final section of the results deals with the two questions addressed in the study. Firstly, the preferences of the participants from both countries are reported. Secondly, the results of the different comparisons in respect of the biographical data against the LSS subscales are reported.

7.1 Biographical Information

There were 221 South African and 400 Indian participants. In terms of the year of study, first years were 80 (36.2%) in South Africa and 276 (69.0%) in India; second years were 76 (34.4%) in South Africa and 107 (26.7%); third years were 56 (25.3%) in South Africa and 17 (4.3%) in India. There were 9 postgraduate students from South Africa while none participated from India. The ages of the South Africans ranged between 18 years and 60 years ($M = 23.8$, $SD = 6.0$) while those of the Indian participants were between 18 years and 25 years ($M = 21.4$, $SD = 2.1$). In fact, the participants were in a similar age range with a few outliers older than 25 years constituting about 0.5% of the South Africans.

A more comprehensive illustration of the biographical data is provided in Table 2. The table shows that males were in the majority in both countries. In fact, in both counties the males comprised more than half the participants, that is 141 (63.8%) in South Africa and 217 (54.2%) in India respectively. Regarding the number of years that participants had been involved in sport, 56.5% in South Africa and 39.0% in India indicated that this had been the case for five years or more. In terms of the level of study, more participants were in their first or second year at university. Specifically, 70.6% in South Africa and 95.7% in India were in their first or second year of study. In both countries, a majority of participants (56.6% in South Africa; 52.5% in India) revealed that it did not matter to them whether a coach was male or female. Approximately a third of the participants in each country (34.4% in South Africa; 32.8% in India) indicated that they had no preference in respect of the age of their coach. In South Africa however, a preference for a coach in the age range of 31 years - 40 years, was also expressed by 32.6% of the participants.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage distribution of the rest of South African and Indian participants’ biographical data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in competitive sport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Year</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 6 Years</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Preferred coach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>215</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age of preferred coach

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 - 30</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 40</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 50</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 Years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and older</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It does</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not matter</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

If a Likert-type scale is used to collect data, it is then opined that “... it is imperative to calculate and report Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for internal consistency reliability for any scales or subscales one may be using” (Gliem & Gliem, 2003: 89). Following this view, reliability of the Leadership Scale for Sport was determined by computing Cronbach’s (1951) alpha which is a measure of internal consistency related to the interrelatedness of test items (Schmitt, 1996). Based on the rule of thumb “… ≥ .9 – Excellent, ≥ .8 – Good, ≥ .7 – Acceptable, ≥ .6 – Questionable, ≥ .5 – Poor, and ≤ .5 – Unacceptable” (George & Mallery, 2003: 231) the computed values were: α = .91 in South Africa and it was adjudged to be excellent and α = .86 in India meanwhile was good.

Table 3 shows the alpha values together with confidence intervals for the instrument and its subscales. In both the South African and Indian contexts Autocratic behaviour had alpha values that were very low. Nonetheless these values were consistent with values computed in other studies, for example in Japan and Canada, already mentioned here (see Table 1). Validity in this study was accepted a priori. This is because comprehensive explanations of the construction of the questionnaire together with issues relating its validity (Chelladurai, 1990; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) were found to be adequate for the purposes of this study.

Table 3. Alpha values and confidence intervals from the Leadership Scale for Sport and its subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th>India</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α</td>
<td>CI</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Scale for Sport</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.89 – .93</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.84 – .88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.72 – .79</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.72 – .79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.70 – .79</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.68 – .76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.38 – .57</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.34 – .50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.70 – .80</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.67 – .72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive behaviour (Rewarding</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.69 – .89</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.69 – .77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.3 Preferences and test of significance

Regarding leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from the two countries, Positive behaviour (M = 1.982, SD = 0.83) was the most preferred while Autocratic behaviour (M = 2.903, SD = 0.76) was the least preferred among South African participants. On the other hand, Democratic behaviour (M = 3.648, SD = 0.51) was the most preferred while Positive behaviour (M = 3.941, SD = 0.57) as well as Social support (M = 3.945, SD = 0.65) were the least preferred from the Indian participants’ perspective.

The first question was: is there a statistically significant difference between the two countries’ participants with respect to each of training and instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback? Here, determination of whether there were differences between scores obtained in each subscale of the Leadership Scale for Sport questionnaire was made. Table 4 shows that there were statistically significant differences between South African and Indian participants with respect to each of the subscales. In fact, the table shows that in all instances the Indian participants had higher mean scores than their South African counterparts. This is also reflected in the results of all the other questions regarding coach behaviour preferences.

The higher mean scores with regard to all the subscales for Indian participants are indicative of their lower leadership behaviour preferences in terms of all the subscales. Athletes in India appear not to set the bar too high regarding their preferences and expectations of their coaches. In south Africa the hosting of mega sport events such as...
the FIFA world Cup, the T20 Cricket Cup and the IRB Rugby World Cup has sparked increased interest and participation in sport. There has been a simultaneous corresponding increase in the preferences and expectations of athletes who attempt to emulate their sport heroes.

### Table 4. Means, standard deviations and unpaired t-test score comparisons for the different subscales in South Africa and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>South Africa (N = 221)</th>
<th>India (N = 400)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.105</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3.715</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.451</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.648</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.903</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>3.753</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.531</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>3.945</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.982</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>3.941</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.0001; ** df = degrees of freedom

In terms of the leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes, it was found that male and female mean scores were not different within each country. This suggests that participants’ preferences according to gender were not different. The second question was: is there a statistically significant difference between the two countries in respect of gender and each of training and instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback? In relation to gender, there were 141 males and 80 females in South Africa while there were 217 males and 183 females in India. Table 5 reveals that irrespective of gender Indian participants had statistically significant differences compared to their South African counterparts. For example in the case of Training and instruction preferences for males a statistically significantly difference was computed: t(356) = 23.63, p < 0.0001. Similarly, for females t(261) = 23.76, p < 0.0001.

### Table 5. Means, standard deviations and unpaired t-test scores for the gender comparisons with respect to the different LSS subscales in South Africa and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.179</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.551</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>3.676</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.881</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>3.751</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.521</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.970</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>2.044</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>3.946</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>1.976</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>3.734</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.271</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>3.815</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.942</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>3.755</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.547</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>3.914</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.872</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>3.933</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.0001; ** df = degrees of freedom. To avoid repetition the degrees of freedom are only on the first variable in all the tables

Regarding leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from the two countries, there were 77 (34.8%) participants who had been in competitive sport for less than 3 years and 144 (65.2%) in competitive sport for 4 years or more in South Africa. In India there were 205 (51.2%) and 195 (48.8%) participants respectively. In South Africa, the mean scores for the five LSS subscales ranged between Positive behaviour (M = 2.036, SD = 0.76) and Autocratic behaviour (M = 2.909, SD = 0.76) for participants who have been in competitive sport for less than 3 years. For participants in competitive sport for 4 years or more in South Africa the mean scores ranged between Positive behaviour (M = 1.953, SD = 0.87) and Autocratic behaviour (M = 2.900, SD = 0.76). On the other hand, in India mean scores ranged between Democratic behaviour (M = 3.634, SD = 0.52) and Social support (M = 3.968, SD = 0.62) for participants in competitive sport for less than 3 years. For participants in competitive sport for 4 years or more the mean scores ranged between Democratic behaviour (M = 3.663, SD = 0.49) as well as Social support (M = 3.920, SD = 0.68) and Positive behaviour (M = 3.927, SD = 0.57). This was interpreted to suggest that in South Africa Positive behaviour was the least preferred while Autocratic behaviour was the most preferred among all the participants. In contrast, in India Democratic behaviour was the least preferred while Social support was the most preferred between both groups. Also
preferred among participants who had been in competitive sport for 4 years or more, in India was *Positive behaviour*.

**Table 6.** Means, standard deviations and unpaired t-test scores for the years in competitive sport comparisons with respect to the different LSS subscales in South Africa and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competitive sport (Years)</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>India</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 – 3 year</strong></td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.153</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>3.717</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.410</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>3.634</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.909</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>3.749</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.502</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>3.968</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>3.953</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4 years +</strong></td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.080</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>3.713</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.473</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>3.663</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.900</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>3.757</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.546</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>3.920</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.953</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>3.927</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.0001; **df = degrees of freedom

The third question was: Is there a statistically significant difference between the years in competitive sport and each of *training and instruction*, *democratic*, *autocratic*, *social support*, and *positive feedback*? In this instance there were 77 (34.8%) participants who had been in competitive sport for 1 year to 3 years in South Africa and 205 (51.2%) in India. Also, there were 144 (65.2%) who had been in competitive sport for 4 years or more in South Africa while there were 195 (48.8) in India. It may be seen from Table 6 that in both groups of years in competitive sport, Indian participants had higher mean scores regarding each of the LSS subscales. The mean differences were also statistically significantly different. For instance in the group that had been in competitive sport for 1 year to 3 years the preference for *Democratic behaviour* had \( t(280) = 15.65, p < 0.0001 \). For the group that had been in competitive sport for 4 years or more the preference for *Democratic behaviour* reflected \( t(337) = 18.28, p < 0.0001 \).

In terms of leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from the two countries, there were 37 (16.7%) participants whose preference was a male coach in South Africa and 57 (14.2%) in India. There were also 171 (77.4%) whose preference was a female coach in South Africa while there were 244 (61.1%) in India. Furthermore, there were 13 (5.9%) participants to whom the gender of the coach did not matter in South Africa while there were 99 (24.7%) in India. These results in essence reveal that in both countries a female coach was the most preferred by participants.

The fourth question was: is there a statistically significant difference between the gender of the preferred coach and each of *training and instruction*, *democratic*, *autocratic*, *social support*, and *positive feedback*? Table 7 shows that Indian participants had higher mean scores than their counterparts in South Africa. In fact, in all instances statistically significant differences between the gender of the preferred coach and each of *training and instruction*, *democratic*, *autocratic*, *social support*, and *positive feedback* were established. For example, in the case where the preference was for a male coach regarding *Autocratic behaviour*, the statistically significant difference was computed as \( t(92) = 4.93; p < 0.0001 \). On the other hand, for a female coach against *Autocratic behaviour*, \( t(413) = 12.57; p < 0.0001 \) while the same variable had values of \( t(110) = 7.22; p < 0.0001 \) for the participants to whom the gender of the coach did not matter.

**Table 7.** Means, standard deviations and unpaired t-test scores for the coach’s preferred gender comparisons with respect to the different LSS subscales in South Africa and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coach gender</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>India</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>3.619</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.294</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>3.571</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.940</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>3.684</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.513</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.882</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.730</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.125</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>3.738</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.501</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>3.678</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.925</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.779</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding leadership behaviour preferences of student athletes from the two countries, there were 121 (54.7%) South African participants who preferred a coach who is less than 40 years compared to 156 (39.1%) in India. Also, there were 24 (10.9%) whose preference was a coach of more than 40 years in South Africa and 113 (28.2%) in India. Finally, 76 (34.4%) in South Africa and 131 (32.7%) in India felt that the age of the coach did not matter to them. These results indicate that for South African participants a coach whose age was less than 40 year was more preferable. In India on the other hand the preference for a coach’s age was not so clear cut. In fact, participants who preferred a coach less than 40 years were slightly more than one in three, those who preferred a coach of over 40 years were just over a quarter while those to whom the age did not matter were also slightly more than one in three.

The fifth question was: is there a statistically significant difference between the age of the preferred coach and each of training and instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback? In terms of differences, Indian participants had statistically significant mean scores compared to the South African participants (see Table 8).

Table 8. Means, standard deviations and unpaired t-test scores for the preference of the coach’s age comparisons with respect to the different LSS subscales in South Africa and India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of coach</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>India</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 years and less</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.043</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>3.723</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.360</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>3.626</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.805</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>3.801</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.473</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>3.925</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.949</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>3.909</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40 years</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.410</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>3.688</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.606</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>3.635</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.850</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>3.678</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.615</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>3.961</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>2.395</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>4.018</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age doesn’t matter</td>
<td>Training and instruction</td>
<td>2.108</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3.727</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Democratic behaviour</td>
<td>2.547</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>3.687</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic behaviour</td>
<td>3.076</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>3.760</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>2.595</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>3.954</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive behaviour</td>
<td>1.934</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>3.911</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.0001; ** df = degrees of freedom

8. Conclusion

The findings of this comparative study indicate differences exist across all five subscales between the two countries regarding the leadership preferences of university athletes. Various environmental influences such as political factors, social factors, organizational culture and available resources play a role in the way a coach is perceived. These perceptions could ultimately be the deciding factor in the coach leadership preferences of university athletes. Furthermore there exists anecdotal evidence to suggest that athletes in South Africa experience a sense of entitlement regarding the leadership they expect of sport coaches, hence their high levels of preference of leadership behaviours. In contrast, anecdotal evidence in India suggests that athletes are more subservient to their teacher/coach hence their leadership preferences are lower than those of their South African counterparts.
9. Acknowledgement

The authors would like to acknowledge the assistance of R.S.Subin from National College (Arts & Science), Manacadu, Trivandrum, Kerala, India.

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Mannie, K. (2005). Tough love is in effect here! Perspectives on coaching and leadership. Coach and Athletic Director, 74(10), 68-70.


Gender: A Filter of Information among University Students?

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Abstract

This study tests hypotheses inserted in the psycho-socio-communicational paradigm which long term cognitive effects of the media and the role of the recipient as a subject with his own psychological and socio-cultural characteristics. It is the hypotheses of “agenda-setting”. The aim is to analyze the role played by such characteristics and, especially, by gender when it comes to “filtering” information that increases quantitatively, yet is qualitatively unified. Quantitative / qualitative techniques are included. The sample was taken from University graduates. Results related to media impact and differential interpretation - existing a high level of education- show non significant statistical differences for this variable, becoming especially relevant under the light of Cognitive Psychology, Media Psychology and Gender Psychology.

Keywords: Gender, Higher Education, Psychology

1. The Primary Aims

a) to elucidate such effects on young public which has attained the highest educational level,
b) to detect levels of manipulation and homogenization of “mental maps”,
c) to analyze which variables prove decisive as “filters” of the information which increases in quantity and is directed more and more at increasingly segmented audiences,
d) to observe the specific role of gender in what concerns referential interpretation,
e) to recognize possible modifications in performances, attributions and perceptions taking into account the different socio-cultural and pedagogic-institutional insertion.

2. Hypothesis

The central hypotheses are offered (agenda-setting) talking into account that forty nine of these were considered:

a) there seems to be marked correlation between the order of importance assigned to the information by the media and that adopted by the youths, which would reflect a high incidence in the emerging “cognitive construing” and the respective mental homogenization,
b) the information does not seem to affect all the subjects in the same way, because of the mediation of intervening factors (education, psychology, etc.);
c) development of the cognitive processes and their products, attributions knowledge appropriation and interpretation of reality would show to be highly dependent on institutional settings;
d) a gender divided reading would reflect the influence of cultural-historical construing, still present in underdeveloped, discriminatory contexts;
e) this interpretation would be closer between males and females belonging to the same academic institutions which are thought to be, by some theories, strong homogenizing factors.

3. Method

3.1 Sample

The sample was made up of graduates (N=516) from eighteen careers in Cuyo University (Argentina) between 1980 and 1993. The sampling was stratified. Confidence interval was set at 95% and error margin at 4%.
3.2 Instruments

- Quanti-qualitative techniques were complemented, statistical analysis on products and psychosocial ones on processes.
- Among the first, a semistructured survey that included 151 variables (base line, psychosocial, personality, institutional, structural and communicational ones) was used.
- The latter included in-depth interviews (in life-story contexts), anecdote accounts and non-obstructive observation.
- Of the wide spectre of variable, gender, psychological and communicational variables (agenda-setting) were central here.

3.3 Procedure

1. Survey of data in files the cover more than a decade.
2. Implementation of the aforementioned technique in the home.
3. Survey of the two agendas (the media and public ones) and establishment of the time frame, taking into account the models of the agenda-effect: awareness, relevance and priorities (Becker, McCoombs, Mc Leod). Graphic media was employed (six representative national newspapers, of different “ideology”), as well as visual media (television newwreels).
4. The comparison procedures for both agendas and the analytical strategy are original.

4. Results

In reference to the hypothesis results corroborate:

a) presence of the “agenda-effect”, though in a differential manner according to the socio-educational level and other factors,

b) the irrelevance of the “gender” factor in relation with selective and priority assimilation of reality.

4.1 Agenda-effect

- It was observed that the agenda-effect is present even in the most educated subjects: only what the media offers is thought about; the rest of the information is neither internalized nor are the subjects aware of it, it does not constitute a part of the “mental maps”.
- Thus, a certain homogenization of thought is formed, as the result of the quantitative homogenization of the news and current production routines.
- The similarity of interpretations of all subjects –male and female– shows the extent of the media's power concerning uniformity of the contents of thought.
- Nevertheless, the strengthening of a certain image of reality is neither samely nor always present in all subjects, depending on the intervening psycho-socio-cultural values.

4.2 Relations between differential interpretation and educational level

- Education featured as a decisive filter: interpretation is less similar to that of the media agenda and of more critical nature –whether in males or females- the higher the educational level.

4.3 Relationship between differential interpretation and the homogenizing role of organizations

- The educational institution emerges, corroborating what was theorized, as a second great filter: the interpretation of males and females belonging to the same educational institution had much more in common than those proceeding from different academic units.
- It also follows that: a) the importance of the socio-cultural an ideological-institutional insertions in the creation of cognitive mechanisms and behavioral strategies at the individual level; b) the obvious incidence that
different institutional mediations can effect on the subject/world relationship; c) given the effectiveness of these mediations, the contribution or risk derived from the idiosyncrasy of the institutional frame.

### 4.4 Relationship differential interpretation / gender relations

- Gender, in high educational levels, did not appear as a filter, against what expected up to a short time ago. Manner of seeing, accepting, judging or internalizing reality were very much alike in female and male subjects, to the point of not recognizing any statistically significant differences in any case.

### 5. Conclusions

- The final result of the cognitive process is similar in males and females at highly educated levels.
- Female psychology (culturally conceived as predominantly emotional and less skillful) does not result in a distorted interpretation of reality.
- Such findings are relevant for Cognitive Psychology, Media Psychology and, especially, for Gender Psychology.

### References


Learning Management Systems, Social Programs and Their Effectiveness in E-Learning

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Abstract

Represents management systems learning (Learning Management systems) device used by most of the central institutions of higher education to support the educational process. And contrasts the performance of these systems with the increasing demand decentralization among Higher Education and Alhath, the use of open tools and services that contribute increasingly to promote a wide range of educational activities and practices outside institutional boundaries. With the proliferation of social networks (social networks) as one of the applications outstanding in the second generation of the Web (Web 2.0), called for the need to replace management systems traditional learning to other systems more open to keep up with the changes accelerated in web technologies and are consistent with the way the new generation with the network. Thus was born a new form of learning and management systems that combine the characteristics of traditional learning management systems and social networks. Of these modern systems site (schoology.com), which offers a free service for creating and managing learning systems, and mixing interface social networking with the management tools of learning, so that teachers and students (and parents and administrators) of communication and cooperation in educational matters. The site also provides educational traditional jobs in the months learning systems such as Blackboard and Moodle.

1. Introduction

There is a need for e-learning with the advent of the Internet, and have seen this technology in recent years A significant development with the evolution of the network itself. In the early Internet was the medium used in education Mail is limited to text only, but with the great technological development in Internet technologies have changed. The traditional view of e-learning to turn to a more dynamic environments and inclusive. In addition, development Made in communication technology and the penetration of service fast Internet access via digital subscriber lines which will impact positively change the concept of e-learning and ways to display and interact with it to include, (DSL) high-speed new interactive aspects. This paper discusses a brief overview of the evolution of e-learning management systems, said the new trend in the transition. Followed by the definition of the concept of environments, (Personal Learning Environments) for personal learning environments Learning with your personal characteristics and benefits and how to create, and then the paper concludes by mentioning practical examples to develop Personal e-learning environments around the world.

2. Known as e-learning

Studied with educational materials that is easily accessible through the use of software for browsing, such as the Or by the Internet Explorer software program or Internet Explorer Netscape Netscape. (Especially (Khalifa, 2003 E-learning to the word, and that (e-learning) and that some professionals prefer the term translation Known as the "way to teach using the modern communication like the mechanisms, networks and media Multiple and online portals for the delivery of information to learners as soon as less expensive and more Enables management of the educational process and setup, measuring and evaluating the performance of learners.

E-learning is useful in several cases (Khalifa, 2003), including:

- support and complement traditional education.
- Teaching materials full - or to provide training in a timely manner.
- teach increasing numbers of students in crowded ranks.
The possibility of using the means at any time and any place.

Previous points (Learning Management Systems) and check most learning management systems mentioned, in addition to that they make it easier for the teacher and student communication process at any time, anytime. With the development of the Internet and the penetration of the Internet access service rapidly via digital subscriber lines high Change the concept of e-learning and ways to display and interact with it to include more aspects, (DSL) speed Which (E-Learning interactive, leading to the emergence of the so-called second generation of e-learning (2.0 And others in the process (Wikis) and wikis (Blogs) interested in employing social programs such as blogs Education.

3. E-learning management systems

And Learning Management systems (LMS) is intended to e-learning management systems Virtual Learning (VLE) sometimes called virtual learning environments That it had systems that work Kmsand and enhanced the educational process so that it lays teacher, EnvironmentsEducational materials from lectures and exams and sources in the system as there are rooms for discussion and portfolio And other electronic services subsidized school material. Ie (ePortfolios) for students' workLearning Management Systems are programs that help to store the content of courses electronically as it facilitates. Management of the learning process.

One of the characteristics of these programs includes:

- Publish and provide courses.
- Management of student records and follow-up activities.
- The possibility of communication between students and teachers through Dialogic Private forums.
- Publication of examinations and evaluation.

At present, there is a large amount of learning systems management programs where there are almost more than 200, (Course-centric) software package (Atmesa, 2006). These systems are based on the curriculum in the sense that all students enrolled in these systems will see the same approach and the same order and using the same Tools. These systems also come on the two types, some of which is free and open source programs such as Model. (Blackboard), including what is a commercial program such as Blackboard (Moodle) Learning management systems and virtual worlds Know virtual worlds on the programs they represent three-dimensional virtual environments can used for these worlds And also the construction and design of buildings and features and do (avatars) create virtual incarnation called figures Various types of activities. In these worlds can identify and communicate with other people from different parts of the world.

The most prominent virtual worlds on the Internet. This has hired (Second Life) is the world of Second Life In the world of education by many educational and academic institutions and even commercial, is added to that 2007). The most prominent virtual worlds on the Internet. This has hired (Second Life) is the world of Second Life In the world of education by many educational and academic institutions and even commercial, is added to that 2007). For, Kapp) more than 70 educational institutions have established a presence in the world of Second Life Island building training in the world of Second Life with classes (Cisco), for example the Cisco On the same approach. The world (IBM) seminar to train employees in the company, followed by IBM Avatar Languages Second Life is used in the teaching of languages, where the school language teaching Using the default in the default language learning called (tasks surreal). "These functions combine language learning through Second Life and real life e-learning and sources of media-rich video and audio through the integration of Communication and curriculum based on the performance of the tasks "(Vickers, 2007). The addition of the world of Second Life to Features SOUND allows its members to speak with each other directly enabled teachers to provide more lessons Interactive. Learning management systems and social programs before recognize what are the social programs will give a simple overview of the second generation of Web 2.0. Characterized -Web 2.0 interactive techniques, flexibility and effectiveness of the sensor can these techniques given in the examples of services (RSS) and extracts sites (weblogs) and blogs (wikis) provided by programs such as Wikis And others. Was the first appearance of the term Web 2.0 in 2005, and specifically in the conference of the same name. Brainstorming in a meeting which was held on the sidelines of the conference between each of the O'Reilly Company and : (Websites, services and applications where there is a number of characteristics, including (Khalifa, 2006

1. Provide a high degree of interactivity with the user: The this sense Interactive user when using A Web 2.0 applications like uses a desktop application on his machine.

2. User participation in content: Previously, the Web is a platform for read-only, the contact On the Web was edited by the people belonging to either the companies or universities or private institutions or Government,
not the average user of the Internet is able to contribute to the content of the publication. At the present time It has become a user can add and modify the contents of the Web sites - that allow it - easily. Including that President nerve in Web 2.0 technologies are based on: (Tagging)

3. possibility characterization Content The existence and content contributed by the user, either directly or indirectly, it was necessary to find a way to help Also used on the labeling of any characterization of these contents to sort and arrange to return to it later andTake advantage of them.

On One of the characteristics of these programs include:
1. Publish and provide courses.
2. Management of student records and follow-up activities.
3. The possibility of communication between students and teachers through Dialogic Private forums.
4. Publication of examinations and evaluation.

As can be seen these systems as a set of tools (such as forums and examinations, etc.) And information (educational content and information and other students), which employs to serve a specific curriculum context.

3.1 Generally there are close to each other concepts with some differences, including:

(CMS -Course Management System)
(LMS – Learning Management System)
(LCMS – Learning Content Management System)

This is known as the gateway shortcut (Web CT), is a global system for the management of courses and educational materials based on the virtual environment that come online in the forefront, and produced by the company's global Blackboard, one of the largest companies specialized in the field of Learning Management Systems Learning Management System, and offers this product now under the name of Blackboard Learning System after the company Blackboard bought WebCT and is one of the most courses delivery systems prevalent especially in the field of higher education. Developed this system at the University of British Columbia and was soon adopted by several other universities around the world has evolved a system Web CT from being a system for providing educational materials via the Internet to the system for the management and delivery of educational materials such as authoring tools and electronic publishing as well as training services, counseling, and can refer to system on the Web site to identify the services, and if we reviewed the capabilities of the system based on the number of studies that addressed the analysis and the study found are summarized as follows:

1. Learning Tools: It consists of:
   a. Meetings system, which is a newsletter Panel Bulletin Board.
   b. E-mail.
   c. Dialogue system (Conversation Chat).
   d. Self-assessment tools for students.
   e. A dictionary of terms can be connected with links within the context. And. The area where scholars presented their business.
   f. Timed tests on-line Timed Online Quizzes.
   g. External references.
   h. Automated search within the content.
   i. Learner's guide (for using the aid system).

2. And content display function: a hierarchical or linear manner, as well as the introduction to this content, and providing ultra links to other sites outside the system had the learner Alastzadh.

3. D function: It consists of a number of functions that help teachers develop their courses.

4. Teacher Tools: Special tools include follow-up to the learner to the location and movement behavior of students inside, as well as special programs authored tests.

3.2 Examples of system tools City website:

Curriculum content Content: Browse and save the educational content in decision Introduction Curriculum Syllabus: are recognized on a scheduled plan and its objectives and core subjects and his previous requirements are also the definition professor decision.

E-mail Mail: a special e-mail system to be students.
Discussion forums: Discussions: forum dialogue between students and between them and their teacher with regard to the decision.

Electronic whiteboard: Whiteboard: These tool users can write or draw certain forms and viewed by other users.

Duties and tasks: Assignments: Through this tool, the duty of the students are then delivered assignments in a timely manner.

3.3 Tests: Quiz: This tool provides the possibility of testing the student according to the given time.

Calendar: Calendar: This tool is available to identify information about the most important events during the course of rapid and effective.

Some of the main advantages of the Web City include the following:
- Ability to use multimedia.
- Self-assessment tools for students and immediate assessment tools.
- The organization and distribution of marks.
- Through the system can communicate conferences and communication between students, as well as between the student and the teacher.
- The advantage of being fragmented and conferences can be searched.
- E-mail system.
- The ability to search by the teacher.
- And effective links with the Internet.
- The ability to instant messaging in real-time time.
- Archived images are searchable.
- Exhibition space for students and create master pages.
- The ability to put notes on the page.
- A set of design and management tools.
- Security and access control.
- The ability to record and copy the lesson.
- Is a system of systems based on the icons in the sense that every function of previous jobs appear in front of the student in the form of a miniature called icon. Once you squeeze it begins to interact with that function.
- The system is compatible with all standard Internet browsers, the learner can also be used by either IBM or Mac system and this is independent of the working platform. Platform Independent. The system offers a dual private first student interaction and display only the content and student tools, and the second a private designer and includes some special tools to design on-line and follow-up of students and edit their data and control what displays on each student.

3.4 It can interface through students obtain the following information:

1. Browse own lecture notes: To allow reviewing notes teachers in the classroom.
2. Billboard: a space that can be for students which the comment letters relating to the separation, and interaction with their colleagues. This area also includes the "Update News" where teachers announce updated information regarding the dismissal.
3. Test Messaging: Includes all of the tests and examinations, where tests are evaluated immediately upon completion, giving the brand directly to schools.
4. Curriculum: Includes curriculum prescribed by the teacher.
5. Homework: include homework and projects required by the teacher and allocated for the semester.
6. Tags: allow schools to examine the progress in the classroom and determine the current mark.
7. Events related article: Department of the agenda of the session includes the dates of the duties in the classroom and tests as well as scheduled events that are announced by the instructor.
8. Home pages for students: the system provides a mini home page for all students in the classroom.

4. Blackboard system:

Produced by Blackboard for educational services on-line, based in Washington, DC, and sees Richard F. Dragan...
Richard V. Dragan system that paved the way for institutions to raise their educational and training programs across networks. Comes the power of this system to provide a number of options to the user (the author of the program) to choose from what fits his need it provides library consisting of about one hundred of the buttons and templates, as well as the system provides tools allow the learner to interact with colleagues and make most of the network capabilities. On the other hand the system provides support for various file formats as MS Word program files and PDF file format for electronic publishing and sharing files across the network. In addition to the further advantage of providing a model for direct on-line test allows the teacher to design different types of tests. Blackboard system was marked for the rest of the systems that have been analyzed in that it offers a free copy of the teacher can be used to provide the course you want to put it on a direct line to be free of this decision and that the server is through the system. It also provides a guide to the use of the system on the internet, which shows the tools that can be included in the decision - all or some of them - so as to enable the learner to exercise various educational activities, and review this guide can select the following functions provided by the system:

1. Provide tools learner interaction: It means the tools that interact with the learner during the study are as follows:
   A. Ads: allow this tool to schools latest news or notifications or declarations that he wants to send faculty members to learners or to a group of them and the student review by simply clicking pointer mouse key ads to show him the panel can list their content either alphabetically or historically.
   B. Calendar: tell this tool learner Ptoukitat of the events related to the subject learning and Raise of when the time comes, such as lectures and meetings on the network or meetings and face-to-face university, etc., can be for the learner to add to what he wants from the events.
   C. Tasks: tell the student what must play tasks, as it allows him to organize those tasks by subject or according to his personal vision, and the teacher can be sent to a particular learner a specific task not sent to another learner.
   D. Estimates: This task Ptkadirath concerned both in the interim or final exams.
   E. Users Manual: This tool guides the work of the students participating in the course to get to know each other. And. Address Book: The book is a personal student puts the data on those who want to communicate with them through the system, the user Vdleil former may include hundreds of students The Address Book fitted with the titles added by the student himself.

2. Show Content: The basic function of the system to provide educational materials is to provide educational material content to learners. In this regard the Blackboard system and content within the display function scheduled content option (Course Content) and when the student chooses this function the system will review the following content pictures:
   A. Display text information accompanied by pictures and animated graphics and other elements, according to the organization educational organization required.
   B. Documents and files related to the subject of study.
   C. Books and references available on the network, or that the teacher advised his students read.
   D. Links to important sites.

3. Contact function: system provides three ways to communicate between each other's students and between students and the teacher as follows:
   A. Send and receive e-mails, providing evidence of the names and mailing addresses of students referred to above.
   B. Discussion boards Discussion Board: also called plate’s ads Bulletin Board, one of the tools asynchronous interactions where the student can express his opinion on any issue or ask a question to be reviewed by peers later.
   C. Chapter default Virtual Classroom: This label stands for network meetings on the system user to the system. This system allows the learner to dialogue with his colleagues and mentor what looked like Chapter default through the panel Chat Panel dialog box which enables the student to write what he wants through the keyboard to see all of the related meetings system at this time. It also allows a graphical panel like white Balsburh and movement of text or images, graphics, and presented to the students or the teacher.

And check most learning management systems Previous points Mentioned, as well as make it easier for the teacher and student communication process at any time, anytime. With the development of the Internet and the penetration of the Internet access service rapidly via digital subscriber lines high Change the concept of e-learning and
ways to display and interact with it to include more aspects, (DSL) speed Which (E-Learning interactive, leading to the emergence of the so-called second generation of e-learning 2.0 And others in the process (Wikis) and Blogs) interested in employing social programs such as blogs Education. "Interested in supporting the social aspect of the educational process in compensation for spatial separation between the teacher and the learners And through the use of social software (software that enhance the partnership and communication between Learners), such as blogs, wikis, and the formation of communities of learners, voice broadcast and transmit video And social networks. The exchange of links to the Web through labeling programs the important links helps to know the learner to others with a similar interest"

4.1 Learning management systems and social programs

Before recognize what are the social programs will give a simple overview of the second generation of Web 2.0. Characterized

Web 2.0 interactive techniques, flexibility and effectiveness of the sensor can these techniques given in the examples of services (RSS) and extracts sites (weblogs) and blogs (wikis) provided by programs such as Wikis And others. Was the first appearance of the term Web 2.0 in 2005, and specifically in the conference of the same name Brainstorming in a meeting which was held on the sidelines of the conference between each of the O'Reilly Company and : (Websites, services and applications where there is a number of characteristics, including (Khalifa, 2006

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We find that learning management systems did not keep pace quickly spread and acceptance of social programs to the people as we find few Of these systems from the integration of property or more of the characteristics of social programs in their systems, resulting in To the reluctance of some learners from the use of such systems, systems thinking and alternative environments provide them with education According to personal needs. This change in the Web has led to the emergence of the concept of e-learning environments Personal - as will be mentioned later - which centered on applications to take advantage of the second generation of the Web And customized to serve.

5. Problem of the study

Of the problems faced by the institutions of education and vocational training as follows:

1. multiplicity of supervising and implementing education programs and vocational training
2. the inadequacy of educational programs to the needs of the labor market, ineffective
3. leakage in all stages of education
4. weak cooperation between education institutions and vocational training and labor market institutions
5. the inadequacy of current patterns of education and diversity
6. double the funding process.
7. Management.

6. Objectives of the study

Released e-learning to reduce the administrative burden that she was taking me to a great time in each lecture such as receipt of duties, etc., it has become possible to send and receive via electronic gadgets with the possibility of knowledge of receipt of the student to these documents and the commitment of the student handed in a specific time also provided
e-learning assessment tools Messaging and give the teacher a variety of ways to build a distribution and classification of information in a quick and easy way to assess At the level of my students has touched the following benefits: -

1. increase the possibility of communication between students scheduled among themselves and no longer confined to their meeting in the traditional classroom through the ease of communication among themselves in several directions, such as discussion boards, e-mail, chat rooms. Adding to motivate them to participate and interact., And through personal experience occurred by chance in one of the courses where I had agreed with the students to meet with them to answer their questions through Elllluminate Live occurred exigent circumstances delayed the date of the meeting, about half an hour, and when I entered and found the students discuss in the decision and some of them explain the parts of the decision and I learned after he left them sat for at least an hour and a half complete their discussion.

2. To contribute to the different viewpoints of students: Forums instant such as discussion boards and chat rooms provide opportunities for the exchange of views on the topics which increases opportunities to take advantage of the views and proposals and merged with the views of the student, which helps in the formation of a solid foundation when the learner is composed has knowledge and strong opinions The sound through the acquired knowledge and skills through chat room.

3. Were made available to each student the opportunity to make his opinion at any time and without embarrassment, as opposed to the classroom traditional deprive him of this feature, either because of poor organization of the seats, or weak voice student himself, or shame, or other reasons, and through learning was given full opportunity for the student to send his opinion through the available communication tools such as e-mail and discussion boards and chat rooms. I recall here the experience of the decision of the translators where I established the Council discussion under the title questions and suggestions about the decision translators and through this Council received many useful suggestions in the course and Adha Some students develop programs to help them to understand the solutions some of the issues and the others summarized parts of the decision and posed to his colleagues, some of whom he resolved some issues and examples, and so is worth mentioning I deliberately to join the the Council of the discussion of the faithful to the students of the current chapter to be an incentive for them to actively participate.

4. that e-learning allows students easy access to teacher scientific material and great ease to access it quickly and outside official working hours, because the student has become able to send inquiries through the website of the decision, and this feature is useful and appropriate also for the teacher to respond to inquiries at any time it is anywhere

5. e-learning allowed the students to focus on important ideas during the writing and assembled for a lecture or lesson, and also allows students who have difficulty focusing and organizing tasks benefit from the article because they are arranged and coordinated manner easy and good and important elements of the specific They can also listen to lectures recorded several times.

6. Provides scheduled 24/7 all day and every day of the week (24 hours a day, 7 days a week this feature reported students who want education in a given time am or pm, as well as for those who bear the burdens and responsibilities of personal, this feature allows for all learning.

7. Study Methodology

Using the current study "descriptive analytical approach" which is "a curriculum that cares about what is an object and interpreted and work to identify the relationships between reality and expectations and different directions along the comparison and description," The researcher used this approach to shed light on the importance of good quality in e-learning as well as the procedures and processes specific set by distance education institutions to organize their administration and provide services in accordance with the requirements of the labor market and evaluate the output of this type of education. And Derive sources and writings that were discussed this subject and the conclusions reached by the researcher to develop solutions to secretions and the repercussions of this problem.

References:


Learning Object Design and Development in Folklore Education Using Web 2.0 Tools

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Abstract

This paper refers to the design and development of learning objects in folklore education using available Web 2.0 technologies, in order to effectively address teaching folk culture in a classroom. More specifically, the role of learning objects as enriching digital resources in e-books is presented along with their role as learning assets that can function independently in the learning process. Moreover, learning objects are classified based on their characteristics either as simple learning objects, namely learning assets, or as complex learning objects in which case they constitute learning resources. At the same time we make a reference to learning objects with educational learning object metadata in accordance with international standards. The paper focuses on a) the development of learning objects in folklore teaching using web 2.0 tools in the context of enriched e-book creation (<digital schools> framework), b) the implementation of worksheets as part of ICT-enhanced teaching scenarios in folklore teaching along with their interconnection with appropriate learning objects as enriching digital resources.

Keywords: web 2.0, enriched e-book, folklore, learning object, learning object metadata

1. Introduction

Using Web 2.0 tools in learning object development in the context of enriched e-book creation is a challenge in the fields of folk culture and education. Teachers are able to create raw material for new enriched e-books by using Web 2.0 authoring tools and digital enrichment tools, while most of them are distributed as freeware. However the design of
simple and complex learning objects must meet certain requirements and follow a wider pedagogical design. The purpose of educational learning object development is on one hand to be used independently and be available to educational learning repositories and on the other hand to add value in the e-book enrichment process.

2. Learning Objects

Learning objects, when used as part of a digital enrichment process, are called digital enrichment learning resources. Digital enrichment resources when combined with the proper pedagogic/teaching plan form the basic assets of the digital enrichment of electronic books. Therefore, it is important to analyse the learning object concept and also to define a learning object taxonomy.

A lot of efforts have been made to define and describe learning objects, in order to facilitate their deployment, where an ad-hoc terminology was adopted by each project, like «pedagogic documents» (ARIADNE, 2000), «education software ingredients» (ESCOT, 2000), «learning material provided through the Internet» (MERLOT, 2000) (Stefanou, 2002). Despite all those efforts for the definition of the learning object concept there was lack of a common conceptual definition from the educational community and all the stakeholders. However, there was a consensus in distance learning community as far as the functional requirements of learning objects are concerned. The functional requirements of learning objects are: a) accessibility, which must be described with proper metadata to allow database storage and retrieval, b) reusability, to allow usage in different educational contexts, c) interoperability, to ensure platform and Knowledge Management System independency (Polsani, 2003).

Several definitions can be found in the literature, which have as a common characteristic learning object reusability. Wiley defines learning object as every digital content source that can be reused to support learning (Wiley, 2001). L’Allier (1997) refers to learning object as the smallest independent structural experience that includes a learning goal, a learning activity and an evaluation. Learning object is an autonomous and independent education material unit that by definition embeds the possibility to be reused in different educational contexts (Polsani, 2003). Learning Technology Standards Committee (L.T.S.C.) definition states that learning objects are defined as entities, digital or not, that can be reused by different teaching systems and educational environments (IEEE 2002).

Taking all the above efforts into account we end up with the definition of learning object as an autonomous and independent education material unit associated with one or more learning goals, which has been constructed in such a way that it can be reused in different educational contexts.

2.1 Learning Objects Taxonomy

Digital enrichment resources are mapped based on their educational use in two types of learning objects: a) simple learning object (learning asset), b) complex learning object (learning resource) (IEEE 2002). Attempting to define a taxonomy for the simple and complex learning objects according to the definition above, we end up with the following representative objects (Kapaniaris & Papadimitriou, 2012):

- Learning assets: image, simulation, text, experiment, sound, exploration, video, open activity, model, research activity, data representations.
- Learning resources: project, educational game, practice and training, evaluation, case study, demonstration, presentation, educational scenario – lesson plan, role play, glossary, guide, textbook, webcast, webpage, blog, wiki, social media.

2.2 Technical and Functional Learning Object Requirements

Digital learning objects are intended as digital enrichment resources in digitally enriched books, usually in html, or for deposit into digital educational repositories from where they can be retrieved and downloaded to a PC user locally. During the design and development phase of learning objects the following technical and functional requirements must be taken into account:

- Learning objects must rely on some learning theory (constructivism, behaviourism) depending on the learning goal and the teaching context they serve.
- Learning objects must provide added value to the learning process as well as the educational material with which they are combined.
- Learning objects must have an “Info” button which opens an informational card displaying the title and the
relative unit that the learning object belongs to, the creators, the date of publication, copyright (relevant
statements), as well as a statement if it has used part of another learning object.

- Learning objects must have a “Help” button that provides convenient and readable instructions/help info –
  utilization of the digital learning object.
- Learning objects must be created in a form that can be posted on the web or in another multimedia application
  (html, htm, swf, ppt, word, xml, flv, mp3 etc.).
- Learning objects must be compatible with the available browsers (IE, Mozilla Firefox, Opera, Google Chrome,
  Safari, etc.).
- Operation in relation to the dimension of the learning object in order to allow shadowbox operation.
- Learning object must be accompanied by Metadata, which are declared following its construction according to
  the standard.
- Technical requirements must be stated for the learning object operation (plug-in).

2.3 Learning Object Metadata

Metadata are data describing other data that are created to facilitate information search, organization of digital resources
and to facilitate issues related to interoperability of applications and archiving and preservation of digital resources.
Based on their content metadata are divided in descriptive, structural or administrative metadata. The most popular
international standard for learning object description with educational metadata is IEEE LOM (Learning Object Metadata).
IEEE LOM is an international standard for educational resources characterization, aimed for storage, search and retrieval
through repositories over the Internet (Kapaniaris & Papadimitriou, 2012; IEEE 2002).

3. Repositories and Learning Objects: The Case of Photodentro (Digital School in Greece)

Photodentro was designed from the Greek Ministry of Education as part of the «Digital School» initiative in order to be
the National Digital Repository of learning objects for the Primary and Secondary education. Its basic goal is to become
the central access point to digital educational content and it is open to all, students, teachers, parents, as well as
anybody else interested (http://photodentro.edu.gr).

The basic functions of Photodentro concern storage of reusable learning objects, developed by: a) teachers in the
project «Specifications of Digital Educational Platform, Development and Operation of Digital knowledge base, Digital
Modulation and Technical Metacommenting of Educational Material, Infrastructure for Exemplary Teaching and
Utilization of Participatory Web», b) relative projects for educational software, funded by the Greek Ministry of Education,
c) relative projects for the creation of educational software from the Pedagogic Institute, d) other sources (Kapaniaris &

Photodentro’s basic categories with the relative metadata fields are:
- General learning object data (language, description, keywords, author, edition, deposit date).
- Intended Audience (Educational level, Typical age range).
- Learning object sorting (Theme / Topic / Concept, Coverage / Period / Geographical area or other
  specialization, Type).
- Technical data and Requirements (Form, Object location (URL/URI), Technical Requirements).
- Use and Distribution Rights (Description of Use/Distribution license).
- Other information (Collections where it appears in the repository).

4. Pedagogic Design of Learning Objects

The pedagogical design of learning objects should follow specific pedagogical philosophy in relation to information and
communication technologies (ICT). The learning theories that support the design of simple learning objects (learning
asset) as image, audio, video, data representations, demonstration, presentation, practice and training, applications for
evaluation, etc., belong to behaviourism.

In behavioural approaches, applications can be used either to provide supervisory teaching or to consolidate low
level of knowledge and skills. Sometimes they are exploited as a means of assessing student performance. Specifically,
Skinner’s method is implemented through training programs and practice, Crowder’s through mentoring schemes, while
Gagne’s through various multimedia applications (Komis, 2004).

The design of learning objects following behavioural theories should have the following characteristics:

- To actively engage user.
- To ensure fast and corrective feedback to the user actions.
- To provide the possibility of practicing a concept, idea, skill.
- To reward user for positive results.
- To provide the possibility of multiple representations and visualizations of the presented material (Siasiakos, 2009; Komis, 2004).

The learning theories that support the design of complex learning objects (learning resources) as simulation, experiment, exploration, open activity, model, activity, educational game, etc. belong to cognitive theories. The constructivism as a leading exponent of cognitive theories is a learning philosophy founded on the principle that learning occurs through reflection of experiences on which the personal knowledge of the world is built. Each of us creates his own "rules" and "mental schemas" in order to give meaning to his/her experiences (Kapaniaris & Papadimitriou, 2012; Komis, 2004). Design of learning environments that arises from the constructivist/constructionist theories should have the following characteristics:

- To provide the opportunity to explore an area.
- To favour reconstruction of an idea, phenomenon, event.
- To offer the possibility to the user to shape multiple perspectives.
- To provide authentic learning activities.
- To expose the user to open-ended problems.
- To ease expression of ideas and opinion exchange.
- To facilitate user experimentation (Siasiakos, 2009; Komis, 2004).

Moreover, it is important to incorporate in the digital learning object designing: a) advice and guidance on reading/using/student and teacher engaging through footnotes and colour annotations (normal, interesting, remarkable, critical, attention), b) supporting information and resources (in our case on folk culture issues and c) targeted exploration and discovery opportunities so that the student can build his personal knowledge through his own learning path (Gasouka, Kapaniaris, Arvanitidou, Foulidi & Raptou, 2013).

5. Using Web 2.0 Tools to Create Learning Objects in Folklore Education

The new digital culture formed in the Internet and the importance of teaching folk culture in education leads to the utilization of all digital media in the field of folklore. According to Gasouka & Foulidi (2012) relationship between folklore, Internet and related digital media is of great interest. Specifically, the folkloric dimension of «Web 2.0» and related digital media helps in regeneration of folk culture (habits, beliefs, myths, tales, practices, attitudes, norms, etc.). Also Mixahl in Gasouka & Foulidi (2012) characterizes the Internet world as a literal folk world and argues that "the Internet is an opportunity for a second life or online life is a second life, which is not a caricature of the former. On the contrary, it is a comprehensive new life, a «vita nuova». This is important for human «interneticus». He lives a life in parallel with the first one" (Gasouka & Foulidi, 2012).

With the help of digital learning objects embedded in enriched digital books, students have the opportunity to come in contact with fairy tales, myths, riddles, folk songs, folk art and traditional crafts in a completely interactive way where participation and the individual learning path of the student is self-controlled in a fairly constructive way (Gasouka, et al., 2013).

By using Web 2.0 tools we can create free simple and complex learning objects (digital stories, presentations, photo gallery with free templates, quizzes, puzzles, comics, activities, etc.) that we can export constituting independent learning objects. Then, objects can be incorporated into a process of enriching digital books or they can be placed in educational repositories of learning resources. Table 1 presents some indicative Web 2.0 tools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>URL</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot Potatoes</td>
<td><a href="http://hotpot.uvic.ca/">http://hotpot.uvic.ca/</a></td>
<td>Crossword puzzles, quizzes, activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comic Strip Creator</td>
<td><a href="http://www.comicstripcreator.org/">http://www.comicstripcreator.org/</a></td>
<td>Digital Comic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flashmo.com</td>
<td><a href="http://www.flashmo.com/">http://www.flashmo.com/</a></td>
<td>Free flash templates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Web 2.0 tools for learning object creation.
5.1 Linking Learning Objects to HTML Pages (e-book)

Links for learning objects can be accomplished by using a free HTML editor (e.g. CoffeeCup Free HTML editor) directly on the HTML webpage using either the Shadowbox technique (Figure 1) or mouse over (Figure 2); the student is not obliged to switch to a new webpage (Figure 3), which can be confusing and could lead to disorientation.

![Figure 1](http://example.com/image1.png)

**Figure 1**: Learning object link in HTML with Shadowbox and mouse over.

![Figure 2](http://example.com/image2.png)

**Figure 2**: Using mouse over on the icon linked to the learning object.

![Figure 3](http://example.com/image3.png)

**Figure 3**: (a) Shadowbox view of a linked learning object (interactive comic) (b), Shadowbox view of learning object information.

The integration of the code of Figure 4 at the beginning of each HTML page is mandatory for Shadowbox functionality as well as CSS application - Cascading Style Sheets.

```html
<link href='extras/stylesheet.css' rel='stylesheet' type='text/css' />
<link rel='stylesheet' type='text/css' href='extras/Shadowbox/shadowbox.css' />
<script type='text/javascript' src='extras/Shadowbox/shadowbox.js'></script>
<script type='text/javascript'>
Shadowbox.init({
players: ['html', 'swf', 'swf', 'html', 'iframe', 'mp3']});
</script>

</link>
<link rel='stylesheet' type='text/css' href='extras/stylesheet.css' />
```

**Figure 4**: Source code integration in HTML for Shadowbox functionality.
5.2 Using eAnagnosis Software for Learning Object Linkage

Marginalia family of eAnagnosis applications (Composer & Paspartu) offers satisfactory solutions to meet the need for reading and creating enriched digital books with learning object incorporation. Specifically, Marginalia Paspartu software offers enriched digital books authoring. Similarly Marginalia Composer software is a viewer of enriched digital books or simple e-books in pdf or ePUB format. Figure 5 below illustrates learning object linkage capabilities of the software.

Figure 5: Using eAnagnosis for learning object linkage.

Digital enrichment is achieved though the use of Marginalia Paspartu toolbar options shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Digital enrichment toolbar.

The main functions of the digital enrichment toolbar are the following: a) hide notes, b) create a note with the nested notepad, c) underline, d) create hooks for boundary delineation of text or image area, e) insert bookmark, f) insert video, g) insert YouTube video. In all the above functions it is also possible to integrate the digital resource in the text or in the image and when it is mouse activated (double click) an inset window is displayed, accompanied by informative text, insert title option, internet address, digital resource deletion and importance setting of the digital resource with special colour marking (normal, interesting, remarkable, critical, attention).

6. Conclusions and Future Work

In the field of folklore education learning objects can upgrade the relationship between onsite folk research and school project on local history and folk culture. Internet and Web 2.0 tools can offer force and special individuality in folk culture documents.

By using Web 2.0 technology we can create learning objects that can be incorporated in digitally enriched e-books or digital repositories, contributing to folk culture enhancement through preservation, documentation and promotion of
folk culture in school and in numerous educational areas (museums, libraries, files, educational projects). In the framework set by Web 2.0 technologies, learning object creation and digitally enriched e-book development on folk culture can be achieved alternatively by the tutor (learning resources) and the student (learning assets) producing valuable classroom digital material.

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Construction of Gender through Fashion and Dressing

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Abstract

During the last two centuries, the definitions of gender were bounded by increasingly blurred lines, expressing the cultural uncertainty surrounding masculinity and femininity. Besides it is known that gender is a social construction (and not only determined by biological sex). Two basics social - cultural factors that shape the gender are dressing and fashion. A choreography (especially the last two centuries) shows these different constructions of masculinity and femininity. The battle for the use of trousers by women (from Coco Chanel and stars of Hollywood Greta Garbo, Marlene Dietrich and Katharine Hepburn play a significant role) confirm the different treatment of male and female. Fashion, which in essence is the fantasy of escape from the typical role of individuals, guiding and shaping the male and female roles, with the major fashion designers to play the key role in shaping it. Dress movements such as Macaroni (1760 - 1780), Baeu, (early 18th century), Dandies (early 19th century) and Mods (20th century) and various teen subcultures show differentiation trends of certain groups. Unisex style has tried to conceal gender differences showing a masquerade of equality for all (with the hippies and Ravers to have the basic role). On the contrary androgynous style seeks to unite the male and the female body, leading to a return to a primordial cosmic unity that will appease the gender confusion and anxiety. But eventually style and androgynous Unisex highlight the differences between the sexes.

Keywords: Gender, Dress, Fashion, Masculinity, Femininity

1. Introduction

In the last two centuries, the definitions of gender are becoming more and more vague, reflecting the cultural uncertainty that surrounds the male and female roles. These roles provide to each the gender identity which is a social construct not only determined by biological sex.

The stereotypical masculine or feminine qualifications are not personality characteristics of individual men and women but socially constructed representations of gender, on the basis of what society expects of each sex (Condor, 1987; Lloyd & Duveen, 1993). These expectations organize the social gender identity, making a strong frame of reference within which boys and girls socialize and adults are redefined. Thus the term gender identity refers to the construction of this identity due to the interaction with the social environment but also due to the realization of a person that it exists as a man or a woman (Cox & Dittmar, 1995).

Because there are significant cross-cultural differences regarding the relationship of sex and clothing, this study is limited to gender dressing differences in Western societies. Also, clothing is the main instrument of the appearance of the body considering in the general sense that it includes anything that contributes to this configuration, like shoes, hairstyle, accessories and even cosmetics. Two major socio-cultural factors shaping gender are the dress and fashion.

1.1 Dressing and Fashion

The dress has the most direct contact with the human body and is therefore considered an integral part of the Self. Garments influence and shape the appearance with significant impact on the construction of social identity (Tseelon,
1989). That, delegates to others and to the Self information about the economic and social situation of the wearer, occupation and nationality, but also individual properties and values (Holman, 1981; Lurie, 1981). In the dressing there are types of coded cultural identities and people interact with them through the garments (Davis, 1988).

Fashion meets people's lives and infuses them. Some follow it more or less and some not. However, daily selection of dressing affects the way they are perceived by others, defines the expectations of those around them and has the main contribution in forming impressions. In most cases the dress makes the man or woman. The costume, someone wears at work, at a social gathering or in an interview affects the perception and the opinion created on the capabilities and preferences (Giles & William, 1975). The subjective influence of clothing, except from psychological, has also historical roots, as people choose color, style and form of garments, according to the traditional social status, role and age. All these are also influenced by the interaction with other cultures and neo-colonial or not, state of their society (Bahl, 2005).

In some societies, a particular form of dress may be used as a social control mechanism, such as political uses of women's clothing and as a means to change social norms (Bahl, 2005). The dress is among products with strong symbolism and great semantic value through the types of brands, origin, etc. (Mayer & Belk, 1985). Mostly, it is an external signal emitting meanings of an image of the Self to others, but can also be internal, enhancing the self-image and confidence of someone to play a role (Solomon & Douglas, 1987). The interpretation of that image is a social phenomenon because the isolated individual body image always influenced by the collective body image and the interpretation of this affect the responsive behavior (DeLong, Salusso-Deonier & Larntz, 1983). The clothing is a form of nonverbal communication, clear enough for the user, although others interpretations may vary (Barnard, 1996).

Fashion is a social product and includes a duality: a) providing for safety and uniformity, b) for personalization. So, the person wishes to be recognized as part of a team and as a personality (Dodd at all, 1998). Where the expression of personality is undesirable, like in the army or in some companies, this is expressed through dressing, with an obligatory uniform or the khaki in the first case, or a certain suit and tie (Hughes, 2004). When someone is casually trying to decide about everyday wear, that person is influenced by historical - social factors and does not consciously think about whom she/he is or how she/he wants to be seen. The deep-seated inhibitions of Judeo-Christian tradition are expressed with modesty, prudence, lack of confidence, which are well engraved in the symbolic code of dress that prevails in the West (Davis, 1989).

2. History

Roles of men and women have influenced clothing and garment and vice versa. The female dress has historically limited the social roles of women both physically and symbolically. In the 19th century, the dress of non-working woman, demonstrates the economic situation of her husband, who was the supplier of the family (DeLong, Salusso-Deonier & Larntz, 1983).

2.1 Construction of Masculinity

Fashion was not always gender scarred. Until the 18th century there were no significant differences in the dressing of both sexes and both men and women wore long decorated costumes. The aristocrats and bourgeois superiors, used to show the abundant lace, rich velvets, silks, decorated shoes, elaborate hats, wigs and plenty of perfume (Davis, 1992). A pink, silk suit with gold and silver decoration was seen as entirely masculine. The dress was the signifier of social class and the more elaborate it was the higher the social class. Fashion became feminized in the 19th century, when the expression of sexual difference through the clothing was more important than that of the social order (Steele, 1989). At the same time there was also a marked change in the expression of male identity through clothing. At the end of 19th century bourgeois men refrained from using all forms of decoration, gayer colorful fabrics and jewelry, leaving it all to women (Kawamura, 2005).

It's the great male abandonment, the most important event in the history of dressing, according to Flügel (1930), in which men are no longer interested in "beautiful" appearances and want it only to be useful. The systematic variations between male and female clothing began in late Middle Ages, when men's clothing appeared and reached its maximum in 1850 (Flügel, 1930). Since then, western fashion seeks to apply technical femininity in women's clothing to show their feminine qualities and this phenomenon became almost universal. The feminization of fashion started with the fall of the aristocracy and the rise of the bourgeoisie and was accelerated by the French Revolution. Then the Protestant values of thrift, hard work and individual economic progress dominated and these values reflect on men's clothing (Davis, 1992).
While men competed hard in the arena of politics and business, they gave women the decorative part to reflect the social status via their dresses and appearance (Craik, 1993).

The postmodern construction of personal identity through clothing is more common among the youth, famous actors, members of racial or ethnic minorities, members of groups and subcultures, sexually differentiated people willing to be considered different from the mainstream. For these reasons there was a division in men’s fashion (Crane, 2000).

From the 13th to the 17th century, laws were passed regulating the cost of clothing and allow clothes depending on occupation and social class. It was an attempt of the aristocrats to keep their diversity in clothing and appearance of their socioeconomic class. As it was not possible to eliminate the fashion and consumerism of the emerging bourgeoisie they merely formalized the formation of a new dress code called “town fashions”. (Craik, 1993). There is a clear separation of fashion in male and female. The female one requires constant change and innovation, imposed by the capitalist system of production and fashion with the excuse of the supposed obsession of women with elegance.

After 1960, menswear was revived and this is explained from the change in power relations at the contact between genders and change in the participation rate of women at work. Men changed their dress codes and incorporated narcissistic and superficial elements, trying to highlight the different personalities. Perhaps the garment that concluded the need of more young people to diversify and their desire to escape the pressures of the industry of men’s fashion, was a humble pair of blue jeans, which was worn with a few variations and is still worn today (Entwistle, 2000). The change in characteristics of masculinity that turned men into objects in front of the female gaze imposed a change of men’s fashion and design and gave way to a superficial and light appearance. This can be explained by the change of position and character. Men ceased to be the sole actors in the socio-economic power struggle, not always work in the factory or office while many work from home, others are students, and unfortunately more and more are unemployed. These changes in living conditions influence the dress code. However, there remains a diversity of gender status in costume institution (Craik, 1993).

2.2 Construction of femininity

2.2.1 The Battle for the Trousers

Since 1850, trends of women’s independence emerged in the U.S., a manifestation of the fact is that they wore trousers, shocking the moralists. Since 1920, pants for women began to be tolerated in sports and some limited activities such as cycling and horse riding (Sawyer, 1987). In 1949, Richard Curle (1949) unleashed a damning indictment of women who revolt against traditional forms of femininity, calling them “sour spinsters”. Earlier, in 1939, the fashion designer Elizabeth Hames argued that women were not yet ready to wear trousers at work. It took a world war to remove their corsets; will need another one to accept the trousers. As trousers symbolized male power, women who wore them were accused as unfeminine. Many movie stars like Greta Garbo, Marlene Dietrich and Katharine Hepburn had worn trousers in their movies, but they have been protected by the glamour of Hollywood and their trousers added an aura of mystery and exoticism (Arnold, 2001).

The fashion designers Coco Chanel and Madeleine Vionnet, since 1920, had suggested a soft and baggy trouser for dinner, but few women dared to wear it until 1940. Feminists, in 1970, looked at fashion as a trap for women, rejecting the traditional female dresses. Although the famous burning of bras, perhaps literally did not exist, even as a slogan, gave rise to a discussion of the view that femininity was a social construction justifying the interests of a patriarchal society (Breward & Evans, 2005). In 1966 the famous fashion designer Yves Saint Laurence modified the male tuxedo to a female line, and it quickly became a chic expression for women who wanted to appear different. Even couture fell to the attacks and the secular feminist movement and put pants on fashion collections (Craik, 1993).

In 1984 Susan Brownmiller criticized her friends who returned to women’s dresses, but also justified it by saying that perhaps it is unreasonable to ask women to leave the basic expression of their diversity from their husbands (Rodnitzky, 1999). Although in 1980s, women had not achieved full equality, there was significant progress and the fashion was a powerful tool for the reversal of traditional gender roles. Women could accept or reject the “conventional” feminine clothes without feeling guilty or rebellious and cheating (Walter, 1998). Since 1980 women have been able to wear trousers in most places without being criticized (Arnold, 2001). Different is the case of women who used too much of their femininity. They are suspected of trying to attract other women rather than to attract men. Many men feel threatened by the provocative use of female sexual power and either avoid them or treat them as a joke (Curle, 1949).
2.3 The role of Haute couture

In the 1990's Haute couture was revived with a strong female character overly adorned with fancy dresses. Chief representatives of this trend are John Galliano's collections for the fashion houses Givenchy and Christian Dior and Alexander McQueen's for the fashion house of Givenchy. Their designs brought back romance, were marked as statuary and reconstructed the female identity of the late 20th century (Arnold, 2001).

3. Dressing Movements

The Macaroni were aristocrats who tried to distinguish themselves from the growing middle class with too quirky and weird clothes but the style was quickly discredited and refused (Craik, 1993). The Dandies are the movement introduced by Beau Brummel in London, a socially ambitious man, who tried to join the higher social circles. It was continued by Beerbohm and George de Maurier. With simple, plain clothes he tried to create the new aristocrat style. He wore starched white linen shirt with cravat and black pants, black vest and tight waisted wool coat and breeches. Everything fit perfect, was clean and crisp, and he was proud for the cleanliness. He wore soft yellow gloves and used a black walking stick with ebony handle. He was the forerunner of the modern business suit and tie (Entwistle, 2000). The movement of Mods and Teddy Boys consciously tried to reverse the values and assumptions deliberately challenged the prevailing dress code. Since 1970, the subversive style was overtaken by the decadent style of the hippies and the psychedelic unisex stars of rock, like Jimi Hendrix and the Rolling Stones (Arnold, 2001).

3.1 Unisex and androgynous style

Hippies in the 1960's and later the Ravers (1985 - 1995) are the protagonists of the movement that tried to conceal gender differences showing a masquerade of equality for all, obscuring the identification of sex. Despite the promise of equality unisex garment was essentially of masculine style. The basic flaw in this fashion is that the concealment of diversity with a veil is not a fair measure (Arnold, 2001). Denial of the existence of a different sexuality and even different shades of it equals to the overstressing of diversity. Both strategies aim to eventually remove individual rights (Schor, 1987). On the other side, the androgynous style seeks to unite the male and the female body in one, leading to a return to a primordial cosmic unity, which would alleviate the confusion of gender roles and the stress resulting from it. This style requires a thin, youthful and energetic body with a boyish figure and refers to adolescence. Therefore it is problematic because it requires a masculine frame and thin body, thus excluding the vast majority of men and women from it. This style is an imitation of the aristocratic identity, albeit somewhat milder due to the uncertainty of youth. Eventually the two styles emphasize the differences between the sexes.

4. Conclusion

Garments are items made by people and with the clear distinction in male and female show the socially constructed nature of gender differences. They have functional character, but also make statements about social class, economic status, attitudes and even the desire to comply with social norms or vary from them. Usually they are used unconsciously as a code for someone to show himself/herself to others or to declare the group that he/she belongs to and thus their sex and their sexual tint. Fashion, because of the close association with the formation of the body, mediates the negotiation of different identities, sometimes with provocation. The inherent contradiction of fashion stems from the reflection on the representation of the body in the declaration of gender identity. Fashion may indicate social frivolity but it is sociologically important because it is a result of a lengthy process and has great influence in the collective determination of society.

References


Immigration and Economic Development: Brazil and Argentina (1870 – 1930)

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Abstract

Between 1870 and 1930, Latin American countries passed by several economic and social changes. The two most representative examples of it were Brazil and Argentina, the two biggest economies of Latin America at that time and the ones with similar development processes with similar results. This paper aims to analyze, link and compare the role of European immigrants in the economic development of both countries from 1870 to 1930. On this period, changes on the international demand allied with the fall on costs of freight and improvements on maritime transports led to the inclusion of both countries on the international trade route. Their agro-export economies expanded. In Brazil, the expansion of coffee production to the northeast of São Paulo' state and, in Argentina, the growth of the cereal productions and cattle rising stock were the motors of those two economies. At the same time, in both countries, the industrial development and modernization of their infrastructure began. Moreover, both countries were characterized by the great availability of land, scarcen ess of population and growing demand for labor force to sustain the agro-export economy expansion. The policies seeking to solve these problems led to the massive entrance of immigrants. Accordingly to the historiography, immigration led to population growth, monetary circulation, development of commerce and several authors highlight their role in the industrial development. The theory of growth induced by exports explains the industrialization in both countries and its theorists also present data showing the immigrants as fundamental components for it.

Keywords: Immigration; Brazil; Argentina; Industrialization; Society.

1. Introduction

The period of sixty years between the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th is marked, in Latin America, by several changes, derived from some key-factors. First, the growing demand in the industrialized countries markets and in the industries, especially United States and Europe, for primary products produced in Latin America and the increasing of the Latin American population’s demands for manufactured goods, was leading to the development of commerce and monetary circulation in the region, almost inexistent before. Secondly, the technological development on maritime transports occurred during the period can be considered one of the most important factors for the development the region lived in the decades following the 1870’s. It allowed the reduction on the costs of transoceanic freights, by using the steam-power transatlantic ships, increasing the frequency and speed of voyages and setting the Latin American continent into the international trade route. New technologies also allowed the transportation of perish goods across the ocean, what allowed the exportation of frozen meat from Argentina to Europe. Third, the transoceanic telegraph cables and the railway net settlement in Latin America created new means of communication and transportation between the New World and Europe. All these factors combined led to the development of the Latin Americans’ countries and economic boom lived in the period. The two most representative examples of it were Brazil and Argentina.

The agro-export economy of both countries – the Brazilian based on the coffee production and the Argentina’s on the cereals and cattle-related products – had a main role in the economic development they lived during the end of the 19th and first decades of the 20th Centuries and by the policies that originate the presence of immigrants, especially Europeans, in those regions. Generally, the bibliography review showed that the immigration process was related with the need for territorial occupation and as supplier of labor force to the expansion of the agricultural economy. To several
authors the increment of the immigrant population constituted an important factor to the social and economic development and changes lived by both countries between 1870 and 1930. The immigrants were responsible for the growth of the population, the development of the monetary economy, rise on the demand of specific goods and gave dynamism to the commerce and service sectors in both countries. Also, the immigrants are often related to the industrial development of those countries.

The beginning of industrialization in Latin America is a subject widely discussed by historiography and marked by divergences within its theorists. Several authors date the beginning of industrial development as earlier as 1880-1890; others defend the argument that one cannot discuss about industrialization before 1930. Historiography shows that a common frame in many Latin American countries lies in the fact that the conditions to the appearance of industry occurred during the cycles of growth induced by expansion of exports. As stated by Lewis (1991, p. 245), with the expansion of the export sector, centered on the primary goods production, allied to the expansion of the remunerated labor market, led to the consolidation of a monetary economy between 1870 and 1920. According to the author, the period was also marked by the political stability, insertion of the countries into the world-economy system, modernization of transports and communication, entrance of foreigner capital and growth of population through the arrival of a great number of immigrants. All these factors allowed a general economic expansion which led to a social, juridical and institutional context where the expansion of manufactures destined to the internal market took place.

This theory can be found in the bibliographical review to explain the industrialization process both in Brazil and Argentina in the period between 1880 and 1930. Industrial census and statistics show the evolution of manufactures in the mentioned period and point to the industrial sector as dynamic and in expansion. Both countries suffered the effects of the First World War and from the 1929 crisis, but even so, the industry could still develop although at lower rates than preceding periods.

Furtado (2007, p. 173-174) also relates the beginning of Latin American industrialization with the increase in productivity of the export sector, due to the growth of internal and external market demand by the end of the 19th century and beginning of the 20th, allied with the modernization in maritime transports, fall on freight costs and increase in the purchase power of the local populations. This caused modifications into the local demand, oriented, then, to manufactured goods and to the installation of an appropriated infrastructure.

The present paper intends to analyze and compare the influence immigrants had on the economic and, more specifically, industrial development of Brazil and Argentina during the mentioned period. Moreover, compare these processes on two important agro-export regions such as the province of Buenos Aires and the state of São Paulo. The studied period is characterized by the similitudes both countries present on theirs economics sceneries and on immigration and industrialization processes. Both were exporters of primary products for industrialized countries and from them imported manufactured goods. Brazil and Argentina used the foreign labor force for theirs growths and both received the majority of the immigrants that entered Latin America. This paper is made with the preliminary results of an ongoing investigation which aims the composition of the master dissertation to the presented to the University of São Paulo.

2. Immigration process in Brazil and Argentina

The agro-export economy characteristic of Brazil and Argentina was responsible, in a way or another, by the policies that led the presence of Europeans in these regions. The immigrants, associated with the development of these economies, had their share of responsibility on the industrial development of these countries.

The migratory movement to Brazil took place mostly in the 1880’s, with governmental policies aiming the attraction of foreign labor force to the dynamic center of the economy at the time, the coffee production. Immigrants worked at the coffee farms under the colonato production system on which the land owner hired the immigrant (or a family of immigrants) – colonos - and paid them a monetary remuneration for their work on the coffee harvest and provided them with a plot of land on which to grow subsistence crops allowing them to sell the overproduction of those products (Fausto, 1986, p. 780).

On the middle of that decade, the coffee farmers and the provincial government of São Paulo implemented successful measures that assured a continuous income of foreigners until the 1920’s. The immigrants, mostly Italians, came to Brazil on a subsidy scheme. Both Brazilian and São Paulo’s government paid for their transportation overseas and, beyond that, provided infrastructure to receive the foreigners. Reception centers were constructed during the 1880’s aiming to provide the immigrants with housing, food, medical assistance and medicines, if needed, during the period between their arrival and their allocation on the coffee farms in the countryside. The transport via railway to the farms
was also free of charges. Between 1890 and 1930, over 3.5 million immigrants arrived in Brazil and the Census of 1920 showed around 1/5 to 1/3 of immigrants in the composition of populations on the cities of São Paulo State (Bacellar&Brioschi, 1999, p. 141-147; Gifun, 1972, p. 70-71).

The international migration was related to the political-economic scenery in Brazil and also to the international context. The decade of 1890 was the period when the entrance of immigrants was higher. Brazil was living a period of transformations, on the economic side, by the peak of the coffee harvest development and, on the political scene, by the abolition of slavery in 1888 and the proclamation of the Republic in 1889. On the international context, the European countries were living an economic crisis and unemployment. From 1895 to 1897, more the 145.000 foreigners entered the country annually; between 1911 and 1913, this entrance was between 135.000 and 192.000; on the decade of 1920, only the year of 1926 received over 100.000 immigrants. From the total amount of immigrants that entered the country, the great majority, 1.156.472, were Italians, followed by 1.030.066 Portuguese and 551.385 Spaniards. The fall on the arrival of foreigners in the 1920’s can be explained by overproduction of coffee and the crisis on the sector (Petrone, 1997, p. 100-104).

The incentives to immigrate to São Paulo attracted about 60% of all the foreigners that entered the Brazil between 1884 and 1933, representing an average of 800.000 immigrants per decade (Versiani, 2002, p. 206). At the same period, the exponential growth of Brazilian and São Paulo state and city population and increase in urban population is highlighted by several authors1.

In 1872, before the massive immigration to Brazil and São Paulo, the city of São Paulo had mere 23.000 inhabitants. In 1920 it reached 580.000, being almost 2/3 of them foreigners (Dean, 1971, p. 58).

The population of São Paulo State grew from 1.221.380 inhabitants in 1886 to 2.279.608 in 1900 and to 6.433.327 in 1934. It can be noticed that in only 14 years the population increased almost two times. And on the second period, from 1900 to 1934, it triplicated. These increases in the population can be associated to the natural growth but is especially the massive entrance of immigrants that had the major influence on it (Carvalho, 2007).

In the leading coffee producer region of São Paulo State and one of the most important during the period for the Brazilian economy, in the Northeast of São Paulo, called Alta Mogiana due to the railway line that connected it to the capital and the exporting port in the coast, the immigrant presence was strong and had several effects. The population increased from 63.229 in 1886 to 414.499 in 1934, over 650% in less than 50 years. If compared to the beginning of the coffee production in the region, in 1874, the population evolution is over 800% in 60 years. Between 1890 and 1930, the region received over 109.000 immigrants and its cities’ population was composed by 1/5 to 1/3 of foreigners, dedicated to work not only on the coffee farms but also on their developing service sector (Bacellar&Brioschi, 1999, p. 152-153).

The major role of immigration in Argentina was colonization and settlement. The several presidents and their migratory policies, starting on 1860 with President Juan Bautista Alberdi and his vision towards the immigrants when he affirmed that they should “civilize (the territory) and create a new Argentina”. With Bartolomeo Mitre (1862-1864), the immigrant’s paper was to “change the reality but integrating to the existing country without the need of creating a new one”. But it was during President Domingos Faustino Sarmiento’s government (1868-1874) that migratory policies took greater place. It was created the first “Colonization and Immigration Law” which led to the creation of the General Department of Immigration, responsible for bringing and assisting on the arrival and installation of the immigrants in Argentina; on the biggest cities, it was created the “Committee of Immigration” as an organ destined to assist the immigrants (Oliveira, 2011, p. 4-6).

Many authors quoted statistic data to show the influence of immigrants in the population growth. Argentina was the second country that received the most European immigrants, Spanish and Italian on its majority. Accordingly to the National Census, immigrants represented 12.1% of the total population in 1869, 25.4% in 1895 and 29.9% in 1914. In 1869, the total population of the country was over 1.897.000. 26 years later, in 1895, it grew to 4.123.800. By 1914, argentine population had reached over 8.162.000 inhabitants. Estimations show a population of 11.935.700 in 1920. Between 1871 and 1914, almost six million foreigners arrived in the country and little over a half of those returned to their home countries. Immigration had an active participation not only on the population growth, but also on the rise of the annual growth rate and offer of labor force (Lattes&Lattes, 1974, p. 23, 33, 59-63; Irigoin, 1984, p. 5-6; Conde, 1986, p. 335-336).

Data show that during the period after the World War I and the crisis of 1930, immigration in Argentina fell and almost ceased for almost a decade after 1913. From 1921 to 1930 the net balance between the arrival and return of immigrants in the country was much lower if compared with the decade previous to the war.

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1 On this subject, see: Fausto (1986, p. 779), Dean (1971, p. 58) and Carvalo (2007)
The immigrants, by their expression on the composition of both countries’ population, had great influence on the society and economy and brought countless changes into them.

Since immigrants corresponded always to a significant part of the population, and their majority – Spanish and Italian, as mentioned above - came from countries with similar linguistics, cultural and religious characteristics, the integration process was easier and smoother. The presence of immigrants in the daily life in Argentina affected the quotidian life of the local society. “Values, habits and the European taste began to be shared with the criolla elite, giving to Buenos Aires the atmosphere of a modern, European and progressive capital” (Conde, 1968, p. 87-88).

A great part of those who settle permanently in Argentina did so on the littoral, in the provinces of Buenos Aires, Santa Fe, Córdoba and Entre Ríos., increasing their participation on the composition of total population from 48% in 1869 to 72% in 1914 Urbanization was greatly influenced by immigrants as well. While in 1969, urban population represented 29% of the total population, in 1914 this ration raised to 53%. Buenos Aires saw its population exploded from 181,838 habitants in 1869 to 1,575,814 in 1914. Other important province’s capitals had gone through the similar effect. Rosario’s population grew from 23,139 to 224,592 in the same period. Córdoba rise from 28,523 to 121,982, Mendoza from 8,124 to 58,790 and Tucumán from 17,438 to 92,824. The number of small villages in the countryside, the settlements, increased due to the expansion of cereal cultivation into the pampas from 20 in 1869 to 211 in 1914 (Gallo, 1986, p. 363-365).

From the data presented it is clear the influence immigrants had on the growth and development of regions and cities in Brazil and Argentina. Their presence stimulated investments in infrastructure, urbanization, development of commerce and services.

3. The roots of industrial growth: theories and immigrants.

On the following paragraphs, it will be discussed the several theories used to explain the beginning of industrialization in Brazil and Argentina.

Irigoin (1984, p. 1), in his work regarding the evolution of the Argentine industry, made an analysis of the most accepted theories to explain the process in the country. Accordingly to the author, most of those theories support the idea that the industrialization process occurred only in the 1930’s, derived from the substitution of imports’ policy, after the 1929 crisis. Other theorists state that industrialization in Argentina only took place after the 1940’s. Only few of them took into consideration the industrial advance that happened much earlier, in the 1880’s.

Di Telia & Zymelman (1967) affirm that the 1930’s crisis had a hasten effect over the industrial development and the 1940’s provided a new impulse to industrialization with government policies towards it. These authors do not deprecate the effects of the First World War associated to the existence of a basic infrastructure, affirming that it created, in 1914, the necessary basis for the industrial growth. Dorfman (1970) recognize the origin of Argentinian industries in the 19th century, nevertheless, he states that as there were no adequate fomentation policies or protection, until 1913, the industry possessed primitive characteristics. Ferrer (1981) claims that the industrial development began with the 1929’s crisis, being initiated in 1930 and ending with the end of the first phase of the industrialization of substitution in the 1940’s (Irigoin 1984, p. 1-2).

Among the authors defending the beginning of industrialization in Argentina in the 1880’s, there is a consensus about the factors that influenced it: starting in 1870 Argentina had the political power concentrated in the national authorities leading to the unification of the country; the indigenous invasion problem was solved; Buenos Aires became the federal capital; an enormous mass of immigrants arrived into the country; foreign investments occurred in infrastructure; raw material was abundant, which was the basis for the nascent process manufactures. Also, after the federalization of Buenos Aires and unification of Argentina, the Desert Campaigns started with the objective of expanding the frontiers and conquer the region of the pampas, what would open them to the expansion of economic activity. The Conquer of the Desert was fundamental to attend the increase in the global demand, since it allowed the exploitation of the new land and consequently increase on the meat and cereal productions. Investments in infrastructure, mainly in the transports and communications was essential at that time (Conde, 1986, p. 329-330).

Irigoin (1984, p. 4) supports the idea that the industrial activities developed as earlier as in the 1880’s, dedicated to processing raw material from the agro-export sector.

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2 See: Gallo (1970); Villanueva (1972); Díaz Alejandro (1975); Rock, (1986)
3 Lenz (2004, p. 150) presents some quantitative data. In 1822, the capital Buenos Aires possessed 674 industrial establishments, evolving to 1,265 in 1855. In 1895, the number had multiplied by seven, reaching to 8,439 establishments. In the province of Buenos Aires, establishments grew from 2,144 in 1881 to 5,576 in 1895
From the First Industrial Census of Buenos Aires City of 1887, Irigoin (1984, p. 9) highlights the existence of 6,128 establishments using 42,321 workers. The Second National Census of 1895 indicates that at the time, the industrialization process had already begun. Buenos Aires possessed 38% of the total industrial establishments of Argentina, 48% of the labor force and 51% of the capital. The city was the most important contact area with the internal and external markets. To the author, the Buenos Aires Port and the immigrants were the most important factors for its development. Between 1887 and 1895, the growth of manufactures in Buenos Aires is 4.4% per year and the labor force grew at a rate of 6.6% per year (Irigoin, 1984, p. 9-11).

The Third National Census shows, in 1914, a huge evolution, as in terms of industry as in changes on the Argentinean society. The number of industrial establishments doubled, grew at 3.8% per year, reaching 48,779 establishments. The number of people working in industry grew at a rate of 4.6% per year, reaching 410,201 workers, representing 39% of the working force in 1914. The invested capital, at 12% per year. Urban population rose from 42% to 58% between 1895 and 1914. Up to that year, the spontaneous process of substitution of importation, according to comparative advantages, allowed the local manufacture of goods previously supplied through imports. The sectors where this was more evidently were: food, textile, construction and furniture. In 1914, the national industry provided 71.3% of the industrialized good consumed (Irigoin, 1984, p. 18-19).

Rock (1986, p. 425) points that the Argentinean industry, after 1913, grew at the same rate as the economy, despite increases at a superior rate after the war. During the 1920's, the industry became more diversified in areas as durable consumption goods, chemicals, electricity and metallurgy. At the end of that decade, the metallurgic industry had an outburst growth.

To Lewis (1991), the industry gained representatively in the Argentinean economy. In the country, the relation between the agrarian sector production and the manufactured production changed from 2,1:1 in 1900 to 1,3:1 in 1929. The agrarian index rose from 29 to 117 while the manufacture from 9 to 46 (using 1950 as 100). To the author, these index show a restructuration of the economy (Lewis, 1991, p. 243).

To explain the industrialization in Brazil, Suzigan (2000) indicates four main theories4. The first one is the Theory of Adverse Shocks, that has on Cepal and Celso Furtado its biggest theorists, concentrates on the external shocks and its effects over importation of manufactured goods. The second, industrialization leaded by the expansion of exports, defended by Warren Dean (1971), establishes a direct relation between the primary sector exports and the industrialization, especially for the state of São Paulo. The third theory is known as the industrialization by “belated capitalism”, stating that industrialization occurred due to the development of capitalism in Brazil, being influenced firstly by internal factors and later by extern factors. This theory is defended by Mello (1975), Silva (1976) and Cano (1977). The last theory analyses the governmental policies to the development of industry, having on the study made by Versiani & Versiani (1977) its great exponent.

In this paper, we focus on the second theory as an explanation for the rise of industry in Brazil. This theory is also presented in Argentina, as mentioned above on the thesis of Irigoin.

Dean (1971, p. 9-14) in his study regarding the industrialization of São Paulo, states that the coffee, as a primary good, was responsible for the needed infrastructure to the appearance of industry in the paulista state: “São Paulo’s industrialization depended, from the start, on the demand provoked by the growing foreigner coffee market”. The author points the coffee as responsible for the basis of industrialization in the way that it provided the needed infrastructure for it. The railways appeared thanks to the coffee expansion and were built aiming the profit coffee could proportionate, as well as the Port of Santos, through which the needed raw-material for the nascent industry arrived and through which the bean was exported to Europe. The coffee market proportionated the hiring of free working force, formed by European immigrants, in exchange for a monetary remuneration.

Such remuneration in currency allowed the increase of the demand for a variety of goods, what also led to the production of manufactures inside the country. The presence of immigrants as working force and technical European professionals was of great value to the first industries installed in the state.

Lewis (1991) dates the beginning of modern industry in Brazil in 1880. During that time, there was a sectorial deepening, with the manufacture of goods different from the perish ones and capital goods. In 1930, the production dominated the national market in several sectors. In São Paulo, industry showed to be linked with the regional economy. This phase has to be seen as one of industrial deepening and diversification more than a phase of industrialization (Lewis, 1991, p. 277).

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4 To a deeper analysis on the theories, please see Suzigan (2000, p. 23-42).
4. Immigration in the economy

In Brazil and to Argentina, immigrants had an important role on the economy, especially on the industrialization of those two countries.

Several authors agree and affirm that immigrants were responsible for the growth and consolidation of an entrepreneur class, with qualified technical professionals occupying the most diverse working places at factories and industries through the São Paulo State. They agree as well on the main responsible for it, the Italians\(^5\).

Immigrants were a fundamental piece for the process of industrialization in São Paulo. Those who dedicated themselves to agricultural tasks and engaged at the colonato system, with the incomes they could buy products they needed, contributing to the development of urban centers. Immigrants with greater qualification and capacity began to take part on the industrial and worker field of São Paulo:

The inflow of European immigrants, demanded by that state [São Paulo], mostly due to the skilled politics of immigration and colonization, which would allow the emergence of a manifold entrepreneurial class besides a elevate number, relatively to the rest of the country, of qualified laborers who would occupy the most important positions in the productive system of the industry (Suzigan, 2000, p. 89-90).

This can be verified by the following data: in 1893, 83,6% of the industrial working force of São Paulo was composed by foreigners, increasing to 92% in 1900. In 1912, 82% of the workers in the textile sector were immigrants being 65% of them Italians. In 1920, 51% of the workers in the industrial sector were foreigners (Pinheiro, 1997, p. 139).

In the northeast part of São Paulo state, the region of Ribeirão Preto deserves special attention being one of the greatest coffee producer cities in Brazil and the one that attracted the greatest part of immigrants arrived in the state to work at the coffee farms during the period, and so composing a significant part of the local population and having great effects on the economy and society\(^6\). Also, in Ribeirão Preto it can be noticed the influence of immigrants in its industrialization.

To the exam of the city’s industrial development, the following primary sources were consulted: *Anuário Commercial do Estado de São Paulo* of 1904, *Almanach Ilustrado de Ribeirão Preto* for 1913; *Estatísticas Industriais do Estado de São Paulo* of 1928, 1929 and 1930, all of them can be found in the Historical Archive of Ribeirão Preto. The analysis of the existent industrial branches and the name of the entrepreneurs comprehended in the mentioned sources and the reviewed bibliography revealed the existence of industrial establishments since 1980 and the presence of immigrants as owners. Many of the entrepreneurs revealed by the documental sources were immigrants and producers of goods of difficult importation, such as perish aliments and that were known to be needed or common to theirs compatriots. Others, after some time in coffee farms, decided to try their luck in the cities, being part of the urban economy\(^7\), with the development of commerce and also acting as immigrants importers. Immediately in 1904, it can be noticed the existence of six factories of alimentative pastes, all of them belonging to entrepreneurs with Italian surnames. In 1913, Italians once again appear in the paste sector and also on the beverages, mechanical workshops and other sectors. In the years of 1928 to 1930, an ascending growth of industries and investments in the industrial sector of Ribeirão Preto, always with the presence of immigrants – mostly Italians – as industrial entrepreneurs, is observed.

In Argentina, the process is similar. For Irigoin (1984, p. 7) the migratory stream of 1880 must be considerate an influent factor on the industrial development of the period. Immigration solved the labor force and population problem.

Immigrants as workers in the industries were 63,3% of the total (Lenz, 2004, p. 150-151). Lenz (2004, p. 150-151) shows that in 1895, immigrants were owners of 84,2% of industrial establishments of Argentina, what corresponded to 18.706 immigrants owners against 3.498 Argentineans. On the work-force, 93.294, or 63,3% of the total workers were immigrants and only 52.356 were natives. The author justified these data by the lack of interest of the land-owners, mostly Argentinean, in the industry and by the system o tenancy, it was difficult for foreigners the access to rural properties.

In 1914, immigrants were responsible for 62,1% of the employment in commerce, 44,3% in industry and 38,9% in agriculture and cattle rising. In Buenos Aires city, immigrants were present in 73,5% of the commerce jobs and 68,8% in industry. In the rural area of Buenos Aires province, immigrants employed on the sector were 55,1% and in Santa Fe,\(^6\) See Irigoin,1984; Dean 1971; Suzigan, 2000; Lenz 2004; Costa, 2007; Lanza & Lamounier, 2012.

\(^5\)In 1886 foreigners in Ribeirão Preto composed 7.3% of the 5.552 inhabitants. By 1902, there were 33.119 foreigners living in the city, what represented 62% of the population. (Santos, 2006 p.1-5); For an extended review on the subject of immigrants in Ribeirão Preto and their influence on society as well as more complete data, please see: Lanza (2012) and Lanza&Lamounier (2012).

\(^7\)On this subject, see Moraes (1980). The author highlights the main role immigrants played in the urbanization and urban development of Ribeirao Preto.
this number was 60.9%. The participation of immigrants in entrepreneur level in 1914 in industry and commerce was 68.4%. In the rural sector, immigrants were present in 40.7% of the agriculture and 22.1% in the cattle rising. The greater participation in urban activities can be explained by the fact that those were concentrated on the littoral, where the majority of immigrants were settled (Gallo, 1986, p. 372-373).

5. Conclusions

As we could see, the bibliographical review showed that for Brazil and Argentina, the period of 1870 to 1930 was of great economic growth and development. Until 1870, both were countries with low population density and great empty spaces and low economic rhythm. The economy based on export of primary good brought several investments in infrastructure, population growth based on the incentive to European immigration to act as work force or as settlers. The entrance of these foreigners had great influence over the two countries. Several authors pointed the influence of the immigrants in the industrialization of Brazil and Argentina and the analysis of primary sources confirmed that. They also present the presence of manufacture enterprises as soon as in the 1880's, in consonance with the expansion of the primary sector of the two countries’ economies, what comes to confirm the theory we choose to explain industrialization in them. The research still has a long way to go and the data presented here are preliminary and partial results of a larger investigation process which will culminate in a master thesis.

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The Luxembourgish “Fiducie” and the Georgian “Trust” (Terminological Peculiarities)

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Abstract

The world has been constantly developing throughout the centuries. However, the pace of changes has been almost doubled during the last decades. The process of globalization has comprised the whole world. Its orientation on the tendency of penetration, internationalization and rapid development has changed the contours of different spheres of life. The given paper studies innovative processes of the European legal sphere. It is oriented on the discussion of the formation of the Luxembourgish (capitalistic) “fiducie” and the Georgian (“almost” capitalistic) “საკუთრების მინდობა” under the influence of Anglo-American “trust”. The original form of “trust” appeared at the end of the Middle Ages – in the epoch, when the real estate was the principle form of wealth. In the beginning of the 19th century, the given institution emerged in the American business sphere and stipulated the appearance of “trust-like” mechanisms throughout the world. Hence, the implementation of these devices was contradicted by the traditions of continental law-governed countries - the duality of ownership seemed almost unacceptable to the “rigid” European jurisdictions. Despite such circumstances, during the recent decades, the process of globalization has facilitated the popularization of the utilization of the institution of “trust”. Its alternatives appeared in capitalistic and “almost” capitalistic countries in different forms and variations. Development of these variations and their terminological nomination is an urgent issue and the major focus of the given research.

1. Introduction

The globe has been constantly developing throughout the centuries. However, the pace of changes has been increased during the last decades. The process of globalization comprised the whole world. Its orientation on the tendency of penetration, internationalization and rapid development changed the contours of different spheres of life. Innovative processes appeared in the European legal sphere and throughout the globe.

Nowadays, scholars pay more and more attention to the implementation of the European alternatives of Anglo-American “trust”, which originated at the end of the Middle Ages – in the epoch, when the real estate was the principle form of wealth. However, the historical data specifies, that the early trust relationships existed even in the ancient times.

2. From the History of Trust Relationships

In 1790 B.C. the Code of Hammurabi presented “rules of law governing business conduct, or fiduciary considerations, for the behavior of agents (employees) entrusted with property” (Atherton S. C., Blodgett M. S., Atherton Ch. A., 2011). The roots of the fiduciary principles are vividly seen even in the Old and New Testaments:

“Exodus 22:6-14 states the laws of guardianship, whereby the level of responsibility for any loss varies in relation to whether the custodian is being paid or has use of the item under care” (Silber, K., 2011).

“Luke 16:1-13 is about a steward who, expecting to be fired, curries favor with his master’s debtors by allowing them to repay less than their full debts” (Silber, K., 2011). This is a parable, which has been interpreted as an illustration of a precept against serving two masters.

The relationships similar to “trust” were met in Roman law. During the 1st - 3rd centuries A.D. Roman legal system recognized fiducia contracts under which an individual held property in safekeeping or acted on another individual’s behalf. The law acknowledged three major types of devices: “fiducia cum amico (contracta)”, “fiducia cum creditore”, “fideicommissum”. The first represented the safe custody; the second was the form of proprietary security, while the third was used during testamentary relationships.

The term “fideicommissum” originated from the “past part. of fideicommittere to bequeath in trust” (Fideicommissum). It implied the obligation of transference. This obligation “was not created by words of legally
The necessity of the creation of new legal norms emerged and the establishment of a new institution (which was later called "trust"). A trustor transferred his estate to the fiduciary who was obliged to use it according to the terms of the agreement and subsequently to give it back to the fiduciary (Stec P., 2003). "Fiducia cum amico" was a mere safe custody, which ensured the management of the ownership of Roman citizens, who travelled abroad. In certain cases, it served the purposes of a hire and a loan.

The third type of a trust-like device of Roman law was "fiducia cum creditore". It was used to secure a loan. Under "fiducia cum creditore contracta" a fiduciary (secured creditor) transferred dominium (full ownership) to fiduciarius (secured creditor) on condition that fiduciary would transfer it back when the debt was paid" (Mangatchev I. P., 2009). Initially, Roman law did not oblige the trustee to act according to the agreement and the settlor was not legally protected. However, the later Roman law gave some degree of protection to fiduciarius, "who could also reacquire ownership of his estate by a peculiar form of usucapio called usureceptio fiduciae causa" (Stec P., 2003).

Supposedly, the data of the Code of Hammurabi, the Old and New Testaments and Romanian law revealed the necessity of the creation of the "real trust", which actually originated in the English Common law during the Middle Ages. This irreplaceable institution derived from a system employed in that era known as "use of land" or "uses". The history of the emergence of "trust" states, that during knights' lengthy absence, their estates needed protection and preservation. For that reason, each knight transferred his legal ownership to a third party (a close friend) under a special agreement – the estate ought to be transferred back upon the knight's return. This transfer empowered the transferee to manage the "acquired" ownership and to enforce the rights of the estate against all parties while the owner was away. However, in certain cases, when the transfersors came back, they found difficulties in returning their legal rights. The legal disputes between "acting administrators" and owners were resolved by the King. Later the King's power was transferred to the Lord Chancellor. In the 15th century the function of resolving the disputes was delegated to the Lord Chancellor's Court. The necessity of the creation of new legal norms emerged and the establishment of a new institution (which was later called a "trust") was facilitated.

The legal mechanism of the early "trust" seems similar to the principle of the Roman "fiducia cum amico contracta". Both institutions ensured the management of the ownership of persons, who travelled abroad. They were based on friendship – a transferee was "amicus" (a friend acting as a "trustee"). The legal relationships between a transferor and a transferee ended after the return of the former, because an estate was given back to the transferor. This fact clearly indicates, that the Roman law could play a significant role in the formation of the Common law "trust" mechanism.

However, the law of the Middle Ages was quite remote from the modern practice: "the primary purpose of the trust was to facilitate the transfer of freehold land within the family. The law governing the transmission of freehold land was deeply afflicted by feudal restrictions meant originally to concentrate landholdings for military and related advantages" (Langbein J. H., 1995). Entrusting the land to a trustee defeated feudal restrictions. Therefore, the "trust" enabled landowners to provision their wives and children. The beneficiaries lived on the land and managed it, while the trustees of these primary trusts were mere stakeholders with no serious powers of management: "the trustees' duties were to permit the [beneficiary] to occupy the land and enjoy the rents and profits, to defend the title at law, and to convey the land as directed by the [beneficiary]" (Langbein J. H., 1995).

3. Contemporary Trust Relationships and Their European Modifications

Nowadays, a "trust" is generally defined as a juridical agreement under which a "settler" ("grantor") can transfer the property to a "trustee", who has to exercise and manage it for the benefit of a "beneficiary" – an equitable and a beneficial owner of the property. "Trusts" can be created inter vivos or after the death of the settler (the so-called "testamentary trust").

The study of the development of the contemporary legal systems reveals that the "trust-like" devices have appeared in different European countries during the last decades. Their emergence was facilitated by the popularization of the American capital market, which established the so-called "business trust" in the beginning of the 19th century. The contemporary trust-like devices do not represent a faithful reflection of the original one. The given paper deals with the comparative analysis of the Luxembourghish "fiducie" ("trust") and the Georgian "საკუთრების მინდობა" (sakutrebis mindoba – "trust") via putting emphasis on the major similarities and differences of these newly created institutions.
It's a well-known fact, that the civil law countries are characterized by the lack of the concept of the duality of ownership. Therefore, it has been accepted, that the establishment of the institution of “trust” was almost impossible in Luxembourgish or in other continental law countries. However, on 19 July 1983 Luxembourg adopted the Grand-Ducal decree related to “fiducie agreements” of credit institutions, which was replaced by the Law of 27 July 2003 related to Trusts and Fiduciary Contracts. Therefore, the Law of 2003 presented the concept of “fiducie” (“trust”) via giving the following definition of fiduciary relationships:

“The Luxembourgish fiducie is a contract whereby a person, the principle (or fiduciant) agrees with another person, the fiducie (the agent or fiduciaire), that, subject to the obligations set forth by the parties, the fiducie becomes the owner of assets which shall form a fiducie estate” (Partsch T., Houet. J., 2012).

A fiduciary contract is usually created in a written form. It indicates to the transfer of ownership and responsibilities of “fiduciaire”. The latter cannot be an individual. It can only be represented by the legal entity: “a credit institution, an investment firm, an investment company with variable or fixed share capital, a securitisation company, a fiduciary representative acting in the context of a securitisation transaction, a management company of common funds or of securitisation funds, a pension fund, an insurance or reinsurance undertaking or a national or international public body operating in the financial sphere” (Law of 27th July 2003). The Luxembourgish law recognizes the existence of a foreign agent too. It can be represented by the entity subject to regulatory supervision, located in the EU or EEA (the European Economic Area).

A fiduciary relationship is usually established for the purpose of the creation of the so-called “patrimoine fiduciaire” (fiducie estate), which is separated from the personal estate of the agent. The “fiduciaire” has the obligation to keep accountings for the personal estate separate from the accountings for “patrimoine fiduciaire”. The Luxembourgish law recognizes the following types of “fiducie”:

- The so-called “fiducie-gestion” - under this agreement, “fiduciant” transfers capital or assigns assets to “fiduciaire”, which manages them for a definite period of time. During this period “fiduciaire” deposits “cash in appropriate currencies, purchase and sale securities, exercises all the rights attached to the assets...” (Partsch T., Houet. J., 2012). The transactions are carried out at the risk of the principle. The creation of “fiducie-gestion” aims at the efficient management of the transferor’s fortune. However, after the completion of the planned period, an agent returns the entrusted assets to the “fiduciant” or the person selected by him/her;

- The so-called “fiducie-libéralité” - under this agreement, the principle transfers assets to the agent, who is responsible for their management for a certain period of time (in cases of a testament or a donation). “During the fiducie, the income generated by the assets can be capitalized or transferred either to the principle, or to a third party. On termination the agent will provide the assets to the final beneficiary” (Partsch T., Houet. J., 2012);

- The so-called “fiducie-sûreté” – this type of an agreement is used for security purposes. “Fiduciant” assigns the legal title of assets to “fiduciaire” for securing his/her obligations towards it. After the fulfillment of obligations, the assets are transferred back.

Therefore, a study of the Luxembourgish Law reveals the similarities and differences of the Luxembourgish “fiducie” and the Anglo-American “trust”. Major differences between these legal institutions can be presented in the following way:

1. The “trust” divides trustor's ownership into the property of a trustee and the property of a beneficiary – an equitable interest, while “fiducie” divides and at the same time, separates the trust property from a trustee’s individual property. Therefore, the Luxembourgish law discusses a trust property (“patrimoine fiduciaire”) and a trustee’s individual property as two separate units;

2. The creation of a “trust” requires a trustor’s intent presented orally or in a written form. For the creation of a “fiducie”, a “fiduciant” enters into a written contract with a “fiduciaire”;

3. The “trust” can be subject to a mortis causa deed, while only one type of “fiducie” - “fiducie-libéralité” – deals with the cases of a testament or a donation. All the other fiduciary contracts are created inter vivos.

During the end of the 20th century and in the beginning of the 21st century, the modifications of the institution of “trust” appeared in many civil law jurisdictions. Among them is the Republic of Georgia. At the end of the 20th century Georgia adopted a new civil code, which significantly differed from the Soviet legislation (for several decades Georgia had been governed by the Soviet law). The newly established civil code included new concepts and terminological units indicating to the modernization of Georgia’s legislation. One of the newly appeared Georgian institutions was “საკუთრების მოიცესობა” (sakutrebis mindoba), which has been regarded as a modification of Anglo-American
“trust”. A precise study of the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა” reveals some similarities with its Common Law “predecessor”. Articles 724-729 of “The Civil Code of Georgia” present the essence of “trust” and the parties participating in trust relationships: a “trustor” (საკუთრების მიმნდობი / sakutrebis mimndobi) and a “trustee” (მინდობილი მესაკუთრე / mindobili mesakutre):

- “საკუთრების მიმნდობი” is a person or a legal entity which creates a “trust”. At the same time, it is a person or a legal entity which is a beneficial owner of the property;
- “მინდობილი მესაკუთრე” is a person or a legal entity which holds legal title to the trust property.

Trust relationships take a form of a “trust contract” (საკუთრების მინდობის ხელშეკრულება / sakutrebis mindobis khelshekruleba). Under this agreement the principle (trustor) transfers the property to the trustee, who accepts and manages it in compliance with the principle’s interests (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2002). The specificity of the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა” presents the right of ownership in a “split” form: some rights of the owner – the management and the disposition of the property – belong to one person (trustee), while other rights – receiving income and profit from the exploitation of the property - belong to another (trustor) (The Commentary of the Civil Code of Georgia, 2001). The motive of a “trust contract” can be the owner’s wish to delegate the authorities of management for the purpose of making profit from the exploitation of the property. In any case, the ownership must be entrusted in accordance with the trustor’s interest. This interest may imply: making profit, increasing the property, managing and maintaining the ownership, etc.

A precise study of Georgia’s Civil Code reveals, that a trust contract must be created only in a written form. Oral trusts are unacceptable. The ownership is usually managed by the trustee at the risk and expense of the “trustor”. In terms with third persons, an owner’s rights:

1. “The trustee is bound to manage the property held in trust in his own name, but at the expense and risk of the trustor;
2. The trustee enjoys the owner’s entitlement in relation with third persons. If the trustee, contrary to the interests of the trustor, is not acting in the same good faith as in managing his own affairs, he (she) will be obligated to compensate the damage thereby arisen” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2002).

Although the Georgian law acknowledges only inter vivos trust contracts, some peculiarities of trust relationships are detected during “testate succession”. According to Article 1383 of “The Civil Code of Georgia”: “a testator may bind an heir to perform some obligations at the expense of the estate in favor of one or more persons” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2002). The given testamentary obligation is called a “legacy” (“legati” - legati), while a person performing it, is denoted by the term “legatee” (“legatari” - legatari). The objects of the legacy may comprise:

- “transfer of things from the estate to the recipient of the legacy - into ownership, for use or for other right in rem;
- purchase and transfer of a thing, which is not included in the estate;
- performance of a specific work;
- service, etc.” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2002).

Therefore, the study of the new Civil Code of Georgia reveals the similarities and differences of the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა” and the Anglo-American “trust”. The major differences between these legal institutions can be presented in the following way:

1. The creation of a “trust” requires a trustor’s intent presented orally or in a written form, while for the creation of “საკუთრების მინდობა”, a trustor (საკუთრების მიმნდობი) enters into a written and notarized contract with a trustee (მინდობილი მესაკუთრე);
2. The Anglo-American “trust” can be subject to a mortis causa deed, while the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა” is never subject to it. Moreover, the Georgian legal system is not familiar with the concept of a “testamentary trust”. However, some peculiarities of trust relationships are detected during the “testate succession”;
3. The “trust” nominates beneficial owners of the property (“beneficiaries”) or simply implies the delegation of authorities in behalf of the “trustor” himself (herself). “საკუთრების მინდობა” considers only a simple delegation of authorities of management in behalf of “საკუთრების მიმნდობა” and underlines the fact, that the Georgian legal system identifies the concept of “trustor” with the concept of “beneficiary”. Moreover, the term “beneficiary” has no Georgian equivalents.
4. Conclusions

Finally, all the above mentioned enables us to conclude, that nowadays, trust-like devices are detected in capitalistic and “almost” capitalistic civil law jurisdictions. A precise study of the Luxembourgish “fiducie” and the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა” reveals the following regularities:

- The Anglo-American “trust” consists of three major elements: the owner of the property (“trustor”), the transferee (“trustee”) and the beneficial owner of the property (“beneficiary”). The Georgian and Luxembourgish legal systems identify the concept of “trustor” with the concept of “beneficiary”. Therefore, the term “beneficiary” has no Luxembourgish and Georgian equivalents;
- The creation of Anglo-American “trust” requires a trustor’s intent presented orally or in a written form, while for the creation of “fiducie” and “საკუთრების მინდობა”, a trustor enters into a written contract with a trustee (the Luxembourgish “fiduciaire”; the Georgian “მინდობილი მესაკუთრე”). The oral forms are not recognized by the Luxembourgish and Georgian legislations;
- The Luxembourgish law recognizes the following types of “fiducie”: “fiducie-gestion”, “fiducie-libéralité” and “fiducie-sûreté”. The Georgian law is not familiar with such categorization of “trust-like” devices;
- The Anglo-American “trust” can be subject to a mortis causa deed, while only one type of the Luxembourgish “fiducie” - “fiducie-libéralité” – deals with the cases of a testament or a donation. All the other fiduciary contracts are created inter vivos. The same can be said about the Georgian “საკუთრების მინდობა”. “The Georgian Civil Code” recognizes only some peculiarities of trust relationships during the “testate succession”.

Therefore, the Luxembourgish and Georgian laws have already indirectly allowed mechanisms similar to the Anglo-American “trust”. However, it’s obvious, that the resulting instruments do not present a faithful reflection of the original model. Further researches in the field of the development of “trust-like” mechanisms throughout Europe will fulfill the picture of the expansion of the utilization of “trust” and vividly depict the impact of globalization on the legal spheres of different countries. Therefore, the given study may play an important role in the solution of one of the most urgent problems of today’s world.

References

Using Concept Cartoons and Argumentative Writing Frames in Mathematical Word Problem Solving

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Abstract

The value of introducing concept cartoons and argumentative writing frames in South African schools within the current curriculum to promote discussion and argumentation is reported in this article. The concept cartoons used in the study reported here were not meant to be humorous in the classroom but were designed to provoke discussion and stimulate mathematical thinking. In traditional mathematics textbooks, students are required to make meaning out of word problems through symbolically described situations, whereas, through cartoons, students are presented with intelligent space to symbolic descriptions out of meaningful situations. The writing frames consisted of skeleton outlines that helped learners use generic structures and language features of recount, report, procedure, explanation, exposition and argumentation. It is against this background that the study discussed in this article used a phenomenographic approach to probe how students experience understanding and constructing of new knowledge when they solve mathematical word problems. Thus, the goal of this phenomenographic study was to allow students to be aware of contradictions in their own reasoning and become more open to alternative ideas as they reflect on their views and understandings of the real world experiences when they engage in word problem solving. Data was gathered through field notes and students’ written work over a period of six weeks. The findings demonstrated that writing frames not only served a purpose of stimulating mathematical discussion and thinking in the classroom, but also supported students’ abilities to write appropriately for a particular task. Furthermore, writing frames improved students’ level or quality of arguments when they engaged in word problem solving in the classroom.

Keywords: language; problem-solving; multilingual classrooms; sense-making; discussion technique

1. Introduction

In mathematics education studies language has been conceived and examined in a number of ways including the nature of mathematical talk or discussion and argumentation in the classroom. In fact, the discourse practices entailed in the learning of mathematics, and the challenges and opportunities within linguistically and culturally diverse mathematics classrooms. Mathematics teachers are faced with loads of pedagogical challenges that should be employed for a quality teaching and learning mathematics to take place. Mathematics classrooms are characterised by traditional and machenical way of teaching mathematics that relects teacher dominance during mathematics talk and discussion. There are few instances where learners are encouraged to construct their own knowledge and learning through mathematical talk and argumentation techniques. In other words, learners are seldomly provided with an intelligent space to communicate and argue about what they learn, and as a consequence, they do not participate in a negotiation of meaning in what they are taught. It is against this background that the study reported in this article allows students to be aware of contradictions in their own reasoning and become more open to alternative ideas as they reflect on their views and understandings of the real world experiences when they engage in word problem solving.

2. Literature review

This section looks at discussion and dialogue as a teaching technique in mathematics classrooms, a framework for categorizing the types of instruments used to assess learning style, as well as prior researches on learning style. Furthermore, it describes literature related to studies in argumentation and talk in general. Different perspectives on classroom interactional pedagogy and discursive psychology are outlined.
2.1 Argumentation and discussion in mathematics classrooms

There Argumentation in classroom contexts encompasses a process where learners make a claim, provide suitable evidence to justify it, and defend the claim logically until a meaningful decision has been reached (Webb, Williams & Meiring, 2008). The use of discussion as a tool to increase reasoning has gained emphasis in classrooms worldwide, consistent with earlier reports (Yore, Bisanz & Hand, 2003). Discussion, however, requires scaffolding and structure in order to support learning (Norris & Phillips, 2003).

Wood (2002) found variation in students’ ways of seeing and reasoning, and these were assigned in the first place to the particular differences established in classrooms early in the year pertaining when and how to contribute to mathematical discussions and what to do as a listener, consistent with findings reported by a number of other researchers (e.g., Dekker & Elshout-Mohr, 2004; Ding, Li, Piccolo & Kulm, 2007; Gillies & Boyle, 2006). Moreover, participation obligations put boundaries around the opportunities for students to share their ideas and to engage in mathematical practices (Ding et al., 2007; Fuchs et al., 1997).

2.1.1 Toulmin model and questions of context

Factors Toulmin’s (1958) outlines the double nature of his model for argumentation. On one hand, Toulmin develops a field in variant model applicable to most fields of argument (such as law, mathematics, science, ethics, and “everyday” topics). It contains six interrelated elements:

- a claim or the conclusion to be argued for (p. 96);
- data or “the facts we appeal to as a foundation for the claim” (p. 97);
- a warrant or a “hypothetical” statement that bridges the data and claim and “authorise[s]” the claim drawn from the data (p. 98);
- qualifier(s) or a word such as “necessarily,” “probably,” and “presumably” that indicates how strong a warrant entails the claim to be (p. 100-101);
- rebuttal(s) or the “circumstances in which the general authority of the warrant would have to be set aside” (p. 101); and
- backing or field dependent statements that support the warrant linking the data and claim (p. 103-107).

Textbook writers such as McMeniman (1999) have offered discourse community as a replacement for field. However, Harris (1997) has criticized the term as a naïve phrase, one that emphasizes constructs that people share, but minimizes the serious conflicts that are also present in human interactions. Porter (1992) likewise has argued that a discourse community is only very temporary, best witnessed by its forums (such as publications) in which participants have left traces of their former interactions.

Goodwin and Duranti (1992) perhaps summarize the problem best when they suggest that a single, precise, technical definition of context may not be practicable. Drawing on Ochs’ (1979) work, they list several broad categories of contextual attributes, each with a list of possible components:

- setting, or the social and spatial framework within which encounters are situated;
- behavioural environment, such as body language;
- language as context, in which talk itself both invokes context and provides context for other talk; and
- extra-situational context, such as background knowledge and discursive rules.

2.1.2 Toulminian studies

Much research on Toulminian models favours his stable definitions of context over accounting for the participants' understandings of the contexts they co-construct. Several theorists (e.g., Crammond, 1997, 1998; Gasper & George, 1997) are primarily interested in developing a better abstract description of argumentation or reasoning, and so they avoid questions of context for questions of representation. They may offer different, specific examples of arguments, but their applications of Toulminian models are generally from a single viewpoint - their own (Naylor, Downing, & Keogh, 2001).

In addition, researchers (e.g., Bugallo-Rodriguez, & Duschl, 1997; Carlsen & Hall, 1997; Chinn & Anderson, 1998) often adopt the model as a static lens for examining arguments in conversations and written texts. Even though they may alter Toulmin’s original model for their analyses, they tend to construe these adaptations as stable sets of criteria for coding argumentative utterances.
Most Toulminian studies do not address several key issues which are important for teachers using Toulminian models: how interpretations of the model are dynamic; how students’ changing constructions of their contexts define for them what momentarily counts as, for example, a claim; and how these understandings affect their applications of Toulminian terms to their writing. Specialised, limited use of Toulminian models are found in studies (Connor, 1990; Connor & Lauer, 1988; Thornburg, 1991) that have been primarily quantitative and evaluative.

Issues of interest to mathematics educators, such as, knowing, can be examined from the perspective of participants in interaction, rather than as underlying cognitive processes which can be used to explain what people do and say (Edwards, 1997). As Edwards and Potter (1992) acknowledge, this is not to say that people explicitly talk about these things. As Sacks showed, these patterns of interaction arise through the social actions of the participants; actions which bring about the on-going organisation of their talk (see Sacks, 1987). For discursive psychology, the social action through which interaction is organised takes precedence over other aspects of interaction, so that the psychological structures and functions of language became shaped by language’s primary social functions (Edwards, 1997).

Edwards and Potter (1992) suggest that such actions might include describing and reporting interesting events, making plans and arrangements, coordinating actions, accounting for errors and absences, accusing, excusing and blaming and refusing invitations. These researchers argue that in mathematics classrooms, such actions might also include describing, explaining, justifying, conjecturing, refuting or having an idea.

Talk is about more than its surface content. Every utterance, for example, also constructs the identity and reflects the interests of the speaker, who may present themselves as, loud or polite, knowledgeable or uncertain, biased or neutral. Each utterance, therefore, reflects the partiality or interest of the speaker (Antaki, 1994). Amongst empirical studies of foreign language attainment, a focus on recycling in local classroom communities can be found in the work of Rampton (1999) who indicated how foreign language teaching is recycled in peer group interactions and participation among adolescents as substantial resources in performance-based identity work. Rampton (2002) points out the role of recurrent routines or rituals in classroom life. Researchers (e.g. Kanagy, 1999; Lunsford, 2002) agree that daily classroom routines provide frameworks for young learners’ participation in classroom conversations that go beyond their present level of linguistic competence.

### 2.2 Dialogue and discourse practices

Factors A prominent body of empirical and theoretical findings demonstrates the good outcomes of participating in mathematical dialogue in the classroom (e.g., Fraivillig, Murphy, & Fuson, 1999; Goos, 2004; Kazemi & Franke, 2004; Lampert & Blunk, 1998; Mercer, 2000; Sfard & Kieran, 2001). What these researchers have demonstrated is that effective and quality instructional practices demand students’ mathematical talk.

Quality teaching, then, is a joint enterprise, founded on material, systems, human and emotional support, as well as on the collaborative efforts of teachers to make a difference for all learners (Coburn, 2005). In making a difference through classroom discourse, teachers shift students’ cognitive attention toward making sense of their mathematical experiences, rather than limiting their focus to procedural rules. According to Yackel and Cobb (1996), students become less engaged in solutions to problems than in the reasoning and thinking that lead to those solutions. Through the patterns of interaction and discourse created in the classroom students develop a mathematical disposition—ascribing meaningfulness to one another’s attempts to make sense of the world. Learning about other ways to think about ideas, to reflect, and to clarify and modify thinking is fundamental to moving learning forward? Carpenter, Franke, and Levi (2003) maintain that the very nature of mathematics presupposes that students cannot learn mathematics with understanding without engaging in discussion and argumentation. More talk in classrooms does not necessarily enhance student understanding. Better understanding is dependent on particular pedagogical approaches, purposefully focused on developing a discourse culture that elicits clarification and produces consensus within the classroom community.

A variety of situations might arise in which the outcome is not fully realized. For example, a number of studies have reported that some students, more than others, appear to thrive in whole-class discussions. In their respective research, Baxter, Woodward, and Olson (2001) and Ball (1993) found that highly articulate students tend to dominate classroom discussions. Typically, low academic achievers remain passive; when they do participate visibly, their contributions are comparatively weaker, and their ideas sometimes muddled. Nevertheless, pedagogical practices that create opportunities for students to explain their thinking and to engage fully in dialogue have been reported in research undertaken by Steinberg, Empson and Carpenter (2004). In a study from their Cognitively Guided Instruction Project, classroom discussion was central to a sustained change in students’ conceptual understanding.

Honouring students’ contributions is an inclusive pedagogical strategy. Yackel and Cobb (1996) found that
classroom teachers who facilitate student participation, elicit student contributions and invite students to listen to one another, respect one another and themselves, accept different viewpoints, and engage in an exchange of thinking and perspectives exemplify the hallmarks of sound pedagogical practice.

Teaching for inclusion ensures that participation in classroom discussion is safe for all students. Lubienski (2002), as teacher–researcher, focused on the inclusive aspects of classroom dialogue when she compared the learning experiences of students of diverse socioeconomic status (SES) in a seventh-grade classroom. She reported that higher SES students believed that the patterns of interaction and discourse established in the classroom helped them learn other ways of thinking about ideas.

The discussions helped them reflect, clarify, and modify their own thinking and construct convincing arguments. However, in Lubienski’s study, the lower SES students were reluctant to contribute, stating that the wide range of ideas contributed to the discussions confused their efforts to produce correct answers. Their difficulty in distinguishing between mathematically appropriate solutions and nonsensical solutions influenced their decisions to give up trying. Pedagogy, in Lubienski’s analysis, tended to privilege the ways of being and doing of high-SES students. In a similar way, Jones’ (1991) study showed that the discursive skills and systems knowledge that are characteristic of high-SES families align them favourably with the pedagogy that is operationalised within school settings.

2.3 Concept cartoons

The A cartoon is a graphical media that can either be in the form of a single picture or a series of pictures as in the form of a comic strip, captioned or non-captioned, that are printed in magazines, newspapers and more currently in books (Wai Bing & Hong, 2003). Cartoons are visual tools which combine exaggeratedly drawn characters with dialogues related to everyday real-life contexts in a humorous and satirical mode (Keogh & Naylor, 2000; Stephenson & Warwick, 2002; Coll, 2005). Numerous methods are being developed in order to promote the construction of knowledge. One of these methods is concept cartoons (Keogh & Naylor, 1999) and numerous studies in literature relate to the use of cartoons in science and mathematics education (Uğur & Moralı, 2006; Kabapinar, 2005). In this study, mathematical concept cartoons were used to stimulate discussion and argumentation that is high in quality when students solve mathematical problems in the classrooms.

Webb et al. (2008) suggested that there is value of introducing concept cartoons and argumentation writing frames in South African schools within the current curriculum. In regular textbooks, students are required to make meaning out of word problems through symbolically described situations, whereas, through cartoons, researchers (Lesh & Doerr, 2003) want learners to make symbolic descriptions out of meaningful situations. The concept cartoons, which are cartoon-style drawings showing different characters arguing about everyday situations, are not meant to be humorous, but are designed to provoke discussion and stimulate thinking (Webb et al., 2008).

According to Webb (2010), cartoons which consist of simple drawings and minimal text can empower the participants in the group discussion such that they do not have to ‘own’ the misconceptions displayed. She points out that cartoons represent visual situations in familiar contexts and use everyday language so that learner participation is maximized, particularly for those who are English language learners.

As noted earlier, Webb et al. (2008) conducted a study in primary classrooms of the Eastern Cape province of South Africa and reported positive improvement in the learners’ use of exploratory talk when concept cartoons were used as a trigger. However, they caution practitioners that the process takes time and that teachers must have a sound knowledge of what constitutes genuine discussion, argumentation and exploratory talk before they can carry out these strategies in the classroom.

The teaching approach of using concept cartoons, as suggested by Keogh and Naylor (1999), has a direct and immediate impact in the classroom. They seemed to promote a purposeful approach to practical work – a hands-on and minds-on approach. Wai Bing and Hong (2003) point out that concept cartoons are intended as a starting point to stimulate discussion and for eliciting ideas from the learners. They claim that to illustrate this point, students can be provided with an illustration and questions that require them to consider their thoughts, feeling and form opinions about the situation portrayed. The questions asked consist of: What do you see? (facts); What do you think? (opinions); and What do you feel? (feelings). This makes it an extremely valuable exercise to use with groups because it encourages open discussion (Wai Bing & Hong, 2003).

The cartoons used in this study fit the descriptions discussed in this section, and were merely used to stimulate discussion in the classroom during word problem-solving. As such, the cartoons chosen were rich in mathematics content and discourse, which afforded learners with the opportunity to use their everyday-life knowledge to solve word
problems that are taken from everyday life examples presented in an argumentative manner.

3. Research methodology

The study is framed by a phenomenographic study in education research, which proposes that the ultimate goal of teachers is to assist their students in developing conceptions that are consistent with those of experts in different areas, such as mathematics. However, it may not be a case that students may have multiple (or different) and alternative conceptions for a phenomenon which may not reflect those of experts in the field. Hence, Marton’s (1986) claims that “a careful account of the different ways that people think about a phenomena may help uncover conditions that ease the transition from one-way of thinking to a qualitative better view of reality” (p. 33).

3.1 Participants

40 Grade 9 learners from a multilingual mathematics classroom participated in the study reported in this article over a period of six weeks. The average age was 15.8 years ranging from 15 to 17 years old. The school is located within a semi-urban area and serves learners from middle class families.

3.2 Instrument

For the purposes of this study, a word problem test, concept cartoons and argumentative writing frames were used to collect data. The test was used to have an insight into learners’ ways of solving word problems and gauge their problem solving abilities against the use of writing frames and concept cartoons. Concept cartoons were used to trigger discussion during word problem solving processes. Writing frames assisted in and supported students’ writing abilities and guide their mathematical thinking when arguing about word problem solving. Data collection and analysis in this study proceeded together throughout the period of study.

3.3 Procedure

The purpose of discussion was to help learners engage in talk through sharing, seeking and constructing their own knowledge when solving mathematical word problems. The discussions took the form of dialogue and talk (formal and informal) in both English and the learners’ home language. The researcher used concept cartoons as a stimulus or trigger, to initiate and practise the skills required for the development of talk that is high in quality and sound in quantity. In promoting argumentation, learners are expected to disagree and/or agree with one another, providing verbal and written evidence to back up their claims. The introduction of argumentation writing frames assisted learners’ mathematical writing and level or quality of arguments between teacher and learners, and between learners themselves, when they engage in problem-solving of word problems.

3.4 Design type

In this study, the introducing discussion and argumentative writing frames on problem-solving abilities of grade 9 second language learners were explored. The study focused on writing to learn and solve word problems, discussion and argumentation. Concept cartoons in mathematics were used as triggers to stimulate discussion when they solve problems. The purpose of introducing discussion was to help learners seek, share and construct knowledge when engaging in word problem-solving. In promoting discussion, learners were expected to disagree with one another, engage critically on issues and build positively on what others have said. The study then focused on writing to learn and solve word problems, and introducing argumentation in mathematics multilingual classrooms. In order to achieve this, writing frames were used to help support learners’ ability to write appropriately for a particular task, guide their mathematical thinking and argue to learn mathematical word problems. These writing frames consisted of skeleton outlines that helped learners use the generic structures and language features of recount, report, procedure, explanation, exposition and argumentation.
4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Discussion and argumentation in the classroom

For learners, discussion, debate and critique are all learned strategies. Sfard and Kieran (2001) emphasise that "the art of communicating has to be taught" (p. 70). As such, experimental learners were afforded appropriate time and space for exploring ideas and making connections (Stein, Grover, & Henningsen, 1996) between classroom mathematics and out-of-school mathematical knowledge and a sustained press for explanation, meaning, and understanding (Fraivillig et al., 1999), during the use of concept cartoons and writing frames. The overall results of the study support Carpenter et al. (2003) notion that the very nature of mathematics presupposes that students cannot learn mathematics with understanding without engaging in discussion and argumentation. It appears that in the experimental classrooms observed after the intervention, mathematical discussions and thinking were greatly enhanced by the pedagogical practices that allowed learners to engage in argumentation (Empson, 2003; Goos, 2004). In doing so, learners were not only in a position to discuss classroom activities and solve word problems, but they were involved in taking and defending a particular position against the claims of other learners (O'Connor & Michaels, 1996). They pointed out that this teaching process depends on the skilful orchestration of classroom discussion by the teacher. In particular, teachers in the experimental group showed signs of improvement over time, and had begun to understand how to promote discussion in mathematics multilingual classrooms, via the use of the concept cartoon as a stimulus. However, as Ball (1993) pointed out, highly articulate students displayed a tendency to dominate classroom discussions and, as such, the management of classroom discussion appeared to be vital if one is to promote conceptual understanding via this technique (Steinberg, Empson, & Carpenter, 2004).

Writing frames (or sentence starters) assisted learners to present their responses and findings in a structured and written form. Data also revealed that instruction that addressed aspects of learners' writing (such as writing frames) seemed also to address learners' understanding of word problem-solving. Learners' writing appeared to be beneficial to mathematics teachers as well (Drake & Amspaugh, 1994). In fact, written explanations of the learners' problem-solving process allow the teacher to understand and assess the learner's thinking and comprehension (Freitag, 2005). As such, the writing frames provided by the study served as an effective tool for word problem-solving and seemed to promote and improve writing in mathematics multilingual classrooms.

Before the use of concept cartoons and writing frames, the pattern of utterances and/or mathematical discourse in experimental classrooms imitated Mercer's (1995) Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) process, also known as triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990). However, it was also evident that the quality of discussions and arguments in some of the experimental classrooms improved over time. Data generated from the observations during the use of concept cartoons and writing frames showed that teachers' attempts at initiating discussion, in the form of a question or task which predicts the learner response, were successful in most cases. In actual fact, a fair number of learner responses produced the information that made it possible for the teacher, in turn, to evaluate the response in terms of its closeness to the expected answer (Mehan, 1985; Mercer, 1995).

What was lacking in these classrooms was the ability for the teacher to realise more precise understanding of ways in which to follow up opportunities specifically for the learning of mathematical language and the language used in mathematics. This particular observation mirrors what Krashen (1982) and Long (1983) reported in their studies. These researchers observed that even though classroom discussions were used in their studies, the effectiveness of those classroom discussions was limited because it was the teacher who initiated what to be discussed, and decided who provides a response, after which the teacher either commends or condemns. In so doing, the teacher resolves when to put an end to the discussion, which was also evident in teachers' responses to the interview protocols used in the study.

4.2 Classroom interactions

The teaching approaches and strategies promoted discussion and argumentation in the classroom. The classroom atmosphere provided opportunities for learners to engage in dialogue, where they could agree to disagree in order to reach a common understanding. Forms of interactions in this classroom followed a narration and two-way question and answer approaches characterised by inquiry learning. The classroom was embedded with mathematical and social discourses that reflected both the culture of the learners' backgrounds and that of their classroom. The teacher's actions in the classroom showed a domain of discourse closely associated with learners' cultures having the same assumptions, values, and linguistic domain. The teacher's perspective on bilingual mathematics learners encouraged acquisition of
vocabulary, and did not reflect high levels of construction of knowledge and meaning. There were instances where interactions in this classroom took the form of teacher initiated discussions, typified by teachers’ frequent use of inauthentic initiating question turns. The follow-up turns by either the teacher or learners somewhat happened during classroom discourse but were of low quality. The interactions that took place within this classroom were found to have highly ritualised components that are not explicitly taught, but are embedded within the classroom culture. Although the teacher occupied the largest percentage of talking time in her lesson, what she did was to enable the learners to engage in dialogue. This dialogue took place between the teacher and certain individual learners. Learners were not confident that they could argue a case and challenge the teachers. The teacher issued a lot of instructions about what the learners were to do and modelled what was to be done. She struggled to take firm comparison of the interactions during her lesson. The unsuccessful interactions in this classroom indicated scant understanding and agreement of the rules of engagement between the teacher and learners with a view to active and positive contributions to classroom discussions.

5. Conclusion

The introduction of argumentation writing frames appeared to have a role in assisting learners’ mathematical writing skills and a level or quality of arguments between teacher and learners, and between learners themselves, when they engage in problem-solving of word problems. Writing frames (or sentence starters) seemed to assist learners to present their responses and findings in a structured and written form. Data also revealed that instruction that addressed aspects of learners’ writing (such as writing frames) seemed also to address learners’ understanding of word problem-solving. It is therefore recommended that the introduction of argumentative writing frames and discussion as a technique be integrated within the pedagogical strategies in the teaching and learning of word problems in South African classroom settings in order to enhance quality teaching of problem solving.

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Environmental Impacts of Canal Irrigation in India

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Abstract

In today’s scenario a major threat to human life is the environmental degradation and we ourselves are responsible for such degradation. Human effort since ancient times to increase agricultural production was wonderful. Various techniques of Irrigation for example tube wells, canal irrigation etc. have been introduced. It was considered a boon for the development of society, but due to human efforts to increase the agricultural production at any cost has become a curse for the society. Man always tries to overuse the natural resources but in this process they forget that this over utilisation will adversely affect the society in many ways. It can even lead to serious environmental impacts on flora, fauna, human population etc. This paper deals with one such human effort to increase the agricultural production and it is the Canal Irrigation system. The construction of canals is in general beneficial for increasing the agricultural production but they are also responsible, if not properly handled, for some environmental hazards. On one hand financial input is sometimes more than the expected return and on another, if not properly handled and implemented, it causes ecological imbalances resulting in waterlogging, salinization, loss of forest area (due to extensive deforestation), grazing land, crop land etc, which leads to the displacement of human inhabitants and wildlife. Thus, overall this paper focuses on canal irrigation system of the state of Uttar Pradesh state in India.

1. Introduction

From time immemorial efforts are made to enhance the security of people by every means and one of the major among securities for the people is the agricultural development in the society either by introducing new irrigation techniques or by adding more land under cultivation. No doubt that the ancient techniques of irrigating fields were highly advanced of its period. It is always good to introduce certain new techniques to the existing one or to make certain modifications in the old ones but introducing altogether a new technique and replacing the old one is never advantageous. One has to forget that the arid and semi-arid regions covering for about 53.9% of the geographical area of country and about 40% of the total population represents a weak dependent socio-economy. Much before the British arrived in India and started the big canal system, rich culture and agriculture thrived in these dry areas. Sophisticated water management and evolved agriculture provided reasonable safety against soil water drought and ground water drought in these areas.

2. Demand of increased agricultural production

The root cause of maximum number of problems related to agriculture, soil, land, irrigation etc is the increasing population and their demand for food production. In comparing the 1941 and 1951 census of India, the increase in the population was over 40 million. Nearly 83% of the population live in rural areas and 70% depend on agriculture for livelihood. The gross land area is 729 million acres, out of this 528.3 million acres are classified (net area and the statistics have reference to it alone). The area “cultivable but not sown” includes 64 million acres of fallow and the area not cultivable includes some 54 million acres of forest. The actual area of food crops is like the sown land area, 236 million acres. This area is however constantly diminishing, in 1911 it had been 0.9 acres per head: since that date the area of cultivated land has somewhat increased but not enough to keep pace with the growth of the population. Meanwhile large areas of land are lost annually by erosion, waterlogging, salinity, and other causes. There is no evidence that yields per acres have increased. The rapid growth of population has not been accompanied by a corresponding increase in food production and in consequence the amount of cereals produced per head has fallen from nearly 15 oz. to 11 oz. daily in 1949/50, and the total calories per day from 2000 calories to 1600 calories only. This deterioration of dietary had apparently begun before the 1930s, there are number of observations and surveys suggest that in earlier days more food grains per head were available. A much more modest program was adopted in 1948 to
increase food production as much as possible by increased irrigation and by bringing into cultivation some of the land at present fallow or waste. The irrigation schemes are far by most important but these schemes have sometimes caused disaster. Like in Damodar valley region famine occurred and perished the life of million people. It is naturally a vicious river but it has been made worse by man. It was originally covered by forest but this has been badly overcut and overgrazed with the inevitable result of serious flooding and erosion. The problem of feeding India however will remain extraordinarily difficult if the population continues to increase at its present rate. Even to maintain present low standards of nutrition about 32 million acres of land would need to be added to the cultivated area in the next ten years. Government made certain effort to control the increasing population for example family planning etc which definitely helped in reducing birth rate but on the other side death rate showed still sharper fall, which led to the increase in population, thus increasing the demand of food production.

3. Irrigation

In order to cope up with this increased demand of food production, various irrigation techniques are introduced. Irrigation is an artificial application of water to the soil usually assisting in growing crops. Civilization has risen and fallen with the growth and decline of their irrigation systems. In crop production irrigation is mainly used to replace missing rainfall in periods of drought but also to protect plants against frost. Irrigation is typically applied in those and (semi) areas where evaporation considerably exceeds rainfall, little natural leaching occurs and salts tends to accumulate. The groundwater in these zones is generally mineralised and the substrata may contain considerable geochemical salt deposits. The introduction of irrigation may leads to more deep percolation of both irrigation and rain water, recharging the ground water reservoir. As a result water table will rise until such levels at which discharge is again in equilibrium with recharge. Irrigation has two primary objectives first, to supply essential moisture for plant growth, this helps in transporting essential nutrients and secondly, to leach or dilute salts in soil.

Beside this irrigation provides number of side benefits such as cooling the soil and atmosphere to create more favourable environment for crop growth, it supplements the supply of water received from precipitation and other types of atmospheric water, flood water and ground water. Irrigation has acquired increasing importance in agriculture the world over. From just 8 million hectares in 1800, irrigated area across the world increased fivefold to 40 million hectare in 1900 to 100 million hectare in 1950 and to just over 255 million hectare in 1995. With almost 1/5th of that area India has the highest irrigated land in the world today.

Historically civilizations have been dependent on development of irrigated agriculture to provide agrarian basis of a society to enhance the security of people. Close to 19th century canals irrigated 45%, wells 35%, tanks 15% and others 5%.

Due to Green revolution in India during 1970s there was a continuous expansion of formulated and dual cropping system on existing farmland occurred in the north west of country. This generated the need for more canal water for irrigation as rainfall in the area is not sufficient to satisfy crop water demands. Hence various irrigation techniques were introduced to meet the demand of increasing population, one such techniques that became highly prevalent was canal irrigation system. But besides being a bless canal irrigation has also brought the inherent attachments of several problems like salinity, waterlogging etc. Thus this paper is an attempt to study canal irrigation.

4. Canal Irrigation

Large scale canal irrigation, a trend introduced by British and continued in free India. It is an important means of irrigation and is more common in northern plains because Rivers are perennial, water is stored in reservoirs by building dams across rivers and then this water is distributed to the field by a method of canal. Canals can be an effective source of irrigation in areas of low level relief deep fertile soils, perennial source of water and extensive area. Therefore these are common in northern plains in the states of U.P., Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan and Bihar which account for about half of canal irrigated areas of the country. It was during green revolution new crop varieties were introduced and it also leads to the increased use of inorganic fertiliser and pesticides and frequent irrigation.

No doubt it has its advantages that it brings down a lot of sediments from the river which makes the soil fertile, most of the canals provide perennial irrigation and supply water as and when needed, although initial cost is much higher, canal irrigation is quite cheap in the long run. But it do have its demerit also as canals are generally not deep and since they are open they may dry up. And the water soaks into the ground and leads to the problem of waterlogging, the marshy areas near the canals act as breeding grounds for mosquitoes, and the excessive flow of water brings the salt to
the surface making the soil infertile. Waterlogging and salinization are some of the major problems of irrigation.

The intensive irrigation, need of green revolution agriculture has created a largely wasteful water requirement in the hope of increased food production in limited areas where irrigation has reached. On the other hand the ecological impact of intensive irrigation has been large scale waterlogging and development of wet deserts in fertile agricultural lands. Further this agriculture is so precariously dependent on irrigation that any delay in supply either due to actual water scarcity or due to mismanaged distribution will cause soil water droughts. On the whole this method of agriculture has increased its vulnerability to drought in many ways.

Canals account for 27.6% of the net irrigated area of the state most of which lies in the Ganga Yamuna doab, Ganga-Ghaghara doab and western part of Bundelkhand region. The total length of Canal is about 50,000Km which provides irrigation to about 70 lakh hectares of the cropped area.

5. Waterlogging

Waterlogging is one of the major drawbacks of Canal Irrigation. An agricultural land is said to be water logged when its productivity gets affected by high water table and productivity gets affected when root zone of plant gets flooded with water. More than 33% of the worlds irrigated land is affected by salinization and waterlogging. In India alone, 8.4 million hectare are affected by soil salinity and alkalinity, of which about 5.5 Million hectare are waterlogged.

Waterlogging is mainly the result of increased water table and it occurs due to excessive or intensive irrigation in poorly drained soil where water can’t penetrate deeply and enters the soil faster than it drains away. It occurs even worse where there is compaction of subsoil layers, where water quickly enters the topsoil but is then blocked by water - resistant clay layer, which may occur naturally or may be induced through excessive use of agricultural machinery. There are many ways which increases the water table like water from canals may seep through beds and sides of canals reservoir etc or seepage of water from adjoining high lands into subsoil of affected land or because of inadequate drainage system soil having less permeable substratum below topsoil will not be able to drain water deep into ground causes high water table. In steep terrain water is drained quickly but in flat terrain drainage is poor which raises water table. When the water table rises it fills up the air spaces in the soil, plant roots in effect suffocate from the lack of Oxygen, limiting the plant growth in those areas. About 10% of all irrigated lands suffer from waterlogging. It occurs mostly on flat floodplain areas or gently sloping landforms with high rainfall and red duplex or heavy clay soils.

In Indo-Gangetic plain main reason for waterlogging is flood in the rivers. Rainfall in this region is very uncertain in quantity and distribution. More than 90% of the precipitation occurs in a short time span. This results in occurrence of flood. Rain water is stored in low lying areas and deteriorates soil in the long run. Waterlogging causes damage to the soil structure, suffocates plant roots, leads to the fall of productivity by about 20% in affected areas, pasture loss through drowning, fungal diseases, nitrogen deficiency, erosion in higher rainfall areas and soil structure decline, as soil is washed away. Farmers need to manage and plan their irrigation properly so that they do not over water the soil and suffer with this problem.

The problem of waterlogging started emerging on the large scale in the North West India during the last century with the growth of canal system. New areas have been affected by water logging in post-independence period when major irrigation projects were executed. Chambal in MP and Sarda Canal in UP etc are examples of this canal which leads to the problem of waterlogging and subsequent salinity through seepage as well as obstruction to the rain water run-off. The problems has been further aggravated by the process of new construction of roads railways, urban sites etc which have obstructed the natural flow of water. In other parts the problem of water logging is caused by the swelling of the rivers during monsoon which inundate large area. Areas suffering from bad surface drainage system and waterlogging in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh taken together amount to about 13.8 lakh hectares. National commission on Irrigation 1972 gives an estimate of waterlogged area of 8.10 lakh hectare for UP and 0.57 lakh hectare for MP. These figures were also accepted by national commission on agriculture, 1976.

6. Salinization

Ancient civilization flourished and then floundered when soil became saline due to poor irrigation practices and lack of drainage (example Mesopotamia civilization in the Tigris –Euphrates valley). There is a rudimentary relationship between irrigation and salinity. Salinization and waterlogging are the principal degradation processes on irrigated land. From various available data it is estimated that the world is losing at least three hectares of arable land every minute because of soil salinity. It is a serious problem of irrigated land. Of the 230 million hectares of irrigated land in the world 45 million
hectares is salt affected land to varying degrees by human induced processes. In contrast of almost 1500 million hectare of dry land agriculture, only 32 million hectare is salt affected soil. After a report survey waterlogging problem had developed in 2.46 million hectare, salinity in 3.06 million hectare and alkalinity in 0.24 million hectare. Affected areas are not completely out of production. But productivity reduces in such land. Salinity prone soils have been identified as being of three broad types (in relation to India).

i. The western part of India is a semi-arid to arid regions with hot climate and dry winter. In this climate evaporation is always greater than precipitation. Hence the soil profile development by eluviation is greatly retarded. The soil is marked by a concentration of salts saline and alkaline.

ii. The marked seasonality of rainfall affects salt release over a large part of the country. In south India and the Gangetic valley warm rainy climate is followed by a dry winter. During the rainy season precipitation is greater than evaporation which induces leaching of soluble salts down the profile. If the water table remains high, the soluble salts will remain in the profile. In North India the salts are transported in solution by the Himalayan Rivers, which later percolates in the subsoll of the plains and accumulated in the area of inefficient surface drainage. Thereafter during the dry season these salts are drawn upwards through the capillary spaces by evaporation from the surface. In many cases salts are deposited on the soil surface showing white or black patches of efflorescence on the soil surface.

iii. A large part of deltas and estuaries of rivers are affected by sea tide carrying salt laden deposits. Large parts of the seacoasts are subjected to periodic inundation by tidal water.

The quality of water in India is of high order. Canal water originating from the river or their reservoirs representing the Parent Rivers in quality unless contaminated. Proportion of salts are safe, usually less than 500 µs cm⁻¹. But even this small quantity of salt may play havoc if due care not taken. Minute quantities of salts are added to the soil with each irrigation crops removed much of the applied water from the soil to meet their evapo-transpiration demand but leave most of the salt behind. With each successive irrigation more and more salt is added. Hence a portion of the added salt must be leached from the root zone before the concentration affects the crop yield. Leaching is done by applying sufficient water so that a portion percolates through and below the entire root zone carrying it a portion of the accumulated salts. After much successive irrigation the salt accumulation in the soil will approach some equilibrium concentration. A successful water management program keeps the equilibrium level within a certain limit that is best for crop growth. This equilibrium level is decided by three factors, important for good salinity management:

- The salinity of applied water
- Depth of water leached below the root zone
- Depth of water applied at the surface

7. **Sarda canal of Uttar Pradesh**

Inda being the second most populated country in the world face lot of problem in feeding its people. Same is the case with Uttar Pradesh (most populated state of the country). There are many reasons behind it but the one major reason which this paper is focussing is the mismanagement of canal irrigation system. Despite many failures of canal irrigation, badly managed irrigation projects are still developed for short term economic gains and political popularity. The Uttar Pradesh government in India has recently undertaken a canal project named Sarda canal at a total cost of 40 million rupees.

Sarda canal was built by British in 1928; it takes off from Sarda River at Banbasa (nainital). The length of the canal with its distributaries is 12,368 Km. It irrigates about 8 lakh hectare of land in district of Sahajahanpur, Barabanki, Pilibhit, Sitapur, Kheri, Hardoi, Lucknow, Unnao, Raebareli, Pratapgarh, Sultanpur and Allahabad district. Its main branches are Deva, Bisalpur, Nigohi, Kheri, Sitapur, Lucknow and Hardoi. Another canal Sarda Sahayak takes off about Sarda sagar about 20 km below Sarda canal headworks near Indo-Nepal border and augments the supply in Sarda canal. It irrigates about 7.5 lakh hectare land in Jaunpur, Azamgarh, and Ballia district canal.

The construction of Sarda canal will result in the loss of 12500 ha of land, thus causing ecological imbalances, which is against the principal of soil conservation and it is a permanent loss that cannot be revived, constituted as follows:

1. Cultivated land 8000 ha
2. Forest land 1250 ha
3. Grazing land 3250 ha

The loss of the cultivated land is 8000 hectare. The average yield per hectare for all crops is supposed to be 21
8. Conclusion

The environmental problem such as waterlogging and salinization in the vicinity of irrigation canals are extremely widespread. It is also known that about half of the world's irrigated area has already been damaged to some degree by waterlogging and salinization and that much of the additional land which is expected to be irrigated in the future is highly vulnerable to similar damage. This problem is not only widespread in India but in other countries like Pakistan, Iran, Iraq, USA, etc., countries are also suffering with this problem.

Whenever a question arises that, “Why only canals among the indigenous techniques were adopted by modern engineers while others are not?” Answer often comes out as: “Canal irrigation allows centralised management which goes well with bureaucratic control”. But after reading the above details another question starts lurking in our mind that “Is it so?” Because the construction and operation of irrigation canals in India is in the hands of the state and the gap between the planners and operators on the one hand and beneficiaries on the other is even greater than in most other departments of government.

But it is also important to consider that canal irrigation is successful at some places like in Italy, consorzi di bonifica involve farmers closely in the design and construction stage as well as in the operation and maintenance of irrigation canals. Thus it can be said that efficiency of canals can be substantially improved by forms of organisation which brings representation of the state into regular institutionalised connections with representatives of the affected farmer, both at the stage of construction and of operation and maintenance.

Secondly a large part of these problems are attributable to the poor drainage system. Inadequate drainage means that soil having less permeable substratum below pervious soil will not be able to drain water deep into ground causes high water table. If proper drainage is not provided then the storm water constantly percolates and level of water table rises. Providing intercepting drains along canals prevent seeping canal water from reaching the water logged areas. Improving natural drainage of area helps in reducing percolation of water so that water should not stand for longer period. To keep from salting out the soil, there must be proper drainage system. When the drainage is insufficient to counter this salt influx, the root zone becomes salinized. Thirdly lining of canals and water course reduces seepages of water.
Reducing the intensity of irrigation in an area where there is possibility of water logging. Fourthly Crop rotation helps in avoiding high water table as there are certain crops which require more water and others require less water. FifthlyOptimum use of water for irrigation gives best results. Less than and more than that reduces yield. Overall it can be said that there are many ways to protect the land from such types of problems, and Canal Irrigation can be proved highly beneficial among different techniques of irrigation.

References

Identification, Current State and Development of Clusters in the Czech Republic

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to identify clusters currently existing in the Czech Republic and to analyze their regional dispersion, structure and activities. The analysis includes all currently active clusters to which it is possible to obtain relevant and comparable data. The data used in the study comes from specific cluster initiatives, the database of the National Cluster Association of the Czech Republic and from the materials of the Ministry of Industry and Trade and from the agency specialized on the promotion of trade and investment, the CzechInvest.

1. Introduction

The economic and price levels of the Czech Republic gradually converge to the European Union average, which fundamentally changes its competitive position in the international environment. The Czech economy will not be able to break through only via the price factor, but will have to develop those aspects of competitiveness that lead to the production of unique commodities and services based on a high degree of know-how and innovation. An important role is played by developed countries and in this regard, among other things, through cluster initiatives. On their basis emerged clusters positively affect productivity and availability of factors of production and create more accessible and cooperating suppliers, more efficient research and faster transfer of research results into practice.

In comparison with Western European countries, in the Czech Republic clusters and cluster initiatives are fairly new instruments. Over the last decade, there has been a strong boom of clusters, mainly due to the support of cluster initiatives provided from the EU resources. In the period after the accession to the European Union there were established more than seventy new cluster initiatives. A fundamental prerequisite for the establishment of new clusters were the activities of relevant state institutions and the implementation of financial support. The formation of clusters, however, preceded properly done mapping studies and some clusters originated via the transformation or development of the already existing platforms of cooperating companies. Due to the rapid development in that area it seems to be necessary to regularly monitor and evaluate the current state of the development of cluster initiatives in order to continue targeting the instruments of cluster policies at national and regional level. The information about the state of cluster initiatives can also serve as a source of information for the relevant bodies of other countries of the European Union.

This paper reacts to the situation. The aim of the paper is to identify clusters currently existing in the Czech Republic and to analyze their regional dispersion, structure and activities. The analysis includes all currently active clusters to which it is possible to obtain relevant and comparable data. The data used in the study comes from specific cluster initiatives, the database of the National Cluster Association of the Czech Republic and from the materials of the Ministry of Industry and Trade and from the agency specialized on the promotion of trade and investment, the CzechInvest.

2. Clusters in theoretical concepts

In the theory of regional development we place information on clusters and agglomerations in the whole scope of the concept, which examines, above all, themes linked to the growth of poly-, agglomerative advantages, economic geography innovative systems, and so on. The first person to deal with the phenomenon of the territorial concentration of economic activities was the British economist M.A. Marshall; already at the end of the 19th century. He pointed to the so-called industrial districts, which had a rather large amount of companies. According to Marshall, mutual interconnectedness brings the individual subjects advantages, mainly in the form of local savings [e.g., a greater supply of specialised workers, the availability of sub-supplier branches and services, support for the transfer of technology and...
knowledge between local firms and the like). In addition to the above stated mechanisms, Marshall further mentions the operation of a certain atmosphere of reciprocity, to be precise, the creation of formal and informal contact, jointly shared customs, traditions, production and labour approaches and so on (Rysova, Dobrik, 2009). Other authors, besides A. Marshall have dealt with the reciprocal concentrations. G. Garforli considers industrial districts as an important source of competiveness. This all shows industrial districts to be one of the significant examples of the organisational form of post-Freudian flexible specialisation. Among their characteristic signs, according to the aforementioned, belong the following:

- A high level of the division of labour creates firm ties both within and outside the branch.
- A high amount of specialisation of production at firm level stimulates the accumulation of specialised knowledge and facilitates the integration of new technology.
- The creation of an efficient system of spreading information and knowledge at local level guarantees a rapid and effective transfer of technology between the participants.
- A high number of local participants leads to opportunities for seeking the best solutions as well as for examining research methods used by individual participants.
- Raising the level of relations between economic subjects has a favourable effect on the spreading of technological and organisational innovations, as well as increasing overall efficiency of the local production systems.
- The concentration of economic activities and increased use of technology influences the level of qualification of the workers (Rysová, Dobrik, 2009).

Another view of the agglomerative effect can be found in the theory of field growth, which is connected with the work of F. Perroux. In the original Perroux version (Perroux, 1950), field growth is understood from a branch perspective. The author differentiates between the so called 'driving' and 'driven' branches. He defined driving branches as rapidly developing branches, which are dominated by the big, constantly innovating firms, sending strong development impulses to their surroundings, that is, to firms in the driven branches so that they grow even faster than other, comparable firms (Blažeck, 2003).

The original growing fields theory underwent many modifications in the course of its development. The most important ‘interventions’ which significantly enriched the theoretical framework are the theories of centres of growth and axes of growth (J. R. Boudeville). Boudeville, like Perroux, considers the motor of growth to be the developed [driving] branches, which contribute to the development of the connected [driven] branches. Perroux, however, does not include the effects of expansion with certain areas. Conversely, Boudeville presumes faster development of those regions which are localised driven branches, because it is calculated from the significant multiple effect of these branches on the rest of the economy of the region (Boudeville, 1966: 192).

We can put R. Baldwin and Ch. Wyploze’s publications among the modern approaches to the study of agglomeration and economic geography; in which the motives for the existence of agglomerative power are analysed. They argue that agglomerations get stronger ‘when the spatial concentration of economic activities form the motives which support further spatial concentrations’ (Baldwin, 2008: 258). They define the main cause of agglomerative power as the so called ‘demand and cost connection’. The demand connection is formed by the presence of a large market, which lowers trading costs. The cost connection is the availability of inputs [raw materials, plant and machinery, specialised services]; in other words, proximity to the supply chain. There exist, of course, opposing forces, the so called ‘dispersal forces’ (e.g., the price of land and realty, labour costs, strong competition), which work against the strengthening of the agglomerate. Spatial placement of economic activities, then, depend on the mutual interaction of agglomerative and dispersal forces (Baldwin, 2008: 258-259).

We can call the book of M. E. Porter (1990): „The Competitive Advantage of Nations“ a pioneering work in the area of clusters. In this work, the cluster is defined as a „geographically close grouping of mutually interlinked firms and dependent institutions in a given discipline [e.g., even universities, scientific research institutions, chambers of commerce and the like], and firms in related fields which compete together, cooperate, have joint symbols and complement each other“ (Porter, 1990: 157). Later on, M. E. Porter brought his original definition up to date and developed it like this: „Clusters are local concentrations of mutually linked businesses and institutions in a given field. Clusters include groups of interconnected industrial sectors and other subjects important for economic competition. They consist of, for instance, suppliers of specialised inputs and providers of specialised infrastructure. Clusters often expand vertically into marketing channels and customers, as well as horizontally to producers of complementary products and companies in industrial branches, related by virtue of skills, technology or joint inputs. Many clusters also include governmental or other institutions - such as, for instance, universities, standard setting agencies, research teams or business associations -
which provide specialised training, education, information, research and technical support" (Porter, 1998: 78). Porter understands clusters as one of the main sources of microeconomic competitiveness. According to him, the main factor of competitiveness of a state or region is productivity, with certain used sources. Among the microeconomic requirements for the growth of productivity, Porter, in his current publication, includes: firms' performance and the refinement of their strategy, the quality of the microeconomic business environment and the level of development of the clusters.

Porter's concept was enriched and concretized by other authors as well as by major international and national organizations and institutions. Several definitions also published the European Commission. In the professional publication of the 2002 it characterizes a regional cluster as "a concentration of mutually interconnected and dependent companies under the same or similar industry, which works within a small geographic area." In the paper by the European Commission published in 2008 we can find an enhanced definition of the cluster saying: "A cluster can be defined as a group of firms, related economic actors and institutions that are located near each other and achieve sufficient potential for the development of commercial, technological and other cooperation. Clusters represent a real economic phenomenon that can be observed and measured." (European Commission, 2002: 14).

The definition according to the OECD is not limited to the regional level only. It states that a cluster concept can be applied at national, sectoral and company level. In terms of the content it emphasizes, besides developed ties between firms, also an importance of innovative elements and customers (OECD, 2007: 25-27).

CzeckInvest, which deals with the development of clusters in the Czech Republic, defines a cluster as "a set of regionally affiliated companies (entrepreneurs) and associated institutions and organizations - particularly tertiary education institutions (universities, colleges) - whose ties have the potential to strengthen and enhance their competitiveness." (Skokan, 2008: 291).

Ketels highlights the institutional aspects and the involvement of a broad group of stakeholders. "In the given concept the clusters consist of co-located and mutually interconnected industries, the engagement of government, academia, financial institutions and institutions for collaboration (specifically it means 5 players). Dynamic clusters are crucial for successful micro-environment." (Ketels, 2003).

S. A. Rosenfeld regards as essential for the successful functioning of the cluster its involvement in commercial exchanges, dialogue and communication. "Without the active channels of mutually interconnected companies there can no mutual local production and social prosperity, and therefore such an association cannot function as a cluster." (Rosenfeld, 1997: 10).

Clusters and their influence on regional economic competitiveness are very relevant topics. Their significance grows in the context of globalisation of the world economy. Despite the unifying effect of globalisation, substantial differences between countries and regions from the point of view of specialisation, competitiveness and industrial dynamics exist. Competitive branches and industrial clusters can maintain their successful position in spite of the efforts of other subjects to imitate their activities. The most developed economies do not, in the international environment, set the price of the production factors, but they are forced to develop new forms of competitiveness. This concerns, mainly, such aspects of competitiveness which lead to the production of unique commodities and services based on a high degree of know-how and innovation. Among other things, cluster initiatives play a critical role in the developed economies in this regard.

Despite the fact that naturally born clusters exist for centuries and their formation is driven primarily by market factors, there has been prevailing in the recent decades, a positive view of the controlled and driven development of clusters in developed countries. In this context, various policies, programs and other tools to support the initiation and development of clusters are developed. Organized clusters are being called cluster initiative. From the literature we can give several definitions of cluster initiatives. According to Ketels a cluster initiative represents "organized efforts to increase growth and competitiveness of the cluster in the region, taking into account the involvement of cluster firms, government or research community ... Cluster initiatives are the grease that allows the engine of cluster dynamics to run at high speed." (Ketels, 2003: 8-9) The European Commission defines the cluster initiative very much like Ketels does and also adds that these initiatives generally stem from a formulated cluster policy and are usually conducted by specialized institutions (European Commission, 2008:62-64). As you can see, in the case of cluster initiatives, it is not only significant a concentration of firms, but also a created partnership and organized pursuit for the development of clusters, which is generally supported and developed externally through various public policies, programs and instruments.
### 3. Identification, structure and case studies of the functioning cluster initiatives

Based on the mapping studies done, there were identified more than 70 newly formed cluster initiatives in the Czech Republic. Out of these initiatives 62 proved to be functional. The relevant information could be obtained in case of 46 clusters. The analysed sample therefore represents 46 cluster initiatives.

The identified clusters are distributed rather unevenly in terms of their location. Most clusters are located in the region Moravia-Silesia (12) and fewest, vice versa, in regions Prague (1) and Plzen (1). More than 50 % of the clusters are located in three regions (Moravia-Silesia, South Bohemia and South Moravia).

In terms of the sectoral focus, the cluster initiatives include the following sectors: food industry, engineering, textiles, food processing, information technologies, mechatronics, plastics, packaging, renewables, biotechnology, nanotechnology, tourism, biomedicine, etc. Most clusters are active in the sectors of information technologies (6), energetics (6) and wood processing industry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: The overview of the examined cluster initiatives</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABC Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security Technology cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clutex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Stone Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech-Slovakian Industry Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atomex Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Brewery Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELECTRA-CITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIT Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERGOMED Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood processing Cluster – South Bohemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KLACR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster of Czech Cabinet Makers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMNIPACK</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge Management Cluster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moravian-Silesian Automotive Cluster</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Strong clusters emerged in processing industries like machinery, precise and general engineering, technical textiles, plastics, packaging, or wood; in various technology areas like environmental technologies, biotechnology, renewables; nanotechnology or ICT (Ministry of Industry and Trade, 2013).

As regards the structure of the analysed clusters there prevail among cluster members the business entities (83 %), which are complemented in all the clusters by research institutions and universities. In some cases, there are also other intermediary institutions.

Coming to the examination of the objectives, activities and current projects undertaken of the Czech clusters, we find out that they concentrate primarily in the areas of supplier-customer relations, cooperation in the field of research and innovation, PR activities, export promotion and in the field of education. Most clusters focus on the business and research cooperation. Just one cluster is based only on the value chain of business relationships.

To illustrate the practical functioning of clusters is presented on the example of a few selected cluster initiatives in the Czech Republic in 2005-2012 in the text below. The case studies include Cluster of packaging manufacturers Omnipack and Cluster of Alternative energy sources ENVIRACK. Information about cluster are cited from web pages of cluster intitiatives (www.omnipack.cz; www.envircrack.cz).

The Omnipack cluster is focused on wrappings and packaging technology. The mission of the cluster is to increase the competitiveness and economic growth of the entrepreneurs in the field of packaging and logistics services by supporting their innovative activities. The main principles of that mission is transforming the knowledge of the research and development among the members of the cluster, strengthening of ties to scientific research and educational institutions, and systematic training of the members of the cluster. The aims of the activities of the Omnipack cluster is an extension of the existing infrastructure and a development of tools for the effective use of internal resources and capabilities of the cluster, and thus positively promote the economic growth and functional cooperation of the members.

Goals and activities of the cluster:

- Development of standards of the OMNIPACK packaging technology
- Expansion of the development centre of the cluster.
- Streamlining the cooperation of its members via greater use of ICT.
- Promotion of innovative activities.
- Strengthening the links between R & D & I, and industrial companies in the cluster.
- Support of the training of skilled labour in the cluster.
- Development of standards for strengthening ties between members of the cluster.

Cluster projects - examples:

- Technology centres of the Omnipack cluster - specialized development centres equipped with modern technologies for the development and testing of individual components of the OMNIPACK packaging system. CVD coordinates the use of TC and ensures the complexity of professional services (carrying out the required tests, including optimization of solutions and recommendations for further development).
- OMNIPACK packaging system – a set of studies of technical solutions of the innovations of individual components of the combined system including defined conditions for the successful transfer of innovations. The unique OMNIPACK packaging system unites technical specifications and procedures for the development projects of the cluster. Individual development projects of its members are aligned to these standards so as to
obtain a reduction in development costs and improve the cost of innovation and their utilization.

- Centralized knowledge and information base – a comprehensive set of sector-focused and systematically obtained and classified information. The basis creates data from market research, patent searches, professional research of innovations and trends, technical data of the processes already realized (used for accelerating the innovation in the case of recurring activities), etc.

- Systematic development of human resources – a coordinated process of human resources management of the cluster in order to ensure a uniform level of knowledge and skills, which is a prerequisite for effective, common research and a source of continuous innovation activities of all members of the cluster. The Omnipack cluster implements a long-term program "The common system of HRD in the cluster".

**Envicrack (cluster of alternative energy sources).** The main activities of the cluster are focused on the use of alternative and renewable energy sources. The strategy of the cluster is to focus on research and development projects in the field of waste management and the use of alternative energy sources. Activities are designed to support its members in the implementation and commercial exploitation of research results in practice. Innovation strategy is based on an analysis of trends. Attention is focused on solving the problems of waste and reducing emissions while reducing costs associated with expenditures on energy consumption. After identifying the problem there is done the analysis of market size and the opportunity analysis. Research activities are concentrated primarily in the following areas:

- Pyrolysis technology for waste treatment.
- Solar energy - conversion of solar radiation into thermal and electrical energy.
- Innovation in rail transport - reducing energy consumption by using energy storage and recovery.

Cluster projects - examples:

- Acquisition of instrumentation and technical equipment for research and development of the energy storage - the aim of the project is to build a mobile laboratory for measuring and evaluating the impact of storage units of electrical energy built on the use of the cooperation in various energy systems with renewable resources. The laboratory is equipped with the technology for energy storage and with the instrumentation and devices for measurement and evaluation of energy flows both inside and outside the laboratory. The laboratory equipment will be used to evaluate the time of the energy flows in response to the regime and to measure physical quantities for analysis, optimization and statistical analysis.

- Establishment of a testing laboratory for the development, measurement and testing of a concentrating solar power plant (CSP) designed to convert solar radiation into thermal and electrical energy - the construction of the test facility concentrating solar power (only one of its kind in the country) that will serve for the development, measurement and testing of the most advanced energy facilities, designed to convert solar radiation into thermal or electrical energy (or combinations thereof). Outcomes and conclusions from the pilot facility will be used to launch unique energy production facilities using renewable energy sources. The project will involve universities and the extended studying programs and emergence of scientific papers on the subject can be assumed.

- Research and development of a power units based on a Stirling engine to produce electricity and heat by concentrating solar energy - the goal of the project is the research and development of energy units based on a Stirling engine to produce electricity and heat transformation of concentrated solar energy electric power in the range 10-25 kW. Outcomes and conclusions from the pilot facility will be used to start the production of key parts of that unique facility using renewable energy sources for electricity generation - the Stirling Engine.

- Trial rail vehicle with energy optimization module - the goal of the project is to reduce the consumption of fossil fuels and the amount of CO2 and other fumes in the railway siding transport, the use of regenerated energy obtained during vehicle braking and traction while extending the life of batteries. The technology is applicable in the applications for rail vehicles and applications in public transport. The result of the project is to design fuzzy logic to optimize the operation super-capacitors including traction inverters, charging, management and use of reverse recovery energy recovery. The outcomes and conclusions from the pilot project will be used to begin production of energy-efficient rail traction vehicles.

4. **Conclusion**

Based on the analysis done it can be concluded that the activities of Czech national bodies combined with the use of the sources from the structural funds of the European Union stimulated, in the period between 2005-2013, an unusually
dynamic development of cluster initiatives in the Czech Republic. With the emergence of new cluster initiatives in most cases a top-down approach with the bottom-up approach was combined. The origin of each cluster was preconditioned by the existence or creation of a platform of cooperating companies and other related institutions (especially higher education institutions or research organizations).

Based on the mapping studies done, there were identified more than 70 newly formed cluster initiatives in the Czech Republic. Out of these initiatives 62 proved to be functional. The relevant information could be obtained in case of 46 clusters. The identified clusters are distributed rather unevenly in terms of their location. More than 50 % of the clusters are located in three regions (Moravia-Silesia, South Bohemia and South Moravia). As regards the structure of the analysed clusters there prevail among cluster members the business entities (83 %), which are complemented in all the clusters by research institutions and universities. In some cases, there are also other intermediary institutions.

Of course, in the future it will be essential to further develop the cluster instruments. We see reserves mainly in the nonexistence of some types of support and instruments. At the moment, the crossborder and international potential of the cluster branch is not used very much, and the role of regional actors is not fully appreciated, either. There does not exist any cluster programme at regional level in the Czech Republic, which would stress the precise needs of the given area. Regional operational programmes do not deal with certain issues. In order to develop a subsidy programme it would be good to also undertake a new mapping of potential cluster, and then to evaluate the performance of the new clusters. Find their weak and strong sides and present examples for the best practice. Furthermore, it would be helpful to examine the impact clusters have on the economic development of the region. Such and evaluation could serve a more precise concentration of the support provided. It would be possible to identify and support only specific areas, or to evaluate the most successful clusters.

For further conceptions of the CR’s cluster policy, we would consider it appropriate, also, to follow the current tendency in the orientation of cluster policy and instruments of the EU. It is planned to have more selective support for the chosen excellent clusters and to stimulate crossborder reach and cooperation within the framework of the European Union. There should come into being globally competitive clusters, supporting the high level of specialisation of the European economy. As well, greater emphasis will be placed on measuring the performance and efficiency of the management of the clusters.

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La Dépendance Alimentaire en Algérie: Importation de Lait en Poudre versus Production Locale, Quelle Evolution?

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Abstract

Algeria ranks as the second importer of milk powder in the world with an import bill reaching 700 million USD. While the state’s support to this sector varies between 46 and 47 billion DA per year, which a part of is devoted to milk powder and fresh milk also subsidies to this sector. Theoretically this support would encourage the integration of local production which would reduce food dependency of Algeria from the international markets. However, it is not the case. Hence the central question of this paper proposal: “What is the evolution of the integration of the local production of milk?” to provide some answers, it is timely to give an overview on the evolution of the following: the production of raw milk, milk collection, integration, and import trends for milk powder. Finally, an analysis of the factors explaining this situation of food dependency is needed as well as advanced by industry professionals proposals.

Keywords: sector, producing milk, collection, integration, importation.

1. Introduction

La sécurité alimentaire, la souveraineté alimentaire, la dépendance alimentaire : autant de termes de plus en plus abordés dans les travaux de recherche. En effet, un débat très riche ne cesse d’être alimenté ces dernières années autour de ces notions, et les pays en voie de développement sont les plus concernés et dont fait partie l’Algérie. Un pays ayant d’importantes potentialités mais demeurant dépendant alimentairement. En effet, le montant moyen de la facture des importations alimentaires pour la période (2000-2012) s’élève à 0,8 milliards USD. La dépendance alimentaire sera abordée concernant un produit stratégique à savoir le lait, qui occupe une place importante dans la ration alimentaire du consommateur algérien (120 l/hab/an) s’il on compare à nos voisins tunisiens (83 l/hab/an) ou encore marocains (64 l/hab/an). En effet, L’Algérie est considérée comme l’un des grands pays consommateurs en ce qui concerne la filière lait et dérivés, et cela est dû aux traditions alimentaires, à la valeur nutritive du lait, à sa substitution aux viandes relativement chères et le soutien de l’Etat, qui sont autant de paramètres qui ont dopé la demande. Une demande qui ne peut être satisfaite par la production laitière nationale. Celle ci a atteint environ 03 milliards de litres en 2011, soit un accroissement de 84% par rapport à l’année 2000 ; année de lancement du plan National de Développement Agricole (PNDA). Ceci reste insuffisant du fait qu’elle n’est pas en mesure de couvrir la demande nationale évaluée à 3 milliards de litre par an. D’où le recours à l’importation sous la forme de lait en poudre ce qui classe l’Algérie comme 2ème importateur au monde après la chine.

A travers cet article, il sera sujet de dresser un état de lieux de deux filières à savoir : celle des importations laitières et celle du lait cru produit localement, afin de comprendre les contraintes ralentissant la production nationale du lait ainsi que son intégration par le maillon de transformation, et ce malgré les politiques de l’Etat en matière d’encouragement des différents maillons de la filière lait (éleveurs, collecteurs et transformateurs).

2. Cadre théorique et contexte de l’étude :

2.1 L’approche filière

La notion de système alimentaire permet de décrire l’ensemble des activités qui concourent à la fonction alimentation dans une société donnée, il est également possible de décomposer les systèmes alimentaires en sous-ensembles (filières) (Malassis & Ghersi, 2000). Selon (Bencharif, 2000) le fonctionnement des filières agroalimentaires dans les pays en développement se heurte à des blocages et des contraintes qui entravent la circulation des produits au niveau
des articulations de la filière, et la démarche filière est donc particulièrement appropriée à ces pays selon l’auteur.


En effet, l’approche filière permet de mieux comprendre les stratégies des acteurs, d’identifier et caractériser les contraintes au commerce d’un produit afin de concevoir des actions pour lever ces contraintes. Cette approche semble particulièrement appropriée à proposer des actions destinées à favoriser l’augmentation des productions (Duteurtre & Koussou & Leteull, 2000). D’après (Montigaud, 1989) la filière est de prendre en compte une succession d’activités, étroitement imbriquées les unes par rapport aux autres, liées verticalement par l’appartenance à un même produit à des produits voisins et dont l’objectif principal est de répondre aux besoins des consommateurs. Une filière peut être considérée comme à la fois une suite de transformations et une suite de marchés entre amont et aval (Griffon, 1989).

L’approche filière est un outil d’analyse qui permet de montrer la manière dont les politiques publiques, les investissements et les institutions influent sur les systèmes locaux de production (Tallec & Bockel, 2005). Notons que (Griffon, 1989) souligne qu’en utilisant le concept filière, des difficultés pratiques sont constatées dont la principale semble être le manque de données et leur faible fiabilité. Cependant l’analyse de la filière permet de disposer d’informations plus utiles et plus fiables que celles des statistiques nationales.

2.2 Politiques laitières en Algérie


3. Une forte demande que la production locale n’a jamais pu satisfaire faisant ainsi appel à l’importation

La consommation est le dernier maillon de toute filière agroalimentaire, et dont le cas de la filière lait se trouvant dépendante des importations de poudre de lait et dont la production locale de lait cru n’a jamais pu satisfaire cette demande. La consommation de lait a connu une augmentation rapide, elle passe successivement de 54 l/hab/an en 1970 à 112 l/hab/an en 1990, pour atteindre les 120L de nos jours. En effet, l’Algérie est le plus gros consommateur de
lait et de produits laitiers au niveau maghrébin. Cette catégorie représente environ 14% des dépenses agroalimentaires par foyer. Cette demande est tirée par la croissance démographique estimée à 1.6%/an, et l'urbanisation qui est estimée à plus de 5% /an, s'ajoutant à cela l’amélioration du pouvoir d’achat (4% à 7%/an). Une enquête menée sur les ménages algériens fait ressortir que la catégorie de produits « lait et produits laitiers » occupe la 4eme position avec (7,5%) du total des dépenses de ces ménages, après les céréales (24,6%) , viande rouge (18,4%) et légumes et fruits frais (13,7%) (Bouazouni, 2008). On note aussi que la croissance est lente concernant la demande en lait de consommation du fait du niveau déjà élevé de la consommation de lait par habitant et par an. Quant aux produits dérivés du lait, l’on note que la consommation croît fortement grâce à l’amélioration de la qualité offerte et à la stabilité des prix. Et malgré l’amélioration de la production laitière ces dernières années, l’Algérie doit importer environ 60% de poudre de lait et autres produits laitiers afin de répondre à la demande locale en nette hausse. Cette demande de lait et produits laitiers n’a cessé d’augmenter, elle bondit de 950 millions de litres en 1970 à 3700 millions de litres en 1985 à 2147 millions de litres en 1996 à 3300 millions de litres en 2000 pour atteindre 4700 millions de litres en 2007 (MADR, 2007). Elle est estimée à 4,2 million de litre/jour en 2008. Selon (Cherfaoui, 2003)  « L’aspect qualitatif de la demande se traduit par une différenciation des produits s’appuyant sur des stratégies de fidélisation des clients et de marketing à travers notamment la publicité ».Il est à rappeler que la consommation est couverte en grande partie par les importations de poudre de lait. 

En effet, l’Algérie est le plus grand importateur de produits agricoles en Afrique. Les récoltes étant souvent pauvres à cause de la sécheresse, ce sont les importations de produits agricoles qui comblent la plupart des besoins des consommateurs algériens.En effet, les biens alimentaires occupent le troisième rang dans la structure des importations algériennes au cours des dernières années, après les biens d’équipements (40%) et les biens intermédiaires (29%) (Douanes algériennes, 2013). Le tableau ci-dessous représente l’évolution des montants des importations alimentaires et laitières dépensés par l’Algérie pour la période (2000- 2012). Il est à remarquer que les importations laitières, représentent en moyenne 17% des importations des biens alimentaires durant la période étudiée, et suivent la même évolution des importations alimentaires. D’ailleurs l’Algérie est le deuxième importateur au monde de poudre de lait après la chine.

**Tableau 01 :** Les importations alimentaires et les importations laitières de l’Algérie (2000- 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Années</th>
<th>00</th>
<th>01</th>
<th>02</th>
<th>03</th>
<th>04</th>
<th>05</th>
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<tr>
<td>Import. Alim</td>
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<td>2,39</td>
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<td>1,28</td>
<td>0,82</td>
<td>0,99</td>
<td>1,54</td>
<td>1,26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source :* Etabli sur la base des données de Statistiques du Commerce Extérieur de L’algerie (2000-2012), Ministère des finances, direction des douanes


## 4. Une production en hausse et encouragée par l’Etat mais qui demeure insuffisante

La production fourragère est l’un des maillons importants dans le système de production de l’élevage bovin laitier. Selon le rapport de l’ITELV les cultures fourragères en Algérie occupent une place marginale au niveau des productions végétales. Les ressources fourragères sont assurées par les terres de parcours (fourrages naturels) et les sous produits
de la céréaliculture. L’amélioration de la production fourragère est, de ce fait, une nécessité compte tenu de la mauvaise alimentation actuelle des cheptels dont le bovin laitier. Selon (Nedjraoui, 2000), les terres utilisées par le secteur agricole occupent 40 millions d'hectares soit 17% de l'ensemble du territoire. Selon (Houmani, 1999) L'alimentation du bétail en Algérie se caractérise notamment par une offre insuffisante en ressources fourragères, ce qui se traduit par un défi fourragier estimé à 34%. Ce déficit fourragier est de 58% en zone littorale, de 32% en zone steppe et de 29% au Sahara. Le niveau des productions animales demeure faible. Cette faiblesse est liée principalement à la sous-alimentation et la malnutrition du cheptel (cité par Guerra, 2009).

La production nationale du lait couvre environ (40%) de la demande. L’essentiel de la production est assurée par le cheptel bovin laitier à hauteur de 80%. L'importation de vaches laitières a permis un accroissement de la production du lait, demeurant néanmoins insuffisant par rapport à la demande. A travers la lecture des chiffres officiels concernant la production laitière et ce pour la période (1986-2012), il est à constater que la production est passée par trois phases principales :

- La période (1986-1992) marquée par une croissance annuelle moyenne d’environ 9% ;
- La période (1993-1997) marquée par un ralentissement de la croissance avec uniquement 0,9% comme taux moyen de croissance annuelle. La production reprend sa croissance lentement à partir de 1995, et ce avec les premiers assises de la politique de promotion laitière nationale ;
- A partir de l’année 1998, il est remarqué les premiers résultats du programme de réhabilitation de la filière et de la décision d’importation des vaches laitières par l’Etat. Pour atteindre une production laitière de 2,2 millions de litres en 2006 (la production étant estimée à 0.7 et 1.1 millions de litres respectivement pour les années 1986 et 1996).

Un accroissement notable de la production a été remarqué ces dernières années grâce aux actions du PNDAR dans le cadre du programme lait, car la production est passée de 1,5 Milliards de litres en 2000 à 2,2 Milliards de litres en 2007, avec un taux annuel de (+6%) par an depuis 2000, pour atteindre les 3,08 milliards de litres en 2012. Mais elle demeure insuffisante pour couvrir les besoins. D’après le recensement général de l’agriculture le nombre d’exploitations en 2007, avec un taux annuel de (+6%) par an depuis 2000, pour atteindre les 3,08 milliards de litres en 2012. Mais elle demeure insuffisante pour couvrir les besoins. D’après le recensement général de l’agriculture le nombre d’exploitations en 2007, avec un taux annuel de (+6%) par an depuis 2000, pour atteindre les 3,08 milliards de litres en 2012. Mais elle demeure insuffisante pour couvrir les besoins.

Il est à noter que la production des systèmes d’élevage laitiers se voit entravée par de multiples problèmes, l’on peut citer : faiblesse des fourrages quantitativement et qualitativement, insuffisance de la maîtrise des techniques des élevages, faible potentiel génétique ainsi que le faibles rendement des BLM (bovin laitier moderne importé) du à la non adaptation aux conditions climatiques du pays et conditions de conduite au niveau des exploitations.

5. Un faible taux d’intégration du lait cru collecté

Etant le deuxième maillon de la filière, la collecte constitue la principale articulation entre la production et l’industrie laitière. Une augmentation du lait cru collecté est observée durant la période 1969/2010. En effet, elle est passée de 29 millions en 1969 à, 1,01milliard de litre en 1993, à 107 millions en 2003 et à 1,95milliard de litre en 2004). Toutefois, c’est le taux de la collecte qui connait un déclin, que fait remarquer (Boukella, 1996) « au cours de la décennie soixante-dix, la quantité de lait collectée est de 30 à 40 % du total lait de vache produite ce taux tombe ensuite à 16% du total en 1980-1990 ». La collecte est assurée jusqu’à 1995 par les ex-unités du groupe étatique (Giplait) et connaît une forte croissance durant la période (1990-96) résultant de l’amélioration des prix du lait cru passant ainsi de 7DA a 22DA le litre. Ensuite, le délai de collecte de la collecte au profit des collecteurs privés organisés autour des mini laiteries a induit le déclin de la collecte pour la période (1996-99) en raison de l’absence de consensus sur le prix de cession du lait cru. Certes le taux de collecte a connu une amélioration relative mais qui reste insuffisante. En effet, c’est à partir de 2001 que la collecte suscite un nouvel intérêt pour atteindre près de 700 millions de litres en 2012, suite aux incitations et aides pour l’ouverture de nouveaux centres de collecte et de l’augmentation de la prime de collecte.Cela se confirme par le nombre de collecteurs intégrés dans le programme de réhabilitation pour l’année 2006 est 7,4 fois le nombre des adhérents en 2000, estimé à 1908 collecteurs.

Pour ce qui est du taux d’intégration qui correspond à la part du lait collecté dans les quantités totales produites, une amélioration du taux d’intégration du lait cru produit localement dans la fabrication industrielle est remarquée au cours de l’année 2004, pour atteindre un taux de 15%. Cependant, ce taux demeure à un niveau minime cette faible performance résulte en partie de faible importance accordée à l’activité de collecte.

L’année 1998 a vu la création du groupe industriel des productions laitières (Giplait) à l’issue de la restructuration des ex-offices régionaux (Centre, Est et Ouest). Doté d’une capacité de production installée de 1,4 milliards de litres de
lait équivalent (répartition à hauteur de 82% sous forme de lait pasteurisé et 18% comme produits laitiers dérivés). Il regroupe 19 filières réparties entre les régions du centre (06), de l’est (04) et l’ouest (09). Le groupe assure la plus grande part d’approvisionnement du marché nationale particulièrement en lait pasteurisé. Depuis une quinzaine d’années, le marché des produits laitiers a connu une diversification en matière d’offre avec l’avènement des laiteries privées ayant investi beaucoup plus le segment des dérivés du lait. On retrouve certaines entreprises qui ont réussi à imposer leurs marques telles que : Danone, Soummam, Tchin lait-Candia et Hodna. Les laiteries privées sont au nombre de 120 PME/PMI et une centaine de mini-laiteries qui produisent une moyenne de un milliard de litres par an mais la production du lait pasteurisé ne représente que 20% seulement de ce volume (Kaci & Sassi, 2007).

Face à la forte demande croissante induite par la salarisation massive, a totalement modifié les priorités des entreprises et offices agroalimentaires, c’est la sécurité de l’approvisionnement des villes qui devenait essentielle, sans que pour autant soit définie leur relation avec l’agriculture (Benfrid, 1992). En effet, l’industrie laitière n’assure la collecte et la transformation qu’à titre d’activités accessoires par rapport à la transformation du lait en poudre importé (Djermoun & Chehat, 2012). Ce secteur se base essentiellement sur les importations de poudre de lait pour sa production et il n’a été accordé qu’un intérêt mineur à la collecte, le prix étant nettement favorable aux produits importés au détriment de la collecte du lait local étant plutôt synonyme de surcouts insupportables (Chehat, 2002), (Bencharif, 2000).

6. Résultats et discussion:

L’Etat à travers ses politiques antérieures a fixé des prix à la production à un niveau raisonnable et un prix à la consommation particulièrement bas. Ce qui a encouragé d’avantage la croissance de la consommation, provoquant une forte demande que seules les importations massives de poudre de lait pouvaient satisfaire. De plus, l’accroissement de la production laitière enregistré durant la période (2000-2012) est plutôt le résultat d’une augmentation des effectifs des vaches laitières et non pas du rendement laitier au niveau des exploitations. Ceci se confirme avec la crise qu’a connu la filière lait durant l’année 2007, engendrée par l’élévation des prix de la poudre de lait importée, et accompagnée par une forte demande du lait en sachet pasteurisé et dont le prix a demeuré malgré la crise soutenu par l’Etat. Cependant, une forte concurrence s’est déclenchée à cause de la réduction du niveau de la production (~30% entre 2006 et 2007). Depuis cette année il a été décidé la création d’un office interprofessionnel du lait (ONIL) pour prendre en charge l’approvisionnement des transformateurs en matière première. Cette mise en place n’a pas été pour autant suffisante pour mettre fin aux problèmes soulevés.

Tableau 02: Evolution de la filière lait en Algérie (1997-2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Années</th>
<th>Production lait cru (10^3L)*</th>
<th>Collecte (10^3 L)*</th>
<th>Taux Intégration (%)</th>
<th>Production lait pasteurisé 10^3HL**</th>
<th>Consom-mation 10^6L**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1050000</td>
<td>112700</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>9897,9</td>
<td>2928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>1200000</td>
<td>92000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9378,1</td>
<td>2928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>1588730</td>
<td>93000</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td>8442,1</td>
<td>2928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1585900</td>
<td>100700</td>
<td>11,1</td>
<td>8590,9</td>
<td>3300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1637210</td>
<td>93500</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7827,5</td>
<td>3401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1544000</td>
<td>129500</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7154,6</td>
<td>3500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1610000</td>
<td>120000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5780,0</td>
<td>3700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1915000</td>
<td>200000</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5106,0</td>
<td>4045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2092000</td>
<td>119365</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4754,0</td>
<td>4300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2244000</td>
<td>221249</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4821,4</td>
<td>4600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2180000</td>
<td>195360</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5944,8</td>
<td>4700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: reconstitué en se basant sur les données suivantes : * MADR/DSASI, **Collection statistiques n°140 série E, Alger, 2009, P140, ***Forum des chefs d’entreprises en collaboration avec la chambre nationale d’agriculture « la filière lait : pour des synergies fertiles » P09

Parmi les contraintes entravant le développement de la filière l’on peut citer :
- Eparpillement de la filière sur l’ensemble du territoire national (il existe 1518 communes productrices de lait dont 639 communes réalisent 80% de la production)
- Prédominance de l’élevage extensif au détriment de développement de grandes fermes de production
intensive.
- Fixation du prix du lait à la consommation à un niveau bas ce qui rend très difficile la couverture des charges de sa production ;
- Utilisation massive de lait en poudre dans les usines de transformation, un lait largement répondu sur le marché mondial à des prix concurrentiels ;
- Organisation inadaptée des réseaux de collecte suivant les bassins de production et autour des unités de transformation.

Les solutions pouvant être envisagées pour remédier aux contraintes énumérées ci-dessus:
- Poursuivre les opérations de vulgarisation de sensibilisation des éleveurs ;
- Repeuplement des infrastructures de cheptel bovin par des formes de partenariat ;
- Augmenter les capacités de collecte et de transformation ;
- Interdiction ou limitation de la mesure du possible de la vente informelle du lait cru ;
- Amélioration des parcours ;
- Soutien pour l’acquisition du cheptel bovin et repeuplement des étables ;
- Encourager ou créer des fermes intégrées capables de produire l’aliment du bétail ;

7. Conclusion

Toutes les politiques laitières antérieures se sont soldées par des résultats mitigés. En effet, la production du lait a enregistré un accroissement notable mais insuffisant pour couvrir la forte demande. Un écoulement de la production qui a connu des perturbations entre autres en raison de l’absence de consensus sur le prix de cession du lait cru au transformateurs, et qui à partir d’Avril 2009 a été fixé par le comité interprofessionnel du lait et ce à la demande des éleveurs suite à la baisse du prix du lait cru durant la période de forte lactation. Le programme de réhabilitation de la production laitière n’a pas pu faire progresser de manière significative le taux d’intégration qui ne dépasse pas les 15%. L’intervention de l’État a porté essentiellement sur un élargissement du marché par des mesures de soutien des prix à la consommation en négligeant ainsi l’intensification de la production laitière en amont. C’est pour cette raison que l’objectif stratégique de l’indépendance alimentaire n’a pas été atteint, et c’est pour cette raison que la filière lait est fortement dépendante du marché.

Références bibliographiques:


Determinant Factors Influencing eWOM

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Abstract

Many studies demonstrated that Internet penetration and time spent online increased considerably in Turkey. However, there are not enough studies focusing on users attitudes towards e-Word of Mouth. E-Word Of Mouth is seen as more credible than other marketing communications since it comes directly from other consumers. eWOM shows high accessibility compared to traditional WOM, therefore its tools such as online recommendations, reviews or product ratings, are used more often and it makes eWOM more powerful. Thus, it is important to understand online users’ behaviors, particularly for those who participate in social networks and engage in eWOM in this environment. Clearly findings in this area will help and facilitate marketer’s media selection to reach out its potential customers and align their marketing efforts in most efficient way. This study examines user’s attitudes towards eWOM and looks at factors influencing eWOM. An online survey conducted among Internet users provides further evidence for increasing popularity of eWOM and demonstrates the power of eWOM in Turkey. Perceived eWOM Credibility and Customer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence appears to be significant factors impacting eWOM.

Keywords: electronic word of mouth, customer susceptibility, perceived credibility, eWOM effect, experience of online review usage, online review

1. Introduction

Word of Mouth is a considerably effective communication tool that has a unique position in respect to marketers. The one who starts the word of mouth communication is the consumer. Individuals express their positive or negative opinions and give advices to each other about a restaurant where they have their lunch at, a book that they find interesting or a store where they buy good quality products at a good price. Since it is carried out among acquaintances, friends or family members, it has never been perceived commercial by the consumers, and it plays a major role in the purchase decision-making process of a consumer. Santo (2006) states that word of mouth cuts through and rises beyond the message noise since it has been sent from a source such as a friend or a co-worker.

Word of mouth is a primary factor behind 20 to 50 percent of all purchasing decisions. Its effect is greatest when consumers are buying a product for the first time or when products are relatively expensive, and some other factors that tend to make people conduct more research and seek more opinions (Bughin et. al, 2010). The influence of WOM is also high, when there is a strong tie between the individuals that exchange information (Brown & Reingen, 1987).

The internet has changed the traditional communication model for the companies. The innovation of Web 2.0 technology enabled users to socially interact online by generating and sharing content, sharing thoughts and opinions with each other. Electronic recommendations and appraisals like a review about a book, via electronic word of mouth are effective ways to have a product promoted via interaction. According to Hennig-Thurau et.al. (2004, p.39), the advance of the internet technology has extended consumers’ options for gathering unbiased product information from other consumers and thus consumers have the opportunity to offer their consumption related advices by engaging in eWOM. This study examines the determinant factors influencing eWOM in order to narrow the gap in the literature and thus applies regression analysis based on factor dimensions of Park et.al. (2011)’s study.”

2. Electronic Word Of Mouth

Traditional WOM has become an important subject for the researchers over the years and it is possible to find many definitions regarding this concept. Arndt (1967, p.3) defined traditional Word of Mouth as: “Oral, person to person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, concerning a brand, a product, or a service”. In another definition, Dwyer (2007, p.64) touched on the social aspect of WOM and...
defined it as follows: “Word of mouth is a network phenomenon: People create ties to other people with the exchange of units of discourse (that is, messages) that link to create an information network while the people create a social network”.

WOM, has a major role in consumer buying decision process. Recommendations from people are a much more important influence than formal advertisements (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.176-179). The reason of the success of WOM is obvious: WOM is perceived as reliable by the consumers compared to the communication efforts of the marketers because information is provided to them via the objective comment of another consumer (Allsop et.al, 2007). Since the receiver of a word of mouth message trusts the sender, it lowers any anxiety, vulnerability and uncertainty about a particular transaction (Augusto de Matos & Rossi, 2008).

While WOM has always played an important role in the formation of consumer opinions, over the past decade it has become an even more powerful source due to the technological explosion of informal communication channels such as the internet, instant messaging, blogs (Allsop et.al, 2007). According to Korgaonkar and Wolin’ (1999), the interactive structure of web has made the consumer more active. User chooses which web sites he/she will review and knows with whom he/she will be in interaction and what he/she wants to transfer to the others. The socialization factor represents the role of the Web as a facilitator of interpersonal communication. Consumers consider the web as place where they socialize and are in interaction with those having similar fields of interest. eWOM, being the extension of traditional Word of Mouth, can be defined as “any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet” (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004, p.39). eWOM communication can take place in various settings. Consumers can post their opinions and reviews about a product on weblogs, social networking sites, discussion forums, review websites, etc. (Cheung and Tadani, 2010, p.330).

According to Dichter (1966), “Word of Mouth” behavior satisfies the requirement of individuals to make an important share for other consumers. On the other hand, Engel, et al. (1993) stated that the reason of consumers’ transferring information to other individuals is the intimate intention for assisting individuals in making a more correct purchase decision.

3. eWOM effect

For consumers, it is important to listen to the opinions, advices of the others before or during their shopping. While they do this with their acquaintances, family members and friends in traditional WOM, may obtain the information they want by being in interaction with the consumers who they do not know but with whom they share similar interests in online WOM. Now, almost every website that makes online sales provides the opportunity of writing/reading online customer review to the consumer and also provides the opportunity of receiving/presenting information and advice. While making the purchase decision, many consumers are influenced from these comments and ratings, and adopt a positive or negative attitude for the product.

A helpful customer review is “a peer-generated product evaluation that facilitates the consumer’s purchase decision process” (Mudambi and Schuff, 2010, p.186). As Lusky (2012) indicates, seventy percent of consumers worldwide trust online reviews, while only 47 percent believe traditional broadcast and print ads, according to a Nielsen (a global provider of insights about consumer watching and buying preferences) study. In the same study it has been found that consumer trust of online reviews has increased 15 percent in the last four years. On the contrary, the believability of paid TV, newspaper and magazine ad has declined.

Park et al (2011) defined eWOM effect as “the effect by eWOM to affect purchase decision making”. eWOM effect is going to be the dependent variable in our study.

4. Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence

As Iqbal and Ismail (2011) states, customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence is the need to identify or enhance one’s image with significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands, the willingness to confirm to the expectation of the others regarding purchase decision, and services by observing others or seek information from others. Mourali, Laroche, and Pons (2005; Frederics, 2008) found support for a positive relationship between consumers’ informational susceptibility to interpersonal influence and a preference for personal sources when seeking product-related information. According to Frederics (2008), this suggests that the easier a consumer is influenced, the more they favor WOM sources when seeking information. They trust the information provided by personal sources to be accurate. The direct availability of WOM sources and low cost of finding WOM information on the Internet is suggested to
overweight the possible disadvantages perceived by consumers. Therefore, it is expected that people who spread online WOM and in addition are highly susceptible to interpersonal influence are more likely to be affected by online WOM.

As Park et al. (2011, p.75) also states there is a positive relation between customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence.

H1. Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence has a positive impact on eWOM effect.

5. Experience of online review usage

In accordance with the Media Dependency theory, a media dependency relationship is one "in which the satisfaction of needs or the attainment of goals by individuals is contingent upon the resources of the other party" (Ball-Rokeach and DeFleur 1976, p. 6). Hence, the individuals have to trust the media information resources in order to achieve various objectives in today's society. (Loges and Ball-Rokeach 1993). Park et al (2011, p.75) states in parallel with Media dependency theory that, the individuals who make online shopping by referring frequently to the online reviews are more willing to use and spread the online review.

Accordingly, H2: Experience of online review usage has a positive impact on eWOM effect.

6. Perceived credibility

Flanagin and Metzger (2008, p. 8) defines the term “credibility” as the believability of a source or message, which is made up of two primary dimensions: trustworthiness and expertise.

Wathen and Burkell (2002) stated that source credibility is a basic factor which facilitates the judgment of the consumer about online information. A user’s first task is to rate the credibility of the medium itself based on its surface characteristics such as appearance and interface design. The second task for the online user is rating the source and the message content. The evaluation of a source is often made in terms of its expertise/competence, trustworthiness, credentials, and so forth. The message is evaluated in terms of content, relevance, currency, accuracy, and tailoring. The last stage of the process, involves assessing the interaction of presentation and content with the consumer’s cognitive state, which is determined from the consumer’s experience and acknowledgement.

According to Cheung et al (2007), in eWOM context, the user will get some information from the review and will use the review if he/she perceives the product comment/advice as credible. On the other hand, the individual will not take the review into consideration in order to avoid the potential risks if he/she perceives the product comment/advice as less credible.

Thus, H3. Perceived credibility has a positive impact on eWOM effect.

7. Methodology

The purpose of this study is to explore the factors influencing Word of Mouth communication. In the questionnaire section of the study, the factors influencing word of mouth are measured, based on the structural model of “Factors Influencing eWOM effects: Using Experience, Credibility, Susceptibility” which was written by Park et al.in 2011, and the hypotheses and survey questions were created accordingly.

A questionnaire was used as data collecting instrument. The questionnaire that constitutes the research questions of the study was prepared as one form that is comprised of two sections. The first section is made up of multiple-choice questions, and the second section includes 5 point likert scale questions. The participants assess the suitability of the expressions on the likert scale. The answers given to the adjectives were carried out by granting 5 points to the choice “I strongly agree” and by granting 1 point to the choice “I strongly disagree”. In the first section of the questionnaire, there were 6 questions regarding the demographics and the user profile of the respondent. In the second part, 11 questions were asked regarding the factors influencing eWOM. The data collection process of the research was carried out between 17 June and 20 June 2013. The selection of those participating in the questionnaire was made by using simple sampling method. The sample of the study is drawn from social media users. Within the above mentioned period, the respondents were reached via Facebook, Twitter and Linkedin, and it was requested to answer the questionnaire by giving link to Webanketa site where the questionnaire was hosted. Within the indicated term, totally 251 questionnaires were completed and analyses were made on this number. IP protected limitation was arranged in order to enable the
completion of the questionnaire for only once by each user.

8. Findings

SPSS 17.0 Statistical package program is used for the statistical analyses. When the data is assessed, descriptive statistical methods are used. Pearson Correlation analysis is used in order to detect the relations among variables. Linear Regression analysis is used in order to examine the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable.

Table 1. Demographic Profile of the Sample

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<td>Wage earner in private sector</td>
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<td>Self-employment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

% 33,9 of the respondents are between the ages 25-34 and % 36,3 of them are between the ages 18-24. % 42,2 of the sample are male and % 57,8 of them are female. % 12,4 own master’s degree and % 71,7 of the respondents have bachelor’s degree. % 34,7 of them are students and %35,9 of the respondents are wage earners in private sector.

Table 2. Time spent on internet

<table>
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<tr>
<td>1-2 hours</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3 hours</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>23,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 hours</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5 hours</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 hours and over</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>24,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the respondents (% 24,3) spend 5 hours and over on internet per day.
Table 3. Reasons consumers go on to internet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Connect with friends and family in SNSs</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read magazines and newspapers online</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>75,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share an information</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>69,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share photos, videos, etc.</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>52,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain information about a product/brand</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>51,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online shopping</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>51,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read product/service reviews</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>40,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share opinions about a product/brand</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>30,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play games</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>25,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>15,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is revealed that the subjects spend their times on internet mostly for connecting with friends and family in SNSs (% 88).

Table 4. Correlation Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>eWOM effect</th>
<th>Experience of online review usage</th>
<th>Perceived Credibility</th>
<th>Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eWOM effect</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience of online review usage</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Credibility</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer susceptibility to</td>
<td>0.713</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interpersonal influence</td>
<td>(0,000***</td>
<td>(0,000***</td>
<td>(0,000***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05 **p<0.01 ***p<0.001

Experience of online review usage and eWOM effect are positively correlated at the level of %52,6 (r=0,526; p=0,000<0,05). Perceived credibility and eWOM effect are positively correlated at the level of 68,6%(r=0,686; p=0,000<0,05). Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and eWOM effect are positively correlated at the level of 71,3% (r=0,713; p=0,000<0,05).

As a result of the correlation analysis which is made to determine the relation between perceived credibility and experience of online review usage, a positively significant relation at the level of 59,9% is found (r=0,599; p=0,000<0,05). Accordingly; as the perceived credibility increases, experience of online review usage also increases.

As a result of the correlation analysis which is made to determine the relation between Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and Experience of online review usage, a positively significant relation at the level of 54,5% is found. (r=0,545; p=0,000<0,05). Accordingly; as Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence increases, experience of online review usage also increases.

As a result of the correlation analysis which is made to determine the relation between Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and perceived credibility, a positively significant relation at the level of 72,1% is found. (r=0,721; p=0,000<0,05). Accordingly; as Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence increases, perceived credibility also increases.
Table 5. Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Model (p)</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0,919</td>
<td>5,426</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience of online review usage</td>
<td>0,097</td>
<td>1,974</td>
<td>0,049*</td>
<td>112,152</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived credibility</td>
<td>0,300</td>
<td>4,911</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence</td>
<td>0,416</td>
<td>7,052</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0,05  **p<0,01  ***p<0,001

The regression analysis which is made to determine the relation among experience of online review usage, perceived credibility, customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence and eWOM effect is found statistically significant (F=112,152; p=0,000<0.05). It is seen that the relation of it with the variables of experience of online review usage, perceived credibility, customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence as the determinant of eWOM effect is very strong in terms of explanatory power (R²=0,572). The experience of online review usage, increases the eWOM effect level (β=0,097). The perceived credibility, increases eWOM effect level (β=0,300). The Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, increases eWOM effect level (β=0,416).

Table 6. Item analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Av</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I always read online reviews written by others</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,865</td>
<td>0,966</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always write down online review about the product I purchased</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,048</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always read online consumer reviews before I purchase a product.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4,255</td>
<td>0,995</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe online review is a credible information source.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,641</td>
<td>0,929</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe online review is an important information source.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,813</td>
<td>0,917</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe online review is written under responsibility.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,470</td>
<td>0,939</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If online reviews of a product are positive, I purchase it.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,590</td>
<td>0,901</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rely on online reviews when I purchase a product.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,546</td>
<td>0,858</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online reviews affect my purchase decision crucially.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,717</td>
<td>0,961</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like listening advices before shopping.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4,056</td>
<td>0,808</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others’ advices are important for my shopping.</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3,801</td>
<td>0,89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is seen that those participating in the research highly agree with the expression “I always read online reviews written by others “ (3,865 ± 0.966); moderately agree with the expression “I always write down online review about the product I purchased” (3,048 ± 1,219); very highly agree with the expression “I always read online consumer reviews before I purchase a product.” (4,255 ± 0.995); highly agree with the expression “I believe online review is a credible information source.” (3,641 ± 0,929); highly agree with the expression “I believe online review is an important information source.” (3,813 ± 0,917); highly agree with the expression “I believe online review is written under responsibility.” (3,470 ± 0,939); highly agree with the expression “If online reviews of a product are positive, I purchase it.” (3,590 ± 0,901); highly agree with the expression “I rely on online reviews when I purchase a product.” (3,546 ± 0,858); highly agree with the expression “Online reviews affect my purchase decision crucially.” (3,717 ± 0,961); highly agree with the expression “I like listening advices before shopping.” (4,056 ± 0,808) and highly agree with the expression “Others’ advices are important for my shopping.” (3,801 ± 0,89).

Table 2. Summary of Hypothesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1. Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence has a positive impact on eWOM effect.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: Experience of online review usage has a positive impact on eWOM effect.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Perceived credibility has a positive impact on eWOM.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Conclusion

Today, WOM is not limited to just face to face communication. Along with the developments in the technology, the consumer is just a click away from the consumer comments, advices and rates regarding to a product or service he/she wants to purchase. WOM, with its existence and power in the communication can never be denied, thus it has been brought to another dimension. Now, there is no need of a friend or an acquaintance to disseminate a WOM message. The individuals take into consideration the comments made by other individuals with whom they share the same field of interest and which they perceive as credible. This effects their attitude towards a product or service positively or negatively. This study examines user's attitudes towards eWOM and determines the factors influencing eWOM effect.

A questionnaire was applied, and the results were assessed with linear regression and correlation analysis. The regression analysis which was made in order to determine the relationship among “Experience of online review usage” dimension, “perceived eWOM credibility” dimension, “customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence dimension” and the eWOM effect was found statistically significant.

It was found out that the relationship of “experience of online review usage”, “perceived eWOM credibility”, and “customer” susceptibility to interpersonal influence” as the determinants of eWOM effect was very strong in terms of explanatory power. The “experience of online review usage” dimension increases eWOM effect; “consumers’ perceived eWOM credibility” dimension increases eWOM effect; “Customer susceptibility to interpersonal influence” dimension increases eWOM effect. Thus, all of the hypotheses were accepted.

On the other hand, the survey included 251 people and the answerers were found through Facebook, Linkedin, Twitter social networks. This limits to generalize the findings to some extent. In the future studies to be carried out regarding the subject, it may be more suitable to expand the field as well as the participant profiles and to undertake research with a more heterogeneous group.

References


The Heterogeneity of the Socio-Educative Mediation in the Intervention with Debilitated Families: Cases in Study

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University of Minho – Braga - Portugal

Abstract

Mediation, a relatively new field in Portugal, has been contributing innovatively to professional practices, becoming increasingly attractive in various contexts of action. Taking into account the various fields of work, it is important to consider that mediation might be beneficial in collaborating the processes of promotion and protection of the families of children at social risk. Here, the mediation devices become a collaborative resource to be used with these families. The present work has been developed for nine months, as an integral part of the practical training curriculum of the Masters in Education programme, with specialization in Educational Mediation and Supervision of Professional Training. This practical training was developed at The Commission of Protection of Children and Youth, in a rural area in the North of Portugal. The methodology used is qualitative, through the development of a research-action, where the case study was the privileged method. Our aim is to present the several themes used with some of the families in the field of mediation. This form of intervention and monitoring is not commonly practiced in this organization. However, it is possible to motivate a successful transformation in these families. Mediation in these debilitated conditions assumes the function of stimulating the opportunity of creating more stable family environments, contributing to their successful psycho-social development. The success of the process is attributed to the families that participated in the mediation, with the goal that everyone emerges a winner.

Keywords: Socio-educative mediation, debilitated families

1. Introduction

The present work of investigation-intervention has been developed between October 2010 and June 2011, as an integral part of the practical training curriculum of the 2º year Masters in Education programme, with specialization in Educational Mediation and Supervision of Professional Training.

More and more often we realize the prominence of the diversity of contexts and modes of intervention, through a mediation process. They come from the variety of professionals and references that these include to develop their mediation practices.

In this work we pay special attention to socio-educational mediation, particularly social mediation. Social mediation, according to Luison and Valastro (2004:3) is characterized in different ways in different countries. It is described as "a method of resolution and alternative management of conflicts, a method of social regulation and a method of a peaceful recomposition of human relations." It also comes also associated with interdisciplinary contexts.

Taking into account the range of contexts where mediation can bring benefits, it was our purpose with this research to highlight the importance that mediation can have in the cooperation of a process of promotion and protection of children and / or youth considered at social risk. For this reason we have developed a social mediation process with special focus on I debilitated familiar contexts.

The families included in this work were signalized in a Commission of Children and Young People Protection, due to several problems. To the people that participated and contributed in the process of this nature, was given the opportunity to modify their home environment, making it more stable and enjoyable. Therefore we believe that we further contributed in a fruitful way for a better psychosocial development of their families. Otherwise, these families wouldn’t be able to change that behaviors that were putting them at risk. Through this project we developed a form of intervention and of monitoring the signalized families, and we should mention that this isn’t a common practice in the Commissions of Minors Protection, but it can create a successful transformation.
2. Context of study

A Commission of Children and Youth Protection is a social network that focuses its practices for the protection of children and youth. Whenever parents, legal representative or the person who has the custody of that child or youth puts at risk the full bio-psycho-social development of the child, particularly regarding his health, education, training and / or safety, or even when the danger in question comes from the act or omission of a third person or of the child and / or young, it is legitimate to place an intervention in order to promote and protect the rights of this child that are in danger. According to the Art. 1 and 2, Art.º 12 of Law no. 147/99, of Portugal, the protection Commissions are:

"Non-judicial official institutions with functional autonomy, that aim to promote the children and young people rights and to prevent or to put an end to situations that may affect their safety, health, training, education and integral development (...) exercise their powers according to the law and should deliberate in an impartial and independent way."

Please note that we considered that a child or young person is in danger when he is a victim of some kind of abuse, either physical, psychological and / or sexual; when he is a victim of some kind of negligence and / or when he arrogates behaviors which can seriously undermine his development, health, education, training and safety, without his parents, or the legal representative that has his guard, makes himself available, in an appropriate way, to eliminate these behaviors. The same situation happens when the child is indirectly subject to these same behaviors even if he isn't the protagonist.

All the practices of the Protection of minors Commission in Portugal, are governed by the Law n. 147/99, September 1 - Law on the Children and Youth Protection.

The Protection Commission should be called to act when the entities with the jurisdiction over childhood and youth are proving to be incapable of adequately responding to eliminate the danger that a particular child or young person is on. However, the Commission can only intervene after obtaining the written consent of the child parents, or of the legal representative or of whom has the custody of that concerned child or young person. It is also required that the child or young person, having 12 or more years, provides a written statement of non-opposition. When this fact is not possible, the Commission has no jurisdiction to intervene and the process will be subjected to a judicial intervention. The Commission will also not intervene, when that consent and / or declaration of non-objection will be removed, and for this reason is also going to be subjected to a judicial intervention. It should be emphasized that if the promotion and protection agreement is not fulfilled, a judicial intervention will be conducted.

3. Theoretical background

Mediation aims to resolve conflicts between at least two parts, requiring the intervention of a third person, called a mediator. The mediator should be a person not involved in the conflict. The mediator must find ways to help the two sides solving the problems, he has to create conditions that the parties will use to the resolution of the conflicts. This is not imposed by law, but designed by the parts so that both will get benefits. There is no antagonism on winning or losing. So, there can only be mediation when both parts of the conflict are available to be mediated (Torrego, 2003). However, it is not strictly necessary the existence of conflicts regarding the relevance of the mediator intervention. The prevention of the conflicts is also a relevant fact. Mediation covers a wide range of profitable operations contexts. And for this reason, there are many performance models.

Taking into account several readings made on this issue, we realized that the concept of mediation is old. However, this working method is increasingly prominent, particularly in Portugal.

If we pay more and more attention to the voices around us, we see that the word mediation is in "everyone’s lips." On the other hand, we also realize that sometimes people exaggerate when they want to connote mediation as all the interventions involving the participation of a third person, in a tumultuous interpersonal interaction. And this will takes us to a certain lightness and even to an inconsistency of the concept and of the mediation process.

There isn't a definition to characterize the pragmatic concept of mediation. Sometimes the initial formation of the mediator can condition the conception of his own explanation. The working field of mediation is not limited only to the intervention in conflicts. Such a situation would lead to a pejorative vision of the conflicts. However, a conflict can and should be seen as an opportunity for personal and social growth (Neves, 2010).

Mediation is not static, it is a process that is being built. Its way of working differs from the other socials interventions, since it is required to the mediated people the explicitly externalization of their will. So, and as argued by
Neves (2010:42), "mediation is not exclusively defined by the applied procedures, but indispensably by the relationship between the mediator and the parts."

The mediator, often referred as the third part, is the agent that provides the connection of the parts, "is the person, or persons or even institutions, that assumes the connection role or the catalyst role in the mediation processes" (2008:22 Torremorell ). The mediator, in their professional practice, does not act by interests. This is, he does not act on the basis of one of the parts but, as far as possible, he acts as an impartial agent, ensuring the fairness between the opposed parts, not taking advantage of any of them.

Not having a plan to create a pattern of an ideal mediator, it is understood that the mediator, as far as possible, should possess a number of characteristic in his professional profile. Therefore, the mediator should be: fair, empathetic, patient, he has to know how to listen and to talk carefully and with respect with all the involved parts, he should be creative and he has to know how to generate an atmosphere and structure that maximizes the chances of reaching an agreement (Millán and Gómez, 2011:83).

All the protagonists of a mediation process participate in a voluntarily way. This is one of the strongest points indicated in the mediation process. Decisions and / or possible solutions are identified by the mediated people and they are not imposed by anyone, not even indicated by the mediator.

The mediator is not an expert in the resolution of conflicts. He only coordinates the exchange of views between the mediated people, providing them the ability to "confront their point of views and to seek his help in order to find a solution for the dispute between them" (Bonafé-Schmitt, 2009:20), and in this way both parts will win. The empowerment of an entire mediation process is provided to the mediated people. Therefore mediated people are the people "who know more about the causes of their problems and about the ways of overcoming the same" (Freire, 2009:41).

The areas of the mediation intervention are several. As a way to organize them Guillaume Hofnung (2005, cited by Silva and Moreira, 2009:7) outlined two areas: the mediation of differences and the mediation of disputes. The mediation of differences is seen as a creative and refreshing process in the sense that it "seeks to (re) establish ties and interpersonal and social interactions, till then absent or lost, between individuals, groups and communities" (ibidem). While the mediation of disputes, seen as a preventative and reparative process, aims "to prevent and to intervene in the resolution of already existing conflicts. (...) In this sense it can be both preventive and curative "(ibidem).

However, in both cases, the mediation process "is based on a deconstruction-reconstruction logic" (Bonafé-Schmitt, 2009:24). In the stage of deconstruction the mediator passes the word to each of the parts, each part will expose his point of view, particularly it is given the opportunity to each part to explain their differences. Subsequently, we proceed with the reconstruction phase, the parts, with the mediator's assistance, try to reach an agreement, "a consensual solution based on mutual understanding" (ibidem).

Mediation has acquired a wide variety of forms, "they are all determined by the contents of the communication disturbance that can potentially generate a conflict" (Correia and Caramel, 2010:21), arising, for this reason, as a kind of "mobilizing slogan" (Demazière, 2010:103).

4. Methodological background

The methodology used in this project had a qualitative nature and we focused ourselves on the development of a research-action. This research-action assumed that the various parts would adopt an active and participatory posture in the whole process. It is considered as the starting point of a particular a situation and / or problem and not a theory, it is a method oriented for the praxis, leading to the resolution of real situations.

With this project we intended to understand to what extent the mediation, including socio educative mediation, may or may not contribute to the process of promotion and protection of families with children considered at risk. With this work we wanted to understand individual cases. It was not our intention to develop a sample research, but to develop a research that would preserve "the holistic and meaningful characteristics of the events" (Yin, 2005:20). This was also the reason why we resorted to the case study.

Throughout this project that we developed, our aim was to design and implement a Social Mediation device, particularly guided for the familiar contexts, in an individually way, so they could enhance the resources of the Protection Commission and the work of this commission with the families. We also wanted 1) To promote interaction and communication capabilities through 1.1) the development of the sense of responsibility and participation; 1.2) the identification of suitable and unsuitable behaviors; 1.3) the implementation of interaction strategies between different elements of the family, 1.4) the obtainment of adjusted communication habits to the socio affective engagement with the students and, finally, 1.5) the identification of relevant socio affective actions and the engagement with them. Thus,
essentially, we wanted to contribute to the improvement of the interactions within the family, through the development of communication skills.

The work included a group of five families. The selection of the families group for the Social Mediation was made by the Commission for the Protection of Children and Youth technicians. These selected a sample of families who would be able to immediately start and would be more receptive to this intervention. Later it was explained to them the concept of mediation. To these families were given the option of participating or not in this project, and if they chose not to participate, this decision would not have any kind of reprimands by the Protection of Minors Commission.

Four of the selected families have an open process and are primarily signaled due to the fact that the concerned children are exposed to models of deviant behavior. Another selected family, never had any of promotion and protection process, since the concerned children, until that moment, were not subject to any dangerous situation. However, the intervention mediation would act in a preventive terms in order to avoid the opening of a process. It should be noted that these five families had significant difficulties in communication and interaction within, as well as a low education and poor economic incomes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars Families</th>
<th>Typology</th>
<th>Needs analysis</th>
<th>No. of sessions pre-mediation</th>
<th>Actors in the process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Female single-parent</td>
<td>-Documentary analysis</td>
<td>Father: 2 Mother: 3 Couple together: 0 Children: 2 Total: 7</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Nuclear with children</td>
<td>-Direct observation</td>
<td>Father: 1 Mother: 2 Couple together: 1 Children: 1 Aunt: 1 Total: 6</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Nuclear with children</td>
<td>-Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Father: 1 Mother: 3 Couple together: 1 Total: 5</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Nuclear with children</td>
<td>-Direct observation</td>
<td>Father: 0 Mother: 0 Couple together: 0 Total: 0</td>
<td>Parents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Systematization of the process of intervention with families

4.1 Presentation of the process

Family A: This family is characterized as being a single-parent female type, with two children. Parents are divorced, competing for the exercise of parental responsibilities. The children were living with their mother, by mutual agreement between the parents.

In this intervention, we have as intervenients both parents. The main problematic element of this family is due to the fact that children continue to witness some conflicts between their parents.

Regarding the involved feelings, it is possible to verify that the oldest child is troubled and confused with the situation lived between his parents, as well as, with the promiscuous behaviors of the mother. The youngest daughter apparently is a happy child. Based on the measures of the pre-made mediation, it is apprehended that the girl does not have a real perception of the family history, although she understands that her parents are divorced. Regarding the
mother, sometimes she feels embarrassed because she wants the father of hers to change some of his behaviors towards her, as well as towards their children. Finally, regarding the father, he does not show any significant feeling for all these situations. He shows that he really wishes that the mother will change some of her behaviors related to the economic management of their own money, so, and according to him, she will stop asking him for money to pay her personal expenses.

Taking into account all these references, from our point of view, we realized that it would be better to work the following points, through a process of Social Mediation, which can be changed depending on the will of the parties:

- Clarify the relationship between the parents;
- Ending the discussions of the parents in the presence of children;

We consider therefore that by working these issues through a transformative model, we would be providing better psychosocial development to the children.

Despite of the proposed mediation was accepted by both parents, it was only possible to carry out the steps for the needs evaluating diagnostic, including pre-mediation. Although there have been several efforts accomplished, the successive postponements of the mediation sessions due to professional reasons made by the father, plus the little time for the implementation of the project, lead to the inability to move forward in this case.

Family B: The typology of this family is characterized as nuclear with a daughter. This family was signaled by a complaint made by the father. He argued that his wife was constantly drunk, preventing her to ensure the household management and organization and preventing her of not having good parenting skills. This situation was continuous causing conflicts between the couple.

After the failure of the implementation of the promotion and protection measure with the parents, the Commission decided to use a support measure from another family (paternal uncles). After that, with the consent of the parents, the child started to be cared by these paternal uncles, maintaining contacts with their parents on weekends and on holiday periods. On one of the weekends when the child was with the parents, the mother and her sister-in-law had a conflict. In this conflict there were reciprocal insults, reportedly due to the fact that the mother had dyed some clothes of her daughter, while she was washing them. After this conflict, the mother and this child's aunt stopped speaking.

The mother is a lady quite shy and insecure. She recognizes that she is influenced by all the requests made by her daughter, and this situation will not allow the appropriate educational rules to be fulfilled. On the other hand, the father is a man deeply concerned with the welfare of his daughter, a little shy, very collaborative and he has work habits. However, he admits that he does not pay due attention to his wife and he does not adopt the correct behaviors.

According to the information given by the child's paternal aunt, the biggest problem of the child is due to the fact that the parents do not impose any rules. Regarding the child she is a shy child. She expresses a strong desire to come back to her parents.

In this intervention, we have as intervenients both parents and the child's paternal aunt. There is a desire shared by all, that the child should return to parental care.

After the 1st mediation session with the couple together, they defined as situations to be worked:

- The strengthening of trust between the couple;
- Improvement of the educational rules established by them.

Some dynamics were made with the couple in order to work these topics, identified by them. After the reassessing of the measure made by the Protection Commission, the commission understood that the couple already had the minimum conditions necessary to take back to their care his daughter. Both parents were more stable as a couple, due to the elimination of their conflicts. This was the reason why the Commission Protection changed the measure of supporting the parents.

We should mention that the possibility of mediation was also taken into account as a resource for the resolution of the conflict between the mother and her sister-in-law because this aunt still remains as a stable family rear for these parents. However, this situation has always been rejected by the mother. But from the process of social mediation conceived and executed with the parents, the mother noticed that the dialogue is the core for the resolution of conflicts, and this knowledge made her to overcome the conflict with her sister-in-law. They solve the conflict in an independent way.

Family C: nuclear family typology with three minor children in their charge. The three minors have a protection and promotion measure of support with their parents. There is strong evidence that the father has a drinking problem and smoking habits. And when he was asked by the technicians about his family environment, he said it was okay, especially with his daughters. However, since the pre-mediation session conducted by a mediator, he said that sometimes there are some conflicts between the couple. However he didn't give a big importance to the fact. On the other hand, the mother
says that the years of marriage were much suffering and anguish. She mentions that her husband's relationship with his
daughters is good, although there are daily conflicts between the couple.

Both parents assume the role of intervenients in the mediation process. The essential problem to be worked with
this family is the daily conflicts between the couple that come from the non adequate communication adopted by the two
of them.

After the 1st mediation session with the couple we realized that due to the peculiar characteristics of the mediated
couple it would not be feasible to design a mediation device in a long term. The degree of motivation was not the same
between the parents. The father despite recognizing that mediation can be an asset to his relationship with his wife, does
not give much importance to what they have been going over the years, in his marriage relationship. However, on the
day of the 1st mediation session with the couple, and after a long discussion between the mediated couple, with the
assistance of a mediator, both mediated stated that at this stage, through the aid of the mediation, they will have to work
the mutual conflicts that they have daily. The couple think that this is the starting point to clarify and to define their future,
regarding their family, because the mother really thought in the possibility of getting a divorce. In the mediation sessions
the couple brought for discussion mutual conflicts that were happening on their day-to-day and that were making them
worried about.

With the conduct of the mediation sessions, the mediator provided some small progress in the couple's
relationship, she was able to put the parents discussing their problems and to alleviate the communication between
them.

Family D: This household is consisted of a nuclear family and three young children as well as a relative with some
cognitive disabilities. This family was signalized in the Commission due to an anonymous complaint, made by one of the
daughters, of full age and who no longer resides with her parents. According to the same, his mother had severe alcohol
habits, and she also referred that her younger sisters, who are still living with her parents, are victims of violence. Both
parents denied the allegations that triggered the opening of the protection process. The Commission considered that
mediation could bring some benefits to this family, they could work the conflicted relationship of the couple, if the couple
wanted.

However, during the contact with the family it was clearly the existence of domestic violence. The mediator after
observing the situation, and although the Commission considers that mediation could be an asset to this couple, decided
not proceed with the proposal of mediation, since it would not be feasible because domestic violence was a practice still
present in the life of the couple.

Family E: This family is characterized as being a single parent man family. It consists of two minor children and
their father. The mother has passed away a short time ago due to a malignant pathology. Until then these children had
never owned a promotion and protection process.

The Commission received a complaint from the mother's family, claiming that since the passing of the mother the
minors were prohibited of visiting the maternal family.

Once the Commission knew this family and knew that at that moment there was no danger to these children, the
commission considered the mediation process a positive situation to these two families in order to solve this conflict and
in order to restore the visits of the minors to the maternal family. This proposal after exposed individually to each family,
was accepted.

We should highlight the fact that the father has some cognitive limitations, making it impossible to educate and
raise his children, independently. The father had no economic incomes, nor any occupation.

The conflict situation between the families sparked some attitudes and behaviors of revolt on the part of the older
child, particularly because they were not allowing him to visit his mother’s family. There are indications that some of the
behaviors adopted by the rebellious older child, were planned by the maternal family. The older child is being
accompanied by the psychological service of the school that he attends.

Mediation, in this particular case, aims to work with the maternal and paternal family of the minors with the
objective of restoring the visits of children to maternal family, emphasizing the way of harmonious dialogue.

After the mediation process the minors start visiting the maternal family again. The children began to visit the
maternal family during the weekends and they also start to spend the Saturday night over the maternal family's house.
The situation was accompanied by a mediator for some time in order to ascertain the progress of the situation. Both
families said that visits always went smoothly as well as the delivery of children.

5. Process monitoring
To improve the efficiency of our research, we believe that an evaluation device, namely, a device for regulatory assessment could cooperate in the research. We see, therefore, the assessment as "a judgment by which we can talk about a given reality, when we articulate a certain idea or representation of what it should be" (Hadji, 1994:178). For this reason, we designed a device for regulatory assessment in order to adapt the strategies of social mediation process to the difficulties experienced by each family. The same device gave us the opportunity to understand each case in an individual way, particularly, the ability to understand the various difficulties encountered, throughout the process, of the several intervenients. The different intervenients were the main agents of the mediation and evaluation process. They played "a especially active role, once it is the expression of their aspirations and of their word that it is precisely sought" (Barbier, 1985:247). Therefore, we built and developed throughout this work, the following device that is systematized in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technical variables</th>
<th>When evaluating</th>
<th>Who evaluating</th>
<th>What to evaluate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The end of each mediation session | * Mediator | - Self-evaluation  
- The process  
- Mediated |
| Every two sessions | * Mediated | - Self-evaluation  
- Mediator |
| At the end of the mediation process | * Mediator  
* Mediated | - Self-evaluation  
- The process  
- Mediated  
- Mediator  
- The process |
| One month after finishing the mediation process | * Mediator | - Results |
| throughout the process in order transverse | * Mediator | - Needs analysis for mediation |

Table 2: Evaluation device

6. Some evaluative considerations

The lack of communication is evident in any conflict. However, the fact that people are willing to dialogue is not a direct condition to solve situations, "rather a< miscommunication >is worse than a <null communication>" (Millán and Gómez, 2011: 29). Mediation can provide real time communication. During the period before the mediation are analyzed all the perceptions about the situation grounds. Subsequently, these reasons may be teased between mediated people with the assistance of the mediator. Konrad Adenauer once said that "we all live under the same sky, but no one has the same horizon." Through mediation, the mediated people can explain to the others what is the "horizon" that they have. In other words, mediation helps creating empathy between the mediated people. Mediated people propose and deliberate about possible solutions to the things that are upsetting and causing problems to them. Through mediation is offered the possibility to "discover the other, and at the same time himself. Working the "I" and "you" in the context of "we" "(Costa, 2009:157). So we can conclude that mediation is a process that is build over time, which can become a "new mode of social regulation" (Bonafé-Schmitt, 2009:16).

After a comprehensive analysis of the families we can realize that mediation can be a fruitful multidisciplinary team of a Protection of minors Commission and also may enrich the work done by it. However, not all the cases can be part of a mediating process. The mediation process requires and demands some characteristics that all the families should have. All the parts should desire to participate in a process of this nature and, in turn, they should give a free and informed consent for the same process. Because, and talking particularly about these families, when mediation was proposed to these families the process was clearly explained to them. After the families were informed that regardless of their choice they would not have any reprisals by the Commission, as well as, if they wished to subsequently abandon the process, could do it also without any kind of reprisals. Each case must be worked in a unique way. In cases of violence, including domestic violence, mediation can't continue. Otherwise mediation will not be feasible, as it happened to the family D.

Over the situations discussed above, we could realize that in families B and C we developed a mediation of disputes. The intention of the participation of these families came from the desire to work the conflicts already existing in
the familiar contexts, and to prevent their minor descendants to adopt pejorative behaviors, which until then exercised by the parents. In these families there was also a plan to develop a transformative mediation. We developed a process focused in the mediated people and in their change. The conflicts between them were an opportunity for them to grow. It was possible to see that mediated people had a honest concern about the welfare of the other part. With these families, during the mediation processes, we worked aspects like self-esteem and emotional stability, trying to reduce the effects of destructive conflict. We also the expressive, communicative and interactive aspects in order to improve the affection between the parents, through the communication and interaction between them. These points were reinforced by the analysis of the social conditions that propitiate the situations, from the research of the factors that catalyze the less healthy expressions. We should remind you that they were two individual processes, which led us to results in different proportions, as has been evidenced.

Adversely, in the family E, we worked a mediation of differences. In this family there was the intention to develop a mediation that attempted the restoration of interpersonal interactions, particularly between the maternal and the paternal family of the concerned children, that were lost with the death of the mother. This process was developed in order to allow the children to grow and live with their two families. This mediation provided the non opening of a promotion and protection process by the Commission. So, due to the circumstances provided by the families it was developed a mediation model with the objective of solving all the situations/conflicts. In this area we focused on the conflict resolution among families.

The work of a Protection of minors Commission requires teamwork. Having into account the complexity of the issues with which the Commission is faced, we believe that these should be treated systemically, this is, we should look to the family as a whole. So, it is possible to "see beyond the child, considering the whole family as the unit of intervention (...) and recognize that the welfare of each family member affects all the others" (Mc William et al, 2003:47).

We believe that for an efficient and above all an effective intervention, the nuclear family should be the core of any device intervention, the decisions for a possible solution for the problems in which they are involved must come from them. So, in this case, a "family-centered approach recognizes that the same size does not fit all the parts. Each family is unique and the services must be individually designed "(Mc William et al, 2003:15)

We consider that a device of social mediation focused on the family and ally to the Commission's intervention, even in a autonomous way, cooperates for the sanity of the family. However, the people who participate in a process of this nature contribute in some ways, to the non reproduction of some behaviors and attitudes by the descendants, particularly during adulthood.

Since attitudes influence behavior, it is necessary to realize the knowledge that they have regarding the situation, trying to figure out what they think and, in turn, trying to understand if they have done something to change the situation. After this study, the mediator may perceive the direction of attitudes, their intensity, and he also has to verify if these are one-dimensional or multidimensional attitudes. He can also tell which was the dominant process used to acquire them.

It is evident that mediation has a certain education character, because the intervenients learn by themselves to resolve a conflict and / or prevent it. It is a process that uses acts of democracy, autonomy and respect for the others. Mediation is away to set action lines that a mediator defines to act on the field. It is a complex process, but at the same time a challenging and rich process because of the results that can be achieved from it.

References

Investors' Short Term Decision Making and Review of the Hindsight Bias Effect

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Abstract

An important bias in the field of cognitive psychology describes a situation in which individuals are required, ex-post, to estimate the objective likelihood, ex-ante, for a particular event to take place. This psychological bias is called Hindsight Bias, and is the mistaken tendency to believe, after the fact, in one's ability to foresee an event in advance. This article explores the bias for data from the capital market, and in particular, it examines the decision-making ability for short-term investment based on the paper by Fischhoff (1975). In the experiment, subjects were given a sum of money which they were asked to invest in various financial assets, after having seen their historical returns charts. In this study, I examined three principal questions: (1) Whether a difference exists in the hindsight bias effect for younger subjects than for older ones. (2) Whether subjects with higher income are affected in their decision-making process in a similar way as do lower income subjects. (3) Whether a difference exists in the effect between solid investors and speculative investors with regards to their short-term decision making. Results from the first examination show strong evidence for hindsight bias for all types of events, although the effect impacts older subjects more strongly than it does younger subjects. Results from the second test indicate that higher income investors are more influenced by the effect for positive events, but for negative events the trend changes and they are less impacted by the effect. Results from the third test show strong evidence for hindsight bias for speculative investors, but no evidence of the effect is seen for solid investors.

Keywords: Behavioral finance, Investment behavior, Decision making, Financial psychology, Investment decisions, Investments, Investor bias.

1. Introduction

In recent years, the realization that psychology plays a significant role in the capital market has developed among those engaged in investments. The decisions these investors make are not always consistent and not always based on an ordered mathematical algorithm as many economists argue, but are based on emotions such as risks aversions and psychological biases such as the preference for the present than for the future.

A central problem in the investment world stems from the gap between the perception of investors to profit or loss, and their ability to cope with actual losses. In recent decades we have been witnessing more and more studies that examine the following question: whether the markets, and the investors operating in them, act rationally. Most of these studies focus on the non-rational decisions that investors have made, as the assumption is that the best option out of all alternative ones will be chosen. Classical economics cannot explain the problem, as it assumes that investors act rationally; behavioral economics, however, assumes that investors are not entirely rational, and that some of their activities arise out of psychological biases, for which reason the latter is better able to explain the phenomenon.

A behavioral explanation for this phenomenon was given by Kahneman and Tversky (1979) in their ground-breaking paper that explained the difference in investors' behaviors in situations of financial gain versus financial loss. Their primary conclusion was that the suffering caused by a financial loss was worse than the pleasure derived from a similar financial profit. They proposed the Prospect theory as an alternative description to the utility theory, the dominant normative theory of decision making under uncertainty.

Many studies in the fields of cognitive psychology and decision-making have shown how different psychological biases cause people to utilize simplistic strategies and rules of thumb to ease information processing during moments of choosing and decision-making.

An important bias in the field of cognitive psychology describes a situation in which individuals are required, ex-post, to estimate the objective likelihood, ex-ante, for a particular event to take place. According to this bias, individuals will assess that an event is more likely to take place if the event has happened in the past. This psychological bias is called hindsight bias, and is the mistaken tendency to believe, after the fact, in one's ability to foresee an event in...
advance. Shiller (2006) defines the hindsight bias as the tendency to believe the ability to foresee the materialization of a scenario before it had taken place, granted that enough attention has been dedicated to it beforehand; a bias that encourages a simplistic view of the world and a sense that reality can be predicted early.

One of the most significant implications of hindsight bias is that it gives investors an incorrect sense of confidence when making investment decisions. Overrating the accuracy of past forecasts can lead to unwarranted risk taking and can lead investors to plan for results that may seem obvious, but that actually consist of much more uncertainty than they perceive. For example, an investor is interested in buying a stock, but due to various considerations and doubts decides not to acquire it. In the case that the stock’s value increases, the investor will likely forget his earlier conflicts that caused him not to buy the stock and get a sense of confidence in his ability to predict market behavior.

According to Rudiger (2007), hindsight bias affects different stages of designs, processes, contexts, and situations. Furthermore, a theory explaining, at least in part, what may cause hindsight bias has been put forth by researchers at the Max Planck Institute for Human Development’s Center for Adaptive Behavior and Cognition (ABC). They propose that the bias is an intellectual mechanism that unclutters the human mind by sparing it inaccurate information and welcoming answers that seem more correct.

There are three different psychological explanations for the phenomenon hindsight bias.

1) The Just World theory - people feel safer when the world seems orderly and predictable; it is especially noticeable in the ability to foresee bad events.

2) Cognitive explanation - people naturally tend to connect a result with events that preceded it, to form a coherent story and plot. They relate the result to some of the circumstances that preceded it and by doing so, make the circumstances seem more important than the circumstances which were seen in foreseeing the future. Similarly, people give less weight to the circumstances found that could have brought about contrary results.

3) Impression management - according to this explanation, the fact that the phenomenon was found in studies conducted in the field, does not mean that the phenomenon also exists in practice. This explanation relates the bias to the tendency of people not to appear inferior to others. This way, subjects of experiments attempted to direct the outcome closer to what they were told had taken place. The main objective of this paper is to empirically analyze the effect of the hindsight bias on trading decisions made by investors when considering assets’ past performances. The experiment process follows those presented in Camerer et al. (1989).

In this article, four events that took place in the past were considered, two positive events (one internal and one external) and two negative events (one internal and one external). For each event the subject was required to invest a virtual sum of money in 10 financial assets for one month, and not be able to change the details of the portfolio during the month. For this experiment, 204 economics students participated and were randomly divided into two groups: (1) Group C – a control group, was asked to invest the money without having been given information about the future returns of the asset, (2) Group H – a test group, was exposed to performance returns at the end of the month, and was asked to assess how participants in group C, on average, had invested their money. I divided the groups according to three socio-economic criteria:

1) Older subjects compared to younger ones,
2) Higher income subjects compared to lower income ones, and
3) Speculative subjects compared to solid subjects.

I examined whether the effect influenced one group more than the other for each type of characteristics. The results show that the hindsight bias effect does exist, but that the groups respond to it differently.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: in Section 2, I assess the literature on hindsight bias, presenting the psychological aspects as well as its economic applications. In Section 3, I describe my experimental design and research methodology. Section 4 outlines my hypotheses and provides the empirical tests and the results. Section 5 concludes and offers a brief discussion.

2. Literature review

Many investors tend to rely on past return data for predicting market behavior. One phenomenon explored in behavioral psychology literature, hindsight vision (hindsight bias), can explain this phenomenon, and is described as the misconceived tendency to believe, after the fact, that the investors can anticipate an outcome, and so carry with them excess confidence in their prediction.
The first studies in this field were conducted by Fischhoff (1975) and Fischhoff and Beyth (1975). In their research, five groups of test subjects were asked to read an article describing the events that led to the military confrontation between the British and the Gurkhas military units in Nepal in the 19th century. Based on this information alone, the test subjects were asked to list the probability for each possible result of the military conflict to occur (a British victory, a Nepalese victory, a cease-fire without a peace agreement, a cease-fire with a peace agreement). Each group was told that a particular outcome had occurred. A fifth group was a control group which was told nothing about the actual results of the conflict. The findings of the study revealed that all of the groups that have been given information about an event that had supposedly occurred, gave the occurrence of the same result a much higher ex-ante probability than the control group had given.

In their renowned work, Biais and Weber (2008) investigated the effect of the hindsight bias on financial markets using two experiments; one with students, the other with bankers. They examined whether the bias can be seen in forecasting financial variables, like the prices of stocks, currency exchange rates, and commodity prices. The respondents were asked to forecast price levels one week ahead, and to place boundaries around their projections, such that they were 90% certain the actual value would fall within the boundaries. When the true prices were revealed one week later, the respondents were asked to recall their forecasts and prediction intervals. Clear hindsight bias was shown in both cases.

According to Goodwin (2010), the result obtained from the article by Biais and Weber (2008) is very disturbing. The reason being that stock brokers, who are supposed to be impervious to behavioral effects, responded in a similar manner as did the students.

The hindsight bias effect has significant implications for learning disorders, which may lead to over-confidence. Camerer et al. (1989) argued in their ground-breaking paper that the hindsight bias narrows the gap between an individual's forecast and the actual result. They also coined the term “the curse of knowledge” to explain why the sales agents who possess better information about their products are at a disadvantage when selling. In a similar article, Baron and Hershey (1988) state that the curse of knowledge proposes that outcome information will be overused; where a manager will tend to think that ex-ante optimal decisions with negative outcomes were non-optimal and that non-optimal decisions with good outcomes were optimal.

Many people subconsciously block memories of poor investment decisions and instead, only recall successful decisions. They do it at a rate far surpassing their actual results. To become better investors, investors first must acknowledge their susceptibility and then focus on objectively evaluating all their investment decisions, both good ones and bad ones (Pompian, 2006). Pezzo et al. (2007) attempt to explain this bias as well. They note that following negative results, people tend to view themselves as caught up in unforeseeable situations, and to conclude that they are not the culprit: so as to avoid accepting blame. Such a process is called defensive processing. They may also view the situation as inevitable, such that nothing could have been done to prevent it; this process is called retroactive pessimism.

The hindsight effect was observed in a plethora of other fields disciplines. For example, Mangelsdorf and Weber (1998) and Madaras (2008) show that in a principal-agent relation, the hindsight bias thwarts the principal from correctly assessing an agent's performance.

3. Experimental design

In this study, I will examine the hindsight bias for virtual short-term investments, with an experimental design consistent with that of Camerer et al. (1989). For the experiment, I engaged 204 students of economics and business administration. Each student was given a virtual sum of 100,000 NIS that they were requested to invest in 10 different financial assets, divided by different risk levels (from 1 to 5, where 1 represents a very low risk); half of the offered assets are local and the rest come from the US.

The following table shows the financial assets presented in the experiment.

---

1 Visual information (Roese and Vohs, 2010), disappointment (Pezzo and Beckstead, 2008), surprise (Mueller and Stahlberg, 2007; Nestler and Egloff, 2009), auditing (Lowe & Reckers, 2000), legal decisions (Anderson, Jennings, Lowe and Reckers, 1997), clinical psychology cases (Gilbert & Banovic, 2009), police deception (Wasielewski, Whatley, and Murphy, 2009), medical safety (Annunziata, 2009), and business ethics (Sligo and Stirton, 1998) and effort (Wallace, Chang, Carroll, and Grace, 2009).
In the experiment, four events were presented to test subjects: two positive events and two negative events. (1) A local positive event - Israel's joining the OECD on May 10th 2010. (2) An external positive event - entry of the euro into circulation on January 1st 2002. (3) A local negative event - the Second Lebanon War, taking place on July 12th, 2006, and (4) A negative external event - the economic collapse of Greece on December 16th, 2009.

The asset prices from the year before the event were presented during the experiment (10 charts for each event). In order to test the effect of the hindsight bias, students were randomly divided into two groups: (1) the control group (group C): participants in this group were asked to best invest their virtual money for all occasions considering the historical charts presented, but with no information about the performance of the assets following the event, (2) the hindsight group (group H): participants in this group were also given charts of asset returns one month after the event, and were asked to assess, on average, how participants from group C would invest their money for each event.

### 4. Results

The main research objective is to examine the effect of the hindsight bias from a different angle. For the purposes of the study, the ability of investors to make short-term investment decisions in various events is examined. The study also examines whether a difference exists in the effect among subjects categorized by different socio-economic characteristics.

#### 4.1 Descriptive statistics

In this section I will present the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents for each of the two groups, C and H, and show how the respondents distribute their property in the various investment channels and at different levels of risk, as can be seen in Table 2 and Figure 1.

---

Table 1: A description of the financial assets offered in the experiment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk degree</th>
<th>1 - Low risk</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5 - High risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of financial asset</td>
<td>Government bonds for 10 years</td>
<td>Corporate bonds</td>
<td>Stocks index</td>
<td>Large stock</td>
<td>Small stock</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Communication Services</th>
<th>Pharmaceutical Industries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>CPI-Linked, Gov. Bezeq TA100</td>
<td>TEVA.TA GIVN.TA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>U.S. Treasuries AT&amp;T S&amp;P 500</td>
<td>TEVA GIVN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Table 2: A description of the descriptive statistics of the experiment

Table 2 describes the socio-economic variables in the experiment for both group C and group H. As seen, there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to the variables examined. The number of women in both...
groups was slightly higher than that of men, the average age of the respondents lies in the range of 20 to 25, there are
more single than married respondents, and the average monthly income ranges between 2000 NIS to 4000 NIS.
Considering their choice of investments, both groups invest about 89% of their funds in the capital market, and 11.8% of
the money from group C and 8.1% of group H is invested in the Forex - there is almost no investment in real estate.
When examining the distribution of the type of investments made in the capital market by the two groups, it can be seen
that about 50% is invested in risky assets, i.e. stocks and options, and the remaining 50% is divided almost identically
between corporate bonds and fixed income assets.

4.2 Testable hypotheses and results

To examine the effect, I will divide the participants by three characteristics: age, income, and investment, and check
whether there are differences in the hindsight bias for these characteristics.

4.2.1 First Hypothesis

In the first experiment, I will divide the control group, group C, and the hindsight bias, group H, into two sub-groups based
on the age of the respondents, such that the first sub-group contains all subjects younger than 23, and the second group
contains those older than 23. Group C contains 43 subjects that belong to the first sub-group and 59 subjects that belong
to the second one. Group H contains 37 subjects that belong to the first sub-group and 65 subjects that belong to the
second one.

An article which examines the degree of risk-aversion of households shows that young participants prefer a lower-
risk portfolio than do older ones, who trust their greater experience in the field (Guiso and Paiella, 1999). I therefore
expect that the older participants will have a harder time attempting to ignore the actual results than will the younger
participants and will thus try as best as possible to reach the optimal investment. The hypothesis in this case is then:

**Hypothesis H1:**

\[ H_0: H_{0,k} = H_{y,k} \] (similar degree of hindsight bias for older and younger participants)

\[ H_1: H_{0,k} > H_{y,k} \] (strong degree of hindsight bias for older than for younger participants)

Table 3 and Figures 1 and 2 show a statistical survey of \( H_{p,k} \) for younger and older people in for both
positive events and negative events, as well as the statistical test of the \( H_1 \) hypothesis for these events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>AFV^C</th>
<th>AFV^H</th>
<th>Hindsight bias measure by age</th>
<th>t – statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Std.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101,123.03</td>
<td>104,045.53</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 23</td>
<td>99,175.25</td>
<td>102,591.77</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 23</td>
<td>102,542.59</td>
<td>106,130.26</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96,613.02</td>
<td>98,516.72</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 23</td>
<td>94,275.96</td>
<td>96,219.47</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 23</td>
<td>97,772.33</td>
<td>100,560.05</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3:** The hindsight measure statistics for younger and older people.

The table shows evidence that the hindsight bias for positive events (0.03) is greater than that for negative events (0.02).
The reason is that participants are less careful in these events, and so trust their ability to predict the market in such a
way that their return would be closest to the optimal one.

The influence of the effect on older and younger participants shows that the Mean Hindsight Bias (MHB) of older
participants (0.0315) is higher than that of younger ones (0.0235) for the average of the two types of events. This result is
consistent with the articles of Guiso and Paiella (1999). Looking at the performance of the investment portfolio for the
different groups, we can see that the best case performance was that of the older participants of group H, with an
average monetary value of 106,130.26 NIS, while the worst investment portfolio was that of the younger subjects of
group C, with an average monetary value of 94,275.96 NIS. Another result obtained from the comparison between older
and younger participants is that in the transition from a positive event to a negative event there is a stronger influence on
younger participants with a MHB decrease of 0.011, compared with a decrease of 0.009 for older participants. This can
be explained by a stronger decline in confidence for the younger participants.

After calculating the hindsight bias effect as seen in Table 3, we can see the trend of the effect using Figures 1 and 2. These figures examine the behavior of an optimal portfolio, the average portfolio of the younger participants (under age 23) and the average portfolio of the older participants (over age 23) for both positive events (Figure 1) and negative events (Figure 2) throughout the testing period. As explained in the methodology section, the optimal portfolio is obtained by investing in the assets that generate the highest return at the end of the 30 days, without considering the risk level.

Figure 1: Investor portfolio behavior following positive events for variable age

Figure 1 shows that throughout the entire testing period, the value of the optimal portfolio is higher than those of both groups. A comparison of the charts between the younger group and the older group shows that during the first five days, the older group performed better than did the younger group, but in the period until the twenty-fourth day there is no significant difference between the charts, the relationship between the groups is then irregular. Over the final six days, however, the monetary value of the older group grows and becomes greater than the monetary value of the younger group; and whereas the trend is positive for the older group’s chart, the trend of the younger group remains unchanged: I conclude that the older participants have invested their money better than did the younger ones.

But the most important result is obtained by examining the last six days, during which the chart of the older group behaves in a similar manner as does the optimal value chart and is the opposite trend to the chart of the younger group. This behavior shows the effect that the hindsight bias has on the older group. Since the respondents in this group believe they can predict the market better than do the respondents in the younger group, the further on the timeline one departs from day thirty and approaches day zero, the value obtained from the received information diminishes; in such a way, the greatest effect should be seen close to the end of the period.

Figure 2 (below) shows similar results for negative events. The value of the optimal portfolio is higher than those of both groups for almost the entire time. A comparison of the charts yields that during the first ten days, the monetary value of the older group is higher than that of the younger group, and their trends are irregular. The next five days see the younger group’s monetary value rising higher than that of the older group, with an irregular trend, but during the final 15 days, the trend is again reversed: the older group’s monetary value becomes higher and is accompanied by an opposite trend between the charts – while the trend of the older group is positive, that of the younger one becomes negative.
Examining the hindsight bias, it can be seen that during the last seven days, the older group’s chart acts in the same direction as the optimal value chart, and is opposite from the behavior of the younger group’s chart. This result is significantly more evident than in the case of positive events.

To conclude, the hindsight bias effect seems to affect older respondents more strongly than younger ones. A possible explanation is that older respondents believe they can predict the market better, due to their additional experience in the capital market, and are therefore less able to ignore future market-data presented to them.

### 4.2.2 Second Hypothesis

Academic studies have found that higher income investors tend to take greater risks when building their portfolios. In the second analysis, I will divide the sample into two groups according to their members’ income level, and test whether there is a difference in the short-term decision-making between the two types of respondents. In the first group are lower income respondents (with incomes less than 4,000 NIS) and in the second are higher income respondents (with incomes greater than 4,000 NIS).

Scooley et al. (1996) examined the risk-aversion of investors based on the composition of their portfolios. They concluded that the greater the investor's wealth, the higher the presence of risky elements in their portfolios. Davis and Willen (2000) showed a similar result in their study. Looking at seminars held by investment institutions in the U.S, they studied the relationship between increasing labor income and degrees of risk-aversion. Their results showed a positive correlation between higher income and risk taking. Another article examining profiles of risk-aversion in Amsterdam have found that higher income is positively correlated with risk taking (Hartog, Carbonell and Jonker, 2002). Based on the academic studies, I expect that higher income respondents will find it more difficult than lower income respondents to ignore the actual result and try as much as possible to choose the optimal investment. The hypothesis in this case is therefore:

**Hypothesis H₂:**

- $H₀: H_{h,k} = H_{l,k}$ (similar degree of hindsight bias for higher and lower incomes)
- $H₁: H_{h,k} > H_{l,k}$ (strong degree of hindsight bias for higher incomes than for lower ones)

Table 4 and Figures 3 and 4 show a statistical survey of $H_{h,k}$ for lower and higher income earners, both for positive events and negative events, as well as the statistical test of hypothesis $H₂$ for these events.
Hindsight bias measure by income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>AFV\textsuperscript{c}</th>
<th>AFV\textsuperscript{h}</th>
<th>Hindsight bias measure by income</th>
<th>t – statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Median</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101,123.03</td>
<td>104,045.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low income</td>
<td>100,039.78</td>
<td>102,535.80</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High income</td>
<td>103,568.17</td>
<td>107,623.80</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96,613.02</td>
<td>98,516.72</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low income</td>
<td>97,394.96</td>
<td>99,743.38</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High income</td>
<td>94,991.97</td>
<td>95,876.75</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: The hindsight measure statistics for lower and higher incomes

The table shows strong evidence to MHB in all of the tests, albeit a difference does exist between the two types of events. Positive events result in a higher MHB for higher income respondents (0.04), as opposed to (0.026) for lower income ones. This result supports the conclusions of the studies cited in the beginning of the chapter regarding the confidence of higher income participants, who find it more difficult to ignore the actual result, thereby increasing their MHB. The trend changes, however, in negative events, where the effect is stronger than it is for lower income respondents (.025), as opposed to 0.01 for higher ones. This result is contrary to hypothesis 2, but can be explained by the Prospect theory interpretation, given by Kahneman and Tversky (1979); whereas during positive events, higher income participants are less risk-averse than are lower income participants, during negative events, these same higher income earners become more risk-averse, and invest their money in a way similar to that of the lower income participants.

4.2.3 Third Hypothesis

In the third analysis, I will divide the sample into two groups, based on the degree of risk found in the real investment portfolios of the respondents, and check whether there is a difference in short-term decision-making between the two types of respondents. The first group consists of solid investors (investors who invested over 60% of their portfolios in solid assets) and the second group consists of speculative investors (investors who invested over 40% of their portfolios in risky assets).

Speculative investors are overly confident investors that operate primarily in the short-term and I shall therefore expect their average portfolio values to be closer to that of the optimal portfolio: these investors will be more affected by the hindsight bias effect. The hypothesis in this case is therefore:

**Hypothesis H3:**

\[ H_0: H_{SP,k} = H_{SO,k} \text{ (similar degree of hindsight bias for speculative and solid investors)} \]

\[ H_1: H_{SP,k} > H_{SO,k} \text{ (strong degree of hindsight bias for speculative rather than solid investors)} \]

Table 5 and Figures 5 and 6 show a statistical survey of \( H_{SP,k} \) for solid investors and speculative investors in lieu of positive events and negative events, as well as the statistical test of hypothesis H3 for the events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>AFV\textsuperscript{c}</th>
<th>AFV\textsuperscript{h}</th>
<th>Hindsight bias measure by investment</th>
<th>t – statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Median</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101,123.03</td>
<td>104,045.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid investment</td>
<td>100,067.83</td>
<td>100,727.24</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High risk investment</td>
<td>103,064.05</td>
<td>107,956.74</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96,613.02</td>
<td>98,516.72</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid investment</td>
<td>95,049.77</td>
<td>95,781.28</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High risk investment</td>
<td>98,326.65</td>
<td>100,891.09</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: The measure of the hindsight statistics for solid and speculative investors

...
The table shows strong evidence to MHB for speculative investors with an average of 0.0375, while solid investors show no significant influence of the effect: their average MHB being equal 0.0085. A comparison of the two events, positive and negative, yields that solid investors invest similarly in both types of events, but speculative investors are affected more strongly by the effect on positive events (0.048) than on negative events (0.027). From such results, it can be assumed that for positive events, such investors are overconfident about their performance and their portfolios are therefore closer to the optimal portfolio.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

This article explores the phenomenon of the hindsight bias for capital market data, and in particular, examines the ability to make short-term investment decisions.

In the experiment, participants were given a virtual amount of cash to invest in ten different assets for a period of one month in various scenarios. For each investment opportunity, they were presented with the historical charts of the various assets, and based on these charts and types of events, they were asked to make decisions. Participants in the experiment were randomly divided into two groups; the first, a control group and the second, the experimental group; this latter group was exposed to the results on the assets one month following the event and were asked to predict how, on average, the control group would invest their funds.

In the study, I conducted three principal experiments: in the first experiment, I examined whether a difference in the hindsight bias effect exists between older and younger subjects. In the second experiment, I explored whether such a difference exists between higher income subjects and lower income subjects, and whether it would affect their behavior. In the third experiment, I explored whether such a difference exists between solid investors and speculative investors, and whether such a difference might affect their short-term investment decisions.

The results of the first experiment show strong evidence that the hindsight bias effect is present in all types of events, but that it affects the older group more strongly than it does the younger group. A possible explanation is that subjects of the older group trust their ability to better predict the capital market, due to their longer experience, and therefore find it more difficult to ignore the results of future earnings that have been presented to them. It has also been observed that a negative event affects subjects of the younger group more strongly than it does the older group.

The results of the effect, for both positive and negative events, have also been demonstrated using charts that describe the average values of the investment portfolios in the experimental groups and for the case of the optimal portfolio. The charts show that for the last days of the experiment, the chart of the older group behaved similarly to that of the optimal portfolio, and are both opposite to that of the younger group. This demonstrates the strong hindsight bias effect affecting the older group.

The results of the second test show a difference in the investment decision-making between the two types, positive and negative, events. In positive events, higher income investors are greater risk takers and are therefore affected by the hindsight bias effect more strongly, as I had assumed in the hypothesis. The trend changes, however, when negative events are presented, contrary to the hypothesis, and these investors are then less affected by the hindsight bias effect than are lower income investors. An explanation for this is given by the Prospect theory interpretation, given by Kahneman and Tversky (1979). While for positive events, higher income participants are less risk-averse than are lower income participants, for adverse events these participants become more risk-averse, so they invest their money more carefully than do other participants.

The results of the third experiment show strong evidence for hindsight bias for speculative investors. A possible explanation is that investors act strategically in the short-term and therefore trust their abilities to better predict the market. There was no evidence of the effect for solid investors, which shows that these investors are better able to identify the behavior of all investors.

To conclude, investors who are experienced, older and more powerful, who trust their abilities to make good decisions, are more affected by the hindsight bias and are unable to predict well the behavior of all other investors.

References


The Crisis of Consciousness in the Russian Internet:
The Experience of Discourse Analysis

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Kurmeleva Elena

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Department of Social Philosophy
Peoples' Friendship University of Russia

Abstract
The crisis poses a specific practice of representation of consciousness. The current situation in the Russian media is characterized by a lack of freedom of speech where the traditional media is controlled by the state. It has made the Internet the only platform where there is a possibility to implement the various forms of expression of the crisis of consciousness. Russian authorities use the crisis in order to demonstrate the correctness of their strategy of social and economic policies. This appears to be a very specific way of constructing social and cultural reality being developed. The Russian Internet provides space for the regularly produced animated film "Mr. Freeman," which is focused on Russian crisis of consciousness. The video shorts were analyzed as “description of discursive events”(Foucault). Discourse analysis provides an opportunity to highlight the discursive elements of two types; these are the symbolic and the semantic, which form the two levels of the crisis consciousness. The symbolic level of the series includes images of Napoleon, the Little Prince, a meat grinder, the thinker, Caesar, and finally, a spider. On the semantic level this includes a free man, multiple "fluid" identities, the negation of cultural stereotypes typical of popular culture, the denial of the basic principles of the consumer society, anarchism as a reaction to the totalitarian state penetration into all spheres of social life and anti-hierarchy. The predominance of these images shows the current crisis of consciousness of Russian Internet users, which is expressed and oriented towards symbolic forms of protest. The crisis generates the specific practices of representation of the consciousness (it can be characterized as crisis consciousness), on the one hand, which are hardly revealed by the classic methods of sociology, and, on the other hand, are expressed in particular ways through the unconventional media and the forms of arts.

Keywords: Russia; Russian Internet; Crisis consciousness; Discourse Analysis.

1. Introduction
The lack of media freedom and non-state controlled traditional mass media, such as TV and print media, is typical for the Russian media space. This makes web the sole platform for the public discussions and for framing the various forms of crisis consciousness.

Crisis consciousness is a specific form of the public sentiments. It becomes the main mode of the social sentiments at the current state of the social evolution that is prompted by the present events, as well as is inherent to an individual’s existence amid the society of risk and uncertainty. “The risk of events with serious consequences” (Giddens, 1991) is increasing in the contemporary society. “Our society of the residual risk has evolved into the society without any guarantees, it is unsecured, and the paradox is that the safety is diminishing as the risks grow” (Beck, 1992), as long as any measures aimed at reducing risk and ensuring guarantees are focused on the previous stage of the social evolution – industrial – and became therefore ineffective in the era of permanent uncertainty of postmodernity. The feeling of hazard represents the psychological aspect of risk with the phenomena, which are capable of damaging, being considered dangerous. The risk means the likelihood of negative or disastrous developments, i.e. the developments, which can endanger people, damage properties, and destruct the environment. In this case, risk means the probability of a negative development, a potential loss, and the hypothetical probability of damage, undesired results, and the style of social management amid the uncertainty. The understanding of the contemporary society as the society, which permanently anticipates the disaster (with regard either to the global population, which expects the apocalypse, or to an individual, who does not have any clear-cut perspective of the personal development path, and is therefore continuously...
choosing the identity), to some extent predetermines all the variety of social practices.

The empirical evidence of crisis consciousness can be found in the survey by Standard Eurobarometer 78. According to it, “after recording a spectacular 21-point rise between spring and autumn 2011 (68%), pessimism regarding the impact of the crisis on jobs remained high, but nevertheless fell by eight percentage points in spring 2012 (60%). Six months later, it has increased again slightly to 62%, close to the level recorded the first time this question was asked in May-June 2009. At the same time, 29% (-1) of respondents are more optimistic about the future” (Standard Eurobarometer 78). Despite some time gaps (the geographical discrepancies – by countries – can be even more significant due to the differences in social and economic situation), starting 2008, the economic conditions in many countries have been viewed by the majority of citizens as poor or very poor with such an opinion remaining largely intact. Most of the Europeans believe the crisis has not passed its peak yet anticipating the worst scenario. Eurobarometer has clearly recorded the pessimistic sentiments in the most of EU countries. As such, around 62% Europeans demonstrate pessimism, notwithstanding in the majority of EU countries pessimism has strengthened compared to the previous survey (in spring 2012). Economic forecasts remain mainly negative, with the key issue for the most of Europeans being price growth.

According to the Russian Public Opinion Research Centre (WCIOM), the Russians show virtually no optimism either. However, the problems, which raise concerns, are of completely different nature. The anticipations of a price increase are also among the major issues in the Russians’ public opinion. However, these expectations come second following the views over housing and utilities infrastructure, as well as over housing and utilities services (WCIOM database). Thus, the Russians fear not so much global transformations, so just upcoming winter with its cold weather, and as a consequence, foresee new difficulties in a daily routine, which are associated with an increase of prices for vital electricity and hot water. Such a situation has remained unchanged over the years, while price growth and other negative developments in economics threatening to the Russians do not relate to the economic crisis in their minds and remain unchanged over the decades.

The changes to the social mind and the display of its crisis forms at the of XX century in Russia are observed by many researchers, which define it as “paradoxical mind”, “crisis consciousness”, “split/broken conscience”, “marginal”, “calamitous” or “utopian” mind. Each of these definitions underlines the severity and abnormity, which is verified by polls on social well-being.

The crisis sentiments, revealed by the traditional research polls, have been the characteristic of the Russians' social mind over the years. On the one hand, specifically due to their stability and gained attributive nature, they do not lead to a rise in social unrest. On the other hand, the crisis sentiments offer an opportunity for large-scale manipulations with shaping a certain image of the global economic crisis in the Russians’ mind among others.

The reaction to real and potential hazards and experience of them significantly differ from social fears of the population of the other countries. The endurance of the Russians has developed into disregard of hazards, demobilization, the lack of adaptation, and substitution for threat sources (that might result in paradoxicality, duplicity etc.). This leads to the loss of what is happening, to disorientation, and to social maladjustment. The anticipation of the “doomsday”, in its turn, results in the collapse of the value system giving a rise to destructive forms of behaviour.

2. The middle class as a proxy of the unique crisis consciousness

The penetration of crisis consciousness is extremely high in the current Russian society. However, the fact of the existing social differentiation in Russia should be considered, which itself is very dramatic. The polls at the country-wide level do not incorporate the groups’ of the population, which think otherwise compared to the dominating and entrenched ideological scheme, which has been established in the society. Moreover, according to the foreign pattern of the social stratification, these particular groups are bound to be the basis of the middle class, the presence of which remains arguable in up-to-date Russia. The main contradiction is that the average Russian does not belong to the middle class under the accepted standards in contemporary sociology, as only 4-6% of Russians match the definition. Furthermore, the problem is not only in the quantity, but in the quality when it comes to a high-status, educated, and financially cushioned Russian. Such a Russian could hardly be attributed to the middle class also due to the typical for all the Russians controversy and paradox of crisis consciousness: “Our respondents are not the majority in any respect, not proactive, and more importantly, they do not feel themselves being a consolidated group, which is united by common interests and values and capable of defending them” (Dubinin, 2012).

Hence, the official data on the average Russian deliver the image of an individual possessing crisis consciousness, and having average social, demographic and economic features. The data basically reflect the
information not on the middle class, but on an individual, who is provincially and conservatively minded, concerned about his/her instantaneous problems of the consciousness, socially vulnerable, and with low income. The views of such an individual, collected by WCIOM, are in fact the majority opinion amid strong social polarization.

3. The image of the economic crisis in the Russian public media

For an average Russian therefore, the economic crisis exists in Europe only – this view is advocated by the Russian media. The crisis might have hit Russia, but the prompt and effective measures undertaken by the Russian officials helped prevent the dramatic social and economic consequences unlike in most of the other countries. While economic downturn, rise in unemployment, deterioration in social protection, price growth amid overall decline in wages in Russia are still likely, this will be much of the result of the global crisis, which Europe with its improper preventing actions was unable to overcome. This view is shared not only by the public media (which are represented mainly by TV channels, regularly demonstrating social unrest in Europe spiced by the crisis and describing it as an indicator of economic recession, which, in its turn, suggests the future failure of the Europeans' liberal values and democratic political systems). The public media primarily set Russia's stability against the European crisis, using it as a way of the legitimation of authorities' actions in all the areas while explaining that the situation in Russia remains relatively stable due to the balanced measures of the current country's leadership. At the same time, the Russian expert community is well aware of the fact that the economic is slowing down in Russia and the country is facing the budget deficit, unemployment, cost cutting in the social sphere and some other crisis phenomena, which are well-known for the Europeans. All this happens despite remaining high energy resources prices, which are the backbone of Russia's financial welfare.

The Russian authorities' attitude towards the crisis, manifested by the local public media, is quite specific and seems to be guided by the remaining constant crisis consciousness. On the hand, the economic crisis itself has not been recognized as the fact by the country's official bodies. Specifically, the Russian officials disregard the hazardous for the local society social and economic indicators of the crisis (lower living standards, marginalization of most of the population, unemployment etc.). On the other hand, having stated that the crisis hardly hit Russia, the officials cast themselves as helpers and rescuers for Russia from the disasters, which widespread across Europe, and seek to use the crisis as a prove of their reliable social and economic strategy (which excludes the commitment to the European liberal values), as well as seek to act as rescuers for Russia and to protect it from the calamities invading Europe.

This determines the specific way of media discourse, which reflects the crisis consciousness, about the crisis. However, the phenomenon of constantly growing pessimistic sentiments as a whole, which prompts various social practices, as mentioned above, is typical both for Russia and Europe. The current situation across the globe is characterized by sluggish consumption, political apathy, radicalization of electoral behaviour, transformation of family roles, shift in career development and education, and other features, which have been caused particularly but not exclusively by the crisis that undoubtedly could be in the meantime their product.

4. The crisis consciousness of the Russian Internet users

The expert opinion in Russia is represented by the media, which are not under the government control. One of them is the Internet. According to the official data, approximately 60% of the Russians are the active Internet users, while their social and demographic characteristics differ from the average across Russia. A typical Internet user is a 30-year-old man with higher education, who constitutes the basis of the middle class in Russia, actively participates in the economic life as a consumer, as well as a worker or a producer. Namely his view reflects the opinion of an Internet user. This is of particular interest, giving the importance of such a personality in influencing the overall climate in Russia, whether economic, political or cultural.

The existing economic crisis has penetrated into the Russians' social consciousness and set afloat the latent elements. The economic slump, which negatively impacted all the population strata in the other countries and exacerbated the situation mainly for the poorest people, hit mostly that 4-6% of the Russians, who reached the certain level of the welfare. The poorest strata were supported at the expense of those Russians. They served as an economic premise for a spike in the citizen advocacy unfolding into the protests and demonstrations at the end of 2011 – early in 2012. The political prerequisite for such an unusual phenomenon (its novelty involves the emergence of the protest moods within the conservative stratum) was parliamentary and presidential elections with officials’ shameless attempts to distort the reality and to employ the administrative leverage. Hence, the strong feeling of rebellion among the population rose.
We have described the overall political and economic context, in which the protest moods arose in Russia. However, the most important was the cultural premise. In this case, it could be interpreted as the specific of communicative practices. There is a lack of free media in Russia, i.e. there are virtually no possibilities for a legitimate people alliance via the official communication media. The Internet therefore has developed into a platform to generate protest rallies and accumulate pro-opposition forces. It seems clear that the ways and the forms of the sociality itself, which have developed within the web space, prior to the current financial crisis, are transforming into more concise ones with regard to the instantaneous situation (in this particular case, they turned into the specific view on the economic crisis and protest moods, caused by the breach of the presidential election legitimacy in Russia).

We emphasize that the forms themselves already have the solid shapes. If it were not the case, another peculiarity would not exist – the protest moods have not been limited to online discussions in social networks, blogospheres, message boards, and the other web resources, while this would be enough for the middle class of the Russians, who were raised in the soviet times, accustomed to the dissident-style critics of the political regime, and were inclined to express publicly their discontent – the protest moods, initially derived from the web space, have developed into the mass street protests and the basis for establishing tangible groups of individuals.

All in all, the economic crisis appears in the Internet discourse as a means of expressing the internal opposition. The economic crisis can be found in blogs of political oppositionists, in social networks, on web sites of pro-opposition print media. It was the Internet discourse, which drove the crisis consciousness (that is equally typical for the Russians and the Europeans, as mentioned above) to the active stage and built massively widened social protest of the groups, which are potentially capable of defending their interests.

5. The discourse analysis of the animated web series “Mr Freeman”: theoretical and methodological foundations

Under these circumstances, quite a specific way of social reality construction emerges, which is aimed at expressing the view of “intellectual minority” of the Russia’s population. One of the examples is the animated web series cartoon “Mr Freeman”, regularly appeared in the Russian web space. Here it is considered as the conflux of the Russian crisis consciousness. The choice of “Mr Freeman” cartoon as the subject of research is firstly due to the specific overview of the economic crisis in the Russian media, and secondly, it examples the most popular media product in the country’s Internet space. So far, 19 video series were shot, each of 3-minute playing time only. However, more than 10 mln Internet users watched each of the series. In this case, we consider the discourse analysis the most suitable research tool. It allows examine the most prevalent, albeit latent structure elements of the consciousness. That said the footage was analysed based on the theoretical and methodological prerequisites within the research scheme elaborated by Michel Foucault. According to the scholar, the variety of objects can be interpreted “as a pure description of discursive events as the horizon for the search for the unities that form within it.” (Foucault, 1969). In addition, the essential part of the discourse is that what can be indicated as a context, which is cultural, social, and material environment, at the same time externally defining the nature of the discourse and being its substance – the discourse shapes the environment and is its immediate form. M. Foucault defines the discourse as “the group of statements that belong to a single system of formation [...] is made up of a limited number of statements for which a group of conditions of existence can be defined. Discourse in this sense is not an ideal, timeless form [...] it is [...] a fragment of history [...] posing its own limits, its divisions, its transformations, the specific modes of its temporality.” (Foucault, 1969). Consequently, the event line of the cartoon can be investigated through a) the immediate surrounding, that is the social situation, in which the former is constructed; b) formal elements of the images; c) analysis of the informative abstracts of the existing discourse.

The discourse analysis was implemented within the theoretical framework, introduced by Ernesto Laclau and Chantal Mouffe (Laclau & Mouffe, 2008). Based on it, the empirical discourse analysis implies highlighting the following elements in the examined text:

- Nodal points, meaning signifiers, and myths, which in general can be qualified as the main symbols in the structure of discourse;
- Chains of equivalence, which create the meanings of the main symbols;
- Notions, referring to identity: formation of group, identity, and representation;
- Notions for the analysis of conflict: floating signifiers, antagonism, and hegemony.

The research framework was modified in such a way that the social, cultural, and political contexts, in which the aforementioned discourse phenomenon has been formed, constitute the specific object of the analysis.
6. Context and identity in the text of Mr Freeman

The competitive discourse that stands against Mr Freeman’s utterances is the dominating political discourse with its abovementioned characteristics in the Russian modern society. The stereotypes in individuals’ consciousness about the most crucial events and facts, their assertion and association with the ideological schemes – metanarratives, – which govern any given society, are reflected in the patterns of the popular web cartoons created by anonymous producers. In this case, the propagated by the public media system of values should be attributed as metanarratives. Such a system of values embraces stability as opposed to the 1990-s radical transformations without any social guarantees, as well as to the uncertainty in the Western countries, which look vulnerable in the face of the financial crisis; the underlined unique development path of Russia with the hallmarks of nationalism; declaration of “sovereign democracy”, which suggests no actual consideration of the public opinion, yet exploits it for a purpose of manipulation; construction of authoritarian, semi-feudal, bureaucratic, and corruptive model of polity with unlimited power, which does not have and must not have any counterbalance in the form of civil society and freedom of media, as the participation in ruling the country is supposed to be alien to the peoples of Russia; no necessity in the rule-of-law state with the latter being substituted by the idea of leading existence in all fairness, but not in law.

The overall cultural context, in which the web series “Mr Freeman” emerged, and which shaped its aesthetic side, can be called postmodernity (its understanding is rather broad here – on the one hand, it is the theoretical approach to studying the today’s situation, on the other hand, it is a set of developed social and cultural practices). From the view of both formality and aesthetics, this predetermines such features of the cartoon, as clip slicing, i.e. the rapid change of screenplays and images; the introduction of historically and geographically various cultural phenomena as symbols; the mixture of ineloquent and grandiloquent genres, which is exhibited in literary arts, as well as in jargon. Postmodernity as a theoretical approach allows utilize the categories and concepts of postmodernism, including the death of the subject and loss of belief in metanarratives theses, as well as pluralistic universe of identities and imitating nature of the social reality, overloaded with information.

The identity of a discourse’s author is also considered in more broad sense. Apart from it is represented as the Self of the cartoons’ creators, the social group as the target audience was scrutinized. The target audience of “Mr Freeman” was the Russian middle class in its specific meaning. The consciousness of the middle class, as stated above, has shaped into the distinctive form in the web space.

7. Symbolic and conceptual elements of discourse in “Mr Freeman” web series

The investigation of the chains of equivalency, which are associated with the formation of meanings of the main signifiers, is aimed at uncovering solely the key elements of discourse as being equal. The analysis of meanings indicates that these are the notions to describe an individual, firstly, on behalf of whom the story is told; secondly, whom Mr Freeman addresses to (this is crucially in light of his ambivalence. While Mr Freeman sets himself against the crowd, he does not completely separate himself from it by using pronoun We): the God, one among many, everybody, a sane man, a red neck, Me, a painted little man, a teacher, billions, you-all, somebody, a cartoon, an egotistic idiot, a puppet, the personality.

The inconsistency of the semantic set is due to the duality of consciousness in the discourse, as exaltation, self-humiliation, the perception of own capabilities and powerless ness are all mixed together. Such a contradictory is characteristic of the crisis consciousness.

Based on the discourse analysis, the meaningful entities have been identified, which compiled the conceptual elements of the discourse. The subsequent classification allowed figure out two groups of elements – symbolic and semantic – which correspond to two levels of the crisis consciousness.

The symbolic elements incorporate the images of Napoleon, a small prince, a mincing machine as an icon of human being existence, a thinker (a writer, an intellectual, and an artist), Caesar, a spider, a chain, a star, a castle, a cemetery. Overall, the gloomy images prevail, which cast if not the feeling of a doomsday, then the necessity of the dramatic changes to the current situation.

The semantic elements include a free man; diversified floating identity, the rejection of stereotypes, which are typical for mass culture; disbelief in fundamentals of consumer society; anarchism as a reaction to the total government intervention into all domains of the social fabric; anti-hierarchy. Negativity thus prevails in the evaluations of the developments and individuals’ features.

One of the major themes, delivered by Mr Freeman, is the call for withstanding the manipulation on the part of
those, who possess the power, rule the consciousness of an individual, and gain the access to mass media. A TV set is defined as a zombie-box, while TV broadcasting is interpreted as zombieing. The Internet, which distracts individuals from their real lives, has negative connotations, yet it is the source of distribution of the cartoon about Mr Freeman himself. The painted little man accuses the viewers in that they prefer to express themselves in an online mode and to declare their civic stances by clicking a Like button rather than undertaking the concrete steps. Manipulation is possible solely on the basis of unification – “the system controls all of you unless you are alike! But if everyone starts thinking not by-the-numbers, the system will lack of mechanisms, methods, and rules to punish each of you.”

The perception of self as an educator is intrinsic to Mr Freeman that has resulted in recurrent images, associated with light and flame, such as a lightening lamp, a candle, a ray of light or of a star, and even an explosion (of a bomb or a nuclear bomb).

Mr Freeman rarely touches the political topics with the exception of the image of the president, who addresses the nation with his New Year speech. The political issues come up indirectly in the cartoon (the favour of rallies in Russia was expressed as follows “those, who were zombified by the global brainwash, have suddenly tuned in and started working”) or was displayed figuratively (e.g., the case when Mr Freeman addresses to Che Guevara). Mr Freeman calls for changes, demanding them from himself, while speaking about the revolution of consciousness and the need to eliminate stereotypes, propagated by mass media.

The domination of these images proves the fact that the consciousness of the Russian Internet user resides in crisis, which is reflected via the focus on the symbolic systems of protest nature.

References

Divorce in Odorhei County, during the 19th Century

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Abstract

The scope of our study covers the 19th century and a currently non-existent administrative unit within the borders of Romania, where Odorhei Seat, and after 1876, Odorhei County was found. In 1869, Odorhei County’s population was 105467. The predominantly (98.57%) Hungarian population followed three different religions: Roman Catholic, Calvinist and Unitarian. In the investigated region, until the introduction of civil marriages (1895), the church possessed the right of declaring the break-up of families. As a source of our assessment we use ecclesiastical archival sources, principally divorce files (almost full collections in the Reformed and Unitarian church archives, conserved sporadically in the case of Roman Catholics). Our goal is to examine these sources from different perspectives, both quantitatively and qualitatively, collecting demographic, ethnographic and anthropological data. We are focusing on problems like: the number of divorces, internal and external factors influencing divorce, causes of divorce and their evolution, the evolution of sexual crimes, the meaning and the role of divorce in the traditional society etc.

In our days, divorce is a permanent concomitant of marriage. The number of divorces was lower during the previous centuries but it has been present in the lives of people. In spite of this, the issue of disintegration of the families has been in the focal point of research to a much lesser extent than history of the family in general.

Our present research intends to contribute to knowing more about the history and characteristic features of 19th century divorces. In terms of time, the scope of our study covers the 19th century, while in geographical terms it covers a currently non-existent administrative unit within the borders of Romania, where Odorhei Seat, and after 1876, Odorhei County was found. This county was located in the Eastern part of the Transylvanian basin. During the history, this region used to belong to different historical formations: after 1711 until the foundation of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy in 1867 was subordinated to Habsburg rule. In 1867, it was united with Hungary.

According to the census data of 1869, the population of Odorhei County was 105 467 (Sebők, 2005, pp. 227-229). The predominantly (98.57%) Hungarian population followed three major religions: Roman Catholic (33%), Calvinist (35%) and Unitarian (22.57%). Accordingly, the county consisted of four different ecclesiastical administrative units: the Roman Catholic Deanery, the Calvinist Diocese, and two Unitarian Ecclesiastic Districts. In the majority, the population lived at settlements with less than 2 000 inhabitants. The centre of the county was the city of Odorhei, which had 4 376 inhabitants in 1869. Due to the characteristic features of the geographical environment, the population mostly sustained itself from agricultural activities performed on small and medium size farms, animal husbandry and wood cutting, while industry was characterised by handicraft activities. Every farm tried to be self-sufficient, and this fact had a strong influence on the intra-family relations and roles.

In the 19th century, the basic institution of the society was the family, which was established by marriage concluded in accordance with the legal regulations. In this bond which was based on moral foundations, the society saw earthly security, while the Church considered it as the major tool to increase the number of its faithful congregation. Consequently, the family, due its many-sided role in the society – procreation of and bringing up children, maintenance of order and morality, legalisation of sexual life, assurance of material conditions for life, and the arrangement of inheritance with regard to the acquired financial goods – has at all times been in the focal point of attention both by the ecclesiastic and secular powers. The purpose was to prevent sins committed against the institution of the family and the penalisation of those who abused the social rules. All in all, the final objective was to prevent the disintegration of the family. In spite of this, the fact that young people did not really know each other at the time of marriage, together with the quantity and quality of compromises they had to make during the marriage, and the effects of the post-marital events on the family in certain cases resulted in resistance, lack of love and care, deviant behaviour and finally, divorce.

Until 1895 (the introduction of civil marriage), contracting and dissolving marriages fell into the competence of the Church in Transylvania (Pomogyi, 2000, 1894/XXXI). In the case of the Calvinists, divorce was declared, until 1868, by the Holy See operating within the frameworks of the partial synod, while between 1868 and 1895, the diocesan marital
court. The forums for appeal were the general synod, or the supreme marital court located in the city of Cluj. In the case of the Unitarian population, the sub-ecclesiastic benches took the decision at the level of the ecclesiastic districts, while the forum for appeal was the prelate bench in Cluj. Those Roman Catholic citizens who wanted to annul their marriage were sent by the local clergyman directly to the Catholic Holy See in the centre of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Alba Iulia.

The above listed institutions functioned as ecclesiastic courts. The mentioned Calvinist and Unitarian forums, for example, were convened at least three times a year under the chairmanship of the dean and the litigious parties were represented by lawyers (priests, teachers). During the activities of these forums, a lot of written documents were gathered and these represent the basis of our research. The official records of the Calvinist partial synod and the Unitarian sub-ecclesiastic benches contain the names and addresses of the litigious parties, the reasons for the conflict, the decisions taken during the official meetings, the judgement reached at the level of the diocese or the district, and the approval of thereof by the supreme court of justice. The documents recorded on the litigious cases by the Calvinist diocesan marital court operating between 1868 and 1895 are much richer. These documents include the registration certificates of the married couple, namely the birth and marriage certificates, the records of the lawsuit, health certificates, the good conduct certificates, the certificates issued on the dowry and the property, etc. The registration certificates facilitate for us to clearly identify the parties, know their exact credentials, and these give us a great opportunity to examine divorces from several different perspectives. In the case of Roman Catholic people, the decision about the divorce was made at the level of the archdiocese, and not at the level of the Roman Catholic Deanery of Odorhei. Consequently in Odorhei in the local Roman Catholic Archives divorce papers can be found sporadically, and in the Archives of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Alba Iulia the divorce proceedings from all over the archdiocese are mixed, that made for us impossible to research those documents.

The operation and the rules of practices of the above-mentioned institutions were regulated by ecclesiastic and secular laws (Gregorius Csáthy’s, 1813; Bod, 1836; Gámán János’s, 1889), and the same applies to the reasons giving the basis for the breaking up of marriages. The competent ecclesiastic forums decided upon the invalidity or breaking up (divorce) of the marriage, but ‘separation from bed and table’ was also an option. It is a well-known fact, that the Roman Catholic doctrine did not permit divorce, only the annulment of the marriage. This could happen when an obstacle undiscovered of at the time of the marriage, like, for example, kinship, valid engagement, valid marriage, illegal age limit, lack of consent, impotency existed. The Protestant forums verified invalidity, if, at the time of contracting the marriage, one of the partners was already married, or was under the prohibition to contract a marriage, if the marriage was forced, if the woman lost her virginity before the marriage, if any of the parties suffered from a hidden illness, etc. The Protestant forums dissolved the marital relationship in the case of marital infidelity, abandonment, making an attempt on the spouse’s life, denial of sexual relationship, etc. ‘Separation from bed and table’ is also known from the Protestant documents on litigious cases. This verdict was provisional, and during the early years of the century, it could last even for 2 years, while in the second half, its term varied between six weeks and six months. In reality, this separation was an attempt for pacification in those cases, when divorce was applied for with reference to deadly hatred.

The prescriptions of the ecclesiastic rules and the operational characteristics of the ecclesiastic institutions exerted an influence on the behaviour of the parties who wanted a divorce, the accusations presented and the decisions taken. At the same time, the parties who wanted to be separated never applied for divorce based on one single reason, but we can always identify related and multiple reasons. However, the judgement was always made and declared based on the sin which was considered the most severe in the eyes of the Church, and this forms the basis of our statistical data. As a consequence, the data presented in the table shall be interpreted with great care, since a number of different reasons were lying behind the major reason included in the judgement. Witness testimonies give us a good opportunity to observe the correlations behind the individual situations, and we try to make a reference to thereof in our study.

Due to the previously presented reasons, we could compile statistical data from the Calvinist and Unitarian sources. Calvinist divorce documents remained from the period between 1801-1806 and 1813-1895, and the judgement declaring and certifying divorce were found altogether in 2 424 litigious cases. In the Unitarian Ecclesiastic District of Cristur, divorce was declared in 720 cases between 1852 and 1895, while in the Unitarian Ecclesiastic District of Odorhei this number was 474 between 1801-1858 and 1886-1895.

The rough divorce ratio (per 1 000 inhabitants) reached, and in some years exceeded 1 thousandth in the case of both the Unitarians (as ex. 1.15 in 1880 in the Unitarian District of Cristur) and Calvinists (as ex. 1.00 in 1880 in the Calvinist Diocese of Odorhei), while between 1876 and 1890, for example, the above indicator was only 0.08 percent in the territory of Hungary including Transylvania (Szél, 1934, pp. 759-761). The latter total ratio was evidently influenced by the lower divorce rates typical of the Roman Catholic population, but we failed to measure it in the case of the Roman
Consequently, the divorce ratio was high among the Protestant population, but the reasons for this phenomenon are, as yet, unclear. A number of different factors influenced the divorce rate. First of all, it is a fact that the Protestant society did not consider divorce a deviant behaviour, though it was far from being a daily routine or a normal event. It was interpreted as a tool to terminate the conflict between the married partners in divorce or the individuals who wanted to be separated and the community. The consequence of the divorce, according to the opinion of the time, was the clarification of the relations, the penalisation of the sinful party and asking for apology and giving pardon publicly (because the mentioned institutions penalised the sinful party; common penalisations were the penitence keeping and excommunication). Consequently, divorce, the legal, regulated and public termination of the marriage was far more acceptable for the society than confused, illegitimate relations causing conflicts and raising scandal.

The evolution of the number of divorces was influenced by the different periods of operation of the ecclesiastic forums. For example, in the case of the Calvinists, the number of divorces showed an increase during the last years of operation of the partial synod, because the institution failed to have sufficient capacities for control, thus divorces were declared quickly, which encouraged those who already lived in separation to launch their lawsuit. Political and military events also exerted influence on the number of divorces, including, for example, the revolution in 1848, since they caused changes in the mentality and, as a consequence, resulted in the increased disintegration of the families. General economic situation also affected the number of divorces. We have already mentioned in the beginning of our study, that we are talking about a society dealing with prime production. As a consequence of the land which was more and more cut into small pieces parallel with the population growth, the stoppage of technical development, the lack of large-scale industry and the Austrian-Hungarian-Romanian tariff war between 1886 and 1889, the number of those who went into domestic service and seasonal work to Romania showed a significant increase during the last years of the century. In certain cases this phenomenon resulted in the split of the families, and those who left their village and families behind definitely got out of the control of the local community, the family, their illegitimate relations became uncontrollable, the number of fornications, concubinages and consequently that of the divorces increased.

Besides the general factors, there also existed local, characteristic ones, which were, in certain cases of economic, in other cases of moral nature. This observation is supported by the examination of divorcing partners by their place of residence. Accordingly, there were villages where the ratio of divorced couples was higher than in others compared to the number of inhabitants.

We have studied the term of the marriages ending with divorce and the age of the divorcing partners on the basis of the registration certificates kept by the Calvinist diocesan marital court among the files. Based on these examinations we found that between 1868 and 1895, from 45.02 to 48.64 percent of the marriages broke up within 2 years after the marriage. However, while the number of these short-lived marriages was on the decline, the number of the divorces occurring after a longer marriage was increasing. If we compare these data with the age of the divorcing parties we find that 52 percent of the men divorced until age 29, and 53 percent of the women divorced by age 24. These findings are in harmony with the fact that according to our examination made in the registration certificates, the majority of the male population got married between the ages of 22 and 28, while most females married between the ages of 18-24. Some of the researchers are on the opinion that a large proportion of the divorces happened within 2 years after the marriage, because the young people this way had the chance to re-marry. In our case, this theory should be completed. Comparing the term of the marriages ending with divorce with the reasons for the divorce we managed to observe that the majority of these divorces was requested with reference to being forced to get married by the parents. Evidently, this was also influenced by the fact that, for example, the Protestant church law accepted forced marriage as a ground of divorce only within two years after the marriage. But we should not forget, that it could not be in the interest of those married couples who wanted a divorce to fallaciously ask for a divorce on the grounds of forced marriage, since it was always the forced party who was declared responsible and as such had to bear the quite high costs of the divorce. Consequently, the number of divorces taking place within two years after the marriage can not be explained only with the better opportunities to re-marry. This assumption is further supported by the fact that the age to re-marry could easily reach 71 in the case of women and 74 in the case of men. This is why, in spite of the high number of divorced persons, there were only 26 Unitarian divorced men and 37 Unitarian divorced women, and 30 Calvinist divorced men and 46 Calvinist divorced women in the county according to the data of the 1881 census (OMKSH’s, 1882, pp. 108-115).

Going back to the term of marriages breaking up with divorce we found that the number of those married couples who divorced after ten years of marriage was on the increase during the second half of the century. In these cases, the most typical causes for the divorce were the following: concubinage, lecherous behaviour, alcoholism and the resulting incapability to manage the farm. In the case of women, we can find, though more sporadically, the bodily defects caused
by childbirth. The increase in the number of families breaking up after several years of marriage can be explained with the number of different reasons. On the one hand, changes in the mentality lie behind these divorces, but the spread of going to domestic service and seasonal work, which separated the families and provided income for a lot of women to finally become capable to step out of the bad marriage, was also an important cause. Concubinage and lecherous behaviour were spreading for the same reasons. It should be noted that marriages breaking up due to concubinage existed only in legal terms, since the party in concubinage already lived with his or her new partner, and the number of illegitimate children born (sometimes even nine children) refers to several years of cohabitation.

Among the statistical data on divorces we should mention that during the century, 58.54 percent of the divorces were initiated by women among the Calvinist population, and 58.29 percent among the Unitarian population. The above percentage ratios were influenced by the fact that mostly women were the victims of forced marriages. The ratio of litigious cases started by women clearly indicates the initiative talent of women in a social environment where the predominance and priority of men were unquestionable both intellectually and economically.

While examining the divorce proceedings, the most interesting thing, without doubt, is studying the causes of the divorces, though, as we have already mentioned, the quantified data shall be interpreted in the mirror of the characteristics of the ecclesiastic laws and the way of operation of the ecclesiastic judicial institutions. At his point we would like to mention that sentence for divorce was pronounced by the Calvinist ecclesiastic court immediately in the cases of sexual sins. Until 1881, the Unitarian courts, though applied the Calvinist marital law, took their decisions on different ground. In several cases, they only verified the suspicion of lecherous behaviour even if sexual debauchery was proved by the existence of illegitimate children, or concubinage lasting since several years. In general, it is a typical characteristic feature of the decisions of the Unitarian ecclesiastic courts that in the first step, they temporarily separated the married couples ‘from bed and table’, and if the partners did not reconcile with each other, they have pronounced the divorce with reference to deadly hatred. For this reason, while sexual debauchery is the main reason of the divorces in the cases of the Calvinists, in many cases the major grounds for the divorce is deadly hatred in the case of the Unitarian population. At the same time, the Unitarian marital courts frequently classified concubinage only as lecherous behaviour, in spite of the fact that concubinage was equally widespread among the followers of all the three religions, as it is clearly proved by the data in the registers of births and the registers kept on church visits.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause of divorce</th>
<th>“The deviant”</th>
<th>Number of divorces</th>
<th>Calvinist Diocese of Odorhei (1801-06, 1813-95)</th>
<th>Unitarian District of Cristur (1852-95)</th>
<th>Unitarian District of Odorhei (1801-58, 1886-95)</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>128</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>Marriage contracted with financial interests</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>243</td>
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<td>Men</td>
<td>103</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Both</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Concubinage</td>
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<td>Men</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>Men</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Attempt on the spouse’s life</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Men</td>
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<td>1</td>
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Deviant behaviors that caused deadly hatred

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From the perspective of the Church, the most important reasons for the annulment of the marriages was the fact of being forced to get married by the parents or the relatives because the basic precondition for a valid marriage was the free will of the parties involved. In the researched region, all through the 19th century, the power of the parents was prevalent within the families, and this phenomenon was further promoted by the fact that according to church law, parental consent was necessary for the marriage of females and those males who were economically dependent. Being forced to marry was typical of both the boys and the girls, but while in the case of sons, it was usually manifested in the form of persuasion, in the case of the daughters actual force was applied. Accordingly, diverse methods were used, ranging from beating to promising, denial of the dowry to disinheritance. Behind compulsion or force to get married, we can always identify financial interests. In reality, these were inter-family economic interests, since the parents wanted a man in good economic standing and with a prosperous farm for the girls, and for the boys, especially if he had many brothers and sisters, a girl who was expected to receive good dowry or a single child, who would thus inherit the whole property of the father. This is how the parents intended to avoid that the landed property of the family is divided into small pieces of land through inheritance. Those who were forced to get married were often orphans or semi-orphans. In the majority of the cases, these marriages were contracted so that the couple did not really know each other, thus the promise that they will get used to each other did not come true. In other cases it turned out that the chosen male partner was a swindler, or the girl had already lost her virginity, and the man who had to move to the farm of the girl inheriting her father’s property was treated as a servant. As a consequence, the girl who was forced to marry sometimes refused to move into her husband’s home, or spend the nights there, was unloving, or, at around the end of the century, escaped to domestic service, while the husbands made a good effort to chase out the wife who turned out to be a bad choice with rudeness, while the relationships, maintained with the old lovers resulted in libidinous behaviour.

In the eyes of the church, the guilty party is the one who made a false swear, cheated the partner, and made an insincere oath before the congregation and God. For this reason, this party was obliged, by the Protestant forums, to publicly ask apology, cover the costs of the lawsuit, and the parents who forced the marriage had to pay a fine.

According to the Protestant ecclesiastic law, the most fundamental cause of divorce was fornication. Besides the actual marital infidelity, lecherous behaviour also meant certain forms of denying sexual relationship, insatiability in legal sexual relations, effectuating sterility, and concubinage.

We can observe two different forms of denying sexual contacts. If there has never ever been a sexual relationship between the married couple, the marriage was qualified invalid. In such cases, real physical deficiencies seldom lay behind the lack of sexual relations, and the cause was rather the force to get married, since the parents were unable to force the married couple to spend the night together. If denial of sexual relations occurred during later years of the
marriage, divorce was pronounced. In such cases, cooled relationship, or illnesses caused by childbirth or accidents were behind the phenomenon. In the latter cases, the party who was sick, unable to procreate, or give birth was prohibited from a new marriage until recovery.

Fornication (in this case adultery) meant carnal relations outside of the marriage, and it could have several motivations, including keeping the contact with the old lover, the presence of soldiers, or moving to an alien environment for domestic service or seasonal work. Sexual excesses were considered to be serious sins both by the Church and the society. We can observe from the statistical data, that the number of divorces pronounced due to the lecherous behaviour of the women was higher. The explanation for this is that the adultery of the women was considered to be more severe, because if their act was managed to be kept in secret, that could bring an illegitimate heir into her husband's family. Consequently, such acts of the women were more stringently monitored by the community and it could be done with ease, due to pregnancies. Also the Church penalised more severely lecherous women. The protestant churches sentenced them to publicly ask for apology, they were excommunicated, and their re-marriage was the condition of church approval. The above punishments were completed with whipping, pillory and stocks by the secular forums. The Catholic communities applied, with predilection, the crowning of these women with straw wreath, and their forced appearance with thereof on the square before the church.

Cohabitation meant the illegitimate living together of the partners without marriage. It presumed both corporeal and emotional relations together with the maintenance of a common farm. In the divorce cases, we find that partners who did not dissolve their previous marriage lived in concubinage with each other, but the registers of births indicate that it was a fairly common form of relationship also between free partners. They decided in favour of cohabitation when the married couple failed to initiate that their marriage be dissolved, mostly due to financial difficulties, because the costs of one lawsuit varied between 35 forint and 90 forint, while a day-labourer earned one forint in four days. The cases of cohabitation became common during the last three decades of the century, and the spread of domestic service had a significant effect on cohabitation since the illegitimate relationship did not catch the eye in a strange village. Such kinds of relationships, namely cohabitation, were to some extent accepted or tolerated by the society since they differed from legitimate marriages only in the lack of clerical blessing, while the typical, traditional folk rituals were kept and these had a legitimising effect on the relationship in the eyes of the community.

Among the reasons for divorce, we should mention wilful desertion and making an attempt on the spouse's life. Wilful desertion meant that one of the married couple left the place of residence, broke contacts with the relatives consequently, his or her domicile was unknown. In such cases, the left-alone party was obliged, during the beginning of the century, to wait and publicly search for the gone-away partner. Should all these attempts fail, the couple was separated. Escape to domestic service from a bad marriage and/or joining the army by the men had similar results. Attempt on the spouse's life was the result of marital fights becoming more serious. In general, men were blamed for this vice, and the situation was the same when pregnant women were beaten up, or an object, like, for example, a firearm, a pitchfork, or an axe was used for beating.

Implacable or deadly hatred which could be caused by different deviant behaviours also represented a ground for a divorce. In such cases, the ecclesiastic forums first pronounced temporary separation, which meant 'separation from bed and table', and then, if the parties failed to be reconciled, they were granted definitive separation.

Quarrelsome, aggressive character and beatings could lead to deadly hatred. Swift-tongued behaviour of the woman represented the violation of accepting the decisions of the husband, and thus the questioning of the men's dominance and leading role. By means of the marriage, the husband was entitled to exercise superiority over his family. As a consequence, aggressive, pugnacious and quarrelsome men were viewed from a different angle. The litigious documents also indicate that beating as a tool to guide and educate was part of everyday life in the relations between the husband and the wife and the parents and their children. In general, aggressive behaviour and beating were accompanied by drunkenness, lecherous behaviour and neglect of the family both in the cases of men and women.

In some cases, changes in the morals of the spouse, like using swearwords or stealing was the result of hatred. To some extent, the use of swearwords was equal to incredulous life, and was often related to missing the church services, not keeping the religious feasts, or working on Sundays. Profane persons appear in the divorce documents especially during the first years of the century. They were penalised in large numbers also during the church visits, but then, at around the end of the century, this phenomenon disappeared from the sources. Evidently, blasphemy continued to be present in everyday life, and only the ecclesiastic forums lost their capacities to continue the fight against those who used swearwords.

The documents on litigations and divorce indicate the existence of two different types of theft. On the one hand, it meant the appropriation of the goods and possessions of others, and on the other, selling the property and goods of the
family by the wife without the consent of the husband, or taking away the dowry of the wife without her consent. Often enough, the latter was related to alcoholism, which caused that one of the spouses, in order to buy alcoholic drinks, stole or sold in secret the family property. The first form of theft indicated that the person in question became villainous, which deed became even more severe if he or she was imprisoned.

When it comes to illnesses and physical problems, the most common were dermatological problems, short-sightedness, epilepsy, physical handicaps, impotency and sterility. If the illnesses and physical deficiencies, or the impotency and sterility existed prior to the marriage but was kept in secret by the party who wanted to marry, it caused immediate divorce because this act was considered cheating the partner. If these problems developed after the marriage, they could result in hatred, like, for example, the dermatological problems, physical disabilities, or could make procreation or childbirth impossible, like impotency or sterility. Consequently, depending on their nature, these problems either hindered procreation and/or childbirth or caused hatred, or made the performance of the economic activities impossible, or the venereal diseases were the proof of unchaste life. If the illness of physical deficiencies made the procreation impossible, the Church prohibited these persons from re-marriage until they were recovered from their illness.

A frequent reason for deadly hatred was the neglect of the family and the farm. Neglecting the family meant the lack of love, grumpiness, the attempt to find faults in the other, the criticism of the spouse before others, withdrawal from the marital partner, and the refusal to care, feed and clothe the family members, or bad treatment of the step-child, etc. In general, forced marriage, lecherous behaviour and the resulting lack of love, sometimes physical deficiencies, illnesses, and the dissatisfaction of the parents were lying in the background of this phenomenon.

Neglect of the farm meant that the husband turned out to be a bad farmer or the wife a bad housekeeper. The Church did not really attach great importance to this phenomenon, unless it endangered the survival of the family. However, the society despised the lavish, lazy persons who did not make their farm and property grow. A number of different reasons can be found behind such behaviour, like alcoholism, forced marriage, the unwillingness of the new partner to accept the new home and thus the refusal to meet his or her obligations, lecherous behaviour, ignorance, and lack of practice. The society labelled as bad housekeeper the woman who did not cook, did not like housework, did not wash the clothes, did not clean the house, did not help her husband in the agricultural activities, could not make bread, did not weave or spun, but rather spent her time chatting with the neighbours, etc. Those men were considered to be bad farmers who did not cultivate the family's land, did not know how to perform agricultural activities, how to breed the animals, and sell the agricultural products.

The typical figures of bad farmers and bad housekeepers were the drunkard persons who, in stead of caring about the farm, spent their time in the pub spending the family money there. Drunkenness was usually coupled with immorality, lecherous behaviour, performing useless activities, like playing the cards and smoking.

The data presented above only represent a small portion of the information provided by the documents kept on divorce cases. Our sources provide us the opportunity to monitor the expectations of the society towards the individuals, together with the consequences of resistance to meet the expectations. We can observe a patriarchal society in which the priority of the males is tangible. The scope of life of the women was fairly limited in geographical terms, since their life started under the control of their father which was substituted by the control and guidance of the husband. Not much attention was paid on their education, thus the number of illiterate women was high. They were considered to be incapable to run a business independently both from physical and intellectual perspectives and their property, unless they were the only child in the family, was usually limited to the dowry, which could be refused by the father if they did not behave properly before the marriage, for example, lost their virginity, or chose a partner which the family did not like.

The life of both the men and the women was determined by the preparation for family life and then settling down to family life. Education of the sons was the task of the fathers while that of the daughters of the mothers. (This is proved by the decisions regarding the children: in the case of divorce, the Unitarians left the boy who was more than 4 years old in the father's care, while the girls were always left to stay with their mothers, unless they committed a severe moral sin.) The objective was to learn the roles within the family. The separation of the roles within the family was affected by the fact, that due to limited economic conditions, the families were settled for self-sufficiency. Each and every family member had a precise scope of duties, which had to be fulfilled, otherwise the well-being of the family was in danger, and difficulties were caused to the partner in marriage.

In ordinary cases, the family which was established by marriage was supposed to mean the matrimony of the couple, their mutual help, and the procreation of common children and the assurance of financial conditions. The lack of sufficient knowledge about each other prior to marriage (in the case of forced marriages), together with the quantity and quality of the compromises the partners had to make at the marriage and during the marital life and the influence of the post-marriage events on the family in certain cases resulted in opposition, lack of love, deviant behaviour, denial to meet
the obligations, refusal of the expectations and finally disintegration of the family. The Church set up a priority of the deviant behaviours outlined on the basis of the divorces but parallel with this hierarchy there was another list defined by the society. The latter one was influenced by the real events and difficulties of everyday life. This is very well reflected by the diverse opinion by the Church and the society about forced marriages and, even more, about persons neglecting their farm.

Changes can only be witnessed at around the end of the century, when the status of women changed, because, due to the economic difficulties they were forced to perform domestic services, thus became money-earners, and this way, going for domestic service became an alternative to accepting the fate defined by the parents. At the same time, these women went through an intellectual development as well, since they learnt languages and a different way of house-keeping. All these broke the previously strictly outlined family roles and the status within the family and also cast a different light on the behaviours of refusal which were previously considered deviant.

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Madness and Creativity: A Rational Reading to the Non Rational Poetry of Ann Sexton

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Abstract

Madness is not a medical term though it is widely used by medical men. It is a common sense category, reflecting our culture's recognition that Unreason exists. It reflects the idea that some of us seem not to share our mental universe: they are irrational, or they are emotionally withdrawn, downcast, or raging; their disorderly minds exhibit extremes of incomprehensible and uncontrollable extravagance and incoherence. However, there is a deep line between madness and insanity. Insanity is a neurotic illness and madness is a sense of creativity. In poetry, madness and genius seem to go hand in hand. Poets' subject is the world of experience itself, reflected through their creations. Whatever the nature of these experiences, they must tell the truth as it is. Much of Anne Sexton's poetry is autobiographical and concentrates on her deeply personal feelings, especially anguish. In particular, many of her poems record her battles with mental illness. Much of Anne Sexton's poetry is autobiographical and concentrates on her deeply personal feelings, especially anguish. In particular, many of her poems record her battles with mental illness. This paper sheds light on the poetry of the American poet Ann Sexton (1928–1974). Many of Ann sexton's poetry shows mental illness. It seems that the main impulse behind her poetry is therapy. Out of her raw experiences with madness, with love, with doctors, with obsessions that sometimes seemed to lift the top of her head off, came poems that helped her to keep going, poems that were radical on language and tone. Her poetry problematises madness as a malleable, non-essentialist mental state.

Creativity has been linked to madness. This has been supported by beliefs through scientific research. Historical records included a list of artists who have a mental illness and also a high degree of creativity. The list includes poets, novelists, playwrights, and artists. Critics say that giving artists the dead retrospective psychiatric diagnoses and treatment of those diagnoses as evidence of the link between creativity and mental illness are not valid. They point out that bipolar disorder, which Jamison connects to creativity, is only the latest in a list of conditions associated with organic creativity. Epilepsy, has also been linked to madness. This paper sheds light on the poetry of the American poet Ann Sexton (1928–1974). Many of Ann sexton's poetry shows mental illness. It seems that the main impulse behind her poetry is therapy. Out of her raw experiences with madness, with love, with doctors, with obsessions that sometimes seemed to lift the top of her head off, came poems that helped her to keep going, poems that were radical on language and tone. Her poetry problematises madness as a malleable, non-essentialist mental state.

Bipolar people have racing thoughts, they stutter, and their minds jump from one idea to another. They are able to create wonderful writings or paintings, but after these stages are controlled by exhausted and manic depression. According to Gutin, between 10 and 15% of people with severe forms of mental illness eventually take their lives (1996). However, through creativity and admiration of the mentally ill and we may be worsening their condition. One woman, who suffers from bipolar disease, explains, "I hate for people to admire the creativity and support an illness that ends in something so criminal to the self as suicide" (Gutin, 1996). Praising the mentally ill may be damaging to their health. If they believe that their illness is to make it. Arnold Ludwig has spent a decade to learn what kinds of factors combined to produce innovation. He said that he believes that creative artists display much higher levels of mental illness than do their counterparts in the more regulated professions. Poets and musicians, and fiction writers carries more psychological symptoms. However, Ludwig does not believe that artists are inspired creative only when they are in the mood mania. He says that any person who achieves greatness dedicated creative. These people persevere; They nearly monomaniacal" (Gutin, 1996).
Dedication instead of madness may be the real factor that generates creative greatness. Albert Rothenberg is a clinical professor of psychiatry at Harvard University, and spent twenty-five years in the study of the creative process. He said he believes that there are special and specific thought processes used by the creators during the creation process: Translogical types of thinking characterize both psychosis and people a high degree of creativity. Translogical Thinking is the kind of imagine the thought processes beyond the common methods in normal logical thinking. This kind of thinking involves processes. The Janusian and Homospatial thinking is the process to combine objects conscience contradictory or hostile in one Entity. Homospatial Process is the essence of a good metaphor. Jansuian Thinking tends to occur in the early stages of the creative work when ideas are generated, and Homospatial thinking characterizes the development of creative ideas. There are similarities between the initial thought process of psychosis Translogical thinking with some subtle differences. (Neihart, 1998)

Thus, metaphors and ironies are essential elements in the creative poetry. Poets make intelligently utilize them to promote their business. There are a set of lists famous American poets, many of whom have won a Pulitzer Prize. Among them are Anne Sexton and Sylvia Plath, along with Robert Lowell, John Barryman, Hart Crane, and others. Most of these poets are mentally ill, many of whom had committed suicide. Many writers and artists talking about periods of inspiration when I think processes are created to accelerate and moods and new associations. It is possible that genetic vulnerability to mood disorders and independently accompanied by a tendency to creativity. Genetic patterns associated with bipolar disorder may carry a spark of creativity (Barlow and Durand, 1999). Anne Sexton is dedicated her character and continue to produce long after the point of physical exhaustion, but still met, sometimes, with criticism and rejection, which can accelerate the vicious circle of self-abasement.

This paper will highlight the creativity of Anne Sexton regarding madness. The paper will highlight also Sexton’s representation of herself in sense of madness by using metaphors in different persona. The paper also questions gender construction of madness in many of her confessional poems. Anne Sexton (1928-1974) is an American confessional poet suffered from mental illness. This has been caused from severe mental illness and many circumstances in her personal life affected her: her father is an alcoholic, and she feels that her parents are hostile towards her. And her relationship with her beloved great aunt, Nana affected her psychology. When the latter has a mental breakdown and hospitalization. Sexton was sent to Rogers Hall, a boarding school. Then when she is nineteen years old and she escapes with Alfred "Kayo" Sexton II. Her husband was a salesman and was often away from home. Nana dies, she is alone with two children, and during this time she sometimes abuses them. She unexpectedly lost both of her parents, which leads to more mental breakdowns. After several suicide attempts are institutionalized. All these circumstances encourage her to writing, and her poetry becomes essential to life. Through her poetry and she strives to find stability (Wagner, Martin, 2000.). She possesses the ability to attract us to the fantasy worlds of her with her stunning, rhythmic words. She opens our minds and feed our imagination.

Her poetry reflects her personal life, intimate details of her private life, including relations with her husband and children, depression, isolation and despair, alcohol, and death. The work also includes specific issues of women as adultery and abortion. Her poetry indicates a mentally ill persona.

As events throughout her lives Sexton will worsen psychological stability to her, she finds solace in her poetry. Anne Sexton says, “Poetry led me by the hand out of madness” (Neihart, 1996). Yet, the creative madness is devastating irony. It inspires Sexton to create a haunting poetry, but it also entices her self-destructive urges. Through poetry she reveals her deep, personal emotions, the emotions threatening her sanity. Anne Sexton’s poem “Her Kind” depicts psychological and feminine angst:

I have gone out, a possessed witch,  
Haunting the black air, braver at night;  
Dreaming evil, I have done my hitch  
Over the plain houses, light by light:  
Lonely thing, twelve-fingered, out of mind.  
A woman like that is not a woman, quite.  
I have been her kind. (Her Kind)1-21Kennedy and Gioia, 1996

In the above lines she characterizes herself. They indicate that this kind of woman is a different kind whom not easy to be understood. Sexton’s life was not easy, and she made life hell for her husband, her kids, and anyone who really loved her. She said:

“All I wanted was a little piece of life, to be married, to have children…. I was trying my damnedest to lead a
conventional life, for that was how I was brought up, and it was what my husband wanted of me. But one can’t build little white picket fences to keep the nightmares out.’

The condition in the above lines indicates that her poem has a directness of expression that puts a chill on one’s spine:

I have found the warm caves in the woods, filled them with skillets, carvings, shelves, closets, silks, innumerable goods; fixed the suppers for the worms and the elves: whining, rearranging the disaligned. A woman like that is misunderstood. I have been her kind. I have ridden in your cart, driver, waved my nude arms at villages going by, learning the last bright routes, survivor where your flames still bite my thigh and my ribs crack where your wheels wind. A woman like that is not ashamed to die. I have been her kind. (Her Kind, 1-21)

The poem is a serious attempt to understand such a woman, her sense of alienation, motivated her to death by the evil absorb and give voice: a chortling, complacent, perfectly amiable sound suggesting that “evil” is probably the wrong word after all. Witch sexton, waving her “bare arms in the villages going by,’ becomes something of value to the community, woman in the service of the private sector, which is inexhaustible and anger, and a demon with red hair that revenge is "eat men like witch air"-Sexton is essentially harmless. Although they are still vulnerable - "A woman like that is not afraid because it refuses die’-rage in favor of humor, flamboyance, - a mockery of self. are the kind of leisure and entertainment harmful, and if it seems they are cast in the role of a martyr, and embrace the madness in order to domesticate it for the rest of making a society that seems less of a threat, and perhaps even enjoyable, but that martyrdom is that this aspect of Sexton accepted with a strange zest.

Love is mentioned repeatedly in her poems. She is involved in many Love affairs, including the involvement of long-sexual with her psychiatrist. Her writing career peaks as they receive rewards and honors for her poetry, but strains her fame of marriage. Intimate relations is also part of her creation, love for her:

“Love? Be it man. Be it woman. It must be a wave you want to glide in on, give your body to it, give your laugh to it, give, when the gravelly sand takes you, your tears to the land. To love another is something like prayer and can’t be planned, you just fall into its arms because your belief undoes your disbelief.” (the complete poems)

“I am alone here in my own mind. There is no map and there is no road. It is one of a kind just as yours is.”

“Yet love enters my blood like an I.V., dripping in its little white moments.” “Waking Alone.”

The following sweet lines indicate the love receipt. A mixture of drink, drugs, and a lifetime battle with mental illness took its toll on her relationships, certainly, but it also took its toll on her writing gift, which you can see in those later lines. They don’t just read as hallucinatory or unclear. They come off as amateur:

“You, Doctor Martin, walk from breakfast to madness. Late August, I speed through the antiseptic tunnel where the moving dead still talk of pushing their bones against the thrust of cure. And I am queen of this summer hotel
or the laughing bee on a stalk
of death. We stand in broken
lines and wait while they unlock
the doors and count us at the frozen gates
of dinner. The shibboleth is spoken
and we move to gravy in our smock
of smiles. We chew in rows, our plates
scratch and whine like chalk
in school. (You, Doctor Martin)

If these mature feelings could not be understood, depression also seems to be a reaction to the failure of sympathy on the part of others. When people fail that it is important to understand, recognize and acknowledge and appreciate, or respond in a way that we hoped to do, which could be sufficient to produce injury depression. It is as if their failure to deliver the message that we are not good enough, worthwhile or important. It slight to respect ourselves and it does not even have to be of great proportions. Some people are more sensitive to this type of injury because of their personal history, so a slight small it may well be as important as a result of the rejection of psychological Home.

After being divorced, loneliness, depression, and addiction to alcohol consumed her. The persona in Sexton's poems is in many places depressed and once she finds herself bored, suicide is the exercise of free will:

"Depression is boring, I think
and I would do better to make
some soup and light up the cave." (depression is boring)

Psychological theories and depression traditionally explained as "anger turned inward against the self." If you do not live up to some of the internal standards of the World Health Organization or what you're supposed to be, and notes some of the International Atomic Energy Agency internal failure and starts to let you know that you were not all that you can have - depression. People often talk about being angry with themselves because they did not materialize, or check or do what they think they should be. This is interpreted to diminished self-esteem depressed people often offers.

In a letter to Ann Clark, Sexton states that "When (for me) Death takes you and puts you through the wringer, it's a man., But when you kill yourself she was a woman." She writes:

"Anne, I don't want to live. . . . Now listen, life is lovely, but I Can't Live It. I can't even explain. I know how silly it sounds . . . but if you knew how it Felt. To be alive, yes, alive, but not be able to live it. Ay that's the rub. I am like a stone that lives . . . locked outside of all that's real. . . . Anne, do you know of such things, can you hear???? I wish, or think I wish, that I were dying of something for then I could be brave, but to be not dying, and yet . . . and yet to [be] behind a wall, watching everyone fit in where I can't, to talk behind a gray foggy wall, to live but to not reach or to reach wrong . . . to do it all wrong . . . believe me, (can you?) . . . what's wrong. I want to belong. I'm like a jew who ends up in the wrong country. I'm not a part. I'm not a member. I'm frozen." (Sexton and Gray, 1977)

They are looking for sympathy through love relationships, but needs to provide comfort and security have not been met. According to one source, she attempts to anesthetize her emotions with alcohol. She said she checks in and out of clinics where doctors tried to minister Hysteria, depression, anorexia, insomnia, violently rotating mood Some critics regard her dependence on alcohol as compromising her last work. In October 1974, she herself pours a glass of vodka, and go to her garage, Close the door, and starts in her car, listening to the radio as exhaust fumes kill (Morrow, 1991).

It is difficult to conclude that all the writers and creative artists are mentally ill. A study Conducted by Bob Boyce, a professor of psychology, suggests that "creativity productivity seems to occur more reliably with the moderation of the duration of action and emotions, not with fatigue and depression that followed binge of writing" (Boice, 1997 435). Boyce knows the book binge because the people who write interspersed with a few breaks, in a hurried pace, and are exhausted after their writings sessions. In contrast, regular book writing in short sessions, but regularly and without heated emotions. The study concludes that, in comparison to the regular book, are less likely to achieve acceptance editorial, has a smaller number of creative ideas, and generally achieve much less the book binge. He said he believed that the effectiveness is working better than madness (Boice, 1997, 450-460)
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“An Analytic Study of Death Anxiety among Type 2 Diabetes”

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Abstract

Several predisposing factors and traits in diabetics which muddle their behavioural patterns and disorient personality such as; arousing deep buried guilt over in oral demands, powerful unpredictable mood and behaviour changes that are a function of metabolic imbalance, denial, anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness and passive-aggressive etc. Keeping these vital points in mind, this empirical research was conducted to analyse and find correlation of the death anxiety among diabetics and non diabetics. For this 200 samples from Hazaribag District were selected. Incidental cum purpose sampling technique was adopted. The samples were divided into two groups- diabetics and non diabetics. Again the subjects were divided on the basis of gender- (No.50-male diabetics) (No.50- female diabetics) - (No.50- non diabetics male) - (No.50- non diabetics female). Two scales namely Personal Data Sheet and Death Anxiety Scale by Upinder Dhar, Savita Mehta and Santosh Dhar were administered on these groups. Data was collected, tabulated and analysed with the help of Mean, SDs and t-ratio of acquired data. And it was found that it was not significant. Imperative aspects like age, well settled retired life, religiosity, etc. enhance the self confidence of diabetics to surmount their death anxiety and it was also responsible for making no difference of death anxiety between both the diabetics and non diabetics.

Keywords: Analytic study; death anxiety; type 2 diabetes; non diabetics;

1. Introduction

1.1 Death Anxiety

Death is relief from reaction to the senses, from the puppet strings of impulse, from the analytic mind, and from service to the flesh. (Marcus Aurelius –Meditations)

The Oxford Dictionary defines death as the “end of life; ceasing to be; destruction” (1985). After birth death is inevitable every individual knows it. Pubilius Syrus (100 B.C.) stated in Maxims, “The fear of death is more to be dreaded than death itself.” The following statement from Bhagavad Gita is apt to be quoted here, “For certain is death for the born and certain is birth for the dead, therefore over the inevitable thou shouldst not grieve.”

Psychologist Janet Belsky, (1999) described “death anxiety” as: "the thoughts, fears, and emotions about that final event of living that we experience under more normal conditions of life". Basically saying that people live their lives on a day to day basis and they endure varying degrees of anxiety concerning death. Research has tried to unveil the factors that might influence the amount of anxiety people experience in life.

1.2 Death Anxiety Studies

There have been many empirical studies of death anxiety, but many questions also remain because of methodological limitations and the difficulties inherent in this subject. Nevertheless, a critical review of the literature does reveal some interesting patterns:

- Most people report that they have a low to moderate level of death-related anxiety.
- Women tend to report somewhat higher levels of death-related anxiety.
- There is no consistent increase in death anxiety with advancing adult age. If anything, older people in general seem to have less death anxiety.
- People with mental and emotional disorders tend to have a higher level of death anxiety than the general
Death anxiety can spike temporarily to a higher level for people who have been exposed to traumatic situations.

“Death anxiety” is a term used to conceptualize the apprehension generated by death awareness (Abdel-Khalek, 2005). Humans are unique in that they must learn to live and adapt to the consciousness of their own finiteness (Becker, 1973). Thus, a major task for cultural systems is to provide a symbolic structure that addresses death and provides meaning for its occurrence and a context for its transcendence (Becker 1973; Kübler-Ross, 2002). Confronting death and the anxiety generated by knowledge of its inevitability is a universal psychological quandary for humans. For health care providers, death is an ever-present reality despite increasing technologically advanced health systems, longer patient survival, and cure from life-threatening conditions. Although helping individuals and their families manage death is a central responsibility of nursing worldwide and an increasing literature suggests that death anxiety contributes to important emotional and behavioural outcomes, theoretical and empirical background of the concept has not been systematically examined in the nursing literature. This limitation has led to a dearth of literature that has explored death anxiety as an important variable in empirical nursing inquiry, a finding that may compromise the development of interventions to assist nursing personnel and the myriad of patients affected in their ability to cope with this profound existential issue. To date, few efforts have been directed toward clarification of this critical concept in nursing (Nyantanga & de Vocht, 2006), although death anxiety is included as a nursing diagnosis with NANDA nursing outcome criteria (Carpenito-Moyer, 2008; Moorhead, Johnson, Maas, & Swanson, 2008).

Nyantanga and de Vocht (2006) argue that a clear and comprehensive theoretical definition of the death anxiety concept that integrates the divergent theoretical approaches is not found in the nursing literature despite its critical relevance to palliative care practice and research. Yet death anxiety is an important concept to consider in a wide range of practice settings, including community cancer screenings of healthy individuals, psychiatric care, acute and trauma care, chronic care, and paediatrics and in individuals facing diagnosis of a life-threatening illness.

1.3 Diabetes

Diabetes is possible to become one of the most widespread medically, scientifically challenging and economically taxing significant diseases of the 21st century. And globally the developed nations and many of the developing nations are becoming subject in its epidemic proportions.

This ubiquitous condition will have an ever-increasing impact on all aspects of medicine and public health Diabetes is the paradigm of a condition that necessitates a multidisciplinary and holistic approach to its care management and control of treatment. Primary care physicians, hospital physicians, surgeons, nurses, dieticians, psychologists and ophthalmologists etc. are all drawn into this process.

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic medical illness presenting a potential risk for multiple life-threatening medical complications, including blindness, kidney failure; wounds refusing to heal can cause amputation of body organs, heart disease, and stroke. Empirical literature suggests that tight metabolic control achieved through the adequate execution of self-care behaviours on the part of diabetic patients can significantly reduce the risk of developing such complications. Consequently, gaining a greater understanding of factors that determine diabetes, self-care practices are of vital importance.

There are three etiologically distinctive types of diabetes, type 1 and type 2 and Gestational diabetes mellitus. Other specific types of diabetes also exist.

**Warning signs of diabetes**: Frequent urination, Excessive thirst, Increased hunger, Weight loss, Tiredness, Lack of interest and concentration, Vomiting and stomach pain (often mistaken as the flu), A tingling sensation or numbness in the hands or feet, Blurred vision, Frequent infections, Slow-healing wounds

**Risk factors**: Obesity, Diet and physical inactivity, Increasing age, Insulin resistance, Family history of diabetes, Ethnicity

**Management of diabetes**: Today, there is no cure for diabetes, but effective treatment exists. Good diabetes control means keeping your blood sugar levels as close to normal as possible. This can be achieved by a combination of the following:

- **Physical Activity**: a goal of at least 30 minutes of moderate physical activity per day (e.g. brisk walking, swimming, cycling, dancing) on most days of the week.
- **Body weight**: weight loss improves insulin resistance, blood glucose and high lipid levels in the short term, and reduces blood pressure. It is important to reach and maintain a healthy weight.
**Healthy Eating**: avoiding foods high in sugars and saturated fats, and limiting alcohol consumption.

**Avoid tobacco**: tobacco use is associated with more complications in people with diabetes.

**Monitoring for complications**: monitoring and early detection of complications is an essential part of good diabetes care. This includes regular foot and eye checks, controlling blood pressure and blood glucose, and assessing risks for cardiovascular and kidney disease.

### 1.4 India and global scenario of diabetes

The numbers of diabetic patients are speedily mounting all over the world, but the trends are different for both developed and developing countries. At some places growth rate is faster than the others. According to recent estimates, approximately 285 million people worldwide (6.6%) in the 20-79 year age group will have diabetics in 2010 and by 2030, 438 million people (7.8%) of the adult population, is expected to have diabetes. (1) The largest increases will take place in the regions dominated by developing economies. A survey conducted by World Health Organization shows that the largest number of diabetic patients in the world is in India; hence India has been accorded the status of "Diabetic Capital" of the world. In 1995 every 7th diabetic person in the world was an Indian and by 2025 every 5th diabetic person will be an Indian. In 1995 the number of diabetic patients in India was 1.94 Crores and by 2025 this number will swell up to 5.70 Crores. The number of diabetic patients is rapidly increasing in India but what is more worrying is the factor that the younger age group is being more affected. At present 30% of the diabetic patients are in the age group of 20 to 40 years.

### 2. Literature review

#### 2.1 Death anxiety and Diabetes

‘Death anxiety’ is a term used to conceptualize the apprehension generated by death awareness (Abdel-Khalek, 2005). Humans are unique in the sense that they must learn to live and adapt to the consciousness of their own finiteness (Becker, 1973). Thus, a major task for cultural systems is to provide a symbolic structure that addresses death and provides meaning for its occurrence and a context for its transcendence (Becker 1973; Kubler-Ross, 2002). Confronting death and the anxiety generated by knowledge of its inevitability is a universal psychological quandary for humans. For health care providers, death is an ever-present reality despite increasing technologically advanced health systems, longer patient survival, and cure from life-threatening conditions. Although helping individuals and their families manage death is a central responsibility of nursing worldwide and an increasing literature suggests that death anxiety contributes to important emotional and behavioural outcomes, theoretical and empirical background of the concept has not been systematically examined in the nursing literature. This limitation has led to a dearth of literature that has explored death anxiety as an important variable in empirical nursing inquiry, a finding that may compromise the development of interventions to assist nursing personnel and the myriad of patients affected in their ability to cope with this profound existential issue. To date, few efforts have been directed toward clarification of this critical concept in nursing (Nyantanga and De Vocht, 2006), although death anxiety is included as a nursing diagnosis with NANDA nursing outcome criteria (Carpenito-Moyer, 2008; Moorhead, Johnson, Maas, and Swanson, 2008).

Nyantanga and de Vocht (2006) argue that a clear and comprehensive theoretical definition of the death anxiety concept that integrates the divergent theoretical approaches is not found in the nursing literature despite its critical relevance to palliative care practice and research. Yet death anxiety is an important concept to consider in a wide range of practice settings, including community cancer screenings of healthy individuals, psychiatric care, acute and trauma care, chronic care, and paediatrics and in individuals facing diagnosis of a life-threatening illness.

In India, researches on death anxiety began to appear as far back as 1978 and number of variables such as religion, age, sex, malignancy, and other factors were taken into account, bulk of this research was done at the Aligarh Muslim University.

In his conclusions, Swarup (1981) states that every religion has its own philosophy, rituals, theology and mythology. And all of these may be responsible in creating different attitudes toward death in individuals belonging to different religions. The study indicates that Christians and Muslims express more death anxiety than Hindus and Sikhs. This does not mean that every Christian or Muslim expresses a high death anxiety. If it had been so then every Christian and Muslim should have scored high on Death Anxiety Scale, but there are Christian and Muslims whose death anxiety scores are less than the death anxiety of Hindus and Sikhs. This does suggest that religion alone is not responsible for the high death anxiety score of Christians and Muslims. Death does not mean the same thing to different members of the
same society, because different personalities have different kinds of attitudes toward death and dying. Actually, the fear of death anxiety is a very complex thing and to explain it through one or two variables does not seem to be very meaningful. Another suggestion which arises out of the findings is that the mystic orientation in religions might be different from the orientation which emphasizes a mechanical adherent's o ritual.

Dennis and Salma (1987) studied the relationship between fear of death and religiosity using a sample of 84 Saudi Arabian males, all Muslims who temporarily resided in the US for less than 2 years. Fear of death and dying was, measured using a factor analytic multi-dimensional Fear of Death and Dying Scale reported by D.D. Long (1987). Measures of religiosity included S. Putney and R. Middleton's (1961) Religious Orthodoxy Scale. Results indicated that current Church (Mosque) attendance has a significant negative correlation with fear of premature death, and self-perceived religiosity has a significant correlation with fear for significant others.

Padmanabhan and Chadha (1989) studied the relationship between death anxiety, religiosity, locus of control and self concept among late adolescents. Significant positive correlates were found to exist between locus of control and death between locus of control and religiosity and between perceived self and ideal self. No significant relationships existed between locus of control and perceived self, locus of control and ideal self, death anxiety and religiosity, death anxiety and perceived self. religiosity and perceived self.

Neimeyer and Chapman (1980) discovered that the group with a large split between their ideal self-scored as significantly more apprehensive than the group with little discrepancy. Obviously, subjects who perceive a discrepancy between what they are and what want to be, found death more frightening than subjects who perceive little discrepancy.

William, Walter and Barber (1987) investigated the relationship between religious belief and death anxiety the utility of the 4-fold typology with death anxiety as a dependent measure, and the relationship between death anxiety and assertiveness, using scales completed by 107 undergraduates. Findings suggest that death anxiety were lower in subjects with strong, integral, religious beliefs and grater in subjects with more expedient religious views.

Carter (1983) conducted a study entitled-locus of control, attitude toward split activity and death anxiety among male and female undergraduate's and found that locus of control can predict death anxiety in females. Lenwing (1976) found a curvilinear relationship between religiosity and fear of death in 40 residents of Utah. Williams and Cole (1968) divided subjects into high, intermediate, and low religiosity groups on the basis of religious participation. They found that the intermediate group yielded the highest self-report apprehension about death.

Beg and Zilli (1982) report that death anxiety may be related to (1) process of dying (2) the fact of death and (3) the consequences of death. Thoughts about the process of dying might include such parameters as death during sleep, death under anaesthesia, slow onset of death, sudden death, death under anaesthesia, slow onset of death, sudden death, and death due to fatal accident. The fact of death might include death as an agonizing experience, death as a relief from a painful life, and death as furtherance into a future life.

A recall test was then administered. Results indicate no significant group differences on recall performance. Initial no-show rates for the second part of the experiment were observed in the 4 groups reflecting a significant negatives relationship between death anxiety and initial no-show rates. The possibility of defensive responding on the DAS is suggested.

Consequences of death may have two major dimensions; (a) this worldly and (b) other worldly. Death anxiety in terms of a this-worldly dimension may centre on the fear of annihilation, apprehensions concerning the fate of family and dependents, dissolution of one's identity and an unaccomplished life. On the other-worldly dimensions, fear of death can be meaningfully understood in the background of a particular philosophy of religion which governs thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and the manner of concern with death. Hence, meaning of the terms, religious involvement, religious affiliation and strength of convictions seems to be derived from a particular philosophy of religion. The present investigator concluded that generalization around findings pertaining to the relationship of religious faith and death anxiety cannot be warranted without taking into account the meaning which is shared by individuals through a particular religious and cultural background.

Sinha and Naidu (1988) took a sample of 120 male heads of families, their ages 40-60 years. There were 60 heads of settled and 60 heads of unsettled families with 30 from high proximity and 30 from low proximity to death sight areas. Death and non-death pictures rated on 9 point scale, on bipolar dimension were used. The results were as follows- degree of exposure and state of families had significant main and interaction effects. But the means did show a non-significant trend in the expected direction. Low exposure subjects and heads of unsettled families had means which were insignificantly greater than the means of high exposure subjects and heads of settled families.

Theresa and Richard (1986) administered a 36 item instrument to measure anxiety levels regarding death of self, death of others, dying of self, and dying of others. Findings show that counselling subjects were significantly more
anxious regarding death and dying than were medical subjects. Death of others and dying of self were responsible for the overall differences between the groups. For both groups, the lowest anxiety scores were obtained for dying of other.

Schumaker, Barraclough and Vagy (1988) compared death anxiety in Malaysian and Australian individuals. The Malaysian subjects were 125 university students residing in Australia and the Australian subjects were 159 students at the same institutions. As predicted, Australian students had significantly, but slightly, higher death scores than Malaysian students. Females had significantly higher death anxiety scores than males in both samples. The findings are explained in terms of factors in Eastern cultures than more effectively control fear of death.

Kureshi and Husain (1981) have reported the twenty five male Palestinian students and the same number of their Indian counterparts, drawn from the Aligarh Muslim University graduate classes, were administered individually the Death Anxiety Scale (D.A.S.) and Dominance Scale (D.S.). The Palestinian students were found to score lower than the Indian students on the DAS, whereas dominance was found to be higher among the former than the latter. Besides, a negative relationship was discovered between death anxiety and dominance. Compared with the Indians a low amount of death anxiety among the Palestinian was explained mainly in terms of the sense of dedication to their cause, exposure to a threatening environment and a mental set of readiness to withstand any eventualities. Likewise, a higher score on dominance among the Palestinians was explained partly in terms of these factors as well as the contribution they were supposed to make to the liberation movement, requiring them to be assertive, ascendant and powerful.

These investigations in India, and abroad are based on the fundamental assumption that cultural differences happen to be most crucial in determining the meaning of death and in building up a death perspective in the mind of an individual. It is evident, however, that philosophical and ideological aspects cannot be isolated from the overall cultural framework.

Patterson et al (1987) administered a Threat Index and the Death Anxiety Scale (DAS) to 228 subjects. Based on the high/low criterion scores, 105 subjects were assigned to the following 4 groups: (1) high death threat/high death anxiety, (2) high death threat/low death anxiety, (3) low death threat/high death anxiety, and (4) low death threat/low death anxiety. Subject viewed a filmstrip on death rituals in various cultures.

Studies have explored the role that death experiences play in generating death anxiety. Among adolescents who had experienced the death of a grandparent, grief due to bereavement was the only significant predictor of death anxiety (Evans and Bond, 2005). Using an implicit test that measured death valence, anxiety, and denial in addition to a death anxiety scale, funeral studies students were shown to have lower explicit death anxiety and implicit death denial than general university students (Bassett and Dabbs, 2003). The study suggests that explicit death anxiety measures may underreport death anxiety experience and that educational exposures of the funeral students may reduce death denial (Bassett and Dabbs, 2003). The findings of variation between implicit and explicit death anxiety underscore the importance of construct attributes that may exist outside conscious awareness.

More experienced nursing students report higher death anxiety than do their less experienced counterparts (Chen, Del Ben, Fortson, and Lewis, 2006). Critical care nurses reported significantly more death anxiety, burnout, and stress compared with hospice nurses (Mallett, Price, Jurs, and Slenker, 1991). Similarly, Payne, Dean and Kalus (1998) found lower death anxiety and heightened recall of both positive and challenging patient care experiences among hospice nurses. Hospice philosophy approaches death as an essential component of living and, as such, openly confronts the issues associated with death’s presence. A study examined the effects of palliative care training and death anxiety in palliative care volunteers. Topics such as spiritual issues from a multi faith and multicultural background, communication, the dying process, and grief and bereavement were included. While death anxiety scores did not change before and following training, participants felt better prepared and more competent to manage situations of clients facing terminal illness and death in this study (Claxton-Oldfield, Crain, and Claxton-Oldfield, 2007).

Consequences of death anxiety cluster around adaptive and maladaptive presentations.

Numerous studies have shown that when death awareness and its associated anxiety are increased, individuals respond by defending and/or intensifying their cultural beliefs (Pyszczynski et al., 2004). In Western cultures, the pursuit and possession of material objects or materialism, could also be a coping response to death anxiety (Arndt, Solomon, Kasser, and Sheldon, 2004; Rindfleisch and Burroughs, 2004). Collective endorsement of brands and consumerism may provide a sense of meaning, strengthen social ties and belonging, and enhance perceptions of power in achieving important life accomplishments. This in turn may improve self-worth and status perceptions, factors that insulate against death awareness and death anxiety (Rindfleisch and Burroughs, 2004).

Other researchers have found that death awareness and anxiety increase the sense of commitment in romantic relationships (Mikulincer, Florian, and Hirschberger, 2003). The researchers theorize that close relationships function as a death anxiety buffer, similar to self-esteem and cultural worldview (Mikulincer et al., 2003). A series of studies
examined whether death anxiety underlies emotional reactions toward individuals with disabilities (Hirschberger, Florian, and Mikulincer, 2005). Findings showed that males responded to death anxiety by withdrawing emotion and compassion, whereas females responded by increasing compassionate responses (Hirschberger et al., 2005). Death primes may motivate men and women to behave in culturally prescribed gender-stereotyped ways. Thus, males who have heightened death anxiety may respond with less compassion because they are socialized to display strength and to value independence and instrumentality. Females may be socialized to be responsive to the needs of others and to show concern and care (Hirschberger et al., 2005). Positive consequences of death anxiety experience may include new learning and growth, acceptance, enhanced life meaning, and the pursuit of an authentic existence (Firestone, 1993).

While death anxiety is both normal and universal, a significant consequence may be mental health problems. Death anxiety has been associated with heightened negative attitudes toward the elderly and anxiety toward aging (DePaola, Neimeyer, Lupfer, and Fiedler, 1992). Death anxiety has been found to predict posttraumatic stress reactions in individuals with spinal cord injuries (Martz, 2004). These individuals were less likely to have a future time orientation, suggesting an avoidance of projecting into the future the fact that death is inevitable with the lapse of time (Martz and Linveh, 2003). Death anxiety is also associated with eating and self-mutilation disorders (Farber, Jackson, Tabin, and Bachar, 2007; Jackson, Davidson, Russell, and Vandereycken, 1990). Death anxiety was found to be significantly higher among both males and females with clinical anxiety disorders when compared to nonclinical, schizophrenic, and addicted groups (Abdel-Khalek, 2005). It is thought that generalized anxiety and death anxiety share variance in that both hold negative emotions, characterized by worry, distress, insecurity, tension, and uneasiness, whether directed toward the threat of death or more general dangers (Abdel-Khalek, 2005). Further, death anxiety may lead to ambivalence toward the body, disruption in personal relationships, and withdrawal from sexual intimacy because the physical body serves as a reminder of death (Bassett, 2007; Goldenberg et al., 2006). More research is needed to determine if death anxiety increases as a result of existing psychiatric conditions or is a precursor to psychiatric conditions.

Pondering over the magnitude of alarming universal health hazard of diabetes, it was decided to measure the impact of death anxiety among diabetes and non-diabetes.

3. **Research methodology:**

3.1 **Aims:**

1. To study the impact of type 2 diabetes on death-anxiety.
2. To compare the impact of death anxiety between type 2 diabetes and non-diabetes

3.2 **Hypothesis:**

Keeping above mentioned objectives in mind following hypothesis were formulated.

Diabetic patients will have higher level of death-anxiety than non-diabetic subjects. (Since diabetes affects vital organs like heart, kidney, eye, etc. There is fear of failure of these organs. The patients may die any time if the glucose level remains uncontrolled. The patient is always in fear of death. That is while the diabetic patients always remain under death-anxiety in comparison with their counterpart.)

3.3 **Methodology:**

3.3.1 **Sample:**

200 Samples were selected

3.3.2 **Sample area:**

The sample area was Hazaribag district of Jharkhand in India

3.3.3 **Sample Selection:**

Random cum purposive sampling techniques was adopted because it was the most suitable method to the nature of
research problem.

3.3.4 Sample distribution:

```
200
  /|
 /  |
100 100
 /  /
Diabetes Non Diabetes
 /  /
50 50 50 50
Male Female Male Female
```

3.3.5 Demographic characteristic of the samples:

The sample was selected from various age groups. The age of the sample has represented in table 1.1.

Table-1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S No.</th>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>35-50</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>50-65</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above figure shows that more than half of the subjects were of middle age that is 35-50. Less number of employees was of old age (that is 19.8).

3.3.6 Qualification of the sample:

Subjects have different qualification. Some have master degree; some have graduation; some have intermediate degree and some had matriculation degree. This has represented in table 1.2.
Table-1.2. Qualification of the employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Matric</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Bachelor of Arts</th>
<th>Master of Arts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
<td>47.6%</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that maximum numbers of employees were Graduate (that is 47.65)

3.3.7 Employment of the subjects:

Samples have different type of employment – Clerk, Supervisor, Engineer, Doctor, Bank Manager, etc.

3.3.8 Marital status of the sample:

Most of the subjects were married.

The above figure indicates that 90% of the employees were married.

3.4 Tools used:

Pondering over above aims and objectives of the research two tools were used.

3.4.1 Personal Data Sheet (PDS):

The PDS was used to get some information about demographic variables like, name, sex, qualification, history of diabetes, name of medicine and the like. This scale was prepared by the researcher himself.

3.4.2 Death Anxiety Scale:

This scale was used to measure the death anxiety of the sample. This scale has been developed by Upinder Dhar,
Savita Mehta and Santosh Dhar. This scale has 10 items with ‘yes’ and ‘no’ alternative. The reliability of this scale is 0.87 (split half reliability). Beside face validity the scale has high content validity.

3.5 Data Collection:

After deciding sample its location and its method of selection this researcher visited different diabetes centre and at the clinic of those physicians who were especially specialised for treating diabetes. The researcher contacted diabetic patients and took their confidence and consent immediately. Some patients filled the questionnaire same day and some took them to their home promising to return in next visit. In this way, the administered scale of the samples was procured and scoring was done in accordance with the manual, then data was collected and interpreted in light of standard statistical techniques.

4. Findings and discussion

The hypothesis of this work was (diabetic patients will have high level of death anxiety than non-diabetic). To verify this hypothesis two tools were used. One was personal data sheet. Which was prepared by researcher himself and the second tool was death anxiety scale developed by Upinder Dhar, Savita Mehta and Santosh Dhar. These two scales were administered on 200 samples. This was divided into two groups diabetic and non-diabetic. These two groups two were divided. Again into two groups on the basis of sex male and female. This two scales were administered on these groups and data was collected and tabulated in table no.-1.3, and demonstrated in Bar Graph of 1.3, 1.4 & 1.5.

Pondering over this table 1.3, it is observed that it has three comparisons. The 1st comparison is between male diabetic and non-diabetic male. The 2nd comparison is between female diabetic and non-diabetic female. The 3rd comparison is between total diabetic and non-diabetic.

Table 1.3. (N , M , SD and t – ratio of diabetic and non – diabetic samples on Death Anxiety)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Diabetic</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Diabetic</th>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* NS = Not Significant

4.1 Group wise comparison of Diabetic and Non-Diabetic sample on Death Anxiety.

The 1st comparison will observed that 't' ratio between male diabetic and non-diabetic male is 1.67. Which is not
significant on any level it means this two groups are not significantly different on death anxiety. So, it can be said that male diabetic and non-diabetic male are not different on death anxiety.

Table 1.4. (N, M, SD and t – ratio of diabetic and non – diabetic samples on Death Anxiety)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Diabetic</th>
<th>Non-Diabetic</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* NS = Not Significant

4.2 Sub group wise comparison of Diabetic and Non-Diabetic sample on Death Anxiety.

Considering 2nd comparison which is observed that 't' ratio these two female diabetic and non-diabetic is 0.23. This is not significant on any level it means these two groups do not differ significantly on death anxiety. In other word, this can be said that female diabetic and non-diabetic female are not different on death anxiety.

Table 1.5. (N, M, SD and t – ratio of diabetic and non – diabetic samples on Death Anxiety)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Diabetic</th>
<th>Non-Diabetic</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* NS = Not Significant
4.3 Total comparison of Diabetic and Non-Diabetic sample on Death Anxiety.

Considering 3rd comparison, it is found that the 't' ratio between total group is 0.95. This is not significant on any level. It means both groups do not vary on death anxiety. In another words, it can be said that these two groups are not different on death anxiety.

Considering the three comparisons which is observed that this three 't' are not significant on any level. It means these diabetic and non-diabetic samples was not different on death anxiety group wise or sub-group wise. Through the hypothesis, which states that diabetic patients will have high level death anxiety than non-diabetic is rejected and null hypothesis is accepted and it is concluded that diabetic and non-diabetic samples do not differ on death anxiety.

5. Concluding Remarks

5.1 Death anxiety and Diabetes

The major aim of this research was to measure the impact of diabetes on death anxiety. For this, two scales namely Personal Data Sheet and Death Anxiety by Upinder Dhar, Savita Mehta and Santosh Dhar were applied on 200 samples. Data was collected and interpreted with the help of mean, SD and t. It was found that t was not significant. So, it can be concluded that there is no difference of death anxiety between diabetic and non-diabetic persons. So, it can be concluded that diabetes has no impact on death anxiety. Several factors were responsible behind this phenomenon. Most of the samples were more than 50 years old. They were almost free from their domestic responsibility. That is why diabetic and non-diabetic persons did not differ on death anxiety. Next measure cause behind this finding was freedom from settlement. Almost all sample were selected settled in Hazaribag district. They had their own house and there was no tension for livelihood. They had shed their own burden, which may produce anxiety. That is why the subjects did not varied on death anxiety. The next cause was settlement of their dependents and marriage of their children. The sample in this research has married their daughter, which is the main cause of anxiety with ultimate converts in death. The next important cause behind this finding is high level of religiosity of the sample. The samples were highly religious. Researches has proved that highly religious person have less death anxiety. Some sample was from Christian and Muslim communities, which has less death anxiety in comparison to other religious persons.

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Information Communication Technology as a Determinant of the FDI Flows

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Abstract

The flows of global FDI have increased substantially in the recent years. Many developing countries have improved living conditions, thanks to the great inflow of FDI. Everybody agrees that the effects from FDI inflows are positive and generate strong economic impulses through the economy of the country receiver. Those effects make the countries compete each other to win more foreign capital. That is why many studies are dedicated on exploring the determinants of FDI flows. The policymakers need to know what makes markets attractive for foreign companies and how each factor impact on FDI inflows. The main subject of this paper is exploring the impact of ICT on FDI inflows. In the frame of the effort it will be analyzed the data from many developing as well as developed countries. It will be made a comparative analyze of the level of the ICT in a certain country, with the level of the FDI inflows. According to the findings in this paper there is a significant correlation between the FDI inflows and the level of ICT development, which means that the foreign investors consider ICT as important factor that determines FDI location. The findings also suggest that the correlation is more intensive when foreign companies invest in high-tech sector, than in labor intensive sectors. The findings can be use by policy creators in their efforts to make more attractive climate for FDI. Only by knowing what foreign investors are looking for, the country can become a home for many MNC.

Keywords: Foreign direct investment, Information – communication technology, developed and developing countries

1. Introduction

In the last two decades we are witnessing the great inflows of foreign direct investments (FDI) towards the developing countries. However, the distribution of the FDI inflows is not equally distributed among the developing and transition economies. While part of them enjoys the benefits from FDI inflows, others are still struggling to find the way to attract foreign investment capital, in order to bridge the investment gap.

The fact that the FDI inflows are not equally distributed among developing countries shows that some countries are more attractive for foreign investors, than the others. This fact demonstrates that some economies have more favorable investment conditions, than others. It also shows that there are some factors, which have positive or negative influence on FDI flows.

If we consider that FDI inflows are the best and painless way for obtaining investment capital and have great impact on the development, it becomes clear why almost all developing countries are “fighting” for more FDI. Namely, the policy makers in developing countries continually introduce many measures in order to increase the level of FDI inflows. Some of them have given successful results and some have failed in delivering the expected outcome. That is a proof that not all policy makers are aware of the real determinants of the FDI flows and the importance of each factor. It does not occur rare when officials spend plenty of money in order to increase the level of FDI inflows, but never get the projected effects. Surely the reason is in faulty quantification of each FDI determinant, individually and collectively. Namely, the relative importance of FDI determinants has changed over time, and even though the importance of the traditional determinants has not disappeared with the globalization, their relevance is on decline.

Unfortunately, the focus of existing literature on FDI was on traditional FDI determinants, such as market seeking factors, natural resources, low cost and favorable investment conditions, and few authors have considered the importance of the information communication technologies (ICT), as a determinant of the FDI inflows. The authors in the
past have devoted limited attention to this determinant, although it is understandable that nowadays ICT plays vital role in almost all business processes, and in the same time has changed the way in which these processes are handled. Unfortunately, ICT as a FDI determinant unjustified got very little attention from the experts, and as a result of that, got little attention from the policy makers, as well.

The aim of this paper is to fill the gap in existing literature by identifying the importance of the level of domestic technological capabilities and quality of IT based facilities in explaining the pattern of FDI inflows to the developing countries. Namely, this paper provides a special contribution to FDI theory, by focusing on technology, particularly ICT, an area of increasing importance in the global competition.

In order to get qualitative results, we have used broad range of statistical methods, as well as descriptive, analytic – synthetic, comparative and historical methods. We have also used tables and charts for better visual presentation of the results, so that the reader can get qualitative understanding of the data that are shown in the paper.

The paper is organized in three sections. In the first section we will give theoretical explanations about the meaning of FDI and its’ effects. In the second section we will focus our analysis on FDI determinants, with a special emphasis on ICT and in the final section is shown the analysis about the correlation between FDI inflows and ICT.

2. Why are FDIs so important for developing countries

Almost all developing countries are facing the shortage of capital for investment and are forced to obtain foreign capital in order to bridge the investment gap. Even though foreign capital can enter in different forms, the most preferred form is as direct investment. FDI has many advantages over the other forms of foreign investments, such as foreign loans, and even grants (which occur consanguineous, and are not often correlated with investment in real sector). That is exactly why the countries and their governments fight each other in order to attract more inflow of FDI. There are many studies which explain why countries compete with each other for more FDI. Here, we will try to summarize the overall FDI benefits, according to the majority of the experts.

According to EUROSTAT¹, the most important benefits from FDI inflows for the country – receiver of FDI, are:

- Improving the balance of payment position through the initial investment, but also through the expected export growth.
- Economic development of the country, job creation, improving the quality and efficiency of the production, development of the local companies.
- Transfer of technology, managerial knowledge and skills.

Probably, the best presentation of the FDI benefits was given by Tomas Dudas.² According to him:

- Long-term capital is the best for long-term development. FDI obtain such capital in countries which face shortage of it.
- Foreign investors support development projects in a better and cheaper way.
- Foreign corporations create new jobs.
- FDI brings new technologies, which otherwise are inaccessible for developing countries. There are some empirical studies which proof that there is a “spread effect” outside the foreign company.
- Foreign companies have better access to international markets, which can be useful relations for the home subcontractors.
- Foreign companies usually bring knowledge, including managerial knowledge and skills. The studies suggest that there is a “spread effect”, when the employees change the job, and use the accumulated knowledge.
- “Crowding effect” – the entrance of one foreign company, usually brings other foreign companies (commonly subcontractors).
- Foreign companies improve the business clime in the country - receiver, through the implementation of the business ethics and managerial rules.
- FDI usually carry new “clean” technology.
- FDI usually provoke an increase in the salary level.
- FDI have positive effect on a country’s balance of payment.

Although there are some side effects from FDI inflows, their influence is far below the positive effects, and does

¹ EU FDI Yearbook 2008, EUROSTAT, 2009
not reduce the overall image about the real importance of the FDI inflows for the developing countries. That is why policy makers are interested in exploring the main determinants of the FDI flows. In the next section we will focus our analysis on the main determinants of the FDI inflows, with a special emphasis on the correlation between FDI and ICT.

3. The determinants of the FDI flows

3.1 Literature review about the FDI determinants

Although there are many studies about the FDI determinants, most of them did not take into account the fact that the globalization has changed the relative importance of each FDI factor, and that there are other determinants which now define the location of multinational companies (MNC). In the most of the previous studies the authors have found that the FDI location is mostly determined by market - seeking factors, or by location advantages, such as natural resources, low wages, low tariffs, easy of doing business etc. In the following part we will elaborate the main determinants of the FDI flows, according to some experts, as well as according to our opinion.

The majority of the USA literature found that the main determinants of the American direct investment abroad were:

- Market related factors, such as market size, population, growth rate, level of saving (Bachi & Wheeler, 1989, McConnel 1980, Mandell & Killian 1974, Arpan & Ricks 1995).
- Resource seeking factors, such as work force, level of salaries, level of work force education, etc. (Little 1978, Glickman & Woodward 1988, Mandell & Killian 1974, Arpan & Ricks 1995).
- Factors correlated with policy and regulative, including government support, public expenses, taxation, level of development, etc.

There are also some researches about the FDI determinants, which were accomplished in Great Britain. Here we will show some of them:

- Market related factors, such as infrastructure investment (Hill & Munday 1997) and the population (Billington) were very important in attracting FDI to Great Britain.
- According to Billington (1999) high level of unemployment and work force availability have positive impact on FDI inflow.

There is also an interesting research about the determinants of the FDI inflows towards the transition economies. Namely, Lankes & Venables (1996) found that foreign investors in these countries were mostly attracted by market searching factors. They also state that after a part of them were integrated into the European Union; the main determinant became the low cost of production for export (export-oriented). They suggest that the importance of natural resources should not be neglected, also.

According to Palit et.al.(2007) the main determinants of the FDI inflows towards the region of developing Asia and India were:

- Economic factors – host country market size, availability and cost of skilled labor, exchange rate, stability, availability of resources, infrastructure, etc.
- Host country policies – outward orientation, tax rates, and investment incentives.
- Institutional factors – political stability, ease of doing business, cultural differences from host country, language, etc.

A group of authors considered that FDI inflows into the developing countries were negatively affected by political instability and uncertainties. Dunning (2005) found that FDI in developing countries has shifted from market and resource seeking to efficiency seeking.

On the base of all previously mentioned findings about the FDI determinants, it becomes clear that the majority of experts did not take into account the fact that globalization has provoked many changes in the global economy, including in the determinants of the FDI flows. It is indigestible how the authors neglect one of the main achievements in the recent history - ICT. Namely, ICT has changed the way in which business is handled, as well as the way in which investors perceive the investment clime. So, more emphasis should be put on the importance of the ICT as a determinant of the

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3 A. Palit et.al., “Technological Capabilities as a Determinant of FDI inflows: Evidence from Developing Asia and India”, Working paper No.193, April 2007
FDI location. In the next part we will elaborate about the correlation between FDI flows and ICT.

### 3.2 ICT as a FDI determinant

As we already mentioned, one of the most developed phenomena in the recent history is ICT. Specifically, ICT has changed the way in which people and companies operate, do their everyday activities, do business, etc. So, it is expectable that new information technologies have changed the way in which foreign investors perceived good investment clime and make a decision about investment location.

ICT is a composite variable defined by indicators, such as density of internet hosts, number of computers, fixed and mobile telephones, fax machines, TV sets, subscribers to newspaper, number of skilled information – communications experts, etc. Commonly the authors measure the level of ICT development in a certain country by “ICT development index”, which is defined by “International Telecommunication Union”. The index is a composite value created by combining 11 indicators into one benchmark value.

In order to explore whether the ICT determines or not, the decision about the investment location, we will mention some potential benefits from new ICT. Namely, ICT is essential for growth, and is crucial for development of the countries’ productive capacity in all sectors of economy. ICT links a country with the global economy and ensures competitiveness, also. It is seminal to innovations, invention and wealth creation. The main ICT benefits are reduced transport costs, improved marketing information and increased efficiency of industrial production. It is broadly acceptable that ICT encourages FDI by reducing the perceived geographic distance between home and host countries. This is understandable if we consider that distance is an important impediment of FDI due to the high communication costs of sharing information, knowledge and other intangible assets within multinational corporations (MNCs). Modern information technologies also provide more efficient way for monitoring the affiliates abroad, which is highly important for success of the businesses abroad.

ICT influences FDI inflow, mainly in two ways:

- It reduces time and expenses needed for exchanging information through all possible channels.
- It partly defines the volume of communication costs, because it determines how much the company should pay in order to be connected to the global network.

Although there are not many investigations about the relations between FDI inflows and the level of ICT development, the ones that were executed show that ICT encourages FDI by reducing perceived distance. The evidence also suggests that poor ICT development is a huge obstacle for more FDI inflows in developing countries. Explicitly, unlike developed countries where already exists a well built up ICT capacity which provoke inflow of FDI, in developing countries ICT must be built up, in order to attract more FDI. Developing countries may face opportunity costs if they delay better access and use of modern information infrastructure and information technology. They may find themselves in a low equilibrium trap because they will not be in a position to attract more FDI. So, more assistance should be given to developing countries to help them adopt ICT and to break out of their present low ICT equilibrium “trap”.

The previously conducted researches, verify our expectations that ICT has positive influence on FDI inflows, and that it becomes serious determinant of the foreign affiliates location. According to Botrich (2006) ICT variables have a positive influence on the FDI stocks. He found that on the overall level the countries that were able to accumulate more FDI, were at the same time those that can offer better infrastructure in comparison with their competitors. Empirical evidence from the analyzes conducted in the recent FDI literature suggest that ICT infrastructure is important in attracting FDI flows (Gani & Sharma, 2003, Choi et.al., 2008, Reynolds et.al., 2004). Addison and Heshmati (2003) argue that the spread of ICT is one of the new global determinants of FDI towards the developing countries. Veeramacheni et.al found that insufficient availability of ICT services is an inhabitant factor for economic growth, but also for attracting FDI and involvement in increasing competitive global markets.

We saw that generally, previously conducted studies agree that there is a strong correlation between FDI flows and ICT, and that well developed ICT encourages FDI inflows. Although we agreed with such interaction, we also have to mention some limitations of such statements. Some experts suggest that though ICT is a very important determinant of the FDI flows in the recent time, it is not sufficient alone to bring more FDI inflows. They also suggest, and we agree with such statements, that the level of the countries’ development determine how much is ICT relevant as a FDI factor. According to Jeon et.al., empirical evidence shows that ICT has a more remarkable impact on FDI activities from G7 to

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4 V. Botrich, et. al., “Main determinants of FDI in the Southeast European Countries”, Transition Study Review, 2006  
OECD countries, compared to non OECD countries. That is clear considering the fact that the main factors which make a developing country attractive for foreign investors are low wage, low tax, natural resources, favorable investment policies, which are crucial for labor intensive sectors.

Even though, ICT is extremely important for FDI inflows in advanced countries, it is not sufficient for making a country an attractive FDI destination. The importance of other FDI determinants should not be neglected, also.

In order to explore whether ICT and FDI interact between each other in the following section we will accomplish an analysis about the correlation between the level of ICT development and FDI flows.

4. Correlation between FDI flows and ICT

Our expectations are that well developed technological capabilities are strong FDI determinant for developed countries, but they also influence the FDI flows into the developing countries, even though with smaller intensity. At the beginning of the analysis we would also like to mention that the intensity of ICT technology impact depends from the sectors in which FDI are canalized. Namely, labor intensive investments are far less determined of ICT development, than investments in high-tech industry.

However, regarding this issue we should also mention that the connection between ICT and FDI is two sided. Namely, FDIs are attracted by well developed information communication technology, but at the same time FDIs bring technological development into developing countries.

Even though we said that ICT as a FDI determinant is less important in developing countries, than in advanced economies, the cases of India and China prove the opposite. In the next part we will investigate the case of India and China in order to explore how ICT impact on FDI inflows in both countries.

4.1 ICT as a determinant of the FDI inflows in India

According to World Bank and IMF, India is included in a group of poor countries, eligible for IDA support. In the same time India is ranked in 104th place according to Human Development Index, and so there is not any doubt that we are talking about the country which belongs to “third world”. In spite of that, India is an emerging economy, which continuously reached among the highest growth rate in the last decade, and received a great part of the global FDI. It is true that other countries, called “Asian Tigers” have achieved an increase in FDI, also, but unfortunately that trend does not exist any longer, while in India there is still an upward FDI trend.

Although there are many explanations why FDIs in India have different trend, the main distinction is in the achieved technological development. Namely, if we analyze the level of technological development in the different economies from developing Asia, we can explain why some of them have remained as attractive FDI destinations, while others have fallen behind. The more “mature” Asian “Tigers” – Hong Kong, Korea, Singapore, China and India continue to be the top destination for FDI, while the new “tigers” – Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Philippines are not any long.

Traditionally, East and Southeast Asian economies offered low-cost labor, as a “pull” factor for attracting FDI in large scale, labor intensive export oriented sectors. However, with production process becoming more complex and technology intensive, domestic technological capabilities, particularly innovative capacities, along with the ability to apply such innovations, have become more important the location advantage, than cheap labor. So, the countries which did not exploit in time the possibilities of new tech opportunities, failed to attract FDI on long range.

Technological capabilities, particularly research and development (R&D) driven innovations capacities are a major attracting FDI factor in India. Indeed this attribute along with the progress in implementation of ICT – based techniques in business operations, provokes great change in the nature of the FDI inflows in India, from market-seeking, to the export-oriented FDI. And not only India, the case of Singapore and Republic of Korea clearly indicates that countries which were able to attract large amount of FDI, are at the same time countries that possess well-qualified and skilled technological labor.

In order to get better understanding about the interconnection between ICT and FDI in India, first we need to explore the level of ICT development in India. We will use the data about India’s software export, as an indicator for the level of ICT development in the country. In the figure 1 is shown India’s software export in the period 1995 -2007.
The figure shows that there is a strong increase in software services export in India, and as a result of that in its global market share. The country now has more than 5% share in global high tech market, and has improved its position as technologically advanced economy.

Now, we will present a figure with the data about the FDI inflows towards India.

In Figure 2 is shown the trend of FDI to India in the last two decades. It is easy to conclude that there is a strong increase of FDI towards India, from neglected volume in 90s to USA$ 40,4 billion in 2008. Although there is a slight fall in the last four years, that is not a signal that something has changed regarding to FDI, but the reason is in global crisis, which hardly affected global FDI flows. It is now generally accepted that India is the second most attractive FDI destination, after China.

In order to explore the relation between ICT and FDI, now we will mention some data about the inflow of FDI in the sectors correlated with ICT. Namely, the sectional analyses show that the majority of the FDI inflows in the period 1991-2007 were directed to electrical equipment and services, and then followed the sector of telecommunication. After 2007 the officials in the country have modified the classification, and according to the new classification the services and computer software and hardware services are the top performers. This fact proves that FDI are directed towards high tech intensive sectors, and less towards labor intensive sectors. This fact confirms that the level of ICT development was essential, as a FDI determinant.

These data indicate that there is a strong correlation between FDI and ICT. Two facts confirm this statement. From one side there is great increase in FDI inflows, especially FDI directed toward high tech sectors, and from the other side the fact that India is ranked among the global high tech leaders.
4.2 ICT as a FDI determinant in China

Instead as poor country, today China is globally recognized as “the world workshop”. This epithet is valid, since China’s export dominates in the global relations, and not only in export of labor intensive products, but as well in export of high tech products and services. According to EUROSTAT, since 2006, China has become the global leader in export of high tech products and services. Namely, the country’s market share in high tech export reached 16.9% (2006), while countries, such as USA, EU – 27, Japan, stood behind. Their market share was 16.8%, 15% and 8%, respectively. In the following years China has gone beyond these results.

All the facts, which were presented, suggest that China has become high tech giant, and that in the following years is justifiable expected to become the greatest source of high tech innovations and production.

In order to explore the relation between ICT and FDI, it is necessary to be presented the data about FDI inflows towards China. Namely, today China is the greatest absorber of the global FDIs. The latest data about the FDI inflows in China, for 2012, show that the record level of US$116 billions, FDI inflows have been reached. Even in the years when the global crisis was on its' top, China’s FDI did not fall much, and only in 2009 FDIs were below the level of US$100 billion (US$95 billion).

So, the main question here is what drives the huge amount of FDIs towards China. The analysis has shown that China’s foreign direct investment (FDI) had experienced ceaseless changes during the past 20 years. In the 1980s they were mostly concentrated on labor-intensive industries, then in early 1990s turned to capital-intensive industries, and further in tech-intensive industries in recent years. Today, the world-leading manufacturers on PC, electronic products, telecommunication equipment, pharmaceutics, petrochemical industry, and power equipment, have expanded their production network to China. As a result of the soaring FDI in tech-intensive industries in China, China’s exports on high-tech production of foreign affiliates, as we already saw, has increased from US$4.5 billions in 1996 to US$29.8 billions in 2000, to US$377 billions in 2009, accounting for 83 percent of China’s total high-tech production exports, which is about 31% of China’s total exports in 2009. The situation was different before. China was not a major player in the global market of high-tech products. Resource and labor intensive products have been dominating China’s exports. In 1995, China accounted for a merely 2.1% of global high-tech exports. Its total exports in high-tech products were equivalent to only 8% of the US. With a 1.3 billion population, there is no surprise that China has been dominating the global market of labor intensive products. It is really a big surprise that China grew to be a top high-tech exporter within ten years.

The case with China has confirmed our statement that the relation between FDI and ICT is two sided. Namely, at the beginning low labor costs, as well as big market were the main reasons why MNCs have invested in the country. The entrance of MNCs brought new technologies, as well as know-how and managerial skills, which contributed for the improvement in the ICT development. The analysis on the ownership of the firms exporting high-tech products shows that, foreign invested firms accounted for 83% of China’s high-tech exports; in particular wholly foreign owned firms dominated the sector and made up 68%.

Now it is clear that China has grown from the country with extremely low overall tech development, to technologically highly developed economy. Today as elaborated facts show, China is the greatest technological player on the global scene. And not only that, there was a “spread effect", and now domestic firms are also technologically well developed, and have increased their share in China’s high tech export. Therefore, it is FDI and outsourcing activities MNC that transformed China into a world high-tech assembling factory.

5. Conclusion

The analysis in the paper has shown that the level of ICT development has impact on the FDI inflows. Although the previously conducted studies suggested that ICT is determinant of the FDI flows towards developed countries, this study has proof that ICT can be a big advantage for some of the developing countries, also. Primarily the FDI toward developing countries have been attracted by low labour costs and natural resources, but lately the ICT development in the country can bring strong stimulus for further foreign investments. Only the countries, which are capable to exploit the benefits from new technologies, which were brought by foreign investors, can improve technologically, and enjoy the benefits of new high tech investment in the future.

The case with East and Southeast Asia, along with India and China has shown that only part of the countries in the region were able to exploit the benefits from the initial labour intensive foreign investments. Namely only more mature economies, including China, India, Singapore, Hong Kong, Korea, succeed to build up adequate ICT infrastructure and to become high tech giants. However, this epithet mostly belongs to China and India. Both countries are now recognized as
the biggest exporter of high tech products and services, among developing countries. Actually, China dominates not only between developing countries, but among developed, also. Starting from 2006 China has the greatest share on the global high tech market, exceeding even USA, and exporting far more that EU-27 and Japan.

The great improvement in ICT development that has been accomplished by India and China was the reason for extremely huge increase in the FDI inflows in both countries. Actually, the level of ICT development explains why some of the previously attractive Asian “tigers” remained behind while others have achieved strong success.

Overall, this study showed that ICT is very important FDI factor, because it’s found that well developed ICT base reduces the perceived geographical distance, and so encourages foreign investors. ICT also, reduces the communications’ cost, improves the process of sharing information between foreign affiliates, but also offers advanced opportunities for foreign affiliates.

We expect that this paper will provide a significant contribution to the theory about the FDI determinants, because it’s focused on a factor which was neglected by majority of the experts. The results of the study explain why some countries failed to continuously attract sufficient amount of FDI. This study has shown that developing countries face opportunity costs if they delay greater access to and use of information infrastructure and information technology. So, in order to successfully restructure their economies, to lure foreign investors and ultimately to get and sustain competitive advantage, policy makers need to better understand that the level of ICT has huge importance for attracting future investments. The paper concludes that more assistance should be given for ICT development to developing countries if they want to break out their present “equilibrium trap” in the near future.

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Children’s Drawings as Input for the Development of Designs for the Contemporary Metal Jewelry

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Abstract

The childhood of the most important stages of human life and showing the growth of physical and intellectual, where expression through fonts, colors and composition of shapes and what is going on in their imagination, and drawing when the kids the art of stand-alone draws its expressions and colors from the world of the child himself, and appeared in the twentieth century great interest in the arts the child because of the importance of educational, artistic and aesthetic, it appears through which trends of child and his ideas and his environment where he grew up, expressing genuinely about his feelings in fees innate, and displays the search properties fee children in the age group of (6-9), a stage percept formal analysis, and characteristics (in fees repetitions, exaggeration and deletions, flatness, transparency, combining different surfaces at the same time, the combination of different times and places in one space), and draw inspiration those traits and characteristics to develop designs for the contemporary metal jewelry.

Keywords: Children's drawings ; Development ; Designs ; Metal jewelery ; Contemporary

1. Introduction

The artistic expression in children is the result of humane conduct that brings in his performance between the conscious mind (emotional) and the subconscious mind (subconscious), which is the expression of the child, and a summary of the Perceptions mental perceptions by telling her the child consciousness and feel it inside, be given to the form, which laid down its meaning and feel its importance.

Art child his role adult in the development of the child mentally and socially, because it is a tool guide and enjoyment and the development of taste Artistic and formation of habits and the transmission of values and information and new ideas about the community that the child is living, where she appeared concerns of international a private child care since the twentieth century because of the importance of technical and an aesthetic, educational, Drawing kids genuinely reflect the child's ideas, trends, and his outlook on the nature around him and carry the identity and culture of the community.

The children's drawings of important topics I'm interested in some of the contemporary artists, which means all the kinds of children from fees in the language of expression elements forming different movement a lot of meanings and ideas to them, and thus graduated from being the language of ordinary address, and within the scope of languages visual and symbolism through which children can find a lot of meanings that are filled out themselves and put their ideas new insights, They carry fees childhood innocence and the feelings and emotions through the elements of beauty and vitality in the new art moves the feelings and emotions of children. "(Huda Kyra, 2004, p 147).

We have blended look designer in the modern era with a look the child to express everything that surrounds him in the nature of living organisms, such as humans, animals, birds, fish and other aspects of life, a child paints to express himself when he paints what he knows about the things that he wants to express them and not what he sees.

The experimentation in the field of jewelry metal of the most important necessities that achieve the objectives of this research, "comes experimentation in two directions: first relates the achievement of aspects innovative, and the second relates to aspects of technology is indispensable to one side in the construction of the artwork, as it can not be achieved the aesthetic side without control techniques necessary. "(Afaf Imran, 2001, p 155).

Stresses research linking techniques jewelery metal, which is from one of the Fine Arts on the one hand and Children's Art on the other hand through the development of designs for jewelery metal derived from the children's
drawings as an art of the arts which have distinctive features to entrench values of belonging has provide products with artistic value and aesthetic keep pace with the times modem technology and progress and constantly of change.

2. Literature review

2.1 descriptive analytical method

Through the definition of the art of the Child, term art of the child and the views of scientists and artists in the art of the Child, and to reach the child expresses what is going through his mind, And expressing his feelings. And touched on the importance of art in the development the child's personality, and are intended to draw children, as well as objective the child from the drawing, and analysis of the foundations fine art of children's drawings of the characteristics of children's drawings from 6:9 years (stage percept formality), and display the search fee children in the work of contemporary artists.

2.2 experimental approach

displays the practical framework by taking advantage of the characteristics of children's drawings in the stage of 6:9 years as an input for the development of designs for contemporary metal jewelry, was the use of some fees for the age group phase (percept formality) and divested in innovative configurations, and utilization of mineral the techniques

3. Research methodology

Theoretical framework

The art of the child is a universal language shared by all the world's children of where Fine their symbols and art, they speak the same language and differ only in their environmental characteristics.

"and term (the art of the child): a new term, and discover the art of children but it is a result of the discovery of the child himself. Child, a man, his character distinct and its own laws .. and have been seen in the past to the child that an object minus, we have to wait to grow up, and then whis studies and then neglected to children creations and outcomes of their activities "(forum.moe.gov.om)

"and across the Jean-Jacques Rousseau said: The child is not small, grow up, but an object that has its own needs, and mentality are commensurate with these needs, but the opinion of the world Herbert Reed in the art of the Child says: child when expresses in paint it truly reflects especially those who have the talent has called from has the talent aesthetic sensitivity "(forums.fonon.net)

Thus, fees and child layouts expression what simmered idea and his mind, so is the language of continues between him and the viewer, and give a true image of his ideas, whether these thoughts are positive or negative

3.1 The importance of art in the development of the child's personality:

The art of great importance in the development the child's personality and The following is for these tasks:

1. achieves the child entertainment and fun and helped him to fill his spare positively
2. child knows the environment in which they live from all sides
3. provides the opportunity to participate very sympathetically and other views, problems and difficulties of life faced by others.
4. grown child's accurate observation, concentration and attention and aesthetic taste.
5. grown when the child good Directions toward other the objects and beliefs, professions and institutions.
6. grown when the child linguistic his fortune and builds him an asset of the vocabulary that is easy for him to understand some of the styles. (Mohamed Abdel Razek Ibrahim and Honey Mohammed Younis Barakat: 2004, 304:305)

3.2 Intended to draw kids:

he fee for a child is one of human rights such as the right to breathe, it is the right of every child to sketch out and informs us all influenced by everything that surrounds it. Drew children are those free layouts to expressing out on any surface. (Mohamed Ezz El Din, 1999, p 63)
It is those free layouts, which reflects the child on any surface since the beginning of their reign was writing or what it resembles, in which they reach the age of ten months then that they reach adulthood (Mahmoud Bassiouni: 1958, 14)

3.3 child goal of drawing:

1. paints to reflects its interaction with something .. like puppets and cartoon characters Granulocytes him near himself.
2. reincarnation of a character and drop what is inside of the feelings and emotions Quoting them on paper.
3. a means to communicate with others." ( Kindergarten-6.blogspot.com)

3.4 Characteristics of children's drawings from 7:9 years (percept formality stage):

This stage show at the age of 6-9 years as determined by the Landmarks of the child's personality then he will have the maturity of mental and social growth. (Reem al-Husseini, 2001, p 28)

3.5 This stage is characterized several attributes:

When the learner reaches this stage of his life, we find significantly affected in the artistic expression, note that the fees for this phase of freedom and the Automatic carry between them distinctive attributes the owners of each of them, as well as some other common Directions among the educated remind them as follows:

3.5.1 repetitions in the drawing:

![Figure 1](image1.png) illustrates repetition of shapes in children's drawings (percept formality stage)

" Is the direction to the ongoing repetitions of a number of shapes and elements, and stability on a certain number of shapes repeated on a continuous basis." (Hamdy T: 1962, 29)

3.5.2 Exaggeration and deletions (prolongation, and zooming in and miniaturization):

![Figure 2](image2.png) Illustrates the exaggeration and deletions in charge of children (percept formality stage)

They resort to change symbols and shapes accordingly emotions of different and the emphasis on effective element of shape without other elements that "exaggeration clearly show in the art of child wherever be part exaggeration of the
body representative of the expertise meaningful denote." (Abdul Muttalib Algarity: 1995, 76)
“A child at this stage often turn to change the symbols depending on different emotions” (Hanan Anani: 2007, 50)

3.5.3 Flattening:

![Figure 3. Illustrates the flattening shapes in charge of children (percept formality stage)](image)

"It is to draw the learner flattening manner in the form of Vocabularies so that no hidden element of another element without restriction engineering perspective One of the manifestations such a way that draws so simplifies the thing in all its aspects and singles out all of its parts, so the drawings devoid of perspective". (Abdul Muttalib Algarity of: 1995, 64)

3.5.4 Transparency:

![Figure 4. illustrates the transparency in the fees of children (percept formality stage)](image)

And appear when intersected elements not baptizes learner cancel each to express the near and long term by the tendency the internal him, "has been named this phenomenon fees X-rays to between the direction of the child and including the semi his view through the surfaces, whether transparent or non- Transparency. (Mahmoud Bassiouni: 1984, 173)

3.5.5 Combining the different surfaces in one place:

![Figure 5. illustrates the combination of the different surfaces in one space (percept formality stage)](image)
That the child at this stage that combines the different surfaces in one space, he reflects things as if he spins around, which brings together like a manifestations of different angles in a one space". (Hanan Anani: 2007, 52)

3.5.6 Combine different places and times in one space:

Figure 6. illustrates the combination of places and times in a one space (percept formality stage)

"It is not the place and time restriction that there are things it crosses the tape, which the photographer manner to accidents Inside the same space regardless of time and place, stressing on the cognitive aspects rather than the visual aspects." (Hamdy Thursday: 1962, 160)

3.5.7 ground line:

Figure 7. illustrates the ground line in children's drawings (percept formality stage)

When a child begins learning environment relations, it puts all the things from people, houses, animals, and trees on the land line and one linked to each other. (Mahmoud Bassiouni, 1984, 145)

3.5.8 Collecting writing with drawing:

Figure 7. illustrates collect writing with drawing in children's drawings (percept formality stage)

The use of writing in the drawing becomes necessary whenever got a child to a degree of education school which is dispensed by all the shapes that can not be are expressed painting or used writing as a way to clarify what thought he
was mysterious for others. (Abdel Razek Mohamed El Sayed: 2003, 70: 71)

3.6 Children's drawings in the work of contemporary artists:

"The discovery drawing children and one of the most important cultural achievements of the twentieth century, and the efforts of the painter Swiss Franz Chzak finder drawing of children and their teacher first that led to the rescue these drawing of misunderstanding and abuse, how many great artist painter or a photographer or a sculptor, has founda lot or a little inspiration and the exclusive Fine knowledge in children's drawings and in the provided, "Paul College," "Joan Miro," "Chagall", "Pablo Picasso." (Ahmed Ghanem, 2005, p 6).

4. The practical framework

4.1 Take advantage of the children's drawings in the stage of 6:9 years as an input for the development of designs for contemporary metal jewelery:

Was used with some drawing children of this age group (6:9) years and have been redrafted and strip it in innovative configurations through some processors Fine, resulting in some designs that are suitable for use in the formulation of metal jewelery, And was put employ proposal for these designs, and note illustrate the idea of research and the use of metal techniques in line with the nature of these designs

4.2 Works models its implementation by the researcher (inspired by children's drawings):
5. Findings and discussion

1. take advantage of the children’s drawings and which is characterized by simple lines and splendor of the configuration and the innocence of childhood in innovation designs for various metal jewelry techniques as a fertile source of the design.

2. draw inspiration from children's drawings helps to develop the students' creative thinking.

3. Production of metal jewelry inspired by children's drawings (the stage of formality percept) (6-9) years.

4. To provide the technical college students a new entrance in the field of metal jewelry design.

5. necessity the attention of companies and factories producing metal jewelry the technical aspect of the designs so that bear the stamp of the various Egyptian art through children's drawings.

6. recognize on the culture of the child in the Egyptian environment through their drawings and carry meaning.

6. Concluding remarks

Do not stand the artist in dealing with drawing kids at the borders of transportation or analysis or classification, but went beyond that to understand how to employ them and the possibility of benefit from in the field of jewelry metal and solve some problems through technology and techniques Modern Metal, one way linking draw kids and choose designs that can be applied in practice, as well as modulation techniques and appropriate mineral ores and gems, to enrich the contemporary metal jewelry.

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The Media and the Configuration of "Mental Maps": Their Relation to Institutional Homogenization among University Students and Disciplina Entities

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Abstract

This study tests some hypotheses included in the psycho-socio-communicational paradigm, which emphasizes the long term cognitive effects of the media and the role of the psychosocial subject as recipient: the hypothesis of "agenda-setting" (McCombs & Shaw, 1976). The four main objectives were: to elucidate the cognitive effects of the media in university graduates; to detect levels of manipulation and homogenization of their "mental maps"; to ascertain the personality factors that condition differential receptivity ("Filtering" of the news) (151 variables); to determine the degree of impact and incidence of the press in the public's mental patterns and in the university identities. The sample was made up of (N=516) graduates from Cuyo University (Argentina). Quanti-qualitative techniques were complemented: semi-structured survey and interviews). The incidence of psychology and education in the differential construction of "cognitive maps" was confirmed as well as the stronger incidence of the press as regards the impact caused by news and the mental homogenization.

Keywords: Media, Education, Psychology

1. Introduction

This study tests hypotheses included in the psycho-socio-communicational paradigm, which emphasizes the long term cognitive effects of the media and the role of the psychosocial subject as recipient: the hypothesis of "agenda-setting".

The primary objectives were:
1. To elucidate such effects in audiences with different levels of education,
2. To detect levels of manipulation and homogenization of the "mental maps" linked with the centralization of the "fourth power",
3. To ascertain personality factors which condition differential receptivity of the addressees ("filter" of the news) related to the socio-evaluative context.

Two lines interest us: the first emphasizes the effects of the media according to individual psychology, and the second, centered on different parameters linked with psychosocial characteristics of the youths and the messages.

Finally, the central hypotheses are offered, taking into account that forty nine were considered:
1. there would be a marked correlation between the order of importance assigned to the information by the media and that adopted by youths (high incidence of "mental construing"),
2. receptivity of the addressees would vary according to cognitive competence;
3. certain psychological characteristics would render the subject less impressionable to media influence.

2. Method

2.1 Sample

The sample was made up of graduates (N= 516) and drop-outs (N=2157) from eighteen careers in Cuyo University (Argentina) between 1980-1993; research work that has been carried out to date. The sampling was stratified and the start, random, confidence interval was taken at 95% and error margin at 4%.

2.2 Instruments

Quanti-qualitative techniques were complemented: semi structured survey, in-depth interviews, life stories and anecdote
accounts. Also, tests were applied in order to observe the behavior of certain psychosocial variables (such as control locus, stress, aggressiveness, self-esteem). Some of these tests (such as Rotter, CEP, Maudsley's Inventory have been validated here by the author. The analysis was made in two instances: products and processes.

2.3 Procedure

1. Survey of data in files over ten years old.
2. Implementation of the aforementioned techniques. Being a vertical assessment, the follow-up was carried out private addresses, as graduates and drop-outs were no longer in the educational system.
3. The survey of both agendas (those of the media and of the public), setting up of the time frame, took into account the models of the agenda/effect: awareness, relevance and priorities (Becker, Mc Coombs, Mc Leod). Graphic media was also used (six representative national newspapers, displaying different "ideologies"), as well as visual media (television newsreels). The comparison procedure for both agendas and analytical strategy are original.

The range of variables was very wide (N=151), covering psychological, base line, pedagogic/institutional, structural an communicational aspects. Finally, hypotheses and results were compared. The methodological options made it possible to analyze the psychological dimension related to the life stories and academic aptitude measurements. The effects of the intervening variables were recognized by means of discerning interpretation.

3. Results

1. Hypotheses concerning Social, Cognitive and Media Psychology were corroborated.
2. The agenda/effect is observed: youths consider relevant only whatever is so for the media. The remaining information is not recovered nor is able to access the "cognitive maps".
3. A high homogenization of thought in thus confirmed, as a result of the homogenization of news (incremented in quantity by of unified quality).
4. Nevertheless, it is interesting to point out that the strengthening of a certain image of reality is not found in the same for all, not every time, depending on the conjugation of different factors among which education and personality act as decisive filters. In addition, the different readings that can be done in the different programs reveal disciplinary and institutional identities. Results show different interpretations and levels of "filtering" in accordance with self-esteem, control locus, n-ach, fatalism, valuations, stress, apathy, prejudices, among other variables.

4. Conclusion

There is a common axis to the hypotheses on agendas "...nous disent non pas qu'il faut penser, mais a quoi il faut penser", which impinges clearly on our "mental maps". This fact constitutes a source of concern if attention is paid to the uncritical dazzling which the new language prevailingly elicits.

This constitutes a challenge to those who must prepare for a responsible interpretation of images ("visual literacy"). For psychologists, the findings suggest a revision of the task for this, the era of the image.

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Politics, 33, 897-915.
Facebook Use and Gratifications:  
A Study Directed to Determining the Facebook Usage of Generations X and Y in Turkey

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Abstract

According to the uses and gratification theory (UGT), Facebook usage motivations of generation X and generation Y in Turkey may differ. For this reason, the youth’s and middle-aged people’s gratifications obtained from Facebook usage, their similarities and differences have emerged a research problem. Though, Facebook is a very popular social network site (SNS) among generation Y, the motivations of generation X is still a topic of interest. Results of the antecedent research on Facebook usage have been evaluated: Similarities and differences have been detected in the studies of Joinson (2008); Gülnar et. al. (2010); Zhang et. al. (2011); Köseoğlu (2012). Motivations for Facebook use have been determined as: social surveillance, recognition, emotional support, social connect (network extension, network maintenance), entertainment, ease to use, narcissism and self expression. These dimensions have formed the basis of this study. Different from the antecedent research, this research carried out in Turkey has came up with the results that generation X has a motivation called “adapt to new challenges”, and generation Y has a motivation called “freedom and courage” for Facebook usage.

Keywords: Facebook, SNS usage motivations, generations X and Y.

1. Introduction

Online communication tools, especially SNSs have become an important part of daily life. Social networking sites have started to take a central role in users’ life with the increase in the usage of internet and also with the ability to reach these sites via smartphones. SNSs such as Friendster, CyWorld and MySpace allow individuals to present themselves, articulate their social networks, and establish or maintain connections with others. These sites can be oriented towards work-related contexts (e.g., LinkedIn.com), romantic relationship initiation (the original goal of Friendster.com), connecting those with shared interests such as music or politics (Ellison, Steinfield, Lampe, 2007, 1143).

According to Facebook’s statistics, youth’s usage intensity of Facebook is noteworthy. This may be related to youth’s high tendency to use computer-based technologies. Also, the features of SNSs’ own nature explain why Facebook is popular among the youth. Research on SNSs usage have revealed motivations as: social surveillance, recognition, social link, photo sharing, profile editing, creating personal impression, entertainment, creating and developing social network (Köseoğlu, 2012; Gülnar, Balci, Çakır, 2010; et. al., 2011; Joinson, 2008; Kim, Kim, Nam, 2010). Though the motivations and intensity of youth’s usage of SNSs are known, it is thought that research related to determining the motivations of generation X are not sufficient. Considering the traditional structure of generation X in Turkey, it is predicted that there will be different results of their Facebook usage. Discovering the reasons that lie behind Facebook usage of the youth and middle-aged in Turkey is a result aimed to reach with this research.
2. Literature Review

2.1 Web 2.0 According to the Uses and Gratification Theory

In the academic literature, uses and gratification theory (UGT) tries to explain how and why individuals use media. Research carried out following this approach clarify why people are gravitated to media. Main topics of research are as follows (İşık, 2005:64): viewer motifs, obtained and wanted gratifications and their relations, psychological and sociological roots of mass communication tools’ usage and the effects of mass communication tools.

In this approach, there is a two-sided interactive model which gives viewers an active role, rather than a one-way vertical action and reaction model (Yumlu, 1994). Viewer is no more a passive audience and becomes active. And the reasons of viewers’ usage of mass communication tools become a more important issue than what mass communication tools do to viewers.

UGT mentions viewers choices. Viewers choose these tools by thinking of which ones are going to correspond their needs (Türkoğlu, 2007:118). Theorists believe that the UGT framework is suitable for internet studies because of the media-like characteristics and interactive nature of the internet. The most important characteristic and coherence of this approach to internet is that users are active and are using media for certain goals. (Zhang et. al., 2010).

UGT has received some critics due to that individuals do not have an active role in programme establishment, planning and creating content (İşık, 2005:65). However, web 2.0 technology is based on a model where the content of the web is created by the user (Nyland, Marvez & Beck 2007 as cited in Köseoğlu, 2012). Therefore, these critics may need to be examined again because the nature of internet enables user participation in content creation.

2.2 Facebook:

With its gradually increasing number of users, Facebook has become one of the world’s most popular digital communication platforms. Facebook was created by Mark Zuckerberg in 2004 and initially served only to the usage of Ivy League University’s students. Since 2006, its usage has spread all over the world. Like many other SNS’s, Facebook enables users to enhance and develop their network and to join and become a member of different micro communities (Bosch, 2009, 185-186). Facebook has millions of active users. According to the statistics of Facebook, the intensive usage belongs to the youth. Currently, Facebook is not only used by personal users, also companies create and manage Facebook accounts as a part of their marketing communication strategies.

The young user profile of Facebook makes it an effective tool to reach high school and university students (Crymble, 2010). With its high number of young population and increasing number of computer users, Turkey is in the first place among European countries in Facebook usage. Also, Turkey is one of the most important countries in the world in Facebook usage. The age interval of Facebook users in Turkey are as follows: 43% =16-24, 29% = 25-34, 14% = 35-44 and 13% = older than 45 (http://www.socialbakers.com/facebook-statistics/turkey, Socialbakers April Turkish Report). Like in Turkey, the usage of Facebook by young users attracts attention also in the world and this issue becomes a subject for academic studies. Publications about this SNSs which has become a phenomenon in digital communication have increased in a conspicuous way especially since 2008.

2.3 Antecedent Research about Facebook:

Facebook has been analyzed within the topics such as: motivations and gratifications (Zhang et. al., 2011; Joinson, 2008; Kim, Kim, Nam, 2010), social outcomes (Park, Kee, Valenzuela, 2009), privacy, dissemination and control of knowledge (Christofides et. al., 2009), personality factors (Ross et. al. 2009; Gosling et. al., 2010), narcissism (Ryan & Xenos, 2011), self-confidence (Mehdizadeh, 2010), romantic jealousy (Elphinston vd., 2011), social searching and social browsing (Lampe, Elison & Steinfield, 2006), social capital (Vital, Elison & Steinfield, 2008; Yoder & Stutzman, 2011; Valenzuela, Park & Kee, 2009; Lin & Lu, 2011), creating interpersonal impression (Zwier, Araujo, 2010). Likewise, academic studies in Turkey have undertaken the youth, especially university students as Facebook users. These research include: Youth’s Facebook usage habits and gratifications (Göker, Demir, Doğan, 2010), identity sharing and surveillance (Şener, 2013) and user motivations (Köseoğlu, 2012; Gülñar, Balçi, Çakır, 2010).

Youth’s gratifications and motivations of Facebook usage has been a topic of interest for researchers in the world and in Turkey. Dimensions emerged from the existing studies are shown in Table 1 below:
Table I: Studies on Facebook Usage Motivations

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Zhang et. al. (2011) have done a research on people living in Hong Kong from different occupations. 72% of the participants were aged between 21-30. Research objective was to determine the gratifications of Facebook usage based on the UGT. Different from other research, emotional support has emerged as a gratification in this study. While photographs was considered as a different dimension in other studies, in this study it was undertaken within the social surveillance dimension as a behaviour of peeking other’s photos.

Joinson (2008) has determined the gratifications of Facebook use with a research directed to a group of mainly university students with an average age of 25.97. In this study, Facebook applications and games have taken place within the title of content. This title is similar to the entertainment dimension in other studies. Different from other studies, status update emerged as a different dimension. Köseoğlu (2012), has developed a quantitative research scale based on university students’ motivations for Facebook usage. The researcher came up with 6 dimensions after the results of the factor analysis. Among these dimensions, the dimension of ease to use has differences compared to other research. It is about technical features such as: simple usage, speed, simple access to people and being cost-free.

Gülnar et. al. (2010) have came up with seven motivational dimensions in their research on university students’ usage motivations for photo/video sharing sites. This research was focused on the usage of photo and video sharing motivations. The results of this study has similarities with the results of other researchers’ studies. Though, it differentiates from other studies with the narcissism and self expression dimension which came up as the highest motivational factor.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants:

With the objective of determining generation X's Facebook usage motivations, in-depth interviews have been made with five interviewees within an age interval of 45-67. (Participants have been coded as P1, P2, P3, P4, P5). To represent the generation Y, in-depth interviews have been made with six interviewees within an age interval of 20-24. (Participants have been coded as P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11). Choosing the participants were made according to the qualitative research tradition. Hence, criterion sampling method among puposive sampling methods has been chosen. Data reflecting the mean of the worldwide usage were determined as the criteria. Therefore, people who have a minimum of 130 friends and spend at least an average of 56 minutes everyday on Facebook were included in the research (https://www.facebook.com/notet/promoqube/g%C3%Cncel-facebook-i%C3%Crciye-istatistikleri/230108337030128).

3.2 Material:

In antecedent research on youth’s gratifications and motivations of Facebook usage, data have been collected based on quantitative research methods via questionnaires and motivational dimensions have been determined with factor analysis. Considering the similarities and differences in the studies of Joinson (2008); Gülnar et. al. (2010); Zhang et. al. (2011); Köseoğlu (2012). Facebook usage motivations may be listed as follows: social surveillance, recognition, emotional support, social connect (network extension, network maintenance), entertainment, ease to use, narcissism and self expression. These dimensions form the basis of this research. This study is trying to find answers to participants Facebook usage motivations by questions which reflect the dimensions determined in existent research. Therefore, it is
in continuance with existent research in Turkey and the world.

3.3 Procedure:

This research is based on qualitative research method and phenomenology design. This design focuses on issues which we are already aware of, but which we want to have a more in-depth and detailed view about (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011: 72). In phenomenology research, main data collection tool is interview. In accordance with the research design, in-depth interview has been chosen as the data collection tool. Also, to support the interviews, observation notes have been taken during the interviews. Data has been collected in a period of four months (March, April, May, June 2013). Interview questions were developed based on the Facebook usage motivations in the academic literature. A semi-structured interview form was developed by taking the views of an expert in social media. Before starting the interviews, the interview form was tested on a university student and a participant which represents generation X. It was seen that the interview questions were working.

3.4 Validity and Reliability:

Expert review and confirmation of the participants used to purvey internal validity (P1, P6). For external validity, researchers performed detailed description method. To enable internal reliability, strategies indicated by LeCompte and Goetz (1982) were considered. Internal reliability of the research is increased due to the facts that the research was carried out by two researchers and they reached an agreement throughout the process. Besides, Yıldırım and Şimşek (2011) indicate that internal reliability increases in a data analysis based on a conceptual framework which has been previously defined (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011:263). To purvey external reliability, findings recievied from data have been supported by referencing participants’ views.

3.5 Data Analysis:

Content analysis and descriptive analysis techniques were used in the analysis of the data received from in-dept interviews. Before collecting the data, codes and themes were identified in accordance with the conceptual framework. Direct quotes were used in the descriptive analysis “to reflect the views of the people interviewed or observed in a striking way (Yıldırım & Şimşek,2011:224)”.

3.6 Determination of the Themes

3.6.1 Social surveillance:

Social surveillance is trying to get information about people without their knowledge. Social surveillance takes place via Facebook by looking at people’s photos, videos, wall writings and notes.

3.6.2 Recognition:

Recognition indicates feelings of social acceptance to create a state of belonging and approval of a group. Joining and quitting groups on Facebook is a part of this. Facebook users feeling of not wanting to be isolated from other users and friends, connoting their ideas and values in groups are explained with recognition.

3.6.3 Emotional Support:

Applications such as birthday reminder, sending or receiving cards, messages, virtual gifts to users on special days like birthdays are considered as emotional support applications. Facebook presents diverse alternatives for the celebration of special days (celebration messages, gifts, cards, icon applications like kisses and hugs, virtual gifts, etc.). At the same time, Facebook causes a change in the nature of celebrations.
3.6.4 Social Connection

Network extension: Enhancing the network is enabled by Facebook while it makes it easier to have friends. It is easy to have new friends by adding friends or having friends via participated groups (make new friends e.g., simply adding friends or meeting new friends via joining groups). It is much more easier to become friends with people in this media, while it is not possible to become friends with this people in real life because of reasons like being shy. Therefore, it is possible to become friends with people via Facebook, though it is impossible to become friends with these people in real life. In this way, people are increasing the number of their friends and enhancing their network.

Network Maintenance: Facebook enables to keep in touch with old friends. This is enabled by searching old friends, sending them friend requests, posting on old friends’ walls, commenting on their photos and videos and inviting them to events.

3.6.5 Entertainment:

Entertainment is one of the gratifications reached by Facebook usage. It is known that Facebook is used for entertainment reasons such as; spending time, getting away from daily pressure of work or playing games.

3.6.6 Ease To Use:

Facebook’s features of; being a fast, practical, time saving, cost-free communication media and Facebook enabling to reach more than one person at once stand out as motivations for Facebook usage.

3.6.7 Narcissism And Self Expression:

Adding and sharing photos, expecting to get likes, giving value to be easily recognized by others are related to narcissism and self expression.

4. Findings

4.1 Social Surveillance

Generation X: Participants from generation X enjoy looking at other’s profiles and photos. They are not disturbed of other’s seeing their own profile because they do not share very private information. It is notable that participants enjoy social surveillance to reach friends and relatives who they can not see due to long distances. P1, P2 and P5 have indicated that they do social surveillance to learn things about some old friends’ lives. P3 and P4 are doing social surveillance to share and follow opinions. About this issue, P3 indicates: “You see the intensity of people who do or do not think like you. When you see people who share your ideas, it makes you feel stronger, otherwise, it makes you feel lonely”. P3 and P4 also made evaluations and sharing and spreading information. P4 indicated that: “I find it direful that people share their privacy”. Generation X has the fear of being followed by the authority.

Generation Y: The reasons for social surveillance are indicated as curiosity and getting rid of curiosity. All participants indicated that they do social surveillance to reach information about others and they are not disturbed when others reach information about them. P6, P8 and P11 have mentioned the check-in application about surveillance. About this application, P8 cited that: “I realized that I did not know many people in a right way. Looking at the places that they go, made me feel like, what are my friends from the dormitory are doing there, probably they are people like this!”. P11 indicated that social surveillance enables to have ideas about a person’s personality. “You may have an idea about your friends’ personality by looking at their profile, photos, sharings and musics”.

4.2 Recognition

Generation X: P1 and P2 indicated that they are not members to any groups and they do not like activities like creating groups or participating in group discussions. P5 mentioned the functional features of Facebook groups and indicated that he is a member to groups related to his occupation. P3 and P4 are joining groups to maintain their bonds with their past (being members to groups of their universities, hometowns) and not to be isolated from what is going on in daily life. P4
feels that: “I feel like a part of me is missing when I can not participate in group discussions”. P3 indicated that he wants to become a more active computer user: “A part of me is missing when I can not participate. I am used to the sharings in social media”.

**Generation Y**: Members of generation Y have a functional approach to Facebook groups. All participants are members of school and class groups. They have sharings about exams, course notes and projects. Participants find it alluring that many people can be reached within a short time via these groups. They think that it avoids data smog. In answer to the question: “Do you feel isolated when you do not join groups?”, P7, P10, P11 indicated their views about participating and being active in groups as follows. P7: “Feeling the state of belonging directly decreases. I feel bad because I can not reach the information. I need to reach those information”. P10: “I feel restless, in no time I go online and check”. P11: “I wish I were there and feel like something is missing. I would like to support people who share my ideas or stand against the people who have opposite opinions”.

**4.3 Emotional Support**

**Generation X**: Following speacial days for people and having reminders about these days are found functional. They find it as a good feature that Facebook makes it easier to remember these days. All participants indicated that they write on other’s walls to celebrate their special days. Instead of sending virtual gifts, they prefer writing their own sentences. They expect other’s to write on their walls and give importance to this. Though, they indicated that they are not sad when they are not celebrated. P5: “I would not think that he/she forgot me, it is not a criteria. It doesn’t disturb me if he/she writes or not. But I also take a look at who writes. Last year in my birthday, I looked at who wrote on my wall and of course I was happy that people were writing on my wall”.

**Generation Y**: Though they like it that special days are being remembered, they don’t consider the celebrations via Facebook as special. P6: “I find it very silly that people who would not celebrate my birthday in real life are writing on my wall. It doesn’t have a meaning when they write on my wall”. P9: “I do not find it correct that people who are near you celebrate special days via social media. This creates fake relationships, therefore I do not find it right that people who are near me celebrate me via Facebook”. P8 and P9 indicated that for this reason, they close their walls when their birthdays are coming. It is expected from good friends to call. Hence, they can identify who really give importance to them and who don’t. P11 stated this feature of Facebook as functional and mentioned that celebrating special days and creating events make it easier to reach people.

**4.4 Social Connect**

**Generation X**: They react negatively when people who are not met in real life add them. P2: “I immediataly decline if I see a random friend request”. P3: “I do not trust and I do not approve that young people are doing this”. P4: “He/she doesn’t know me, why would we be friends?” P5: “If I have a certain friendship in real life, I would become friends, if he/she is just a friend of a friend, I wouldn’t”. Participants are using Facebook as a tool to search and find old friends and continue their relationships. P1 has reached a friend in USA who he hasn’t been seeing for thirty years. “I got really emotional, it was very special for me, I saw his/her wedding pictures, I felt like I have actually seen him/her”. P2 has evaluated this as keeping up with daily life and seeing who is doing what. P3: “I feel satisfied, I got to see who is doing what in my daily life”. P4: “It gives me great joy when I find friends and relatives who I haven’t seen in like forty years”. P5: “I searched for my old friends, instead of writing on their walls, I sent them private messages”.

**Generation Y**: Thinks that adding people who haven’t been met has sexual connotations. P6: “Generally it is for sexual reasons, it is as silly as asking a woman to meet you on the street”. P7: “Probably it is made for sexual reasons. 90% takes place for sexual reasons”. P8: “By adding people they do not know, they may be wanting to increase the number of their friends. I think this is an ego. Sometimes I may add people to take part in different networks related to my occupation. P10 (female): “It bothers me more when women I don’t know add me. I think that they are fake profiles. Why would that woman add me?” P11: “I have done it before, specially finding girlfriends and adding them. It is easier to find and add girlfriends than in real life”. P6 has made a point about contiuing old bonds: “Anyway, this is the reason why Facebook was established”. P7: “You are not face to face, this is a limited communication”. P8: “All of my old friends are on my list. Many likes and comments take place”.

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4.5 Entertainment

**Generation X:** Generation X sees the entertainment theme of Facebook as a lack of time, though they have been using it as well. Also, they have mentioned that, applications for entertainment sometimes may be put in place of real life, some things which you can not live in real life may also be lived there. Therefore, people need to be careful. P1: “Yes I used to play a lot and they used to call me ‘wordy queen’. Also my son is playing games. I love games and entertainment. Actually, Facebook is like life. Everything happens. Friendship, entertainment, serious events take place. People share feelings like their loses and get supported. I see this as a reflection of life and definitely see it as necessary. But I haven’t lost my bond with real life. Social life is in real life. I stand against young people who totally dedicate their lives there. They have to be both in virtual and real life, like I am (laughs). I consider it as a dangerous sickness if he/she can not communicate and find all friends on Facebook”.

**Generation Y:** For generation Y, entertainment applications on Facebook are seen as tools to enhance social network. Generation Y also tries to have contact with the opposite sex via these applications. Generation Y thinks that many entertainment elements are all in one media and see Facebook as an important tool to spend time for their generation. P11: “I may say that Facebook is the only one right now. First, we started looking for fun things in other sites. But you can see all sharings in other sites just on one platform via Facebook. This is very important for me. You gradually get lazy. You think like why would I be busy with 4-5 sites when there is an easier one?” P8: “To tell the truth, I play games on Facebook for spending time. I play games when I am on the bus. It is totally for spending time and fun”.

4.6 Narcissism And Self Expression

**Generation X:** Facebook is a tool to express yourself. Generation X thinks that generation Y uses Facebook as a status symbol. They indicate that generation Y is doing that to bring themselves to forefront and satisfy their egos. Also, it has been indicated by generation X that creating social network and friend pressure is an important factor for Facebook usage. About this, P4 has indicated: “I want people to look like how they really are. I can not accept when they show themselves as someone who they actually are not. They are trying to make this but I do not really support this behaviour. I do not understand how to create an image on social media”.

**Generation Y:** Generation Y has indicated that abstract images are created via Facebook. This abstract image is coded as a status symbol for the generation Y. It has been detected that generation Y wants to show themselves in a different way on Facebook. Therefore, there are differences between their real personality and virtual personality. This is mainly made by choosing photos to be uploaded. Interviews have showed that generation Y expects their sharings to get likes from their friends. Especially, they attach emotional significance to getting likes from people who are special or close to them.

4.7 Ease to Use

**Generation X:** No findings have been reached that Facebook being cost-free, enabling to communicate in an easy and fast way have any significant meaning to generation X. Generation X’s first Facebook usage includes feelings such as misunderstanding and surveillance. It is detected that, after a period of usage experience, Facebook’s features of being cost-free, enabling to communicate in an easy and fast way create a sense of being able to control this network. While members of generation X first had a guarded approach to Facebook usage, they got rid of this after a while. It has been observed that generation X daily logs in to Facebook. P4: “I was scared of using something without knowing it. I got rid of this fear by taking courses. I could not quit it after I have started using it. My niece says that, I have made a fast entrance to Facebook and really created an effect on Facebook!”.

**Generation Y:** Generation Y has indicated that Facebook is a social network which gets more user-friendly when you use it more. They stated that Facebook is highly prefered due to the facts that it is fast, cost-free and user-friendly. Also, it was detected that generation Y has a tendency to connect to Facebook via mobile tools, because of that Facebook is easy to use and fast. This results in generation Y’s constant surveillance of Facebook. In addition to the existent usage motivations in the literature, new usage motivations were defined in this research which was carried out to define the Facebook usage motivations of generation X and generation Y in Turkey.
4.8 A New Usage Motivation for Generation X: Adapt to New Challenges

According to participants from the generation X, usage of Facebook is a way to adapt to new, current technology. Participants have stated that they create Facebook accounts in order to abide to the time and not to break away from life. 3 of the participants from the generation X are retired after an active worklife. Facebook usage creates their social bond with their network. They are using Facebook in an active way. They are keeping in touch with their children’s, nephews’, nieces’, even grandchildren’s lives. P2: “I hear news about people I know, look at the photos of my grandchildren who are far from me. I am using it as a source of information. You should not break away from daily life. I am always questioning: Who did what? Are there pictures of my grandchildren?” P5 also draws attention to not to break away from daily life. “One should not break away from daily life. There is a fact like this in our age, so I should know something about it”. P4 stated that he is following his children and grandchildren and warning them. P3 said that his meeting with computer was quite late. Because of this, he can not type fast and follow his communication with his university friends. He indicates his will to adapt to technology with these words: “I feel sad when I can not participate by typing, I wish I could be a more active participant”.

4.9 A New Usage Motivation for Generation Y: Freedom and Courage

Generation Y denotes the importance of being away from society’s pressure especially when communicating with the opposite sex. They feel more free and brave while on Facebook. They can communicate easily with people with whom normally they are shy to communicate with. They feel a higher self-esteem and can act more bravely. On the other hand, while it is possible to be humiliated or degraded in the society, Facebook decreases these disadvantages. It has been noted young people have a fear of being degraded because of rejection. On Facebook, this emotion takes place only between two people. P6: “Things one can not do on the streets can be done on social media. People gain courage. Even if you get degraded on social media, you may close your account. But it is possible to be degraded among the society on the street. Actually, the emotion is the same but it affects people in a different way. On social media, you are far away from society’s pressure and you are free. There is either pressure or the fear to get in communication. While rejection creates a serious depression in real life, it does not cause that much of an effect on Facebook. There is a line between these two”. P11: “Internet creates an over self-esteem. People may talk to others who they would not be able to talk in real life. You become very relaxed and think like what would I loose on Facebook. Normally, eye contact is important and physical reactions are effective. Since you don’t see or hear the negative comments physically on Facebook, it doesn’t affect you. The best part is that, you are talking with someone and even if he/she says something negative, there is nobody to see or hear, so there is no risk of being humiliated”.

Due to the fact that Facebook is based on written communication, it abrogates disadvantages for people who are not good in body language or verbal communication. P7: “You may have advantages if you are a shy person. Normally, you may not be able to create conversation, but you may reach a person on social media by writing”. P9: “Courage may decrease on face to face communication. You may be excited or you may totally freeze up while talking. But on social media you are just writing and this does not necessitate a lot of courage”.

The situation is considered to be fake if the communication via Facebook is not reflected to real life. K10: “There was a guy in our class who used to like me, I added him because we had many mutual friends. He suddenly started to like all my photos and write comments. But he did not even look at my face at school. We did not even say hi to each other. This situation really annoyed me and I removed him from my friends”.

Participants from the generation Y have indicated that it is more free to communicate via Facebook and they especially underlined the fact that Facebook makes it easy to communicate with the opposite sex. This issue has been brought forward from generation Y and similar topics have been repeated. Therefore, a new category named “freedom and courage” has evolved. “Freedom and courage” is a new motivation for Facebook usage based on this research directed to generation Y in Turkey.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study was directed to investigating Facebook usage motivations of generation X and generation Y in Turkey. Results of this study support the results of antecedent research. Dimensions detected by antecedent quantitative studies were directed to detecting generation Y’s Facebook usage motivations. However, this study defines how these motivations eventuate for generation X and Y. Content analysis and descriptive analysis were applied to the data
received from qualitative in-depth interviews. As a result of the analysis, two different usage motivations were determined for generation X and Y. “Adapt to new challenges” for generation X and “Freedom and courage” for generation Y. Below, the differentiation in Facebook usage motivations are mentioned within the case of each motivation.

**Social surveillance:** Social surveillance is enjoyed both by generation X and Y, but the reasons for social surveillance differs. Generation X conduct social surveillance in order to find their friend from childhood and teenage years, get information about their lives and to keep in touch with relatives who live far away. Generation Y is oriented to social surveillance because of curiosity. Social surveillance is more directed to newly met people in new networks. For example, social surveillance to friends in the dormitory takes place via following or checking on people from the opposite sex. By social surveillance, generation Y forms opinions about people’s personalities in their daily lives.

**Recognition:** Concerning this motivation, interviewees participation to Facebook groups was questioned. Generation Y prefers joining these groups because of functionality. All participants have indicated that they are members to these groups because these groups enable to reach people related to a topic, to get news about the school and class and to share course notes. Three participants from generation Y have indicated their worries about missing the subjects and discussions in groups and about these they used expressions such as “having distress and feeling discomfort”. Similarly, 2 participants from generation X have used the expression “feeling of deficiency”. It is thought that, these individuals are trying to continue their bonds with the society via Facebook, due to the fact that they have been retired after a long work life. It is detected that generation X becomes members to groups for emotional benefits while generation Y is oriented to groups for more logical reasons. Asking questions just about group memberships would not be enough to explain recognition motivation. Infact, as well as becoming members to groups, becoming a member to Facebook explains recognition motivation.

**Emotional support:** Generation X finds it functional that Facebook reminds users about special days. They celebrate their friends via Facebook and they enjoy being celebrated as well. They give importance to receiving celebration messages on their walls but they do not reach any conclusions even if they do not receive celebrations. Generation Y clearly thinks that celebrations made via Facebook are not sincere. They consider having a lots of writings on their walls as “wall dirtiness” and they prefer to get celebrations only from people who are close to them. Users who do not like to have writings on their walls and close their walls while they have an upcoming birthday. This is a notable emotional reaction. It is thought that some behaviours are characterized as not being real, meaningless and insincere due to the fact that there is an intensity of Facebook usage among generation Y.

**Social connect:** Generation X has a negative reaction to people who do not know eachother but add them on Facebook just to enhance their network. They are giving great importance to Facebook enabling to carry on the bond with their past and reach old friends. Both female and male participants of generation Y have indicated that, adding people who are not known in real life has sexual connotations. Male participants indicated that they do not add people that they do not know because of that it will create misunderstandings due to sexual connotations. Female participants have mentioned that it is important to get the friend request from people they know. Though participants from generation Y have indicated that they give importance to finding old friends and keeping up their relationships, they did not attribute that much importance to it as much as the participants from generation X.

**Entertainment:** Generation X is reactive against entertainment applications on Facebook. According to this generation, these applications are a lack of time. Although, they are also using these applications. Moreover, they sometimes have mentioned that these applications can take the place of real life and therefore people should be careful about these. Diverse from the generation X, generation Y enjoys this function of Facebook and infact sometimes finds it necessary. According to generation Y, these applications present opportunities to enhance social network and communicate with the opposite sex. Also, generation Y sees Facebook as an important tool to spend spare time due to the existence of these applications. According to generation Y, the entertainment factor of Facebook is important for users because Facebook presents its users many entertainment applications in just one media. Different from generation X, generation Y considers Facebook as an important entertainment tool, rather than a lack of time.

**Narcissism and self expression:** While generation X considers Facebook as a tool to express themselves, generation Y considers it as a tool of virtual reality and image establishment. According to generation X, generation Y codes Facebook as a status symbol and hence satisfies their egos. Therefore, compared to generation X, bringing self to forefront lies on the basis of Facebook usage of generation Y. Compared to generation X, generation Y is more narcissist in the usage of Facebook. Generation Y’s will to creating abstract images, getting likes, trying out to bring themselves to front and sharing photos with this aim are examples of generation Y’s narcissist behaviours. This behaviour of generation Y can not be understood by generation X but clearly it is not approved by them. While differences between virtual and real personalities are not huge for generation X, there is a huge gap between generation Y’s virtual and real
personalities.

Ease to use: This theme has different meanings for generation X and Y and causes diverse behaviour. By courtesy of Facebook’s ease to use, members of generation X have defeated their fears of being misunderstood and social surveillance. The most important reason for this is that they had a belief of having the control in using Facebook, because of that they could use it easily. These kind of risks did not emerge for generation Y, due to the low level of privacy feeling. The ease to use of Facebook and being fast and cost-free, has resulted for generation Y with the behaviour of carrying on their relationships and permanently being connected to this network. Because of its ease to use, generation Y also can use Facebook via mobile tools without being stuck to a certain environment. Thereby, they can do social surveillance and carry on their relationships.

Adapt to new challenges: This motivation of Facebook usage only has emerged for generation X. Using Facebook and communicating via Facebook is seen as a necessity of the current time. Their motivation for being aware of and following what is happening, has emerged significantly. It is seen that, they are also watching their children’s, nephews’, nieces’, grandchildrens’ lives, even they control them and warn them via Facebook. According to the participants, there is a new era in communication and to catch up with it, it is necessary to be present on social media.

Freedom and courage: This motivation of Facebook usage only has emerged for generation Y. It is seen that generation Y feels society pressure while communicating with the opposite sex and Facebook is an important medium which abrogates this pressure. On the other hand, communication barriers like being shy while communicating face to face, do not occur on Facebook. Generation Y has stated that they feel a higher self-esteem and courage while communicating with the opposite sex via Facebook. Therefore, this has turned into an important motivation for Facebook usage.

Table II: Generation X and Y’s Facebook Usage Motivations in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Generation X</th>
<th>Generation Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social surveillance</td>
<td>Emotional benefits -Social surveillance of old friends and relatives who are far away. -Finding friends from childhood and teenage years, collecting information about their lives. -Carrying on with their relationships with relatives who are far away.</td>
<td>Finding it functional -Social surveillance of newly met (partner) people. -Collecting information about others, reaching evaluations about their personalities. -Following opposite sex’s relationship status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Emotional benefits -Being members to groups of their schools and hometown. -Seing it as a tool to keep on with their relationship with the society.</td>
<td>Finding it functional -Being members to school and class groups to get benefit like course notes, comments on exam questions, ect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional support</td>
<td>Finding it functional -Finding it functional that Facebook reminds users of special days. -Celebrating other’s special days, having expectations of being celebrated on special days and being sad when there are no celebrations.</td>
<td>Emotional reactions -Thinking that celebrations via Facebook are not special. Finding them fake, insincere. -Not celebrating everybody’s special days. -Writing to the walls of the one’s who they are close to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social connect</td>
<td>Feeling reactive -Feeling reactive to people who send friend requests though they do not know each other. Not approving this behaviour. Emotional benefits -Enjoying the continuance of their bonds with the past. -Feeling emotional about this and putting it in the place of physical contact.</td>
<td>Feeling shy/having worries -Having worries about adding people who they do not know because of the fact that it may have sexual connotations. -Thinking that increasing the number of friends is about ego. -Seing it as a social capital. Emotional benefits -Giving importance to reaching old friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network extension</td>
<td>Finding it functional -Enhancing social network. -Building relations with the opposite sex. -Way of spending spare time -Being able to reach many entertainment applications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network maintenance</td>
<td>Feeling reactive -Seing it as a lack of time, having a negative reaction but also using it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Finding it functional -Enhancing social network. -Building relations with the opposite sex. -Way of spending spare time -Being able to reach many entertainment applications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Narcissism and self expression | Presenting the existent reality  
- A tool to express self.  
- Having negative reactions to virtual reality and putting self to forefront.  
- Rejecting to use it as a status symbol. | Creating and presenting a virtual reality  
- Expectation of getting likes.  
- The will to create virtual reality.  
- The will to present self in a different way.  
- The difference between virtual reality and personality.  
Self-control in photo sharing. |
| Ease to use | Feeling shy/having worries  
- Fear of using it wrongly. Fear of being misunderstood. | Finding it functional  
- The need to stay connected all the time.  
- The will to connect via mobile tools.  
- The need to see social network. |
| Freedom and courage | | Emotional benefits  
- Freedom in communication.  
- Creating courage and self-esteem.  
- Getting rid of society’s pressure.  
- Decrease in the fear of being humiliated and degradation. |
| Adapt to new challenges | Adaptation and following the agenda  
- The need to adapt to the new era.  
- Surveillance of friends and relatives lives.  
- The will to not to break away from the agenda. | via only one media. |

References


Drawings and Inscriptions on Pottery Naqada Civilizations and Benefit from them in Enriching the Roofs of Contemporary Ceramic Pots

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Abstract

Naqada civilization dates back to prehistoric times in Egypt. Historians divide that civilization into three historical phases where civilization took Naqada about 1,500 years before the first family. It is a civilization Naqada first (about 4500 to 3500 BC) and the civilization of Naqada II (about 3500 to 3200 BC) and civilization Naqada third (about 3200 to 3000 BC) and was characterized by these civilizations progress pottery and diversity of decorative elements and themes that were recorded on their surfaces which express what distract them in their daily lives as a character fishing and agriculture. Fberawa in the use of drawings and engravings bottles decorated pottery drawing humans, animals and plants and geometric shapes. The research aims to make use of drawings and engravings used by the ancient Egyptians in the civilization of Naqada through the study of personality and semantic expression used by the ancient Egyptians in the use of drawings and engravings and studying different styles of techniques used and bringing it to the entrances experimental variety to enrich the roofs of ceramic pots in a contemporary style for the development of artistic and cultural heritage of the artist.

Keywords: Drawings and inscriptions; pottery; Naqada civilizations; contemporary ceramic pots;

1. Introduction

Naqada is a town on the west bank of the Nile in the Egyptian governorate of Qena. It was known in Ancient Egypt as Nubt and in classical antiquity as Ombos (pron.: /ˈɒmbɒs/). Its name derives from ancient Egyptian nub, meaning gold, on account of the proximity of gold mines in the Eastern Desert. Naqada comprises some villages such as Tukh, Khatara, Danfiq and Zawayda. It stands near the site of a necropolis from the prehistoric, pre-dynastic period around 4400–3000 BC. Naqada has given its name to the widespread Naqada culture that existed at the time, here, and at other sites including el Badari, Gerzeh and Nekhen (Hierakonopolis). The large quantity of remains from Naqada have enabled the dating of the entire culture, throughout Egypt and environs. The Naqadan culture took over from the Badarian around 4500 BC and became arguably the most important prehistoric culture in Upper Egypt. It is named after the city of Naqada where many of the archaeological evidence for the period was found. The Naqada period was first divided by the British Egyptologist William Flinders Petrie, who explored the site in 1894, into three sub-periods:

- Naqada I: Amratian (after the cemetery near El-Amrah).
- Naqada II: Gerzean (after the cemetery near Gerzeh).
- Naqada III: Semainean (after the cemetery near Es-Semaina).

Petrie's chronology was superseded by that of Werner Kaiser in 1957. Kaiser's chronology began c. 4000 BC, but the modern version begins slightly earlier, as follows:

- Naqada II a-b-c (about 3500–3200 BC) this culture represented throughout Egypt first marl pottery, and metalworking.
- Naqada III a-b-c (about 3200–3000 BC) more elaborate grave goods, cylindrical jars, writing.

2. Literature review

This section deals with the definition of civilization Naqada and the importance of the inscriptions and drawing and types of in Naqada civilization on pottery through the theoretical framework and practical experience that shows how to take
2.1 Definition Naqada

Naqada is a term used a lot in Predynastic chronology in ancient Egyptian civilization and chronicle about 3400 BC. Naqada is a place located on the west bank of the Nile, around 25 km north of Luxor and attributed to the village of Naqada in Qena current and found effects in the "Naqada" Albulas - Umrah - Lapidus - Cape, and part of the civilization of Nubia and is divided into two phases, "Naqada initial" age "the proportion of Nag Umrah near Balliana and the second Naqada "civilization جرزة" the proportion of villages Ayat center in Beni Suef current (Nemat Ismail Allam 1988, p 24).

Archaeologists began work at Naqada over a century ago; namely Professor Sir W. M. Flinders Petrie and James Quibell of University College London, and Professor John Garstang of Liverpool University. What they found was evidence of an early culture that emerged near the start of the early Predynastic. This culture persisted throughout the predynastic and stretched as far south as Nubia (Hemamein of Naqada I period), and is referred to as Naqadadian culture. Naqada III is the last phase of the Naqada culture of ancient Egyptian prehistory, dating approximately from 3200 to 3000 BC (Shaw 2000, p. 479). It is the period during which the process of state formation, which had begun to take place in Naqada II, became highly visible, with named kings heading powerful polities. Naqada III is often referred to as Dynasty 0 or Protodynastic Period (Shaw 2000, p. 479) to reflect the presence of kings at the head of influential states, although, in fact, the kings involved would not have been a part of a dynasty. They would more probably have been completely unrelated and very possibly in competition with each other. Kings' names are inscribed in the form of serekhs on a variety of surfaces including pottery and tombs. Later Kaiser (Kaiser 1957) refined the sequence dates and divided the Naqada period into several Stufen (steps = phases).

2.2 Naqada I a-b-c (about 4000 - 3500 BC)

The other name of this period, is named after the cemetery near El-Amrah. The period is noted for its black-topped and painted pottery. Black-topped pottery was however more common at badari, and would gradually grow less popular through naqada1. This culture dominated an area from matmar in the north (south of modern Minya) and khor bahan (south of aswan). One interesting characteristic of naqada1, is that war and hunt is represented on ceramics and other objects as dual theme. There are only few and very poor remains of dwellings from this period. Houses are believed to have been built from a mixture of mud, wood and reed. The only surviving structure from this period has been found at hierakonpolis.

2.3 Naqada II a-b-c (about 3500 - 3200 BC)

This period is named after the grave at Gerzeh which contained 57 richly equipped graves built by mud-brick. It is noted for the first marl pottery, usually with ochre-brown paintings on beige background. Motifs were either geometrical or representational. The most popular depiction with representational art were boats. Graves built by mud-brick. It is noted for the first marl pottery, usually with ochre-brown paintings on beige background motifs were either geometrical or representational. The most popular depiction with representational art were boats. The period is also noted for its metalworking, especially with copper. Through naqada 2 copper tools replaced stone tools. Also silver and gold became increasingly used. During naqada2, the macehead changed from disc-shaped to pear-shaped to pear-shaped and also developed into an asymbol of power. Throughout pharaonic Egypt it would be the kings weapon. Naqada 2 is a culture which seems to have spread all across Egypt, apparently by conquest or the establishment of military and trade strongholds. It was during Naqada2 that the techniques of working both soft and hard stones were developed, techniques which would be of central importance during ancient Egyptian civilizations. This culture advanced both south and north from the area of naqada 1, It reached the eastern edge of the Nile Delta and Nubian Territories, represented by what is referred to as Nubian A Group. In this period, graves become better equipped. Often, multiple burials were used, sheltering up to 5 individuals. The South Town of naqada became the most advanced of Egypt's towns, fortified by walls, and a large mud-brick structure measuring 30 times 50 metres was built here, possibly a royal palace.

2.4 Naqada III a-b-c (about 3200 - 3000 BC)

Naqada III is the last phase of the Naqada culture of ancient Egyptian prehistory, dating approximately from 3200 to
3000 BC (Shaw 2000, p. 479). It is the period during which the process of state formation, which had begun to take place in Naqada II, became highly visible, with named kings heading powerful polities. Naqada III is often referred to as Dynasty 0 or Protodynastic Period (Shaw 2000, p. 479) to reflect the presence of kings at the head of influential states, although, in fact, the kings involved would not have been a part of a dynasty. They would more probably have been completely unrelated and very possibly in competition with each other. Kings' names are inscribed in the form of serekhs on a variety of surfaces including pottery and tombs. The Protodynastic Period in ancient Egypt was characterised by an ongoing process of political unification, culminating in the formation of a single state to begin the Early Dynastic Period. Furthermore, it is during this time that the Egyptian language was first recorded in hieroglyphs. There is also strong archaeological evidence of Egyptian settlements in southern Kanaan during the Protodynastic Period, which are regarded as colonies or trading entrepôts. State formation began during this era and perhaps even earlier. Various small city-states arose along the Nile. Centuries of conquest then reduced Upper Egypt to three major states: Thinis, Naqada, and Nekhen. Sandwiched between Thinis and Nekhen, Naqada was the first to fall. Thinis then conquered Lower Egypt. Nekhen's relationship with Thinis is uncertain, but these two states may have merged peacefully, with the Thinite royal family ruling all of Egypt. The Thinite kings are buried at Abydos in the Umm el-Qa'ab cemetery.

Naqada III extends all over Egypt and is characterized by some sensational firsts:

- The first hieroglyphs
- The first graphical narratives on palettes
- The first regular use of serekhs
- The first truly royal cemeteries
- Possibly, the first irrigation.

2.5 Pottery importance Nakada

Pottery importance as a source in identifying details of the daily life of the people in the ancient times and the manifestation of the progress it through the decoration on pottery can be identified artistic taste of the peoples of the Arabian Peninsula and the extent to which it arrived from the evolution of art. It is through topics decorative, which has Psiv a manufacturer on the pottery in the civilization of Naqada can be identified and inferred habit Social and were to play rituals in their daily lives and to identify the kinds of animals, birds and plants that have been used as components decorative and the possibility to identify the quality of use of the Pots and port them fees and inscriptions, both for the purpose of religious or frilly as the decoration on the pottery a prominent role in the identification of indigenous culture and history and the extent of progress and stability.

3. Research methodology

3.1 Theoretical framework

3.1.1 Effect of the environment on pottery inscriptions Nakada

the fact that this can be merely an act of nature spotted by ancient Egyptians and was used as a decorative motif just. This assumption seems to be very reasonable especially that ancient Egyptians were nature lovers, and imitated nature in many scenes and relieves across the Egyptian history. (Lamia elhadede p. 37)

3.1.1.1 Vegetable carvings

1. Jar depicting plant or tree Naqada II (3650-3300 BCE pottery predynastic Egypt
2. Jar depicting plant or tree Hierakonpolis tomb Naqada II (3650-3300 BCE) predynastic Egypt
3. Petrie Museum. Predynastic (Gerzean) Naqada II.
We find that a manufacturer in civilization Nakada used forms of plant derived from the environment surrounding it where pictures plants that are deemed especially palm leaves, which were used as a decorative symbolizes the sun particularly the use of Palm Sunday, which probably looks like the sun (Jawad Ali 1993, p 61.) And there are many of crockery and fishing boats that carry floral decoration of the environment in the civilization of Naqada. Use the manufacturer in decorating pottery in the civilization of Naqada second leaf cactus that had used this element are few and may be due to the preference of other elements such as palm has the code by the Egyptians to stay and immortality to retaining Bkhadrth for long periods (Ahmed Said 2002, p 47).

3.1.1.2 Animal carvings

1. Beaker with Nile River Scene Early Naqada II 3650-3500 BCE pottery predynastic Egypt
2. Jar with Boat Processions and Animals in Landscape Naqada II (3650-3300 BCE) pottery predynastic Egypt
3. Jar with Flamingos Naqada II (3650-3300 BCE pottery predynastic Egypt

Influenced by the ancient Egyptian in Nakada civilization including surrounded by the environment, animals and birds that appeared in the diversity of animal decorative elements of in Nakada civilization and represented in the crocodile, hippopotamus, giraffe, dog deer, antelope and deer Knew deer, antelope and elk in ancient Egypt since the beginning of the families featured in the inscriptions of cemeteries in wildlife and views the process of hunting and deer meat was delicious meat granulocytes Maher Masri was in the filming of his movement and TINT during the fishing operation and give chase. Photographed some of the animals and reptiles Egyptian environment in ancient Egyptian art and those animals hippo and crocodile reptiles, where they found two examples of pottery and fees which are attributed to Naqada II era and the beginning of the third. In spite of the scarcity of filming the crocodile in the rock carvings, but that it was spread filmed in fees Pottery Naqada initial alone or with a hippo or with a human and then disappeared filmed in the era of Naqada II but re-emerged in the era of Naqada third. (Lamia elhadede 8:00 37). The reverence for some of the animals to normal deals in the order of things Like a snake and frog Kkaúnin Bermaúaan they could live in water and land together, and their ability to Altkaúr and renewal, it has been observed that the snake can change his skin, they think that he was born again and the Frog is Balbaat winter and then come back and multiplies dramatically overshummer and other attributes and features that distinguish each object and sanctified Egyptians these objects since pre-dynastic holy ancient Egyptians these objects and photographed Mabdathm in images of objects Authority pure or body double or vehicle between Okthelr of an object that is, between humans and animals or humans and birds or withsome insects and reptiles (). But they were keen keen to have this installation or blending in terms of acceptable art form. Has appeared evident in the drawings and inscriptions on pottery in Naqada II era. (Abdel Halim Nur al-Din.p.9 ) Ostrich known in Egypt since the pre-dynastic period was from wild animals that received the attention of the ancient Egyptian, where he was taken advantage of down comforters, and appeared ostrich fee decorations and inscriptions on pottery.

3.1.1.3 Inscriptions semi Engineering

Jar with Small Spirals Early Naqada II (3650-3500 BCE) Pottery Predynastic Egypt
Use the ancient Egyptian in the civilization of Naqada first inscriptions semi engineering drawing and engraving on the pottery of lines of all kinds either civilization Nakada second was rarely the use of geometric shapes and a high incidence of images natural objects and does not support the artist where a straight line, but was used as the line of corrugated and spiral (Heba Mustafa 1993) and Leary Flandrepettra that the use of the people of Naqada II ancient Egyptian civilization for their use of these lines in Zacharvhm on their vessels pottery may have to use these forms link tenets of religion or perhaps these lines and formations may symbolize the owners or creators of the kind of deities or political situation in their time (Abdel Aziz Saleh, 1987, p 58). these decorations may be due to the impact of the local environment of the artist example corrugated line may suggesting artist Bmgeorh for water.

3.1.1.4 Drawing ships

1. Muscat composite horizontal photographer at the bottom of the first dish of Nakada Petrie, F., Prehistoric Egypt, pl.XXIII:2,XV:49
2. The use of a fishing boat in the hippo on the first of Nakada Palette Stockholm Museum
3. Large Jar with Boat Processions and Animals in Landscape Metropolitan Museum of Art

The boats were an essential means of transport products and goods as the Egyptians used to transport the remains of their dead from one bank to another and from one site to another. She also appeared private boats sacred religious ceremonies and rituals at least since the late pre-dynastic period and used boats fishing in the work of both river fishing or hippo. Does not rule out the use of vessels in maritime navigation since Naqada II era. Also found archaeological evidence of the use of boats in the naval battles since the late pre-dynastic period at least. We find as well as images within rock drawings it has become a major theme in charge of these models in the pottery they give us an integrated three-dimensional form to boats during that period (Adams, B. and Cialowicz, K.M 1997, pp. 36 ). Bodies were boats of subjects depicted on pottery white-fees in the first civilization Nakada. Despite the prevalence fees method of intersecting lines in this day and age, people Nakada was characterized accurately observation and dexterity in the filming of the boats. The most photographed boats of this era and curved side only. The images Boats this stage distinctive image of a boat drawn by the author in the development of both sides of the whole, and the image of another boat drawn by the author in Muscat horizontal full as if the artist has drawn as he stood on the beach, drawing parts phenomenon above the water just did not draw its parts missing. And operates a composite image in harmony bottom of the dish . Characterized most of the first boats Nakada their curved surface, and is equal to the forefront with the rear height, and filmed the oars on both sides. At the end of the first era of Nakada boats appeared containing compartment or two above the surface, and the presence of a branch plant or a tree branch probably represent the newspaper in the forefront of that palm something about rose hips(salh .p136. Photos of boats on the second Pottery Nakada a red fees. It was not a picture boat on pottery one of the topics pictures only, but the image is the central and main pottery, and it is around distributed the rest of the images Adamic, animal and plant engineering and other decorative elements other form - perhaps indicating frequent filming boats on they started to play a major role in the lives of Egyptians, as evidenced by the increasing need of the Egyptians since that period, in addition to the frequent use of them. Maintained boats Nakada second characteristics old appeared in Nakada first, including filming two compartment for each compound was probably from the stems of the jungle and plants Scheduled (Badawy, A.p4 )This was chapels either with a flat roof or a semi-circular, and highlights it sometimes parties sticks woven palm leaves used in their construction. Often separates the Almqsortin the corridor and sometimes no connection between them from the top. Perhaps these cabins allocated for boat owners or VIP in public boats, and the precious cargo in transport boats and boats retained second Nakada also the existence of a plant or tree branch in the prow, which appeared in the pictures of boats since the first Nakada endings. Some felt that they represent long sift newspaper was probably shade composite navigator who was sitting underneath, plus they give a share of the decorations on their boats. Appeared pottery in the civilization of Naqada bear ornament on the ship, has spread these decoration on pottery pre-dynastic
ancient Egyptian civilization draw ships on pottery and lines of corrugated represent water (Salim Hassan 2001, pp. 85.86) and the pottery of the era Nakada Central Charges boats and provided each Bakmrat on Stah·a, and still intended to obscure and probably accounted for ships funeral to cross the Nile and the drawings of palm fronds, and topped probably represent the symbols of deities Egyptian may be referring to the city or the port to which it belongs (Jaroslav Cherni 1951, p 7). Some see in this branch plant evidence on the use of sail boats in Egypt since the pre-dynastic period (Basch 1987, p.49). And that you make sure to appear in some photos of the boats at the end of this era and clearly on the mat is installed on a vertical column (Landström, B. 1970, p. 133,) and appeared Property) newspaper sieving (in most boats, but became more abstract and less consistent and widespread before the start of the first family. (Raban, A.,p.377) and hanging from the front of some boats what looks like a rope (Bowen, R.p120) or a tool that works on the cleaning and the removal of what may object houseboats time sailing.

3.1.1.5 Drawing human

Pots and Pottery by drawing human naqada 1

That the types of pottery decoration industries to provide evidence of the ability of human creations since ancient times in all the clarity of what is described as aesthetic value, and gives it a kind of self-satisfaction has adopted the decoration on pottery at the beginning of the simplicity and abstraction in the elements(Sixty Lloyd1988,p29) He has appeared in Nakada 1 Pots Pottery by drawing humanity marked by simplicity and abstraction

3.2 Practical framework:

Was used with some drawing and engraving on pottery civilization Nakada was redrafted and strip it in configurations innovative through some processors technical which produced about it some designs that lend themselves for use in enriching the surfaces of ceramic and we note clarify the the idea of search using different techniques to suit the nature of these designs ,such as prominent relief techniques, vaccination, textures, coloring lining, abrasive style in the lining.
4. Findings and discussion

1. man knew pottery since an old eras and making tools and crockery for each community was his nature and his character about this industry
2. care manufacturer to the external surface of the vase and fill pores before the fire and colored after fire
3. The artist plays an important role in the process of decoration to beautify surfaces, crockery, pots appeared the influence of the environment used decorative elements from nature
4. Artist benefited a lot from animals and birds widespread of Environment in the region and used as decoration elements such as crocodile, ostrich, deer and seahorses
5. The possibility take advantage of the inscriptions and painting on Naqada pottery in enrich contemporary ceramic surfaces
6. Selection can of heritage revival of what is worthwhile intellectual and mental contents can be applied in practice, and adds the new roads developed to enrich the ceramic surfaces.
7. Detection methods and creative ways of thinking, as a connection and communication between all of the artistic heritage of ancient and contemporary artistic life.
5. Concluding remarks

Not stand the role of the artist in dealing with heritage at the borders of Transportation or the interpretation or classification, but went beyond that to understand how to employ them and the possibility of investing in addressing some of the contemporary problems and look at her perspective a special link between scientific knowledge in heritage and process associated with new technologies a manner confirms the Authenticity and Modernity and detected methods and innovative ways of thinking as a connection and communication between all of the artistic heritage of ancient and contemporary artistic life and a choice of what heritage is is worthwhile intellectual and mental contents can be applied in practice, and adds the new methods developed to enrich the ceramic surfaces.

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A Viewpoint on the Italian Diplomacy Towards the Albanian Monarchy (1928-1939)

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Abstract

This paper aims to analyze the diplomacy of Italy based on its economic and political interests during the monarchical system of governing in Albania. The Italian government strongly supported the intention of Ahmet Zogu to transition from Presidential Republic to Monarchy, in order to ensure the domestic political stability and the reduction of the continuous confrontations caused by neighbors’ intrigues. It approved the proclamation of Zogu as “King of Albanians”, who would strengthen the bilateral relations and attend a common policy in accordance with the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance, signed on November 22, 1927. The Italian government competed with Yugoslavia to control the Adriatic Sea and to establish the economic hegemony in Albania and elsewhere in the Balkans. Rome used the difficult economic and financial situation of Albania in the circumstances of the Great Depression to provide a loan of 100 million gold francs for ten years without interest. But, it was cancelled due to non-renewal by the Albanian government of the Friendship and Security Pact with Italy in November 1931. Thus, Italy demanded the repayment of the loan provided by SVEA (Societa per lo Sviluppo Economico dell’Albania) and customs union with Albania, which were rejected by King Zogu I because its country was turned simply into an Italian colony. The signing of a series of bilateral economic agreements not only extended the Italian control in Albania, but also contributed to the development of the Albanian economy during the monarchy. Moreover, Italy with the support of Britain aimed at strengthening the political domination in the Balkans against the Franco-Yugoslav alliance that organized the Balkan Conferences (1930-1934). It opposed King Zogu I efforts for an independent foreign policy and put under pressure the Balkan countries not to accept Albania in the Balkan Pact signed on February 9, 1934. The Italian diplomacy intended to establish a protectorate in Albania and Count Ciano sent King Zogu I successive proposals that included: 1) the control of the means of communication in the case of threat to the independence of the Albania; 2) an Italian consultant in each ministry; 3) the recognition of civil and political rights for the Italians living in Albania and 4) the respective legacies turned into embassies. King Zogu I refused such an agreement because it violated the independence and the territorial integrity of Albania. He alerted the Great Powers to the Italian threat, but faced with the Western indifference. On April 7, 1939, Italy invaded Albania in violation of the deal with Britain to maintain the status quo in the Mediterranean.

Keywords: Italian diplomacy, economic interests, political influence, Albanian Monarchy.

1. Introduction

The opinion of Great Powers was essential to fulfilling the ambition of President Zogu aimed at changing the form of governing from Presidential Republic to a Monarchy. For that reason, he appointed the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Hysen Vrioni, to secure the consent of the European chancelleries, including Italy, which strongly lobbied internationally for the civilizing role to be played by the Albanian Monarchy. The Italian Minister in Albania, Ugo Sola, advised Zogu to follow certain legal procedures to legitimate the constitutional change of the system of governing. Thus, on September 1, 1928, based on Article 1 of the Fundamental Statute, the Constitutional Assembly declared Albania a “Democratic, Parliamentary and Hereditary Monarchy” with Ahmet Zogu – “King of Albanians” named Zogu I (Laporte, 1936, p. 3).

The Albanian Monarchy had several advantages compared to the republican system of governing. At first, it coincided with the historical tradition of the Albanians to show loyalty to a prince (Gogo, 1938, p. 43). Secondly, a consolidated and a hereditary monarchy would avoid rivalries between politicians during the presidential elections. Thirdly, the monarchy would prevent the continuous conflicts from the neighboring countries. The experiences in United Kingdom, Italy, Yugoslavia and Greece, had shown that such regimes felt less threatened by foreign intrigues than presidencies with limited mandates. At last, the King of Albanians, considered as one of the most famous political and military leaders, could solve the difficult problems of his country (Grant, 2002, p. 20).

The Italian diplomacy was the first to officially recognize the Albanian Monarchy and sent the congratulations to Zogu I. Rome guaranteed to respect the reciprocal interests and to cooperate with the Albanian government on all issues related to the situation in the Balkans (Swire, 2005, p. 408).
2. Italian economic expansion in Albania

The Adriatic rivals, Italy and Yugoslavia, competed to increase the influence on the Albanian economy. The newspaper of Beograd "Les Nouvelles Jugosloves" appealed to Albania to better accept cooperation with its neighbors rather than an interested protection outside the Balkans. The Albanian government had signed with Italy an alliance based on reciprocal interests and with Yugoslavia several treaties that facilitated the economic relations between the two countries. Both Rome and Beograd followed the policy of economic hegemony in the Adriatic Basin. In order to maintain the economic independence, Albania could benefit from Italy becoming a transit country to bring its industrial products in the general Balkan market, while from Yugoslavia the use of our ports than that of Thessaloniki (Canco, 1929, p. 2).

The Great Depression (1929-1933) hit the Albanian economy, too, that was reflected in the decline of the agricultural and industrial production, increased unemployment, rising inflation, passive trade balance etc. The collapse of the economy forced King Zogu I to accept another Italian loan. Though he knew the potential risk due to the Italian financial assistance, but he had no other alternative. On June 24, 1931, the representatives of the Albanian and the Italian government signed a new financial agreement ("What is the base of ..., 1931, p. 1). Referring to its content: 1) Italy would give the Albanian state a loan of 10 million gold francs per year, without interest, for a period of 10 years, for economic and cultural purposes, as well as to cover the budget deficit, recognizing at the same time that the amount of annual payments above would be reduced in proportion to the extent of the national income growth or by reducing the expenses, which could result in the financial situation of Albania. 2) The loan would not be paid unless the Albanian annual income amounted to 50 million gold francs. 3) For the administration and the delivery of the money was charged a mixed commission, composed by 4 people, 2 Italians and 2 Albanians, who would be appointed by the Albanian government. The decisions of the commission would be taken by majority vote (Fischer, 2004b, p. 211).

But, the non-renewal of the First Pact of Tirana, in November 1931, tensioned the relations between Albania and Italy. The last one used the economic and financial difficulties of the government in Tirana to ask for the payment of SVEA's loan. King Zogu I complained to the British Minister that Rome had promised they would never pay the loan. The same thing was stated by Ugo Sola, who emphasized that the Italian government had no intentions to use the loan for its goals, but it would be subject of successive moratoria (Fischer, 2004b, p. 221).

Contrary to the statements, Rome changed the political course. It was obvious that the monarchy had no possibility to pay the loan, that's why Italy insisted on respecting the terms of the contract of SVEA with its shareholders. Because of the customs revenues were used to pay the debt, the Italian government proposed to Tirana the customs union, in December 1932. It consisted in the removal of custom duties on trade between the two countries, transforming Albania into a mere Italian colony (The Archive of Institute of History (AIH), A.V.60, p. 25). Such a proposal was not accepted by King Zogu I.

The Italian diplomacy continued putting pressure on the Albanian government canceling on April 1, 1933, the loan of 100 million gold francs, granted two years ago (AIH, A.V.43, p. 24). This fact obliged the King's counselor, Mehmet Konica, to make a request to Beograd for a loan of 3 million francs. According to the Yugoslavian Ambassador in Tirana, the loan was very important in order to avoid the anarchy or the capitulation before Italy. But, the Yugoslavian government lacked free funds aimed at helping the Albanian state (Smirnova, 2004, p. 179).

In these conditions, when no European country did support Albania financially, the Italian Ambassador in Tirana, Mario Indelli, and the Albanian Minister of Economy, Dhimiter Beratti, signed on March 19, 1936, six economic and financial agreements, as follows: 1) The cancellation of the 1931 loan through paying the backlog amounted to nearly 3 million gold francs. 2) A sum of 9 million gold francs would be granted to the Albanian government to cover last year budget deficit. 3) A grant of 10 million gold francs intended to develop the agriculture would be paid for 50 years at 1% interest guaranteed by the kerosene concession's obligations. 4) A loan of 3 million gold francs would be given for the creation of the State Tobacco Monopoly for 15 years without interest. 5) The agreement on the construction of the port of Durazzo and the loan contracted with a Credit Institute aimed to finish the installations of the scaffolding for trade purposes. 6) The cancellation for 5 years of the payments that the Albanian government owed to SVEA for 50 million loans (AIH, A.V.42, pp. 51-54).

The agreements above influenced positively on the formation of the necessary structures and the gradual improvement of the economic and financial situation in the country. In particular, the loan for the development of the agriculture was of great importance. Also, the Albanian government benefited from the amortization of SVEA's loan. While the loan of 50 million gold francs estimated at 65 after the increase in value of lira helped the construction of many public works in Albania, such as: 1000 minor and major bridges, road traffic, public buildings, the harbor of Durazzo etc. (Attoma, 1936, p. 1).
In March 1938, Società Italiana delle Miniere di Selenizza (SIMS-a) obtained the concession for iron exploitation in the prefecture of Lissus and, in the same month, the minister of Economy, Terenc Toci, signed with this society an agreement that gave the right to the Italian concessionaire “to explore, work, export and sell pyrite, copper and any other mineral or metal found in the area Mat - Rubik - Vela Church - Koter-Kryzi, for a period of 50 years”. Another Italian company AMMI (Aziende Minerali Metalliche Italiani) began the exploitation of chromium in Pogradec, Kukës and Tropojë (AIH, A.V.43, p. 26). In April 1938, the “Pescalba” company won the right of fishing in the waters of Albania for 300,000 gold francs per year and 5% of the profits for 25 years (AIH, A.V.42, p. 56).

The Italians won concessions in the financial field, too. The Statute of Napoli’s Bank in Albania was approved in March 1938. At the same time, the “Agricultural Bank of the State” was founded. Although an Albanian credit institute, it was under the Bank of Napoli and ran by Italians (The History of the Albanian People, vol. 3, 2007, p. 349).

The foreign investments helped the economy growth and prosperity. The Italian company, AIPA (Azienda Italiana Petroli Albania), which used the kerosene especially in the area of Devoll (Kuçovë), had opened 445 pits that enabled the increase of kerosene production from 1000 tons in 1935 to 1500 tons every month, thus 200,000 tons per year (“Albanian properties of kerosene …, 1939, p. 1). Other Italian enterprises, such as: SIMS-a, SAMIA, SESA etc. made also very important investments in Albania. Only in the oil factory in Valona, owned by Roberto Alegros, were invested 800,000 gold francs. In total, the foreign investments in industry accounted over 100 million gold francs, mainly Italian capital than French and German one (Kareco, 2010, p. 75).

The foreign economic domination, Italian particularly, caused no financial bankruptcy in the Albanian economy. Though the effects of the Great Depression were evident, the technological backwardness, the lack of domestic capital etc. again the investments and the economic development went on as conditions allow. So, the annual customs revenues recorded 6 million gold francs, the state monopoly on salt, paper cigarettes and matches up to 2.5 million gold francs, without mentioning the income tax etc. The bank deposits only, as an indicator of loan capital accumulation, grew relatively rapidly by 200 %, while the savings accounts increased by 750 %. Despite the problems and the difficulties, the Albanian economy was on the right track, as shown in the following table (Kareco, 2010, pp. 68-70).

Table 1: Financial indicators for the years 1928 and 1938

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1928</th>
<th>1938</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The amount of currency in circulation, in gold francs</td>
<td>10.095.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Price index, in percentage</td>
<td>100.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Interest rate, in percentage</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Granted loans, in gold francs</td>
<td>5.058.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Bank deposits, in million gold francs</td>
<td>5.526.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings deposits, in gold francs</td>
<td>221.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Treasure at the National Bank of Albania, on December 31, 1938, in gold francs</td>
<td>32.400.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The policy of fascist Italy towards the Albanian Monarchy

The Italian diplomacy aimed at increasing the political influence on Albania for further deportation in the East. There were signed many political and economic agreements between the two countries in order to enforce their cooperation. But, the possibility of non-renewal of the Friendship and Security Pact, on November, 1931, tensioned the bilateral relations. King Zogu I discussed the matter with the Minister of Economy, Mehdi Frashëri, and the Prime Minister, Pandeli Evangjeli, who criticized the non-reciprocal content of the pact which threatened the independence of Albania. According to them, 1) the pact recognized the Italian interests; 2) Rome was responsible for maintaining the political and juridical status quo of Albania and, 3) if necessary, the Italian government may send an army contingent to Albania (Frashëri, 2005, pp. 232-233).

This political stance of the royal government dissatisfied Rome. Benito Mussolini charged General A. Pariani to convince King Zogu I for the renewal of the First Pact of Tirana, but the negotiations ended unsuccessfully. Although the Italian government was conscious that its position remained unchanged due to the guarantee of the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance, signed on November 22, 1927, for a period of 20 years. But, this political movement witnessed the efforts of King Zogu I to benefit as much as possible from Italy, without falling under its influence (AIH, A.V.16, p. 21).

In response, the Italian government asked for the payments of SVEA’s loan and the customs union that were rejected by King Zogu. Based on the refusal of the Great Powers and the neighboring countries to support Albania financially, Rome sent an ultimatum to the monarchy, in August 1933, as follows: 1) the denouncement of all trade
agreements made with other states and the new treaties would be signed with the consent of Italy; 2) Albanian officials, that did not have “an Italian culture”, should be replaced with those who possessed this “culture” or Italians; 3) the military buildings of the country ought to be sold to the Italian Ministry of War; 4) the General Inspector of Gendarmerie, the British General Percy and his officers had to leave in order to be replaced by the Italian “instructors”, who would be paid directly from Rome; 5) the opening of all Catholic schools that were closed recently from the Albanian government; 6) the Italian language to be compulsory in the secondary schools and the Albanian students would be invited to the Italian universities; 7) the French Lycée in Koritza should be replaced with an Italian one (Albanian’s State Archive (AQSH), F. 263, V.1933, D. 25, pp. 13-14). These requirements were unacceptable for King Zogu I because they threatened the sovereignty and the independence of Albania.

The disagreements between the two countries culminated on June 22, 1934, when 20 warships anchored in the port of Durazzo without notifying the local authorities. It was an open demonstration of force by fascist Italy. King Zogu I informed immediately the diplomats of Britain and France in Albania, who demanded explanation from the Italian government. But, B. Mussolini played a double game. On one hand, he apologized for the delay of the note that announced the arrival of the battleships and, on the other hand, he issued an ultimatum demanding the return of the “military mission” headed by Pariani and asked King Zogu I for a solemn promise that Albania would not join the Balkan Entente (AIH, A.V.60, pp. 27-38).

On the contrary, the Albanian delegation participated in the Balkan Conferences which was considered by the Italian diplomacy as a manifestation of King Zogu I to pursue an independent foreign policy. Though the conferences had economic benefits, politically they operated to the detriment of the alliance with Italy. France and Yugoslavia cooperated to ruin the friendship of Rome with the other Balkan states. This policy was unreasonable for the Albanian government that, referring to the Treaty of Tirana, declared its readiness to leave the conference neither sign nor ratify any agreement with the neighbors that was against Italy (“The Balkan Conference”, 1930, p. 2). Moreover, the head of the Albanian delegation, Mehmet Konica, insisted on the obligation of Greece and Yugoslavia to guarantee the respect of the Albanian minority rights (Meta, 2011, p. 52).

But, the Italian diplomacy exerted pressure on the participating states to refuse Albania in the Balkan Pact (AIH, A.V.85, pp. 3-4). On February 9, 1934, the foreign ministers of Greece, Turkey, Rumania and Yugoslavia signed the Balkan Pact at the Academy of Athens. France and Britain welcomed the agreement and expressed their regrets for the lack of Bulgaria and Albania as Balkan countries. While the neighbors deliberately didn’t invite Albania to sign the Balkan Pact for several reasons: At first, the inability to cope with the pressure of fascist Italy. Secondly, the participation in the Balkan Entente paved the way for the Albanian government to cooperate with its neighbors to resolve the issue of minorities. Thirdly, the admission of Albania in the Balkan Pact meant a stabilized and a consolidated state that was not in conformity with the Greek and the Yugoslav intentions. The neighboring countries wanted a weak state with an ineffective government in order to justify their plans for the partition of Albania (Bakalli, 2001, pp. 67-70).

Furthermore, in August 1934, Baron Pompeo Aloisi made the following proposals to King Zogu I: 1) the two countries had to share the same foreign policy; 2) Italy should be given a naval base in Durazzo and an air one in Tirana. The fortifications would be under the Italian control. 3) The army and the gendarmerie would be instructed by Italians. In exchange, Rome 1) would help the Albanian government reach an agreement with Vatican for the Catholic schools. 2) It declared a ten year moratorium on SVEA’s loan obligation and 3) a new loan of 30-40 million gold francs for the agriculture development instead of 100 million credits in unacceptable conditions for King Zogu I. Finally, the Italian government pledged to use the same commercial exchange principles for the Albanian products as with the other European countries. These proposals of Baron Aloisi were rejected by King Zogu I, who considered them dangerous for the loss of the political independence (Fischer, 2004b, pp. 237-238).

Despite the refusal, Italy had penetrated deeper into the domestic policy of Albania. The Italian agents distributed money to develop the propaganda aimed at intensifying the activity of anti-government groups, especially the communists (Selmani, 2008, pp. 242-243). They were indirectly involved in the organizing of Fier uprising, in 1935, though they asked the Albanian feudal aristocrats associated with fascist Italy to withdraw before its outbreak. Perhaps the reason of their withdrawal was the lack of the proper preparation of the uprising, so the disbelief in victory, or not the adequate time for their interests because Rome was engaged in the Abyssinian war (AIH, A.V.42, pp. 11-12).

However, the Italian government had improved the relations with Yugoslavia regarding its political position in Albania. The Foreign Minister of Italy, Galeazzo Ciano, said this information personally to King Zogu I during his visit in Tirana, in April 1937 (AIH, A.V.16, p. 31). A year later, Count Ciano participated in his wedding ceremony with the Hungarian Countess Geraldine Apponyi. He took the opportunity to create a complete idea about the right time and the practical techniques for implementation of Albania’s military occupation and then made a detailed report to B. Mussolini.
against Italy. As a result, it was necessary to significantly increase the number of Italian officers in service of the Albanian centers equipped with automatic weapons. This movement would alarm Yugoslavia and enforce its eventual resistance.

Colonel Bombali, the increase of military’s dynamics needed its numerical reduction and the creation of new training centers equipped with automatic weapons. This movement would alarm Yugoslavia and enforce its eventual resistance against Italy. As a result, it was necessary to significantly increase the number of Italian officers in service of the Albanian army with the specific mission to create the annexation groups. 3) Italy’s intention was reaching new concession agreements with the Albanian government. Thus, in the near future, an increased number of Italian residents and Albanians would work for the Italian companies. 4) Rome aimed at providing the support of well-known people for the union with Italy through partnership, promises and corruption. While the consent of the lower classes would be guaranteed by investing in hospitals, day care centers, sports organizations etc. (AIH, A.V.38, pp. 13-14).

The Italian government intended to overcome the backwardness and the poverty of the Albanian society. It had decided to spend 6 billion lira on infrastructure, public works and the economic development in general. Italy would not interfere in the domestic and foreign affairs of Albania that was an independent country. It wanted just a friendly state on the other side of the Adriatic Sea coast. Rome sought to guarantee that Albania would not become a tool in the hands of its enemies and to accept an Italian prince from the House of Savoy as King of Albania (Villamasi, 2000, p. 474).

For that reason, the Italian government strengthened the political and economic relations with Belgrade. On June 18, 1938, during the meeting with Count Ciano in Venetic, the Prime Minister of Yugoslavia, M. Stojadinovic, declared that he would not sign the pact of friendship proposed by the government of Tirana. According to him, the Albanian question was important when the relations with Italy were not good. On the other side, the Italian Foreign Minister, Galeazzo Ciano, in his visit in Belgrade, on January 18-23, 1939, expressed his concern about the difficult situation in Albania and the hatred among people against King Zogu I. He considered the Albanian problem a common issue to both countries. Meanwhile, the chief of the Yugoslav executive, Stojadinovic, claimed that King Zogu I was very capable, if well paid, to help France and Britain in a moment of crisis for Italy. Therefore, he introduced two solutions: 1) the replacement of the Albanian monarch with a more worthy person, but he was not able to propose a name or, 2) the partition of Albania between Italy and Yugoslavia, in order to discuss the issue later because of the lack of details. Stojadinovic said that he didn’t want to pursue mediated negotiations by legation rather than their personal agents and trustees, who were appointed respectively, the Minister of Italy, Afuso, and his brother, Dragomir (AIH, A.V.38, pp. 15-18).

Furthermore, Count Ciano listed the advantages of Yugoslavia, such as: 1) an agreement to demilitarize the Albanian border; 2) an Italian-Yugoslav military alliance for the protection of Yugoslavia from Germany because Italy would become a Balkan state, too; 3) some significant modifications of the northern borders of Albania; 4) the elimination of the Albanian nationalist center that encouraged continuously agitations in Kosovo and, 5) the promise of Italy to support the Yugoslavian occupation of Thessaloniki. The Italian Foreign Minister negotiated the rectification of the borders in the North, not the division of the Albanian territories to the benefit of Yugoslavia (AIH, A.V.38, p. 18). This fact was accepted by Prince Pavel with the statement that, within the borders of Yugoslavia had so many Albanians who caused troubles that he didn’t want to outnumber them (Vickers, 1995, p. 170). The discussions led to the definite solution of the problem. Thus, there were no difficulties in boundary delimitation. At first, Count Ciano believed that Yugoslavia had not exaggerated pretensions and, secondly, Italy was not interested in possessing 1000 square kilometers more or less on the Albanian territories rather than providing a geostrategic position in the Balkans (AIH, A.V.38, p. 19).

The growing tensions in Europe because of the German invasion of Czechoslovakia forced Italy to take the necessary military measures along the Eastern Adriatic coast (“The Italian interests ...”, 1939, p. 1). The aim to put Albania under the Italian protectorate made Count Ciano and Leonardo Vitteti, General Director of the Political Office in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, prepare a draft-proposal which was sent to King Zogu I by De Ferraris on March 25, 1939. Its content was as follows: Article 1: Italy and Albania would join an alliance with the purpose of guaranteeing the safety by all means and the mutual protection against any attack. Article 2: Rome ensured the friendship between the two countries even in case of a threat to the sovereignty and the territorial integrity of Albania. Article 3: Though the Albanian...
government was in charge of preservation of the public order, Italy was ready to take measures if necessary. Article 4: In order to meet the respective obligations of the alliance, Albania would allow the Italian government to use its ports, airfields and road traffic. Article 5: The permanent diplomatic missions of Italy in Albania and vice versa would be known as embassies. Article 6: Italy offered its technical and financial assistance for the organization of the Albanian state. Every ministry should have an Italian official as General Secretary who exercised the duties of subordinates Albanian Minister. Article 7: Through customs and monetary agreements, Italy would ensure an exchange regime between the two countries similar to the domestic market. Article 8: The Albanian citizens’ resident in Italy and vice versa would have all the civil and political rights as native citizens of both countries (Jacomoni, 2005, p. 96). The above agreement was a menace to the independence of Albania, as a result King Zogu I refused to sign it.

Under such circumstances, Count Ciano, completely unprepared to intervene militarily aiming the capitulation of Albania, made a new more moderate proposal on March 31, 1939. As reported by the Italian minister in Albania, Francesco Jacomoni, if the conditions were accepted, G. Ciano would come to solemnly sign the agreement accompanied by aircraft squadrons, otherwise riots would break out (Fischer, 2004a, p. 46). King Zogu I answered that he would continue to respect the terms of the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance with Italy, insisting to oppose each unjust proposal. At the same time, he warned the Great Powers about the danger that threatened the country, but faced the Western apathy. The British government believed the Anglo-Italian agreement of 1938 envisaged maintaining the status quo of the nations in the Mediterranean region (AIH, A.V.10, p. 21). The Prime Minister, A. Chamberlain, himself declared that Britain had no direct interest in Albania, but he asked B. Mussolini to maintain the world peace (AIH, A.V.60, p. 34).

In this situation, King Zogu I appointed a commission headed by Koço Kota to write the counterproposals of the Albanian government, on April 5, 1939, as: 1) to complete a military convention which determined the conditions of the Italian army dislocation allowance; 2) the Italians resident in Albania over five years would be called Albanian citizens and they have the right to settle in the cities and establish agricultural societies in the villages; 3) a custom fee of 2% on importing goods could be practiced in both countries; 4) only Italian technicians were allowed to give assistance to the Albanian state institutions. These counterproposals and the request to extend the deadline of the ultimatum were presented to the Italian Minister in Tirana, Francesco Jacomoni.

But, the Italian diplomacy didn’t take into consideration the requests of the Albanian government and on April 6, 1939, the first planes threw leaflets calling the Albanians not to organize a resistance. A day later, the fascist troops commanded by General A. Guzzoni landed in the main ports, such as: Durazzo, Valona, Shengjin and Saranda. In order to avoid the occupation of the country, King Zogu I made the last effort to negotiate with the Italian General that failed unfortunately. Thus, the fascist Italy began the invasion of Albania, violating its sovereignty and the territorial integrity (AIH, A.V.16, pp. 36-37).

4. Conclusions

The geostrategic interests of Italy to put control on the Adriatic Sea determined its foreign policy in the Balkans and Albania particularly. Rome supported the new system of governing, the monarchical one, aimed at strengthening the bilateral relations. Its intention was to use the Albanian territory as a port for further deportation towards East.

At first, Italy benefited from the difficult economic situation of the Albanian government, due to the backwardness and the consequences of the Great Depression, to increase its influence offering loans to King Zogu I. Many agreements were signed in order to manage the development of trade, industry and agriculture, the construction of public works, the cancellation of loans’ obligations etc. Also, the Italian companies won concessions to exploit the natural resources and they used its market to sell the industrial products. However, despite the considerable benefits of the neighbor on the other side of the Adriatic, the investment of the foreign capital helped the development of the Albanian economy.

Secondly, the Italian government intended to establish its protectorate over Albania. It was disappointed by the non-renewal of the Friendship and Security Pact, in November 1931, and asked the Albanian monarchy to pay SVEA loan and create a customs union. These requests were refused by King Zogu I, because they threatened the sovereignty and the political independence of Albania. In addition, Italy put under pressure the neighboring countries not to invite Albania sign the Balkan Pact (1934), which favored even their interests concerning a weak and not stabilized Albanian state.

Moreover, the Italian political influence was increased through youth education, the presence of its specialists in the state administration, the control on the army etc. In a broader sense, Rome received the consent of the Yugoslavian Chief of Executive, Stojadinovic, to exert its authority over Albania. Count Ciano sent various ultimatums to the
government of Tirana with the clear purpose to turn Albania simply into an Italian colony. But, King Zogu I rejected them and informed the international factor of the Italian threat. Thus, the British Prime Minister, A. Chamberlain, asked B. Mussolini to maintain the status quo in the Mediterranean, in order to keep peace and stability in Europe. In the contrary, the fascist Italy invaded Albania on April 7, 1939.

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Low-Tech Sector Performance in Lithuania

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Abstract

OECD industry classification distinguishes four industrial groups in the manufacturing industry: high-tech, medium high-tech, medium low-tech and low-tech. Low-tech industries are deemed to be those that add little value to a country’s economy and are less competitive, though recent studies in different countries show that they may be innovative and knowledge intensive ones. In the paper we aim to show what role low-tech industries play in Lithuanian manufacturing industry and the economy. Therefore the main aim of the paper is to make a comparative analysis of Lithuanian industries’ data and reveal low-tech’s contribution to Lithuanian manufacturing sector and the economy. For the analysis we use data from the Lithuanian Department of Statistics (Statistics Lithuania) and other data bases for the year 2010-2011. We base the comparative data analysis of different industrial sectors mainly on the set of indicators proposed by Laestadius, Pedersen & Sandven (2006) and use additional one of orientation to export. The analysis showed that low-tech industries make a considerable contribution to Lithuanian manufacturing industry sector and is important to the whole economy, as well.

Keywords: technological level, industry classification, low-tech, industry indicators.

1. Introduction

In 2010 EU adopted a new strategy Europe 2020 to reach sustainable economic growth and especially growth in job places in order to cope with impact of the most severe economic crisis since 1930’s. The objective of Europe 2020 is to develop smart growth through education, knowledge and innovation, sustainable growth through a resource-efficient, greener and more competitive economy and inclusive growth through high employment and economic, social and territorial cohesion (European Commission, 2010).

When talking about one of the key targets of the strategy – research and innovation – EU has ambition to reach 3 per cent of the EU’s GDP invested into research and development. In fact the same target was set in the previous EU strategy, but it is still of interest to reach. For Lithuania this dimension is set at 1.9 per cent of GDP. For Lithuania to reach this ratio much of effort is needed. For comparison, annual R&D growth was 4.1 per cent in the period or 2000-2011 and to reach the targeted 1.9 per cent, annual growth of 8.4 per cent is required until 2020, therefore policy makers have to search for every possibility to stimulate business and science to reach such growth.

High R&D expenditures in a country are usually related to the intensive involvement of high-tech industries which are seen as being high-R&D investing sector. However, studies in other countries show, that not only high-tech sector but also low-medium and even low-tech industries demonstrate innovativeness and knowledge creation facilities (Hirsch-Kreinsen, 2005).
Another very important target issue addressed in the EU strategy is the increase of employment rates. European economy is still plagued by high unemployment rates, no exception is Lithuania. As Eurostat (2013) data shows, both in EA-17 and EU-27 unemployment is still increasing since 2011; at the end of 2012 unemployment reached as high as almost 26 million, what makes a record rate of 10.7 per cent in EU. In Lithuania situation is even worse, and though unemployment level decreased from 15.6 per cent in January 2012 to 14.9 in January 2013, the percentage is still very high. Especially bad situation is among young and unskilled labour force unemployment. Again, it was showed that low-tech industries may be a sector where a quite considerable part of labour force may be employed (Laestadius, Pedersen, & Sandven, 2005). Therefore it is of great interest to explore if low-tech sector is capable to diminish the problem of unemployment, especially in problematic segments in Lithuania. 

Considering the above addressed issues questions for the research in low-tech area arise: What is the role of low-tech sector in Lithuanian economy? Is it important, especially in the light of Europe 2020 strategy target achievement? May it help to reach targeted R&D to GDP ratio, or is the sector desperate and shouldn’t attract additional attention of innovation policy makers? If low-tech sector is not so much innovative, is it still important as a sector for employment? To answer these questions, the aim of the paper is stated as to make a comparative analysis of Lithuanian industries’ data and reveal low-tech’s contribution to Lithuanian manufacturing sector and the economy.

2. Theoretical background

For several decades economists and policy makers concentrated their effort on high-tech industries, hoping this sector will become the main driver of economies and growth. There’s no doubt about high-tech in put in creating high added value products and making intensive investment in R&D. However, Eurostat (2013) data shows that high-tech sector created a little above 2 per cent of total value added in EU-27 economy.

There were several earlier attempts to define and distinguish the high-tech sector and create multidimensional industry classification systems by Shankling and Ryans, Felstenstein and Bar-el, Keeble, but as Carrol et al. (2000) showed, the classification indicators were questionable, hard to measure and construe. That is why the main impulse in industry classification was made by Hatzichronoglou (1997), who developed a system, where manufacturing industries were classified to different levels of technologies used. The indicators of direct and indirect R&D intensities were used to classify manufacturing industries across 11 OECD countries.

The main idea of using the indicator of indirect R&D was to show that technologies may not only be created in an industry (case of direct R&D intensity), they may also be “embodied in intermediates and capital goods purchased on the domestic market or imported. Technology moves from one industry (and one country) to another when the industry performing R&D sells its products embodying that R&D to other industries which use them as manufacturing inputs“ (Hatzichronoglou, 1997). Employing both direct and indirect R&D intensities in the industries classification system, the system combines in one both the creators of new technologies and the users of these new technologies (embodied in intermediate products) and classifies manufacturing industries to four groups: high-tech, medium high-tech, medium low-tech and low-tech industries (Table 1).

The system proposed by Hatzichronoglou (1997) is used in the official OECD manufacturing industry classification. The OECD classification, however, is based only on the indicator of direct R&D intensity because of the lack of data (OECD, 2007). In the OECD classification system industries are allocated as follows: industries that spend more than 5% of sales on R&D are classified as high-tech; those that spend between 3-5%, as medium-high-tech; those that spend between 0.9-3%, as medium-low-tech; and those that spend less than 0.9%, as low-tech (Hirsch-Kreinsen et al., 2006).

It is worth to notify that OECD manufacturing industry classification to four groups is related to the whole OECD area, but not to individual countries, where industries' allocation to technological levels may be different. The widespread OECD industry classification system is convenient to use: it allows comparing of technological advancement and situation across countries, as the data of R&D expenses is treated in the same way. On the other hand, this ready-to-use classification system does not reflect exact situation in every economy's innovation and technological efforts in different manufacturing industries.

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<td>High</td>
<td>Aircraft and spacecraft</td>
<td>&gt;7%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Electrical machinery and</td>
<td>2.5-7%</td>
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In the above mentioned classification systems the main classification criteria is technological intensity expressed by R&D share to turnover. However, this measure of innovations does not convey the full spectrum of innovating activities that may change the view of so deemed the most non-innovative, non-knowledge intensive sector of low-tech. Moreover, the R&D as a measure of innovations is more addressed to only high-tech sector, which, as stated by Zarzewska-Bielawska (2012), declare high levels of R&D expenditures, innovation rates and therefore is known as knowledge intensive sector. However, some studies that address namely low-tech innovations issue show that low-tech companies may evidence other innovation resources than direct R&D expenses; these are inner resources and capacities to make innovations, employing which low-tech companies demonstrated high growth rate and competitiveness (Hirsch-Kreinsen et al., 2006; Smith, 2000).

Robertson and Patel (2006) explain how low-tech companies may even become innovation “pushers” in high-tech sector: being the customers of high-tech products, low-tech companies address high-tech for new and innovative products, and therefore such reciprocal relationships between the two sectors enhance the level of overall resources devoted to R&D.

A new approach to measuring innovativeness and an alternative system of technology indicators was presented by Laestadius et al. (2006). The authors suggest five indicators, each having several variables; these indicators are:

- R&D intensity;
- Design intensity;
- Technological intensity;
- Skill intensity (human capital orientation);
- Innovation intensity.

In addition Laestadius et al. (2006) add one more indicator to their classification system - organizational skills/creativity, which may be defined as organizational capabilities/innovations/competencies that companies develop and use successfully to their growth. On the other hand, lack of genuine data may become an obstacle to using this additional indicator. The authors themselves point out this indicator can be incorporated as a variable in innovation intensity indicator.

The classification system proposed by Laestadius et al. (2006) complements OECD classification system and classifies industries so, that variety of innovativeness through the industries (as defined by OECD) is captured. Innovativeness is clearly related to higher competitiveness of companies. The more companies innovate, the more they may feel stronger and exclusive in the global market and seek for competitive advantage. That means, innovations have to be commercialized, or to say so, be successful. We suggest using an additional indicator of successful innovation activity – orientation to export, expressed by export share to turnover. Such indicator is very important for small and open economy countries, like Lithuania is. Even for medium scale (not to talk about larger scale) innovating companies, producing in a country with a squeezed home market, the only way to use their technological or other kind of innovations and run a successful business is to be competitive in the international marketplace. In small open economy countries the
case, when companies start their export activities first and only later turn to home market for additional sales, is also true. Therefore we think that the indicator of orientation to export is worth when analysing manufacturing industries in small open economy countries.

3. Method

When making the comparative analysis across manufacturing industry sectors, we treat industrial sectors as they are distinguished by OECD, but to represent the full view we employ five indicators of Laestadius et al. (2006). Also the additional indicator of orientation to export is added. For each of the indicators we select variables that we think fits the best. Also availability of data plays important role.

In the analysis we use the latest available statistical data from Lithuanian Department of Statistics (Statistics Lithuania) of the year 2010 and 2011. Though for some variables (like turnover or the like) we may find the data for the year 2012, but for the sake of comparability data of 2011 was chosen were possible, otherwise we used data of the year 2010. Data about patents and designs was retrieved from the State Patent Bureau of the Republic of Lithuania data basis.

In some Lithuanian industries only several companies operate and statistical data is missing, hence we also use available data from Odin BvD database of the corresponding year to fill in data gaps to have as much complete data, as possible.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 R&D intensity

The most common indicator to describe technological level of an industry is R&D intensity, expressed by share of each sector’s mean R&D expenditures in turnover. As it can be seen in Figure 1 by the column chart, Lithuanian manufacturing industry in total demonstrates very modest 0.19 per cent of R&D expenditures share in turnover. The proportions of R&D expenditures correspond to OECD classification system in a sense that high-tech sector allocates the largest per cent of the turnover to R&D and correspondingly the lower technology sector is the less R&D expenditures it has. Low-tech sector spends just 0.06 per cent of turnover to R&D, however it makes the largest part (10.7 per cent) of turnover in total economy comparing with other manufacturing sectors, as it is shown in Figure 1 by the line chart.

The high-tech sector, though being the leader in R&D expenditures, makes very small percentage of 0.7 per cent in total economy turnover. That means low-tech sector being the largest manufacturing industry sector makes 17.6 per cent of total R&D in manufacturing industries (Figure 2). When analysing each sector’s R&D share in manufacturing industry total R&D expenditures, medium-high-tech sector almost reaches high-tech’s percentage of R&D share in manufacturing industry R&D expenditures, and medium-low-tech sector demonstrates the lowest share of only 10.7 per cent.

Figure 1. Share of R&D in turnover and share of total economy turnover of manufacturing industry and its separate sectors in 2011, per cent.
Figure 2. Share of each sector’s R&D expenditures in manufacturing industry R&D expenditures in 2011, per cent.

4.2 Design intensity

This indicator we explain by using share of companies in each sector that registered designs in manufacturing industry and share of number of companies in manufacturing industry (Figure 3). Low-tech sector, having the largest number of companies in manufacturing industry, evidences the largest proportion of registered designs comparing with other sectors in 2011. Interestingly, high-tech sector did not register any designs in 2011.

Figure 3. Share of designs and companies in each sector of manufacturing industry in 2011, per cent

4.3 Technological intensity

We use variable of share of each sector’s expenditures on machinery and equipment in turnover (i.e. of companies that registered technological innovations) to measure the indicator of technological intensity and compare it with each sector’s share of employment in total economy’s employment. As Figure 4 shows by column chart, medium-low-tech sector is the larger investor in new equipment and machinery, though the sector employment (line chart) is only 3.8 per cent in the economy. The largest share of employment in the manufacturing industry goes to low-tech sector, but it spends only 0.5 per cent of its turnover on investment in new equipment and machinery. That may be explained by the fact that low-tech industry leans on less technologically advanced machinery and equipment and low-skilled work force employment.
Structure of different types of expenditures in each sector is useful to see the full view of innovation expenditures of companies that registered technological innovations (Figure 5). Proportions of expenditures of different types in total manufacturing industry correspond to the situation in the economy, i.e. the largest part of expenditures goes to acquisition of machinery and equipment. Very similar situation is in low-tech sector, which divert most of expenditures to the machinery and equipment, though the largest investment to it is made by medium-low-tech sector. High-tech sector makes considerably larger investment in acquiring of external knowledge comparing with other sectors, manufacturing industry and total economy; it also allocates large part on expenditures to training. The largest proportion of expenditures to training, however, is made by medium-high-tech sector.

4.4 Skill intensity

This indicator shows how much effort is allocated to high skilled employment in each sector. Therefore we use share of R&D employment in total employment variable to demonstrate these efforts in each sector and in manufacturing industry in total. Figure 6 shows by column chart that 3.28 per cent of employees in high-tech sector are working in R&D department.

This explains low level of R&D employees in manufacturing industry, as high-tech sector employs only 0.94 per cent of total employment (shown by line chart). Low-tech sector has scarce 0.13 per cent of R&D employment in the sector's total employment, however we should remember that the sector is large and therefore R&D employment in absolute numbers is respectively considerable. Also medium-low tech sector employs small percentage of R&D employees, and total employment in this sector is not extensive, as well.
4.5 Innovation intensity

Several variables are used to measure innovation intensity, these include: share of registered patent in manufacturing industry; share of innovative companies’ turnover in sector turnover; share of innovative companies’ employment in sector employment (Figure 7). It is impressive to notice the low-tech sector has the same share of registered patents as high-tech and medium-high-tech sectors, though low-tech’s percentage of both innovative companies’ turnover and employment in innovative companies is the smallest through all the sectors of Lithuanian manufacturing industry. Again, it’s worth noticing that neither the share of innovative companies’ turnover, nor their employment have a remarkable distance from the corresponding shares in other sectors.
5. Conclusions

The paper aimed to show low-tech sector’s significance and role in Lithuanian economy, also we wanted to show that not only high-tech, but also low-tech sector may and important and help to reach strategic economic objectives in the country. In most of the researches in industrial development the main stress is made on high-tech sector which is deemed to be the main driving force to economy growth and prosperity. However, later studies revealed that low-tech is a very important and underestimated part of even advanced economies, that’s why low-tech sector is worth of attention not only for researchers, but for policy makers, as well.

Our research showed that low-tech is very important to Lithuanian economy: it is the largest sector in manufacturing industry, employs significant share of total employment, is extensive exporter, registers significant part of patents and is even a leader in design intensity. However, scarce R&D employment and investment in new equipment and machinery in low-tech may lead to reduced international competitiveness. On the other hands, extensive designing means that low-tech companies seek to gain competitiveness through design, not technological innovations.

It is worth noticing that all sectors of Lithuanian manufacturing industry demonstrate low level of R&D expenditures – in fact, even high-tech sector does not reach the cut-off point for high-tech as described by OECD. This may be due to the fact that companies modestly register their R&D expenditures to gain tax incentives because of bureaucratic obstacles. Despite that fact, low-tech sector is not the last among other sectors in R&D expenditures share. Therefore we may conclude that high-tech sector, being very small one, should not be seen as the only salvation for the economy by policy makers. On the contrary, low-tech sector could show better results not only in terms of exporting and employment, but also in R&D area, if bureaucratic requirements would be more reasonable to the companies.

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Religious Education in Greek Public Schools in Western Thrace: Identifying Controversial Issues

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Abstract

This article concerns two recent political legislative moves by the Greek government and one in regard to Religious Education (RE) in schools. The latter concerns compulsory RE and the right to exemption for Orthodox students. The former concerns the new Curriculum of compulsory education (2011) which keeps RE as a distinctive compulsory subject for all, claiming that RE has been non-confessional since 2003 and an Amendment (2013) of Law 3536/2007 which was never implemented. The Amendment enacts a formal Muslim RE only for the schools of Western Thrace and for the students of the Muslim Minority who register at Greek public schools and have the right to withdraw from RE due to reasons relating to their religious consciousness. The native Muslims of Western Thrace (a region in the northern part of Greece bordering Turkey) are recognized as a minority according to the Lausanne Treaty (1923). They comprise 50% of the population, and according to the Treaty they have their own religion and educational system. The author takes into account the complexity of religion, education and politics in the region and addresses controversial issues on the topic of RE that have been raised not only in local society but also between academics, educationists and educators. The question arises as to whether the Greek State is really concerned with RE and the type of RE to be offered to children. Fieldwork by interviewing persons responsible for or related to the subject and articles of local and national newspapers provided the sources for the paper.

1. Introduction

The discussion about Religious Education (hereafter referred to as RE) is very important to the development of the subject. Current debates in RE can only be understood in relation to legislation and policy within and beyond the subject. This article attempts to contribute to the discussion regarding one of the basic issues of RE within public education: Is the State really concerned with RE?

The responsibility for Education and RE in Greece rests exclusively with the State. General public education is compulsory for nine years and it is provided for all children in primary school for a period of six years (from the age of six) and then for three years in secondary school (Gymnasium). After nine years of compulsory education it is possible to continue for three years of General Education (Lyceum) or in a vocational school (Technical Lyceum). During the twelve years of education RE is a compulsory subject and it is taught two hours per week every year except the third class of the Lyceum (one hour per week) and the three classes of the vocational school (one hour per week during the first and second classes).

2. Education in Thrace

Thrace is a region in the northeastern part of Greece bordering Turkey and Bulgaria. As it was ruled for five centuries by Ottomans the population was mixed with Turks, Bulgarians, Greeks, Pomaks, Jews, Armenians and Roma (Tsitselikis, 1996, p. 274-5). The region was given to Greece in 1920 after the end of the First World War. This was followed by the large-scale Greek-Turkish population exchanges of 1923, agreed in Treaty of Lausanne (Martin, 1924, p. 959-1022), which finalized the reversal of Western Thrace’s demography. The Treaty granted minority status to the Muslims in Western Thrace, in exchange for a similar status for the ethnic Greek minority in Istanbul and the Aegean islands of Imbros and Tenedos. The two minorities were entitled to have their own bilingual educational system. So from the first decade of 1920 in Thrace, along with the Greek public schooling system, a Minority education system has existed. Of course at first continuing the Ottoman schooling system it provided only basic RE for Muslim students. The system, however, gradually changed becoming more ‘secular’ after 1923 while at the same time Muslim religious schools (medreses) have remained and Muslim RE was and still is an integral part of the curriculum of the Minority schools.
Minority education has retained autonomy until today based on the Lausanne Treaty (1923), the 1951 Cultural Protocol and the 1968 Cultural Agreement signed between Greece and Turkey. In 2002, 223 Primary schools with 7107 pupils, 2 Gymnasiums/Lyceums and 2 Religious Schools with 905 students functioned for the Minority in Thrace (Tsitselikis, 2007, p. 6). Furthermore, an increasing number of Muslim adolescents register at Greek public schools because the Minority secondary schools could not satisfy all the applications due to their limited capacities. According to the official data of the Greek Ministry, by the 2008-9 school year, the number of Muslims students in public Greek Secondary schools was 4650 (Report of Greece, 2008, p.1).

2.1 Religious Education in Greek Public schools and Minority schools in Thrace

The framework for RE in Greek public schools is provided by the basic Law for Education (1566/1985) which requires that all students on a mandatory basis have to have been taught the authentic tradition of the Orthodox Church (article 1, paragraph 1). In addition, article 13, paragraphs 1-2 of the Constitution guarantee the basic right to freedom of religion and associate it with the development of religious consciousness. As a consequence, several interpretations exist in the pedagogical and theological area for the context of RE though the official organisation (Pedagogical Institute) which has had the responsibility for contributing to the curriculum since 1997 states that RE is an ordinary subject in the state education system which tries to be faithful to the transmission of democratic values and critical openness. Thus RE was considered as an open-ended educational process that does fair justice to religious pluralism whilst providing religious literacy and supporting students in developing their cultural identity by teaching mainly Christian Orthodoxy, other Christian traditions, world religions and worldviews and in cultivating a spirit of solidarity, peace and justice, respect for religious diversity and coexistence with the ‘other’ (Ministry of Education & Pedagogical Institute, 2003, p. 174). Until this year the 2003 Curriculum for compulsory education (Primary school and Gymnasium) and the 1999 Curriculum for the Lyceum and Vocational schools still remain although the State constructed a new Curriculum in 2011 for compulsory education, which will be examined below, and a curriculum pilot scheme is still being carried out in a small number of schools (3 Primary schools and 2 Gymnasiums in Thrace). It is important to mention that everyone has a right to be exempted from RE through an application arguing that his religious consciousness is offended in the RE class.

RE in Minority Primary schools, taking into account the minority’s identity and its religious diversity, has been based on exclusively teaching the Holy Qur’an. The particular RE aims ‘to develop the religious feeling’ attempting to teach that ‘Islam relies on moral and good origins’ and ‘faith in God and to uphold his commandments’ (article 17) (Ministry of Education, 1957). Minority RE has a catechetical perspective and in the Minority Lyceum it becomes more an Islamic theology (Hatzopoulos, 2008, p. 72). Suffice to say that RE books have the title ‘Religious Culture and Ethics’ (Din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi). Finally, RE in Minority Primary and Secondary schools has the same timetable as the public schools except for religious schools (medrese) where RE has to be taught 3 hours per week in the three classes.

3. Three legislative moves challenge ‘secular’ education

In the context articulated above three different moves of the legislative and judicial branches of government posed arguments and raised critical voices about how the State uses RE generally in the post-modern era and especially amongst a multi-cultural, multi-faith and multi-ethnic community such as the Thracian.

3.1 New Curriculum of Religious Education (2011)

Greek governments have been reforming the educational system since 2007. As a result in 2011 they presented the ‘New School’ (Ministry of Education & Pedagogical Institute 1 2011) which has been implemented as a pilot scheme until now. ‘New School’ maintains RE in all public schools as a subject within the national curriculum, conforming to its framework of targets, programmes of study, aims and attainments. This means that RE in Greek schools still has a centralised role, within the curriculum at least. The timetable has had no changes made to it providing seven years of RE for all students as have all the previous curricula since 1985.

The basic aim of the curriculum is religious literacy (Wright, 2000, p.179-180) but it is focused on educating citizens so as to develop religious consciousness, to be open to dialogue and tolerant of diversity. ‘Learning about’ and ‘Learning from’, terms, derived from the British pedagogical and epistemological experience (Grimmitt, 1987), are used decisively in the curriculum. In fact the orientation of the new curriculum differs from the previous one (2003) in terms of curriculum construction. Its provision has changed from a curriculum focused on aims to one oriented in process (Elliot,
1998) and as a product of emancipated teachers (Stenhouse, 1975) dominated by representation of learning actions and interactions that facilitate student enquiry, and to construct and evaluate knowledge by themselves. The basic criteria for the actions and interactions that the curriculum seeks to promote are:

1. to contextualise knowledge with everyday life,
2. to support the acquisition of knowledge together with its implementation,
3. to present current issues, related to students’ lives by active learning procedures in developing their own coherent patterns of experience and knowledge (Ministry of Education & Pedagogical Institute1, 2011, p. 12-13).

Moreover, the new curriculum of RE is neither confessional nor catechetical as the designers of the curriculum had at least stated. The fundamental philosophy of its construction is the context of the aims and the subjects which are one, for the first time, and coherent for compulsory education, both primary and secondary.

The curriculum frames the following statement aims:

1. to construct a strong cognitive and comprehensive basis for learning about Christianity and Orthodoxy as a factor of spiritual reality, a living source of inspiration, faith, ethos, a key to the concept of the world, man, life and history and as a Greek and European cultural tradition.
2. to provide students’ with knowledge of the phenomenon of religion in general and world religions in a sense of being a source of faith, culture and ethos.
3. to support students in developing the skills, attainments, positions and attitudes of a religious literate person, cultivating at the same time moral and social awareness.
4. to develop knowledge, critical understanding, respect and dialogue between students of differing religious backgrounds and moral orientations.
5. to contribute to students’ individual identity construction, holistic (religious, cognitive, spiritual, social, moral, aesthetic and creative) development through enquiry into the concept and complexity of life (Ministry of Education & Pedagogical Institute1, 2011, p. 18-19).

Naturally, there are already within the aims some hints about criteria for the selection of content for the function of the classroom. The aims imply that there will be some balance between the traditional beliefs, the individual’s beliefs and an engagement with human experience. Although the topics of RE are based largely on Christianity RE teachers should decide on the topics while bearing in mind their students and their experience. That means that a multi-cultural and multi-faith class provides the criterion for selecting phenomena, events and topics which best exemplify or illustrate the issues and beliefs of their religion firstly and all the others secondly. The constructors of the new Curriculum seem to be promoting a RE for all students though it is still founded on Orthodox theology and tradition.

3.2 Decision of the Administrative Court of Chania concerning withdrawals from RE (11.12.2012)

The Administrative Court of Chania (a city on the island of Crete-the southern part of Greece) issued a twenty page decision (115/2012) concerning withdrawals from RE due to the fact that nine RE teachers appealed against the director of the Department of Secondary Education of Chania. The case started when the local department of the Greek Federation of Secondary Education State School Teachers (ELME) published a document (2010), referring to a recommendation of ‘The Greek Ombudsman’ (2008), which mentioned that the principals of the schools should know that all the students regardless of their religion (and the Orthodox students) have the right to withdraw from RE citing reasons of consciousness without requiring any justification. As the Greek Federation had no authority to give instructions to school principals and the director of the Department of Secondary Education of Chania hadn’t responded to this move, the court decided the following:

The court accepts the ‘omission of the obligatory legal action’ on the part of the director of the Department of Secondary Education of Chania. Moreover, the court deems that no state authority or body is allowed to interfere in the inviolability of the individual’s conscience and to inquire into their religious beliefs or to force the disclosure of any convictions in relation to God unless that individual voluntarily makes known his religious affiliation to the State authorities for the exercise of specific rights which the law recognizes for the protection of religious freedom. Since the Orthodox Christian Church is designated by the Greek Constitution as the predominant religion, the development of the religious consciousness is conceived as being in accordance with the teaching of the principles of Orthodox Christian Church. The method of teaching the RE lesson as is drawn up by the curriculum is not in opposition to the requirements of pluralism, diversity of opinions and multiculturalism. According to Greek Constitution and Laws...RE is compulsory. Exemption from RE for Orthodox Christian students is not conceivable because the development of religious
consciousness is a constitutional binding requirement not only for the State but also for the Orthodox Christian student. As it is a court decision it is binding for the school principals in Thrace and all over Greece. Therefore they are obliged to examine, if someone applies to withdraw from RE, his religious affiliation. Furthermore, it should be noted that the decision explicitly states that the justification for withdrawal from RE while disclosing at the same time his religious beliefs, when someone has voluntarily applied to withdraw, is not against his right of religious freedom. In any case the court accepted that a) the recommendation of the Greek Ombudsman (2008) is in direct conflict to the Greek Constitution, the State laws, decisions of the Minister of Education, decisions of the Council of State and decisions of the European Court of Human Rights (Administrative Court of Chania, 2012, p. 5) and b) the Greek State is not bound by the Greek Ombudsman’s opinions (Administrative Court of Chania, 2012, p. 6-7).

3.3 Amendment of Law 3536/2077 (articles 36-40) for the appointment of 240 imams in Thrace

As Law 3536 of 2007 and its specific articles (36-40) which voted for the appointment of 240 imams in Thrace has never been implemented, the Greek Ministry of Education amended it in 2013 (Amendment of Law 3536/2007-16 January 2013) in order this time to push forward the appointment since the first time the appointment had never been signed by the muftis (religious heads of the Minority). This fact was a result of their opposition to the selection committee which consisted of non-Muslim civil servants albeit that the committee had completed the imams’ selection procedure. The amendment has radically changed the consistency of the committee (its majority will be Muslims) and contains a new arrangement which is of great interest to this research. The imams will teach the Holy Qur’an in the mosques and, in the Greek public schools where Muslims students study by choice. The Islamic RE lessons will be given during the timetable, the students will not get grades for them and they will not be compulsory. The Amendment essentially enacts a formal Islamic RE for the schools of Thrace and only for the students of the Minority who attend Greek public schools and have the right to withdraw from RE due to reasons relating to their religious consciousness. Above all it starts the procedure for the appointment of RE teachers in mosques and schools while the State is not certain that Muslim students will be obligated to examine, if someone applies to withdraw from RE, his religious affiliation. Furthermore, it should be noted that the justification for withdrawal from RE while disclosing at the same time his religious beliefs, when someone has voluntarily applied to withdraw, is not against his right of religious freedom. In any case the court accepted that a) the recommendation of the Greek Ombudsman (2008) is in direct conflict to the Greek Constitution, the State laws, decisions of the Minister of Education, decisions of the Council of State and decisions of the European Court of Human Rights (Administrative Court of Chania, 2012, p. 5) and b) the Greek State is not bound by the Greek Ombudsman’s opinions (Administrative Court of Chania, 2012, p. 6-7).

4. Discussion: Does the State really care about children’s Religious Education today?

First of all some explanation must be given to answer the question why the State in 2013 enacted its decision for the Muslim Minority to have a right to their own RE in the public schools when the Minority had never actually made an application for this to happen.

The State has made sure that the Greek Orthodox Church has no responsibility for RE in public schools, even though it is confessional, and that non-Orthodox students have the right to withdraw from it. Only Catholics on the island of Syros applied to have their RE as the Law 1566 of 1985 stated. Moreover when the new curriculum of RE (2011) is neither confessional nor catechetical and open to other denominations and religions the State seems to have the aim of promoting a RE subject for all students. At least that is what can be identified from the first stage from the documents above. Therefore the State has no reason to appoint Muslim RE teachers in the event that Muslim students might apply to have an Islamic RE. There is no certainty that it will happen, bearing in mind that the Amendment provoked among the Minority a variety of reactions.

It is obvious that the State did not have RE in mind when they amended the law. The main problem is the appointment of the imams in the mosques by the Greek State whereas in Thrace the minority has two religious leaders (muftis), the one who has been appointed by the State and the other who has been elected by the members of the Minority. This controversial issue has been discussed in Thrace, Greece and during the inter-state negotiations between Greece and Turkey since 1985. Of course now it is directly related to the Amendment and that is the reason for newspapers quoting it as the ‘Amendment for the pay of the imams’ (Patronidou & Vafiadou 2013, p.3-5) referring to the issue of the two muftis and the role of Turkey (Bakirtzakis, 2013, Meletis, 2013). The issue above is illustrated by the advocacy of the Minority Member of Parliament Hatziosman, A. and his opposition to the Amendment in Parliament: Why hasn’t the Law of 2007 been applied? Because the Minority, all the members of it, did not accept it...I am asking every person responsible for this Amendment: Has the issue of the mufti been solved? The Minority has sought for a solution since 1985 (Stamoulis, 2013, p.6). On the other hand the General Secretary of Religious Affairs of the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, Culture and Sports, Kalatzis, G. claims that suspicion is rife. We are talking
about a law that was not applied in 2007. People then who trusted the Greek State and applied for the positions have never been paid. It is obvious that he speaks about those who applied in 2007, had been evaluated and selected by the committee but were never appointed. And he adds: Others who have trusted other sources are now very well paid (G. Kalatzis, personal communication, May 28, 2013). The issue is much more controversial than it first seems and that can be concluded from the reaction of the Turkish government to the Amendment. The Turkish Prime Minister, Erdoğan, R.T. raised the issue during an unofficial meeting between him and Greek Prime Minister, Samaras, A. Therefore the latter stressed that the: Amendment addresses previous failings of the Law of 2007. If imams become civil servants that will be an improvement and not a downgrading of them (Ravanos & Athanasopoulos, 2013).

However, what is not yet apparent is why the State decided to appoint the imams not only for religious and rituals duties in mosques but for RE for the Muslims in Greek public schools also. The Greek General Secretary of Religious Affairs explains that making this move confirms on an international level, and to an international audience that our country has no issues with Islam. Whether the Minority itself exploits this enormous advantage or not is entirely their own matter and is their right to do so. Do Muslims want to integrate as equals into society? If the answer is yes, then they have to learn Greek (G. Kalatzis, personal communication, May 28, 2013). He clarifies the point that Islamic RE only in Greek public schools in Thrace would be a motive for Minority parents to enrol their children in Greek schools. The problem is whether the children would learn Greek or not. The lessons of The Qur’an dispel two myths. Firstly that Greece is against Islam and secondly that it aims to Christianize the Muslims in Thrace...Although the Muslims should applaud the Greek initiative, a number of people of the Minority are prominent at an international and European level in condemning the new Islamic RE. What they are afraid of is not the lessons of The Qur’an but the possibility for the Minority to learn Greek. I do not know whether it has been clarified or not but large sectors of the population in Thrace do not speak Greek. And it is to our shame that they do not speak Greek. In this context RE could play a role. Not a basic one but at least a role (G. Kalatzis, personal communication, May 28, 2013). Moreover, while the Amendment of the Law 3536 of 2007 refers to Law 1566 of 1985, it is not safe to say that there will definitely be in every public school 5 Muslims in the same school year that would probably apply to have Islamic RE. It is obvious that a possible Muslim withdrawal from RE does not simultaneously mean the entrance of the imams into public schools. What is important to add for this research at this point is that the Greek State has openly expressed its aims to educate the minority children from 2006 when a Ministerial Decision 61539/G2/10-6-2006 introduced a pilot scheme in 4 schools in Thrace including the Turkish language as an elective course at public schools not only for the Minority but for the majority also. It was a clear attempt to invite Minority children to register at Greek public schools. The scheme had been running for 3 years while the number of the students at pilot Turkish classes was: a) in 2006-7, 31 students, b) in 2007-8, 37 students and c) in 2008, 45 students (Huseinoglou, 2012, p. 259). The scheme was stopped due to the Greek financial crisis (Secondary Education Office of Rodopi, personal communication, June 10, 2013) but the numbers indicate that participation was very low. Considering the success of this scheme one could assume that it is not apparent that registration at public schools by Muslims will increase in the case of an Islamic RE. So what is the purpose of the Amendment? Probably the answer is the word ‘ability’. George Kalatzis repeated it 5 times when he talked about the Minority, the Amendment and ‘the ability to have their RE’ (G. Kalatzis, personal communication, May 28, 2013). What he pointed out is that that is the reason that the Greek State stepped forward, as has been mentioned above to prove internationally that Muslims in Thrace are treated equally by the Greek Law.

However, does the research on the legislation point to any particular interest by the Greek governments in RE? As far as the elements of the study provide more explanations, the answer could not easily be positive. In other words, a vital question is inevitably posed: is in 2013 a confessional RE suitable for a multi-cultural, multi-faith and multi-ethnic community such as the Thracian? Current research evidences stress, firstly, that it is impossible nowadays to understand contemporary issues, problems and human culture without knowledge of the religious plurality which is a factor that makes the interpretation of the phenomena more difficult exactly because a variety of traditions, religious and philosophical, exist. Educational scope is maintained by exploring within and across faiths, enabling students to learn different religions, beliefs, traditions and values, and their influences on individuals, societies, communities and cultures. Some results of the REDCo –Project (covering 8 European countries) underline the importance of religious literacy which is one of the main aims of education in the post-modern era. Teenagers’ perspectives on the role of religion in their lives, schools and societies illustrate that: 1) Religious pluralism is not only accepted, but welcomed by the students, 2) Students expressed criticism against truth claims that exclude people of other religions or world views and 3) In spite of the awareness of the conflicts caused by religions and the difficulties arising from religious plurality, the majority of students appeared to share a vision of peaceful coexistence in a religiously plural society (Valk, Bertram-Troost, Friederici, Béraud, 2009). Secondly, school is the main recourse and an actual safe environment for learning about
Religions and religious perceptions of other students, especially for those who have no commitment to one religion or others who are atheists. Besides for those who are members of a religious community, the school provides the main opportunity to come into contact with other religions and beliefs. Thus school offers unique possibilities to promote students’ understanding, communication, tolerance and respect between and towards each other encouraging students to reflect on, analyse and evaluate their beliefs, values and practices and communicate their responses. REDCo research revealed a trend among youngsters that may be considered as important. It says that most students in Europe would like school to be a place for learning about religion and worldviews, rather than for instruction in a particular religion. At the same time in the European area there has been a dialogue for inter-religious and intercultural education since 2001 and the products of it are a) the White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue (2008), that its principles provide the intercultural dialogue and its dimension of religious and non-religious convictions as significant factors for the development of tolerance and cultural coexistence, b) the Toledo Guiding Principles on Teaching about Religions and Beliefs in Public Schools (a result of Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe- OSCE based in Vienna) (2007) which is an essential tool for the study and knowledge about religions and beliefs in schools, based on the rationale of religious freedom and c) the recommendation 1720/2005 (2006) that encourages the governments of member states to ensure that religious studies are taught at the primary and secondary levels of state education by an objective and inter-religious method. Finally, it is important to note that when the State in a multi-cultural society (Thrake) chooses the policy of ‘educational appeasement’ (Golovos, 2007) maintaining the differences while it claims to respect human rights, on the surface, it is undoubtedly that inter-cultural education and community cohesion are absolutely not the factors that affect the State’s educational policy. If the Greek government really aims to confront the problem of social/ national cohesion it has to promote even more amongst the youngsters the democratic values of equality, justice and solidarity because it thus not only guarantees the rights of all citizens, but also the right of all cultural communities to preserve for them important cultural elements and to participate in common culture (Taylor, 1994). Some researchers have extended the post-modern concept of culture by referring to a ‘new multiculturalism’ which is particularly useful. Through his fieldwork in London on cultural discourse, another researcher Bauman (1996) suggested that it was a ‘dominant discourse’ that treats cultures as separate and homogeneous and this separation creates a superficial view of the issues. In particular the Minority is not a unified whole though the State treats them in this way. In contrast to the dominant discourse is a ‘demotic discourse’: the dynamic process of making new culture through interaction (Bauman, 1996).

Finally is the RE for public schools promoted by the Greek State a non-confessional RE in the end? The answer is not explicit because a discrepancy would be revealed if one compare the claims that have been exemplified in the curriculum (2011) of a non-confessional RE and the opinion of politicians and journalists that RE in Greek public schools is catechetical. What is really going on in the classrooms is more complicated. The fieldwork for this particular research illustrates that the publications in the local newspapers of the capital of Thrace, Komotini (9 publications in Xronos and 8 publications in Paratiritis tis Thrakis) describe RE as catechetical. Our children are taught the Bible in the schools said Martidou, M. director of Xronos (M. Martidou, personal communication, May 11, 2013) something that is not valid. Moreover, Kalatzis G. say about RE: The Christian RE does not force anyone to believe in God. It only gives the opportunity to someone to learn about the majority’s faith. That is a useful social skill above all else because the Orthodox Church has influenced our culture, our worldview and the way we see ourselves (G. Kalatzis, personal communication, May 28, 2013). Dragona. Th., additionally, the Special Secretary for Single Administrative Affairs Department of Educational Planning, Education Greek children abroad, Intercultural Education and Decentralization during the period (2009-10) of the construction of the new Curriculum of RE (2011) wrote in her article about the appointment of imams in Thrace: As long as the children of the majority have catechesis in the school, why not allow the minority children to have lessons in The Kur’an? Besides they can have more religious lessons (catechesis) in case they want to, outside school just as the Christian children do in the Sundays schools (Dragna, 2013). The State’s purported interest in children’s catechesis, an issue that should only concern the various religions, seems strangely belated. What is apparent from the legislation and the discussion above is that the State takes into account that RE in public schools is an important factor in the construction of national identity. That is clear in the Law of Education (1566) and in the decision of the Administrative Court of Chania. Besides, the new Curriculum sets out the framework to construct a tolerant attitude against diversity by adjusting to what the current situation is and above all to the demands of International Institutions and The European Union (Koukounaras-Liagkis, 2012) but the content of the curriculum is based mainly on the Orthodox Christian doctrines, texts, history, ideas and values. Finally, on the other hand the Amendment of the 3535 Law stresses most explicitly the differences between the religious communities in Thrace by fostering within the context of a ‘secular’ education a confessional RE and constructing therefore amongst children...
different identities in a multi-culture and multi-faith society.

The complexity of the context is steadily revealed, because above all the situation is a matter of policy. Furthermore in Thrace the conditions are much more complicated and difficult to interpret. What the research undoubtedly pointed up is that Greece as a secularising society tries to adapt its legislation to the secularized policies of E.U. However, it is essential for one to take into account that the issue of the Minority of Thrace is related to a Muslim non-secularised country, Turkey. In this context RE might be used just as a medium for political aims or a medium for educational aims and social change. According to the three aforementioned moves the Greek government does not seem to have taken the latter seriously.

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Social Effects of Mobile Technology on Generation Y Students

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Abstract

The past decade has witnessed a dramatic invasion of mobile technology into the lives of people. Among those who appear to be most affected by this invasion are university students who are the most ‘connected’ generation. Research has found that in excess of 60% of students have access to either a desktop computer or a laptop and about 90% of them own a cellular phone. With university students being increasingly immersed in the latest social media such as Facebook, Sim City, MySpace and World of Wars there may possibly be serious social effects as a consequence. The purpose of this research is therefore to determine the social effects of mobile technology on Generation Y students. A quantitative research approach involving the administration of a structured questionnaire to Generation Y university students was used to collect data for the study. Data was collected by a trained research assistant who personally administered the questionnaire at the different university campuses. The data were analysed in the following ways: a descriptive analysis of the sample composition was undertaken and exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to establish the social effects of mobile technology. Seven factors, namely self-esteem and confidence, recreation, family interaction, social interaction, attentiveness, personal well-being and peer relationships were extracted. These factors are likely influence their lives as well as their behaviour. The overwhelming majority of respondents that own mobile technology suggest how indispensible it has become as a mechanism to communicate, surf the net and engage in entertainment activities. Given the critical role that mobile technology plays in the lives of Generation Y students’ lives, it is important for them to create an appropriate balance between their usage, attention to their academic programmes and their social lives.

Keywords: Mobile technology, social effects, social networks

1. Introduction

The past decade has witnessed a dramatic invasion of technology into the lives of people. People form relationships when they are connected in networks and these networked relationships are termed social media. Social media is a time consuming activity which makes significant inroads into the lives of people (Safwat, Adel, George & Sobhy, 2012; Wang, Chen & Liang, 2011). One of the most popular social devices is the mobile phone.

Mobile technology has progressed from an instrument which was used only for making or receiving calls to that which allows the user to take pictures, send short text messages (SMS), surf the net (Internet), pay accounts and use it as a small portable computer (Dickson, 2010). Along with these amazing improvements which appear to be positive and offers many conveniences, a different picture of the technology has emerged. Research (e.g. Ha, Chin, Park, Ryu & Yu, 2008; Yen, Hsiao, Ko, Yen, Huang, Liu, & Wang, 2010; Wang et al., 2011) has found that the technology is capable of contributing to changing behaviour of individuals. Among these behaviours are health compromising behaviours which result in individuals foregoing opportunities to engage in physical activity, anti-social behaviours which result in spending less time with family and friends, neglect of important responsibilities such as academic and career responsibilities and disordered eating behaviours. In some instances, addiction to sexting has been reported (Weiss & Samenow, 2010).

Hatch (2011) estimates that more than 500 million people keep in touch and communicate using social networking which is an indication that our lives become increasingly technology driven. As technology becomes more available and affordable adults get increasingly absorbed and reliant on technology and children become passionate users too. Rideout, Foehr & Roberts (2010) found that young individuals are exposed to media an average of ten and three quarter hours per day. If multitasking is taken in consideration this average is seven and a half hours per day.

Among those who appear to be most affected by the invasion of mobile technology in their lives are university students who are the most ‘connected’ generation and described as techno-savvy (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008). An integral cohort of this group is Generation Y students. In South Africa, this cohort represents a significant portion of the
population. Although experts differ on the exact start and end dates of this age cohort, if one takes into account that Baby Boomers are those individuals born between 1946 and 1964 and Generation X those born between 1965 and 1979 (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007), then the starting date for Generation Y would be 1980. Research (Kotler, 2003; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007) suggests that the end date for this cohort is 1994. In the South Africa context this cohort is the first generation to grow up in the post-apartheid era (Bevan-Dye, Dhurup & Surujlal, 2009). They have grown up in a multimedia rich world, which provides them with instant connection to global happenings and information, and allows for the creation of virtual social networks, such as Facebook, Sim City, MySpace and World of Wars.

2. Problem statement

Recent developments and advancement in communication technology has resulted in a dramatic evolution of the mobile industry. The use of mobile technology has increased so significantly that it has become one of the most dominant influences on society in current times (Campbell, 2005).

The mobile phone has become the most popular form of electronic communication which has become a status symbol for young people (Netsafe, 2005). It is a fashion symbol whose features, appearance and personalised accessories attest to the phone’s status. Young people are reported to use this technology to organise and maintain social networks (Campbell, 2005; Williams & Williams, 2005), go on the Internet (Enpocket, 2005) and communicate (Livingstone & Bober, 2005).

Despite the numerous positive contributions and conveniences associated with the use of mobile technology, it is highly likely that these may compromise other important facets of young adults’ lives. Billieux, Van der Linden, D’Acremont, Ceschi & Zermatten (2006) argue that from a social point the status of mobile technology may change from one which supports social exchanges to that which clearly interferes with them. Little is known regarding the social effects of the use of mobile technology on Generation Y university students. It is therefore important to understand the effects of mobile technology use among university students as these may impact on their academic and social life as well as their academic performance.

3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the social effects of mobile technology on Generation Y university students.

4. Research methodology

An extensive literature review on mobile technology and its influence on people’s lives was undertaken. Arising from the literature review a questionnaire, which formed part of the empirical investigation, was developed to investigate the social effects of mobile technology on Generation Y university students.

5. Sample and procedure

The sample in the study comprised a non-probability convenience sample of 350 Generation Y university students from university campuses in the Gauteng province of South Africa. The Generation Y cohort comprises individuals born between 1980 and 1994, and constitutes a significant percentage of the South African population. Students enrolled at universities constitute a particularly attractive sample to collect data from regarding mobile technology.

Data was collected by a trained research assistant who personally administered the questionnaire at the different university campuses. The questionnaire was administered over a period of two weeks before students sat for their semester exams. This period was chosen for the data collection as students did not have to attend classes and had available time to participate in the study.

At the outset participants were informed both verbally by the research assistant and through a covering letter of the purpose of the study. Ethical considerations such as the participants’ right to anonymity, confidentiality, privacy or non-participation, informed consent and protection from discomfort, harm and victimisation were adhered to.

6. Research instrument

The questionnaire used to collect data comprised three sections. Section A requested demographic information of the
respondents, Section B requested information on the social effects of mobile technology and Section C investigated participants’ dependence on mobile technology. The items in Section B were scored on a 5-point Likert scale which was graduated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This paper focuses on the social effects of mobile technology. Two academics, one being an expert in mobile technology and the other in quantitative research reviewed the instrument for content validity. Furthermore, the instrument was pretested with a convenient sample of 10 Generation Y students. This was done to ensure that there was no confusion or ambiguity regarding the understanding of the questions and to ascertain how long it took to complete the questionnaire. Arising from their feedback, minor revisions were made to the questionnaire. In order to test the reliability of the instrument a pilot test was conducted on a convenient sample of 60 university students.

7. Data analysis

The data were analysed in the following ways: a descriptive analysis of the sample composition was undertaken and exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to establish the social effects of mobile technology. The Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS – version 21) was used to analyse the data.

8. Results

8.1 Demographics

Of the 350 questionnaires which were administered, 276 completed questionnaires were returned (response rate=78.86%). More female respondents (60.4%) than male respondents (39.6%) completed the questionnaire.

With regard to ownership of technology 89.85% of the respondents indicated that they owned a personal computer or a laptop while almost all respondents (99.64%) indicated that they have cell phones. The data thus revealed that the majority respondents have both a personal computer (or a laptop) and a cell phone. It is interesting to note that 82.60% of the respondents did not own tablets (or iPads), suggesting a preference for other types of mobile technology. The most common activities respondents engaged in when using the computer was surfing the Internet (72.81%), followed by using e-mail (58.33%), social networks (57.24%), research activities (42.39%), playing games (41.30%), doing word processing (40.94%) and visiting chat rooms (10.86%). On the other hand, the most common activities respondents engaged in using their mobile phones were to make calls (80.79%), followed by social networks (73.91%), texting (56.88%), surfing the Internet (52.53%), using e-mail (42.75%), visiting chat rooms (38.76%) and playing games (32.97%). With regard to their preference between computers and cell phones respondents indicated a preference for the cell phone rather than a computer to visit Facebook (51.81%) and chat rooms (86.59%). However, they preferred to use a computer for e-mails (65.21%).

With regard to social aspects the results revealed that 2.54% have no friends, 8.69% have one to two friends, 19.92% have three to five friends, 16.30% have between 6 and ten friends and the majority (51.08%) has more than ten friends. With regard to how Generation Y students spend their time when they are bored 46.01% indicated that they hang out with friends, 18.11% surf the Internet, 9.78% prefer to talk to family and 2.89% will call a friend. A small percentage (18.11%) indicated that they choose to do other activities than the listed activities. When Generation Y students have a need to talk to friends about their emotions, family issues, friendships, and other related issues most respondents indicated that they preferred to do so face to face (51.44%) and mobile instant messages (29.71%) in contrast to Twitter, Facebook or direct telephone calls. When asked whether their parents complain about their use of computers or cell phones, the majority Generation Y students (59.05%) indicated that their parents do not complain, while 40.57% parents do complain about their use of computers or cell phones. The main reason for the complaints is that use of computers or cell phones takes too much time which means less interaction with parents. Another reason why parents are concerned that the use of computers and cell phones was that it made less time available for studying. Bad behaviour, ethical issues, lack of focus on health-related activities and arguments with parents or family members also occurred as a result of their cell phone use.

8.2 Exploratory factor analysis

In the first instance, the appropriateness of factorability on the data set was established. The Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) was conducted on the data set. Both these
tests (KMO = .762; sig. = .000) indicated that the data was suitable for factor analysis. Principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was applied to the 30 items in Section B of the questionnaire. Varimax rotation, which reapportions variance among factors so that they become relatively equal in importance, was used to simplify factors by maximizing the variance loadings across variables (Gillespie, Derevensky & Gupta, 2007). Using a minimum eigenvalue of 1, the PCA extracted nine factors. Upon examination of the rotated factor matrix it was found that 6 items multi-loaded on more than one factor. These items were subsequently removed and the iterative process was then re-run to achieve a clear factor structure. Subsequently, seven factors which accounted for 61.36 % of the overall variance in the scale item scores with two to five loadings on each factor were extracted. These factors included self-esteem and confidence (5 items), recreation (5 items), family interaction (4 items), social interaction (3 items), attentiveness (2 items), personal well-being (3 items) and peer relationships (2 items) Item reliability for each extracted factor was evaluated using Cronbach alpha (α). The factors’ internal consistency ranged from 0.613 – 0.817, which were close to or greater than the recommended significance level of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) indicating an acceptable level of reliability. The rotated component matrix illustrating the resultant factors, eigenvalues and Cronbach alpha reliabilities provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Rotated factor loading matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>F1 Self-esteem and confidence</th>
<th>F2 Recreation</th>
<th>F3 Family interaction</th>
<th>F4 Social interaction</th>
<th>F5 Attention</th>
<th>F6 Personal well-being</th>
<th>F7 Friends</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy performing in front of an audience</td>
<td>.619</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>-.070</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find it easy to start a conversation with a stranger.</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>-.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with people I have never met before is easy for me.</td>
<td>.877</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>-.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can easily participate in an ongoing debate</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>-.100</td>
<td>-.107</td>
<td>.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have no problems making new friends</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>-.082</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my extracurricular activities</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>.486</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exercise regularly (walk, gym, jog).</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>-.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I regularly practise sports (swim, football, hockey).</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>-.131</td>
<td>-.153</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very active in my daily life.</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.701</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I practice my hobby regularly.</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.726</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>-.078</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my relationship with my family.</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>-.025</td>
<td>.657</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often discuss my problems and concerns with my family.</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>-.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My family supports me.</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>-.082</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I share my feelings with my family.</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>-.161</td>
<td>-.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often watch television with my family.</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>-.138</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often eat with my family.</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often interact with my brothers and sisters.</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>.349</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>-.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I listen to other people without interrupting them.</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I pay attention to other people’s discussions.</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>-.040</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-.020</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my general health.</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my academic</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>-.020</td>
<td>.743</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of variance explained</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>12.56%</td>
<td>12.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-esteem and confidence</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>11.34%</td>
<td>23.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recreation</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>9.72%</td>
<td>33.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family interaction</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>7.89%</td>
<td>41.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social interaction</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>6.38%</td>
<td>48.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attention</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>6.69%</td>
<td>55.066%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal well-being</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>6.29%</td>
<td>61.360%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peer relationships</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>6.69%</td>
<td>68.06%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Discussion

In the analysis of the social effects of mobile technology, seven factors were identified.

Factor 1, labelled **self-esteem and confidence** consisted of 5 items and accounted for 12.56% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 4.30. This factor is concerned with the positive effect that mobile phones have in increasing self-esteem and confidence among users. It also has the potential to boost the morale and confidence of individuals (Metha, 2012). Chen, Hsieh & Kinshuk (2008) reported that the use of mobile phones resulted in increased confidence and enjoyment among students. Hatch (2011), on the other hand, suggests that the more students are engaged in communicating through electronic media and less face-to-face, the more they begin to feel lonely, shy and depressed.

Factor 2, labelled **recreation** consisted of 5 items and accounted for 11.34% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.91. This factor is concerned with the effect that mobile technology is assumed to have on participation on recreation activities. While mobile technologies are used for recreation by many individuals, these technologies also have the potential to lure individuals away from other forms of recreation such as hobbies, sport, reading etc. Zhang (2012) opines that mobile technology relaxes people by providing them with a variety of entertainment. The authors argue that with the conveniences that mobile technology provides, a negative aspect is that it makes people lazier.

Factor 3, labelled **family interaction** consisted of 4 items and accounted for 9.72% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 2.40. This factor is concerned with individuals’ interacting with family members. Contrary to the belief that mobile technology will cause members to drift apart, anecdotal evidence suggests that it actually brings family members closer. Mobile technology is the common ground many families use as a platform for discussion. Williams & Williams (2005) posit that the introduction of mobile technology in the lives of families has detraditionalised family practices giving rise to ‘new’ parent and child relationships. The traditional family relationship is being replaced by more reflexive and democratic interactions.

Factor 4, labelled **social interaction** consisted of 3 items and accounted for 7.89% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.59. Social interaction, in the context of this study, is concerned with interaction with family members. Lanigan, Bold & Chenoworth (2009) reported that 45% of the participants in their research indicated that mobile technology impacted their family relations positively while 24% indicated a mixed impact and 20% a negative impact.

Factor 5, labelled **attention** consisted of 2 items and accounted for 6.38% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.22. This factor is concerned with one’s ability to pay attention to others despite having one’s mobile technology on oneself. Hatch (2011) posits that as one gets immersed in mobile technology, all activities associated with it become a constant distraction from other important activities. This may result in individuals focusing on many things at one time without paying full attention on any single thing.

Factor 6, labelled **personal well-being** consisted of 3 items and accounted for 6.69% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.20. This factor is concerned with the effect that mobile technology has on one’s physical and psychological well-being. Cotten (2008) commented that very little is known about the influence of mobile technology on the well-being of individuals. The author, however, is of the view that the impact of mobile technology may be mediated through other psychosocial aspects of individuals such as their self concepts, sense of mastery or self-efficacy over their lives. In some instances mobile technology has been found to influence physical well-being associated with musculoskeletal disorders resulting from sustained and awkward postures adopted by individuals while using mobile technology (Pitman, 2008).

Factor 7, labelled **peer relationships** consisted of 2 items and accounted for 6.29% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.07. This factor is concerned with the social effects of mobile technology on peer relationships. Williams & Williams (2005) found that the effect of mobile technology on peer relationships has transformed peer groups into truly networked societies. It is indicative being part of the peer group. Campbell (2005) posits that ownership of a mobile
phone signifies that one is socially connected, accessible and in demand and communication using the device is central to the identity of the user. The authors add that young people’s usage of mobile phones affects the functionality or micro-coordination of their social life.

10. Limitations and implications for further research

A limitation of the study is the nature of the sampling method. A non-probability convenience sampling method in a single province in South Africa was used. Therefore caution should be exercised when generalising the social effects of mobile technology to other provinces. Notwithstanding this limitation, this study makes a significant contribution to the knowledge base of the social effects of mobile technology.

Arisng from the results of the study are implications for further research. Extending the study to other provinces in South Africa and comparing the results may provide a more comprehensive illustration of the social effects of mobile technology on Generation Y students. The dearth of scholarly research about the influence of mobile technology on the well-being of Generation Y students suggests that additional research in this area is warranted. Such research would expand one’s understanding of the social effects of mobile technology.

11. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the social effects of mobile technology on Generation Y students. The study identified seven factors which were associated with mobile technology usage of Generation Y students. These factors are likely influence their lives as well as their behaviour. The overwhelming majority of respondents that own mobile technology suggest how indispensable it has become as a mechanism to communicate, surf the net and engage in entertainment activities. Given the critical role that mobile technology plays in the lives of Generation Y students’ lives, it is important for them to create an appropriate balance between their usage, attention to their academic programmes and their social lives.

References


Abstract

The analysis of values in textual structures is relevant in three overlapping areas. First, representations of social reality in discourse (and in sociological interpretations of discourse) are always value-related. Second, the definition of positive identities of the speaker as people who know and can be trusted, involves values that must be generated not only inter- or extra-textually but also in the structures of the text itself. Third, the arousal of emotions or even passion is based on values that are present but often hidden in textual structures. This paper investigates the values discussed in Oprah Winfrey episode hosting Queen Rania of Jordan, addressing the following question: how the social values of Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania of Jordan were revealed in the episode? The transcript was analyzed based on Fairclough model for Critical Discourse Analysis and his contextual dimension approach of discourse. The results suggest that experiential values were revealed in Queen Rania’s dialogue using overwording and rewording. Relational values were revealed through formality of relation, as Oprah Winfrey expressed politeness, respect for the Queen’s status and position. Expressive values were shown in the Queen’s dialogue expressing herself as a subject who has a position as a Queen, and her own social identity as Jordanian women. Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania draw upon personal pronouns dichotomy by classifying people into categories built upon each one ideological representation of reality.

1. Introduction

The term discourse refers precisely to the capacity of meaning-making resources to constitute social reality,” forms of knowledge and identity within specific social contexts and power relations” (Hall, 1997, p.220). Fairclough (1992) suggested that we can distinguish three aspects of constructive effects of discourse. Discourse contributes first of all in the construction of what are variously referred to as ‘social identities’ and ‘subjects positions’ for social ‘subjects’ and types of ‘self’. In other words, discourse constructs social identity, by defining groups, group’s interests, their position within society and their relationship to other groups (cited in Wodak, 1995, p.126).

According to Fairclough, critical language study (CLS) conceptualizes language as a type of social practice. He defines the term discourse as “practice, which is discoursal, meaning actual talk or writing. Interdependent networks within discourse and practice are called orders of discourse and orders of practice” (Fairclough 2001, pp.34-35). The social roles are always in accordance to situation and context. They are connected to particular social positions as e.g. a student and teacher, in which there are certain ideals and requirements that must be followed. These positions are termed “subject positions”. They continue to be a part of social structure through the continuation of the same subject positions (Fairclough 2001, pp.30-33).

2. Aim of the study

This paper investigates the values discussed in Oprah Winfrey episode hosting Queen Rania of Jordan, addressing the following question: how the social values of Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania of Jordan were revealed in the episode? The data selected for this study is the interview of Oprah Winfrey with Queen Rania of Jordan, dated on May 17, 2006.
3. Theoretical background

The analysis of values in textual structures is relevant in three overlapping areas. First, representations of social reality in discourse (and in sociological interpretations of discourse) are always value-related. Whether we talk about sex, gender, ethnicity, war, or public health, our conceptual systems are invested with values, albeit often tacitly and in an invisible way (Sulkunen & Torronen, 1997). This is one of the most important mechanisms of persuasion, not only in political texts but also in scientific discourse (Atkinson 1990). Second, the definition of positive identities of the speaker—for example—as people who know and can be trusted—involves values that must be generated not only inter- or extra-textually but also in the structures of the text itself. Third, the arousal of emotions or even passion is based on values that are present but often hidden in textual structures (Sulkunen & Torronen, 1997). In traditional content analysis, values are usually conceived as an element of what Fairclough (1992a) calls the contextual dimension of discourse. For him, texts “are seen to represent values embedded in ideology, attitudes, or power relationships outside the text” (p.193). Fairclough’s appeal to combine contextual analysis of the content to intra textual form is particularly relevant in the analysis of values (Fairclough, 1992a).

Unlike knowledge, ideologies are systems of social cognition that are essentially evaluative: they provide the basis for judgments about what is good or bad, right or wrong, and thus also provide basic guidelines for social perception and interaction. It is therefore assumed that the basic building blocks of ideologies are sociocultural values, such as equality, justice, truth or efficiency. Typically, such values are not limited to specific groups, but have broader cultural relevance. This means that they may be culturally specific and culturally variable, although some values may be universal (Hofstede, 1980; Rokeach, 1973, 1979). Each social group is assumed to make a self-interested selection from these values, and assigns a hierarchy of relevance to them as a function of its social position and goals for each group. These values, as Dijk (1995) states, may be expected to “constitute the basic evaluative criteria for the opinions that define ideological systems” (p.248).

4. Critical discourse analysis in practice

When applying critical discourse analysis to content, the aim is to uncover the text’s embedded values in order to reveal any hidden ideological frameworks operating within a given case. Fairclough (1995a) argues that using a critical approach to discourse analysis tries to make visible the connections between properties of texts and social processes and relations, which are not obvious to the actual producers and interpreters of these texts. However, in practice interviews are as complex and vivid as any other type of interaction, and responses to answers which may seem neutral and non-committal in the abstract may have an important impact on the trajectory of the interaction.

Discourse in this sense refers to “the language used in representing a given social practice from a particular point of view” (Fairclough, 1995b, p. 56), whether it is written or spoken language (Fairclough 1995a). Moreover, interviews have been used extensively in discourse analytic work because they allow a relatively standard range of themes to be addressed with different participants—something hard to achieve when collecting naturalistic materials. Discourse, as argued by Jager (2001), “is not created by one individual; it is a historical process which evolves through time” (p. 37). According to this view the values and norms and laws and rights, which are based in analysis, are the historical outcome of discourse” (Jager, 2001, p.34).

Fairclough (2001) distinguishes between three different values of a text, namely experiential, relational and expressive. These are applicable at any level—word, grammatical or cohesive level—of the critical discourse analysis. The meaning of experiential values “reflects the knowledge and beliefs of the producer in question, which is evident in the choice of wordings”. The terminological choices of texts are often the most ideological pointers within it since some words are “unconsciously associated with certain ideological frameworks” (Fairclough, 2001, pp.94-95). Thus, as Fairclough adds, “the occurrence of particular words will uncover the discourse types the words are drawing upon and contributing to” (Fairclough, 2001, p.95).

One particular sign of an ideological framework within a text is over-wording. “Overwording indicates preoccupation with certain aspects of reality, which may reveal an ideological struggle” (Pierce, 2008, p.293). It includes three main meaning relations, namely synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy (Jackson, & Amvela, 2004). In synonymy words have the same meaning. However, it may be difficult to find words with exactly the same connotation, so in actuality one is looking for near synonym between words (Wanne, 1996). In hyponymy the meaning of one word is embedded in the meaning of another word in one ideological discourse type (Hudson, 2004), whereas antonym implies meaning incompatibility between words (Allan & Brown, 2009).
Experiential values of a text may be analyzed by examining its classification schemes. A classification scheme is a particular way of dividing up some aspects of reality, which are structured upon ideological characteristics the words have in common. In this way, “the structure of a vocabulary, namely synonymy, hyponymy and antonym, is ideologically based” (Fairclough, 2001, pp. 96-97).

The idea of relational values reflects how a text’s choice of wordings depends on and creates social relationships between members of a particular group (Abe, 2000). For example, “the use of pro-anorectic vocabulary such as the inspiration entails experiential value in terms of a pro-anorectic representation of a grouping, but its use may also have relational value, assuming that such pro-anorectic ideology is common ground for the speaker and other participants” (Fairclough, 2001, p.98). Fairclough adds that the text producer may “not always be aware of the relational values his or her text is establishing as he or she often adopts strategies to avoid negative values of words for relational reasons” (Fairclough, 2001, p.98).

A text producer evaluates the reality the text treats through the vocabulary, namely the expressive values. Fairclough (2001) states that expressive values are interconnected with experiential values; “the experiential values represent the text producer’s knowledge and ideas, while the expressive values represent the text producer’s way of judging” (Fairclough, 2001,p.99). According to Fairclough, “the text producer’s evaluations are expressed by drawing on classification schemes, which are ideologically significant” (Fairclough, 2001, p.99).

5. Methodology

In this study the data will be analyzed first based on the three overlapping areas mentioned by Sulkunen and Torronen, (1997), including representations of social reality, positives identities, and arousal of emotions. Next, the chosen data will be analyzed through Critical Discourse analysis (CDA) as a main tool ,using Fairclough (2001) presentation model for CDA, distinguishing specific elements of the critical discourse analysis theory including experiential, relational and expressive values of words, which are relevant for our transcript. In addition to Fairclough (1992, 1996) contextual dimension approach of discourse.

6. Analysis and Results

6.1 Discourse and Social Values

Language is a resource for the creation and maintenance of social relations and value systems. Every discourse voice, embodied in text, constructs a stance towards itself and other discourse voices.” It evaluates, explicitly or implicitly, what it has to say and the relation of what it has to say to what others do say or may say. Its evaluative orientation includes, but is not limited to, certitude or truth value. It can define any value orientation toward what it says and/or toward what others say: appropriateness, usefulness, morality, pleasurability; all the forms of’rightness’ and ‘goodnes’ “(Lemke, 1988, p.2).

Beginning with the three overlapping mentioned before. First Queen Rania represented a social reality in her discourse, like in the following utterances:

Queen Rania: “When the honest truth is that my life is very much about dealing with issues on the ground.” Here the Queen reveals the value of honesty to deal with her social position and reality as Queen.

Queen Rania: “A lot of the problems that our country faces. And that's something I do on a daily basis.” Here she is talking about ethnicity and her country, the fact that she is a queen and she deals with the problems of her country on a daily basis.

Atkinson (1990) stated that our conceptual systems are invested with values, albeit often tacitly and in an invisible way. This is one of the most important mechanisms of persuasion, and it is obvious in the following utterance said by Queen Rania: “Because once she has the education, she can then have control over her income, she can change her life, she can have choices. And I truly believe that education--and when we talk about poverty, in my mind, poverty is a she. You know, so many women around the world are just condemned to a life...”. Another instance where value is embedded, and persuasion remains invisible is: “And this is not true. As long as a woman is wearing it because of her belief. And I always say we should judge women according to what's going on in their heads rather than what's on top of their heads”. Oprah by replying “very good for you, yeah”, gives a reflection being persuaded by the values offered by the Queen.

Second, the definition of positive identities of the speaker. According to the virtue perspective, an identity is
positive when “it is infused with the qualities associated with people of good character, such as master virtues, like wisdom, integrity, courage, justice, etc.” (Park & Peterson, 2003, p.33). Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania as someone who knows and can be trusted involves virtue values:

Oprah Winfrey: “You know, I believe in educating girls, too. And I love your—I quote you all the time when you say educating a girl, you educate the future.

Queen Rania: “Absolutely.”

Oprah Winfrey: “Yes.”

Queen Rania: “And one of the most important things that you can do for a girl is to empower her with her education.”

Oprah Winfrey: “That’s...(unintelligible).”

Here both Oprah and Queen Rania has positive identities, the fact that they encourage women to be more educated both have the value of courage and wisdom, to reinforce the thought of empowering women by education.

Third contextual dimension of discourse so called by Faiclough (1992a). Texts are seen to represent values embedded in ideology. Dimension is a personalized framing reflecting the way in which participants formulate their ideas, overtly expressing their own perspective that frames statements. For example, mental verbs express (think, know, suppose, guess..) the personal state of mind (Upton, 2007), which is revealed in the following utterances lines

“Queen Rania: ‘I think what would surprise most people is just how alike we are. You know, and this is something I have found out through my travels. Whether I’m in China, India, Africa, United States or Europe, you walk into a room and you meet someone and you think you’re going to be so different. But once you go beyond the mannerisms, the language, the cultural idiosyncrasies, you realize that you’re basically the same, you know?’”. Here the use of mental verb accompanied with the personal pronoun I express the state of mind of the Queen that going beyond the cultural difference she realizes that people are the same they are alike.

Moreover if something has the same value or worth for all, or almost all, people, is of universal value. This claim could imply two important different means. First, it could be that something has a universal value when everybody finds it valuable. This was Isaiah Berlin’s understanding of the term. According to Berlin, as cited by Jahanbegloo (1991) “...universal values....are values that a great many human beings in the vast majority of places and situations, at almost all times, do in fact hold in common, whether consciously and explicitly or as expressed in their behavior...” (p.37). Second, something could have universal value when all people have reason to believe it has value. Throughout the conversation valuable utterances reflect a great deal of universal values:

“Queen Rania: Mothers are mothers all over the world. They want the best for their kids.

Oprah Winfrey: Mothers are mothers. Kids, yeah.

Queen Rania: They want to have dignity, their rights.

Oprah Winfrey: That’s true.

The fact that mothers are mothers and kids are kids, is a universal ideology existed in both culture the one of Oprah Winfrey and the Queen.

6.2 Experiential value of vocabulary:

“A formal feature with experiential value is a trace of and a cue to the way in which the text producer’s experience of the natural or social world is represented. Experiential value is to do with contents, knowledge, and beliefs.” (Fairclough 2001, p.93). This quote means that when writing a text, the author will automatically choose words, which to a certain degree, will reflect his own worldviews. In this connection, we see the deciphering of these worldviews to be reliant on the social and cultural understandings of the receivers.

There are experiential values connected to the words in the Queen’s usage of such phrases as: “The day I found out that I was going to be in this position, it was really terrifying because I had self-doubt. I wasn't particularly sure-footed. I didn't know what was going to happen to my life or what would happen to my children, you know” can be read in terms of representing, what Fairclough refers to as, overwording (Fairclough, 2001) and show the Queen’s concern or, preoccupation with the problem that she is discussing. The two phrases both have negation constituents and can be interpreted as that she wants to stress her point which is deduced from the fact that the phrases occur in utterances following each other.

The synonyms are occurred in two shapes Overwording mentioned above and the Rewording occurred in the repetition of educating girls, these utterances are naturalized in a conscious and systematic way. The aspects of overwording and rewording can help us find the experiential values presented by the characters in the different scenes.
Generally, it is useful as it helps us to find different systems of belief in the conversation that we analyze. The occurrence of antonymy and hyponymy within the conversation between Queen Rania and Oprah Winfrey doesn’t exist. Seems that both women agreed on the values offered from their both sides.

6.3 Relational value of vocabulary:

Here the main matter is relational values as explained prior to this, it deals with the way a text’s selection of words rely on and assist in creating societal relations among members of a given society it includes features of formality. Introduced by Fairclough(1996), “formality is a common property in many societies of practices and discourses of high social prestige and restricted access”(p.65). The term formality covers the use of words of a ceremonial, professional, conventional, or traditional nature usually connected to a certain social instance or status example the opening scene of Oprah introducing the Queen:

Oprah Winfrey: “She is the world's youngest queen, and we're honored to have her here.

Please welcome her Royal Majesty Queen Rania.”

The formality of the situation here demands formality of relations and this evident in the vocabulary, which consistently opts for more formal choices against less formal available alternatives. Expressing politeness, respect for status and position. Noticing the polite title + surname modes of address that are used her Royal Majesty Queen Rania.

6.4 Expressive value of vocabulary

“A formal feature with expressive value is a trace of and a cue to the producer’s evaluation (in the widest sense) of the bit of the reality it relates to. Expressive value is to do with subjects and social identities […]” (Fairclough, 1996, p.93).

Expressive values are important to this project as it evaluates the identities within the given text and places them between the qualities of either virtuous or vice.

The expressive values of words can cooperate with the feature of classification schemes in constructing social identities represented in the conversation. Hereby it partakes in depicting the different ideologies connected to the different characters. They are evident in some phrases expressed by Queen Rania where she uses categorizations such as their problems, somebody else creating a distance between her and people living in this area. Furthermore, this is also a way of distancing the ideology of the Queen from that of others.

Another expressive value is represented in the answer of Queen Rania concerning wearing the veil, where her answer was “it’s a personal choice”. Here the Queen presents her own opinion and evaluation of wearing the veil as it is a part of reality, thus expressing herself as subject who has a position as Jordanian Queen within her social relations present in society. Also she expressed her own social identity as a Jordanian Queen representing the Jordanian Muslim women by using the pronoun we.

Following up another instance of expressive value when the Queen evaluates raising up her 12 years boy by instill him with the right values, where she describes values as the shield.

The evaluation that takes place here provides a clear representation of how she views the role of values.

Queen Rania and Oprah Winfrey draw upon I/we/us, you/your dichotomy by classifying people into these categories. They use personal pronouns, which indicate their preoccupation with the issue of identity. One can say that she is drawing upon a classification scheme (Fairclough,2001, p.96) as they split a given element of ‘reality, built upon a particular ideological representation of that reality’ (Fairclough,2001,p.96) in this case the ‘reality’ refers to people and the ideology that people should be unique, and not like everybody else. This can be detected from the mere fact that each one makes the categories of ‘us’ throughout her use of discourse.

7. Conclusion

In the foregoing interview, we have examined the values revealed by Queen Rania of Jordan and Oprah Winfrey. In the interview, Queen Rania expressed her experiential values by using overwording and rewording. Expressive values were shown in the Queen’s dialogue expressing herself as a subject who has a position as a Queen, and her own social identity as Jordanian women. Oprah Winfrey revealed relational values through formality of relation, as she expressed politeness, respect for the Queen’s status and position. Both women shared common values such as educating girls and empowering women, as the culture plays a very important role in the spreading of common values, which are described by Hofstede as ‘universal values’. In addition, Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania draw upon personal pronouns dichotomy.
by classifying people into categories built upon each one ideological representation of reality. It is possible to say that these kinds of ideologies that Oprah Winfrey and Queen Rania spread are important to the maintenance of the cross-cultural dialogue.

References

The Cultural Dimension and Its Influence on the Relationship between the Textile and Furniture

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Abstract

The tapestry contribute to the charm of interior design and comfort of men, its delicate colours complete the style of furniture, certain tapestries, in robust drawing, combine very well with a rustic or contemporary furniture. The tapestries of chairs, "au petit point", naturally accompany the old wood as those of the Beauvais factory. With branches and flowers under the reign of Louis XIV, with medallions under the reign of Louis XVI, with ancient scenes in the Empire, in round bouquets under the reign of Louis-Philippe, the tapestry seat have their frames or their background animated by the decorative themes which characterize each style. The research aims to examine the close relationship between the textile and furniture in the light of The cultural dimension of each society from the XVII century to the XX Century in France.

Keywords: fabric styles – tapestry- furniture style

1. Introduction

Le siège, très souvent objet des arts décoratifs, est parfois aussi un modèle ou une œuvre artistique accomplie en elle-même. Depuis l'origine, les tissus jouent un grand rôle dans l'art du mobilier, notamment pour les garnitures de sièges. L'étude du textile des sièges passe obligatoirement par la connaissance des différents styles. Les tissus se distinguent selon les matières premières dont ils sont composés, selon la manière dont ils sont tissés et selon la façon dont le décor est obtenu. D'un point de vue stylistique, l'éventail des tendances est large d'un siècle à l'autre : du néoclassicisme des sièges Louis XVI, on passe, quelques années après la Révolution, aux formes néopompééennes et dites "à l'étrusque" sous le Directoire. Les lignes s'affinent sous Napoléon 1er avant de rebasculer vers le goût des étoffes drapées et les garnitures complexes sous le Second Empire. L'Art nouveau sera économe en garnitures et utilisera plutôt des bois blancs et des étoffes d'une grande créativité graphique.

2. Problème de la recherche

1. Peu de references qui traitent le textile et l'art du tapissier à travers les époques, par opposition à l'art des ébénistes ou des menuisiers.
2. Peu de sièges de styles ont pu être maintenues sur leurs supports primitifs, dont l'exactitude serait difficile à prouver, ce qui forme un vrai problème de référence devant l'architecte d'intérieure en cas ou il a besoin de créer l'atmosphère d'un certain style de décor à un espace intérieure.

3. L'objectif de la recherche

1. Étude de l'influence de la dimension culturelle sur la relation entre le textile et le mobilier de style.
2. Analyse alternative des étoffes et du mobilier correspondant aux différentes époques ce qui permet de composer un ensemble "d'époque" sans erreur.

4. Méthodologie

La recherche se base sur l'étude du textile ; genres, ornements et couleurs concernant les styles de sièges français à travers les époques de l'histoire allant du XVII siècle jusqu'au XX siècle. La recherche commence par l'étude des dimensions culturelles qui influencent la relation entre le textile et le siège dans les différents styles ainsi que celles

5. Analyses

5.1 Style Louis XIII (1589-1661)

5.1.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges

Bien que la France est devenu la plus grande nation d’Europe, ce n’est elle qui donne le ton. On voit s’y entrecroiser des influences espagnoles, italiennes, flamandes, qui prennent l’aspect de véritables modes. Après les guerres de Religion et le climat d’insécurité, les français éprouvent un certain besoin de confort et de stabilité. C’est une époque de transformation pour Paris, qui s’embellit de maisons particulières et d’édifices publics. La France résiste aux styles baroques qui vont s’étendre en Europe. L’Espagne est le pays le plus puissant économiquement et militairement en Europe et son influence s’étendait jusqu’au sièges (Feray 1991).

5.1.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : Avec la montée de la classe moyenne, la vie familiale se développe. La chaise à bras- fauteuil- devient une "commodité pour la conversation". Grâce à la sobriété de sa forme, elle devient plus confortable et peut facilement être déplacée. L’assise sabaie et se garnit d’un rembourrage. On la recouvre avec des tissus, de la tapisserie aux riches décors ou avec du cuir repoussé. Les chaises reprenaient la forme trapue hispano-flamande, un peu raide avec un siège bas et un dossier peu élevé. Le siège Louis XIII est caractérisé par des lignes droites, son aspect sévère, tempéré par la richesse de la décoration. Les pieds sont parfois en forme de colonne, s’élèvent d’un châssis carré à boules, mais la plupart présentent un piétement en balustres ou à décor tourné, relié par une entretoise en forme de H, avec les pieds antérieurs joints, dans la partie supérieure, par une traverse de renfort supplémentaire d’aspect décoratif. Le siège canné, d’origine hollandaise, est exceptionnel à cette époque. Il allie le tournage à la sculpture. A la fin du règne Louis XIII, le tournage- sous l'influence espagnole- devient plus complexe. Les bois utilisés sont: le hêtre et le noyer (Castellucio 2002).

5.1.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus : Les étoffes provenaient d’Espagne et d’Italie en particulier les velours: de lin, de cotton ou de soie uni, velours de Gênes ou brodés ou façonnés, soies (taffetas, satin…) et damas de coton, tavaïolle, serge, toile brochée, dentelle, Catalogne (drap fin), toile d’argent. Ces étoffes sont lourdes et presque toujours brodées ou soulignées de passementeries et de franges. La broderie, de fils de soie, couvraient entièrement les sièges et permettaient la confection des décors complexes, décoratifs ou historiés. L’emploi de l’or et de l’argent ajoutait à la l’effet de la couleur celui de la richesse. Les soieries tiennent une place importante dans la couverture des sièges. Les cuirs sont un moyen de couverture très en vogue parmi lesquels; le cuir de Cordoue relevé d’or. Les tapisseries moins complexes; les matériaux employés sont le lin pour le canevas, la laine et la soie pour les motifs et réalisés au point de croix. Les tapisseries aux petits points avec des motifs très colorés comme “le fameux point de Hongrie” qui se compose de chevrons emboités, qui affirmaient sa maîtrise de couleurs de fils de laine et de soie. La tapisserie couvrait entièrement dossier et le siège des fauteuils. Sur le siège Fig( 2), un rectangle de broderie de soie blanche appliqué occupe le centre du dossier et du siège, entouré de quatre panneaux de velours de genes cramois, dont les coutures en diagonals et le tour sont soulignés d’une bordure de soie blanche (Morand 1973).

- Ornements des tissus : les motifs Mille fleurs sont très appréciés. emblèmes heraldiques, Beaucoup de feuilles d’acanthe, de fleurs, de ramages, de raises larges, petits carreaux, des scènes champêtres, bibliques, historiques ou mythologiques, sujets de chasse, bêtes, ciseaux, fleurs, ramages et verdures
decorent les tapisseries. (Ossut 2002)

- Couleurs des tissus: Le rouge, le vert et le jaune apparaissent comme les teintes les plus habituelles. Fig( 1)

Fig. 1 siège et tissu style Louis XIII
Fig.2 siège et tissu style Louis XIII

5.2 Style Louis XIV (1661-1715)

5.2.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges


Le mobilier Louis XIV est le plus royal de tous les styles français. Tous les meubles créés pour les appartements du roi à Versailles – avec ses jardins "à la française" - sont des prototypes. A la cour comme dans les châteaux, le choix des sièges suit une étiquette et un ordre hiérarchique. Aux princes les fauteuils, aux seigneurs les plus titrés les chaises, aux courtisans les tabourets, aux "dames d'atours" les coussins posés sur le sol. (Feray 1997)

5.2.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : La structure du grand fauteuil reste celle du règne précédent. Elle est dominée par la rigueur. Aucun type de meuble ne personifie mieux les caractéristiques du Louis XIV et de la période que le sévère fauteuil rembourré, imposant dans son immobile force. Plusieurs éléments contribuent à l’impression de grandeur qui s’en dégage, notamment son dossier rectangulaire, légèrement incliné, entièrement recouvert d’étoffe et excessivement haut, sa large assise, ses accotoirs se terminant par une volute et ses pieds solidalement liés par une lourde entretoise en H ou en X. Le piétement est tour à tour constitué de balustres en bois tourné, d’éléments en forme de gaine ou d’enroulements. En avançant dans le siècle, les bois s’enrichissent de sculptures alternant avec des parties tournées; les pieds accusent un galbe prononcé et ornés de fins motifs sculptés Fig(3). Les sièges sont tournés ou sculptés en bois de hêtre ou en noyer.

5.2.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus: Les tissus sont d’une variété extrême et d’une polychromie éclatante. A l’image de la grandeur du roi, les étoffes précieuses sont largement utilisées. Les soieries à motifs alors en usage sont rehaussées de fils d’or ou d’argent. Leur décoration est le plus souvent symétrique. On trouve les velours et les satins brodés d’or et d’argent ; les soies unies, les taffetas jaunes, la moire, les soies façonnées, le satin blanc, les damas rouge cramoi, aurore ou les damas bleus à bandes de tapisserie, les velours de toutes
couleurs, le velours d’Utrecht (velours en laine mohair sur fond de lin de couleurs opposés) ainsi que le gros
de Tours. les brocarts, les draps d’or et d’argent, le velours uni : peluche de Chine, les tissus de Perse, la toile
des Indes, la gaze rayée, la serge verte, l’étoffe à petits carreaux, les dentelles, la toile fine brodée, parfois les
mousselines. Tapiserie au petit point, au point de Hongrie. Tissées d’Aubusson, d’Auvergne, des Gobelins,
d’Angleterre et de Beauvais. Toutes les garnitures sont, en général, bordées de galon d’or, de frange de soie,
ou de laine, autour de la ceinture (Demetrescu 2002).
• Ornements des tissus Aux jardins "à la française" du 17ème siècle correspond la riger de la composition
floriales des tissus.Gros fruits entourés de branchages, grands motifs en ananas , grosses fleurs, feuillages et
feuilles d’acanthe, arabesques , bouquets, ifs, caisses d’oranger, coquillages, dieux, paysages, arabesques ;
pour les tapissiers : exploits guerriers, graves événements, sujets empruntés à l’antiquité et à l’Ancien
Testament, saisons, chasses de Bruxelles.
• Couleurs des tissus: Les couleurs restent vivent et la couleur rouge, symbole de pouvoir y est très présente
ainsi que le vert, le bleu et le jaune Fig(4 ).

Fig. 3 siège et tissu Louis style XIV
Fig. 4 Damas rouge style Louis XIV

5.3 Le style Régence (1715-1730)

5.3.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

L’étiquette rigide du règne de Louis XIV séloigne. Le rétablissement des relations avec la Grande Bretagne ramène la
vogue du canapé des sièges ,apprécié pour sa légèreté et sa résistance.La cour est désormais à Paris et non plus dans
les antichambres de Versailles ; elle ne tient plus debout devant le roi mais cherche ses aises en s’asseyant dans les
salons. La régence est synonyme de la vivacité intellectuelle ,légèreté pleine d’équilibre et de délicatesse.Les artistes et
les artisans ne travaillent plus guère pour le monarque et sa cour ; les commandes leur viennent des particuliers qui
s’échappent à la containte asphyxiante de l’époque précédente( Demetrescu 2003).

5.3.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : L’étude des chaises donne la vision la plus complète de l’évolution ou de la
transition entre le Louis XIV et le Louis XV. Le style Régence conserve les lignes architecturales du style Louis XIV. Les
formes s'assouplissent, les pieds se galbent Fig(5). Pour faire place aux robes à paniers, les accotoirs se mettent en
retrait, une traverse frontale en bois sculpté formant avec le piétement une ligne sinueuse interrompue, puis la
disparition progressive de l’entretoise et finalement le choix d’un dossier encadré d’un châssis en bois apparent. Les
éléments Louis XIV sont les montants rectilignes du dossier et la forme quadrangle de l’assise. La transition,
parfaitement accomplie, la chaise ne possèdera plus une seule ligne droite, annonçant ainsi le style Louis XV.La
garniture cède la place au bois apparent : doré pour les sièges d’apparat , vernis ou au naturel . Le hêtre , le noyer, les
bois fruitiers et le tilleul servent à la fabrication des sièges. (Bedel 2004)
5.3.3 **Les tissus:**

- **Genres des tissus:** Les sièges sont recouverts de tapisserie, de velours ou de soie. Proches de ceux du style Louis XIV : tapisseries de Beauvais, Aubusson et Gobelins. Soies façonnées, soieries à bouquets, des lampas, des brocatelles, damas, satin, brocart jaune or et gris, velours et satins brochés verts, rouges et blancs, velours et soies unis. Les étoffes sont souvent garnies de galons très ornés (Demetrescu 2003).
- **Ornements des tissus:** Souvent d’inspiration florale, grosses fleurs et gros fruits, reproduction de dentelles sur fond de couleur, semis en quinconce. Les motifs sont de moins en moins symétriques.
- **Couleurs des tissus:** Le bleu dur, le rouge, le vert, le jaune, le blanc, le gris et l’or.

**Fig. 5 siège et tissu Regence**

**Source:** Demetrescu, C. (2003) p. 66

5.4 **Style Louis XV (1730-1760)**

5.4.1 **La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:**

Un vent de frivolité à balayer Lère du protocole des la période de la Régence. Le style Louis XV est créer dans un esprit de confort et de plaisir sans précédant par une société galante très influencée par le baroque italien et les arts orientaux (Indes, Chine, Turquie) ; il règne aussi dans l’air un désir d’exotisme et les étoffes sont décorées de Chinoiserie, d’oiseux merveilleux de Singeries... La vie à la cours resterà faste jusqu’en 1760 et L’engouement pour « l’art de vivre » progressant les demeures deviennent plus intimes et plus confortable. Le mobilier Louis XV est donc charmant, élégant, léger. Les artistes se revendiquent détachés des anciens codes, de la rigidité, de la symétrie et de l’austérité des anciens styles et L’ornementation devient rocaille, courbe et contre courbe. Il est aussi symbole de création et de féminisme. En effet les commandes sont essentiellement faite par ou pour les femmes qui, prenant une place des plus importante à la cour décidèrent aussi des tendances en matière de décoration. Les deux femmes emblématiques en sont la Marquise de Pompadour et la Comtesse de Barry. A la même époque, un nombre de plus en plus grand de bois indigènes et exotiques inondaient le marché. Trois raisons expliquent la mode des indiennes : La Compagnie française des Indes orientales, Les relations entre la France et l’Orient se développent et Ces étoffes sont légères, colorées et leurs couleurs résistent aux lavages. C’est une époque de tranquillité intérieure, richesse en hommes, organisation de la société et des métiers d’art (Mouquin 2003).

5.4.2 **Les sièges:**

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : Le fauteuil cabriolet apparait vers 1740. C’est le premier fauteuil dont le dossier s’incurve pour épouser la forme du dos à la façon du siège de la voiture légère à laquelle il doit son nom. Il est confortable et élégant. Les éléments qui le composent paraissent se couler les uns dans les autres, sans la moindre interruption de la ligne sinueuse qui devient englobante. Les châssis des chaises sont agrémentés de riches sculptures...
de fleurettes, feuillages et coquilles. Le type de siège le plus caractéristique du Louis XV est la bergère, un large et profond fauteuil à dossier enveloppant dit en gondole. Les canapés se déclinent en une grande variété : les sofas (à siège surbaissé) ; l’ottomane (à dossier en corbeille) ; la veilleuse (à accotoirs inégaux)… Bien qu’une grande variété de bois soit employée sous Louis XV, les sièges sont le plus souvent en hêtre ou quelque fois en noyer. La plupart des sièges sont peints Fig 6, notamment les sièges qui s’harmonisent avec les boiseries et le décor mural, d’où l’inutilité de l’emploi d’essences de bois au veinage particulier. Ils sont rehaussés d’un rechampi sur la mouluration. Parfois les sculptures sont dorées à la feuille comme dans le cas des sièges royaux (Jarry, Devinoy 1973).

5.4.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus: Le style Louis XV est précieux ; il réclame des tissus raffinés, élégants, luxueux. Les soieries sont à l’honneur, les indiennes qui sont des toiles imprimées de Perse ou des Indes. Toile de Jouy, Velours, lampas, damas, shantung, brocard, chintz, glacé, taffetas, moire, satin. La tapisserie est moins à la mode ; tapisserie au petit point qui représentent pastorales, chinoiseries et fleurs, elle dédaigne les sujets solennels du Louis XIV. Les tissus de cette période présentent des effets de dentelle, des grosses fleurs, une nature luxuriante. La symétrie et les lignes droites laissent place aux formes chantournées et à la courbe. C’est l’apogée des soieries bizarres, ainsi nommées en raison de leurs motifs étranges et asymétriques. Parfois, une garniture de cuir ou de canne pour les fauteuils de bureau (Wiuegandt 1994).

Fig. 6 Fauteuil à la reine à chassis en bois peint style Louis XV.


- Ornements des tissus : La dimension des motifs est rétrécis par rapport au style précédent et deviennent plus fins : fleurs, feuillages, branchages entremêlés, rubans, chinoiseries pour les soieries, des scènes campagnardes pour la toile de jouy, oiseaux, animaux, bouquets, rubans, branches fleuries, nœuds, grandes lignes sinuueuses de tiges et de guirlandes réunissant bouquets et branches. Pour les tapisseries : attributs champêtres, chinoiseries très à la mode, pierrots, arlequins, colombines, fables de La Fontaine. Les tissus de cette période présentent de grosses fleurs, des formes asymétriques, des scènes exotiques ou des effets de dentelles en bandes ondulantes mêlés à des fleurs. Les bandes de fourrures deviennent un élément récurrent dans les tissus.

- Couleurs des tissus : les étoffes prennent des tons frais et souvent tendres, des reflets glacés, Les couleurs vives cohabitent avec des tons pastels, le jaune, le rose et le bleu lapis lazuli sont très en vogue mais aussi abricot, vert pâle, vieux rouge, cramoisi, blanc se marient aux couleurs de base (Ossut 2002).

5.5 Style Louis XVI (1760-1789)

5.5.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

Le style Louis XVI témoigne d’une période charnière de l’histoire marquée par la découverte d’Herculanum (1738) et
Pompéi (1748) ; un véritable engouement néoclassique qui influença les arts décoratifs. La tendance néo-classique, née sous Louis XV, prend toute son ampleur dans le style Louis XVI. Mme de Pompadour, déléguée par Louis XV aux affaires culturelles, commande des meubles « à la greque ». L’antique chasse la rocallie. Le « Recueil d’antiquités égyptiennes, étrusques, gréques, romaines et gauloises » de Caylus remet à l’honneur les motifs puisés dans le monde gréco-romain (Droguet 2004). C’est Marie Antoinette qui donne le ton.

5.5.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : Le galbe disparait, la ligne droite revient en force. Si la rigueur prédomine la forme, les orнements sculptés d’une très grande variété viennent l’enrichir. En 1776 est créé, pour le comte d’Artois, un nouveau fauteuil au siège circulaire et au dossier en médaille oblong. Cette forme de dossier va connaître une grande vogue tant pour les sièges à la Reine que le cabriolet. Sous Louis XVI, la création des menuisiers s’est exprimée avec plus de fantaisie : grande variété dans la forme des dossiers. Le hêtre facile à peindre ou le noyer qui se prête au sculpture. Les sièges dorés sont réservés pour le mobilier d’apparat (Kjellberg 1991).

5.5.3 Les tissus:

- Couleurs des tissus : pastel et douces, souvent bleu ciel et rose (Fig 7).

Fig. 7 Fauteuil au bois doré style Louis XVI livré par Georges Jacob pour le Grand Cabinet de la reine à Versailles en 1783

5.6 Style Empire (1804-1815)

5.6.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

Le style Empire recouvre la période de règne de Napoléon Ier. L’anticomanie envahissant déjà les arts décoratifs sous Louis XVI et le Directoire et maintenant à son apogée. Ce style ne marque donc pas de rupture mais une continuité avec les styles précédents. Avec le retour de l'expédition d'Egypte, les décors égyptiens se développent. Le début du XIXe siècle sera marqué par l'époque napoléonienne et l'Empereur a voulu imposer au monde artistique l'expression de sa grandeur. Pour cela il va établir une centralisation rigide de toutes les activités artistiques qui seront désormais centralisées par Paris et dirigées par les architectes Percier et Fontaine et le peintre David. Les anciennes académies sont supprimées et remplacées par des expositions où des récompenses sont distribuées aux œuvres qui respectent le style imposé (Bedel 2004).

5.6.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : les décors égyptiens, ornementent des sièges au dossier rectangulaire, aux lignes géométriques, à la silhouette équilibrée et solennelle. Des bronzes ciselés et dorés leur donnent de l'éclat. L'acajou triomphe jusqu'en 1806, date du blocus décrété par Napoléon 1er, qui ferme le continent au commerce britannique. Cessant d'arriver en France, il est remplacé par des bois indigènes, parfois teintés "façon acajou".

5.6.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus: La toile de Jouy s'imposera de plus en plus en raison de son caractère économique. La toile de jouy représente Paul et Virginie, des fables de la Fontaine ou des scenes mythologiques, crin uni en losanges. Le velours uni ou frappé, très prisé, s'accompagne de soie, de satin, de taffetas. Le tissage de la soie atteint une perfection sans égal et Les étoffes sont le lampas, la brocatelle, le damas, les gros de Tour, les brochés et les brocards. En raison de leur solidité le tissu de crin, les tapisseries et les velours (qui peuvent être ciselés ou gaufrés) sont également très appréciés par l'empereur (Morand 1973). Complément indispensable du tissu : le galon de style généralement bicolore. Uni ou à motifs le tissu est toujours souligné de galon.
- Ornements des tissus: les étoffes étant le reflet du pouvoir impérial les motifs en sont marqués : le N ; l'abeille, le flambeau, la rosace, la palmette, les motifs sont généralement géométriques et les instruments de musiques toujours représentés. Semis en losanges, couronnes de laurier, feuilles de chêne, étoiles, palettes, abeilles, marguerites, médaillons avec motifs de cygnes, rayures, faisceaux, motifs égyptiens, motifs antiques, motifs étrusques (Jarry, Devinoy 1973).
- Couleurs des tissus: vives ; La couleur de l'époque est bien sûr le vert empire, un vert profond, mais aussi le carmin, le bleu nuit et le beige parfois agrémenté de motifs jaune d'or. vives ; rouge, vert, jaune, apparition du violet.

Fig. 8 Fauteuil style Empire

5.7 Restauration (1815-1830)

5.7.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

La Restauration est une réaction contre les fastes voyants et la pompe monumentale de l’Empire. Il consiste en un retour à la souveraineté monarchique et voit donc l’expérience d’une monarchie constitutionnelle, avec une période relative de paix dans le contexte international troublé. La Révolution industrielle provoque des bouleversements économiques et sociaux profonds. Les dépenses sont aussi faibles que les finances avec peu de commandes d’apparat. Seule la duchesse de Berry introduit un peu de vie et de gaîté dans la cour. La duchesse de Berry, Marie Caroline de Naples, figure emblématique de la cour influenceront les arts décoratifs : personnalités très dépensières, elles commandent de nombreux meubles et font construire des bâtiments. On poursuit la tradition néo-classique de l’époque précédente. Le romantisme à la mode est loin de l’ambition brutale de l’empereur vaincu (Feray 1997). Les jeunes qui encouragent le romantisme, cherchent leur inspiration dans un moyen âge imaginaire qui mêle l’ornementation classique du décor aux ogives, flèches et rosaces gothiques.

5.7.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : Les formes s’assouplissent, la marqueterie revient. Le fauteuil en gondole connaît un grand succès. De petite dimension, simple, léger et élégant, il restera en vogue jusqu’en 1840. Les sièges se distinguent par des pieds arrière en sabre et des pieds avant en fuseau, en balustre, en console. L’inspiration gothique fait naître des dossiers ajourés en ogive, les pieds avant galbés, les pieds arrière en sabre. En opposition aux sombres acajous, la faveur est aux bois clairs enrichis de volutes d’amarante, de palissandre le jaune pour les bois foncés Fig 9.

5.7.3 Les tissus:

-Genres des tissus: Les étoffes utilisées restent les mêmes que sous l’Empire. Toile de jouy avec des scènes de chasse à courre, crin a palmettes ou à mosaïques, soie, shantung, velours, satin, percale glacée.
-Couleurs: jaunes vifs, tous les verts francs. Les tons acides : bleu opalin, vert mousse, rose, le turquoise.

Fig. 9 Fauteuil et tissu style Restauration

Source: http://www.confort-decor.ch (acces 26/5/2013)
5.8 Le Style Louis-Philippe (1830-1850)

5.8.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

Louis Philippe est le dernier roi de France qui donnera son nom à un style. Après l’échec de la révolution romantique, la bourgeoisie régnant s’identifie volontiers à son souverain. Le roi lui-même n’a aucune influence sur le style. Ayant vécu en Angleterre, il se veut moderne et se contente d’un confort rembourré, dans une prospérité économique. Ce style bourgeois allie entre le désir du confort, la mécanisation du travail et la fabrication en série d’après les prototypes anciens.

5.8.2 Les sièges:


5.8.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus : Le velours connaît un grand succès sous le règne de Louis-Philippe. Toile de Jouy avec des scènes de chasse à courre, percale, chintz, feutre, shantung, satin, mat, percale glacée, crin, velours, satin fermière (Ossut 2002).
- Ornéments des tissus : fleurs mêlées, gros bouquets, motifs orientaux, motifs perses, rayures larges, alternance des raies et de fleurs, motifs géométriques, pois. Volutes, croixes, palmettes et feuilles à larges pétales. Le motif en “cuisse de grenouille” stylisé et en léger relief est très caractéristique (Fig 10).
- Couleurs des tissus : Le rouge, le grenat et le vert, le noir contenant du rouge et quelques camaieux.

Fig. 10 Fauteuil en acajou style Louis-Philippe


5.9 Napoléon III (second Empire) (1850-1890)

5.9.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

C’est un règne de faste et de consommation (on dépense enfin après avoir économisé sous Louis-Philippes), mais c’est dominée par la femme (et non l’homme et l’architecte). L’impératrice Eugénie, fervente admiratrice de Marie-

5.9.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : Aussi à chaque forme de dossier sera adapté un canapé, parfois une chauffeuse, une chaise longue ou une duchesse. Les confidents et les indiscrets sont des créations du second empire. Les copies des styles précédents font florès et les experts d’aujourd’hui peuvent encore être confondus. Les fauteuils sont confortables et profonds ; les supports d’accotoires reculent a nouveau pour accueillir les robes à crinolines comme sous la Régence, pour faire place aux robes à paniers (feray 1997). Le goût pour les bois sombres fait rechercher l’ébène au grain serré, le noyer, l’acajou veiné, l’amarante et le poirier noir.

5.9.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus : Damas, lampas, dans la Tapisserie on sent une influence Anglaise (le siècle victorien). Il s’apparente au style néo-classique anglais en plus orné. Velours et soie. Le capiton connut son apogée. Exécutés dans tous les tissus : velours, percale, satin ou soie, imprimé ou uni, passementeries, glands, cartisanes, câblés. Toile de Jouy de toutes les époques, cotonnades imprimées, le satin fermière (tissus a fond noir ou grenat), la percale glacée Fig11.
- Ornements des tissus: motifs de styles Louis XV et Louis XVI, très chargés, grosses fleurs, chinoiseries, capitons, pois. La période est également caractérisée par des tissus à fleurs, les motifs de fleurs en bouquet rond, à panier, en guirlande sont les principaux éléments décoratifs de ces tissus. Toutefois les colonies apportent leur part en motifs orientaux (Asie surtout), floraux sur fond noir. Beaucoup d’uni mais également des imprimés variés : fleurs, grands ramage, verdures exotiques (Ossut 2002).
- Couleurs des tissus : Généralement clairs (jaunes, crème, écrus, verts pâles) ils sont unis, ornés de grands rameaux multicolores ou de larges compositions florales (fleurs des champs, roses et pivoines). Fondées - bordeaux, bleu foncé, vert foncé, brun (en accord avec le bois), tous les rouges, les contastes avec le noir.

Fig. 11 Fauteuil Napoleon III


5.10 Le style Art-Nouveau (Modern Style) 1900-1919

5.10.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

Au XXème siècle, un courant novateur puissant, formant d’étranges entrelacs parmi de nombreuses sources
d'inspiration : le style néo-gothique, les peintres préré Raphaelles , les estampes japonaises, les verriers, les écrivains voyageurs amoureux de Byzance et de l'Orient. Il prend comme modèle la nature dont il veut capter la vie en s'inspirant de ses lignes mouvantes. Il se caractérise par la ligne asymétrique. La bourgeoisie est la seule à s'intéresser à la création (Loze 2000). Le Modern Style ou Art Nouveau s'inspire du monde végétal. Il fit revivre l'artisanat et éloigne celui de la machine

5.10.2 Les sièges:


5.10.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus : les étoffes deviennent moins précieuses qu'au début du siècle. On préfère le lampas, Le damas, les étoffes brochées et la brocatelle sont encore d'usage mais cohabitent avec les velours (de laine ou coton) et des étoffes imprimées sur toile ou satin. L'Art Nouveau revient pour les modèles de luxe aux riches soieries.
- Ornements des tissus : Les thèmes principaux du Moderne Style sont d'inspiration végétale. Les motifs utilisés sont reliés à la nature, les fleurs (nénuphar, iris, orchidées...), les insectes (papillon, libellules...), des oiseaux, des hippocampes, des serpents, des lézards...et se retrouvent sur les ouvrages d'ébénisterie, de verre, de tissus et d'imprimés divers, de ferronnerie d'art. Plantes et corps de femme et la chevelure féminine, sont sculptées sur les meubles qui ne tolèrent les surfaces planes qu'ornées de marqueture, paysage, semblables à des tableaux, avec l'omniprésence de la flore et la faune symbolique. D'un côté ces lignes sinueuses sont isolées et dessinées comme en filigrane, laissant de grandes parties du fond visibles. L'autre traitement à l'opposé bien qu'utilisant aussi ces mêmes formes sinueuses remplira toute la surface de la tapisserie en un entremêlement inextricable (Morand 1973).
- Couleurs des tissus : Les couleurs dominantes sont les bleu, vert, gris, rose, mauve, beige, au ton doux et pastel. … Les couleurs seules jouant le rôle de contraste et facilitant ainsi la lecture du motif.

**Fig. 12** Siège Art Nouveau (Hector Guimard)


5.11 Le style Art-Déco (1919-1939)

5.11.1 La dimension culturelle influant les sièges:

Avec le style Art déco, s'achève l'histoire des styles, qui donne la primauté à la ligne droite sur les courbes et les
contre-courbes ou les créateurs s'orientent vers des lignes pures et sobres. Tois périodes se distinguent dans le style Art Déco: Une époque de renouveau (1910-1923), une autre que l'on peut nomer "Floral" (1919-1931), une dernière enfin caractérisée par le modernisme et le géométrique (1923-1936).Les ébénistes s’inspirent les uns du Louis XV ou Louis XVI, les autres de la Restauration, d’autres tentent d’opérer une synthèse des styles classiques, ou vont chercher leurs références en Orient ou en Espagne. La découverte de l’Afrique noire, de la civilisation américaine, des voyages rapides et du soleil de la Côte d’Azur a eu des influences sur l’inspiration ornementale des stylistes et des ébénistes, donc un style hétéroclite avec un vif souci d’imagination.

5.11.2 Les sièges:

Caractéristiques des sièges et bois : On assiste à une prolifération de formes sans liens entre elles et faisant à toutes les sources historiques. Une étude rationnelle du confort. Les pieds fuselés, galbés ou souvent fortement inclinés, sont minces. Les chaises d’inspiration rustique sont nombreuses. Le canapé est employé. Le fauteuil club, inspiré de modèles anglais est à la mode ; entièrement recouvert de cuir ou de fourrure( Melagati2010). Le bois peint ou plaqué, ciré ou naturel; les plus employés sont l’acajou sombre, le palissandre. L’ébène de Macassar aux zébrures clairs, ainsi que des bois moins précieux, chêne, noyer, merisier, Des filets d’ivoire, des incrustations de metal, des laques de couleur.

Fig 13

5.11.3 Les tissus:

- Genres des tissus : Autour de 1930 l’industrialisation de la production du mobilier ne permet pas à la tapisserie de siège de s’adapter à toute la profusion créative. Néanmoins pour le mobilier confortable des paquebots, celui des hôtels de luxe et bien sûr celui des hôtels particuliers où maisons bourgeoises, de grands artistes dont Raoul Duffy créeront des dessins pour les textile et y laisseront de superbes compositions. L’art nègre est à la mode et on retrouvera beaucoup de cette inspiration dans la décoration des tissus et de la tapisserie de siège. L’Art Déco revient pour les modèles de luxe aux riches soieries. velours - velours froissé – voilages- le cuir.
- Ornement des tissus : La femme et la nature restent des sources d’inspiration mais leurs contours sont stylisés, à la limite d’un symbolisme qui tend vers l’abstraction. La "rose-Iribe", en 1908, un motif de rose stylisée qui restera l’un des symboles de la période "Art Déco", la rose, aux pétales géométriques enserrés dans des feuilles en triangle( Ossut 2002).

Fig 13 Siège style Art Déco (Clément Rousseau) Paris, vers 1921 Palissandre, galuchat teinté vert, ivoire, garniture en soie gris bleu clair

Source : http://www.lesartsdecoratifs.fr/francais/arts-decoratifs/collections

Durant cette période, on utilise moins la tapisserie de siège. De grands artistes; Raoul Duffy s’intéressent aux textiles d’ameublement et font de superbes compositions. L’art nègre est à la mode qu’ on retrouvera dans la décoration des tissus. D’autres motifs sont très en vogue tels ces décors floraux en demi teintes et sur fond sombre. Ces décorations des tapisseries de siège sont toujours d’un graphisme et d’une composition très stylisés.
Couleurs des tissus : profondes ou demi-teinte (noir, blanc, rose, champagne, abricot...)

Fig. 14 Damas de soie style Art Déco
Fig. 15 Soie Artificielle 1925 style Art Déco


6. Résultats de la recherche

1. La dimension culturelle de la société représentée par les pensées artistiques, politiques, économiques et même sociale à travers les époques subit une influence majeure sur la philosophie du design et par conséquent sur la relation entre le design du textile (ornements, motifs, couleurs, texture) et le style du mobilier.

2. Le designer ou l'architecte d'intérieur doit avoir une bonne reconnaissance du mobilier de style et des textiles associés, cela contribut à la bonne création de l'atmosphère des différents styles dans l'espace.

3. Le siège perd une grande partie de sa valeur esthétique en cas de la méconnaissance du tissu qui s'adapte bien à la forme et au style du siège.

7. Recommandations

1. L'architecte d'intérieur doit de plus en plus développer des qualités d'ensemblier entre l'univers du siège et l'univers du décor pour apporter confort, bien-être et harmonie au cadre de vie dans l'habitat.

2. Il faut encourager les designers du textile à reproduire la philosophie des ornements des styles au moyen des matériaux qui allient entre la bonne qualité, le meilleur prix à la lumière et la technologie moderne.

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Abstract

The European arrest warrant (EAW) is a request by a judicial authority in one of the Member States of the EU to arrest a person in another Member State and to surrender that person to the former state for the purpose of prosecuting or executing a custodial sentence or detention order. It was adopted by the Council of the European Union on 13 June 2002. EAW is based on the principle of mutual recognition to foreign judicial decisions and judgments in criminal matters, simplifies and speeds up the procedure of extradition. The EAW ensures a good balance between efficiency and strict guarantees that the arrested person's fundamental rights are respected. EAW introduced innovative elements as compared with traditional extradition procedure: strict time limits, simpler procedures, no political involvement, surrender of nationals, guarantees, and grounds for refusal. EAW has been adopted along with the Criminal Procedure Law of Republic of Latvia on 1 October 2005. This paper comments on implementation of the EAW in the EU Member States and features some aspects of Latvian experience.

Keywords. The European arrest warrant, European Union, implementation of EAW

1. Introduction

The EAW adopted in 2002 has replaced the traditional extradition system with a simpler instrument of surrender of requested persons for the purposes of conducting a criminal prosecution or executing a custodial sentence or detention order. As the first measure applying the principle of mutual recognition to foreign judicial decisions and judgments in criminal matters, it has been a key development in the creation of a European Area of Freedom, Security and Justice. The success of the European Union's mutual recognition program hinges on the existence of genuine trust between Member States, and especially between all actors in the criminal justice process.

According to the Conclusions of the Tampere European Council of 15 and 16 October 1999, and in particular point 35 thereof, the formal extradition procedure was abolished among the Member States in respect of persons who are fleeing from justice after having been finally sentenced and extradition procedures were speeded up in respect of persons suspected of having committed an offence. On 13 June 2002 the Council adopted the Framework Decision on the European arrest warrant (2002/584/JHA: Council Framework Decision of 13 June 2002 on the European arrest warrant), and the framework decision entered into force on 1 January 2004 replacing the existing conventions in this area: the European Convention on Extradition of 13 December 1957, its additional protocol of 15 October 1975, its second additional protocol of 17 March 1978, and the European Convention on the suppression of terrorism of 27 January 1977 as far as extradition is concerned; the Agreement between the 12 Member States of the European Communities on the simplification and modernization of methods of transmitting extradition requests of 26 May 1989; the Convention of 10 March 1995 on simplified extradition procedure between the Member States of the European Union; the Convention of 27 September 1996 relating to extradition between the Member States of the European Union; Title III, Chapter 4 of the Convention of 19 June 1990 implementing the Schengen Agreement of 14 June 1985 on the gradual abolition of checks at common borders.

The Framework Decision on the Arrest Warrant and surrender procedures between Member States introduced a cooperation mechanism of a strictly judicial nature, which permitted the practical-administrative assistance among
Member State executive bodies, thus leading to the free circulation of criminal decisions, grounded on a system of mutual trust among the Member States' legal systems (Pollicino, 2008).

The offences giving rise to surrender pursuant to the EAW and listed in the Framework Decision 2002/584/JHA Art. 2(2) include, inter alia: participation in a criminal organization, terrorism, corruption, forgery of means of payment, sexual exploitation of children and child pornography, illicit trafficking in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, murder, grievous bodily injury, counterfeiting and piracy of products.

It is important to state that the EAW was the first legal instrument based upon mutual recognition of decisions in criminal matters. It changed the old system of extradition, which has been replaced by a system of surrender within an area of freedom, security and justice. Today, the EU offers its citizens an area without internal borders, within which the free movement of persons is guaranteed, coupled with corresponding measures in the area of external border controls, asylum and immigration policy, and preventing and fighting crime. This concept was introduced in reflection of the view that the tasks of maintaining public order, internal peace and security are distributed between the member states and the European Union (Klimek, 2012).

The Criminal procedure law of Republic of Latvia (21.04.2005. likums “Kriminālprocesa likums”) has been adopted on the 21st of April 2005, and the legal basis related to the EAW can be obtained from the chapters 65 - "Extradition of a person to Latvia" and 66 - "Extradition of a person to a foreign State", within division fourteen - "Extradition", part C - "International Cooperation in criminal matters" of the Criminal procedure Law (CPL), namely Sections 691-695 (concerning cases in which Latvia acts as issuing State) and 714-722 (concerning cases in which Latvia acts as executing State).

Experts with substantial practical knowledge of the EAW were nominated by Member States pursuant to a written request to delegations made by the Chairman of the MDG on 9 September 2005. At its meeting on 28 October 2005 the MDG approved the evaluation questionnaire for the fourth round of mutual evaluations. The objectives of the evaluation exercise and the questionnaire itself are set out in ST 14272/05 CRIMORG 131 COPEN 175 EJN 57 EUROJUST 77. The expert team with the assistance of the Council Secretariat, based on their findings arising from the evaluation visit of 20-22 May 2008, provided recommendations by which the EAW and its corresponding surrender provisions may be further streamlined and improved. This paper reports on implementation of the EAW in the EU Member States and includes some remarks on Latvian experience.

2. General principles of the EAW

The EAW is a judicial decision enforceable in the European Union, issued by a Member State and executed in another Member State on the basis of the principle of mutual recognition. The decision simplifies and speeds up the procedures, given that the whole political and administrative phase is replaced by a judicial mechanism. The EAW is issued by a Member State with a view to the arrest or surrender by another Member State of a requested person, for the purposes of conducting a criminal prosecution; executing a custodial sentence; executing a detention order.

The innovative features of the EAW are attributed to: its judicial nature; partial abolition of double criminality check with reference to the thirty two offences listed, i.e., the rule that an offence must be punishable both in the country, where the requested person is located and in the country issuing the warrant; simplification and acceleration of the surrender procedures; surrender of the requested person under the principle of mutual recognition and mutual trust; independence of the requested person’s surrender from his/her nationality and politics (Gilmore, 2002; Pérignon and Daucé, 2007; Bednarek, 2009; Campana, 2013).

A warrant is applied for purposes of criminal prosecution in relation to acts punishable under domestic law by a custodial sentence or detention order for a maximum period of at least 12 months (during the investigation, examining and trial stages, until the conviction is final) or for execution of a sentence or detention order of at least 4 months.

If they are punishable in the issuing Member State by a custodial sentence of at least three years, the following offences, among others, may give rise to surrender without verification of the double criminality of the act: terrorism, trafficking in human beings, corruption, participation in a criminal organization, counterfeiting currency, murder, racism and xenophobia, rape, trafficking in stolen vehicles, and fraud, including that affecting the financial interests of the Communities. For criminal acts other than those mentioned above, surrender may be subject to the condition that the act for which surrender is requested constitutes an offence under the law of the executing Member State (double criminality rule).

It is stated that the EAW must contain information on the identity of the person concerned, the issuing judicial authority, the final judgment, the nature of the offence, the penalty, etc. (a specimen form is attached to the framework
3. Implementation of the European Arrest Warrant in the EU Member States

The implementation of the EAW was the subject of a first evaluation in 2005. This concluded on a positive note though the EAW was still in an experimental phase (Pérignon and Daucé, 2007). The number of EAWs issued for the year 2005 was more than 6900 and represented more than a doubling compared to 2004, resulting in the identification and arrest of more than 1770 persons, 1532 of whom have effectively been surrendered.

It has been mentioned in the Report made by the commission to the European Parliament and the Council (On the implementation since 2007 of the Council Framework Decision of 13 June 2002 on the European arrest warrant and the surrender procedures between Member States (SEC(2011) 430 final) on the 11th of April 2011 that a number of issued and executed EAWs for the years between 2005 and 2009 is exposed as follows 54 689 and 11 630, accordingly. During that period between 51 % and 62 % of requested persons consented to their surrender, on average within 14 to 17 days. The average surrender time for those who did not consent was 48 days. This contrasts very favorably with the pre-EAW position of a one-year average for the extradition of requested persons and has undoubtedly reinforced the free movement of persons within the EU by providing a more efficient mechanism to ensure that open borders are not exploited by those seeking to evade justice.

Continuing analysis of the above mentioned Report (On the implementation since 2007 of the Council Framework Decision of 13 June 2002 on the European arrest warrant and the surrender procedures between Member States (SEC(2011) 430 final), one can find that, despite the fact that the law and criminal procedures of all Member States are subject to the standards of the European Court of Human Rights, there are often some doubts about standards being similar across the EU. While an individual can have recourse to the European Court of Human Rights to assert rights arising from the European Convention on Human Rights, this can only be done after an alleged breach has occurred and all domestic legal avenues have been exhausted. This has not proved to be an effective means of ensuring that signatories comply with the Convention’s standards. This situation has informed the Commission’s ongoing work on the implementation of the roadmap for strengthening the procedural rights of suspected or accused persons in criminal proceedings. This roadmap, adopted by the Council on 30 November 2009, recognizes in Recital 10 that “a lot of progress has been made in the area of judicial and police cooperation on measures that facilitate prosecution. It is now time to take action to improve the balance between these measures and the protection of procedural rights of the individual”. While retaining the possibility of adding other rights, the roadmap identifies the following six priority measures:

- the right to interpretation and translation;
- the right to information about rights (Letter of Rights);
- pre-trial legal advice and at-trial legal aid;
- a detained person's right to communicate with family members, employers and consular authorities;
- protection for vulnerable suspects;
- a green paper on pre-trial detention.

- Moreover, the above mentioned Report (On the implementation since 2007 of the Council Framework Decision of 13 June 2002 on the European arrest warrant and the surrender procedures between Member States (SEC(2011) 430 final) suggests that protection of fundamental rights in particular must be central to the operation of the EAW system. Action is required in the following areas: 1) transposition: Member States should take legislative action, where required, to address the areas where their implementing legislation fails to comply with the Council Framework Decision on the EAW; 2) fundamental rights: there must be adoption and implementation of the measures arising from the roadmap on procedural rights for suspects and accused persons to ensure that fundamental rights and freedoms are protected and to improve the mutual trust that is essential to the continued operation of mutual recognition instruments such as the Council Framework Decision on the EAW; 3) proportionality: judicial authorities should use the EAW system only when a surrender request is proportionate in all the circumstances of the case and should apply a proportionality test in a uniform way across Member States. Member States must take positive steps to ensure that practitioners use the amended handbook (in conjunction with their respective statutory provisions, if any) as the guideline for the manner in which a proportionality test should be applied; 4) training: the Commission communication planned for September 2011 on European judicial training is intended to address the need for specific training for both judicial authorities and legal practitioners on the implementation of the EAW and on the new measures for strengthening procedural rights for suspects and accused persons. Training for judicial authorities is essential to ensure consistency in issues such as the application of a proportionality test across Member States. The Commission notes that the European Judicial Network will launch a new website in 2011, which will provide a useful tool to ensure that judicial authorities have access to appropriate information on the EAW; 5) implementation of complementary instruments: a considerable amount of work has been done since 2004 on identifying problems and improving the EAW system. There have been four Council
Framework Decisions that affect the operation of the EAW. These measures address the issues of transfer of sentences, in absentia judgments, conflicts of jurisdiction and recognition of supervision orders. Their expeditious implementation by Member States in the near future may further improve the practical operation of the EAW; 6) statistics: we now have several years of statistical data based on replies to the questionnaire devised by the Council Working Party on Cooperation on Criminal Matters in April 2005. Thereafter, replies to the questionnaire have been collated and published for years 2005 to 2009 inclusive. However, as the report states, there are considerable shortcomings in the statistical data available for analysis. There are a number of reasons for this. Not all Member States have provided data systematically and Member States do not share a common statistical tool. Moreover, different interpretations are to be found in the answers to the Council’s yearly questionnaire. There is also evidence of underreporting to Eurojust of breaches of the time limits in the Council Framework Decision, despite the obligation to report in Article 17. The Commission urges Member States to meet their obligation to report. Comprehensive statistics are essential for a proper evaluation of both the successes and shortcomings of the EAW. It is imperative that Member States provide full statistical data, especially those which have not done so to date. The Commission will make every effort to address the shortcomings in the questionnaire on EAW statistics and will look at ways of improving the collection of statistics.

The Framework Decision contains some serious flaws related to the simultaneous restriction of the nationality exception and the dual criminality rule. Whereas it was suggested above that implementing acts could eliminate some of these flaws, it rather appears that those statutes will create as much controversy as they solve (Deen-Racsmany, Blekxtoon, 2005).

As it has been stated in evaluation Report on the fourth round of mutual evaluations held in May 2008 (17220/08: Evaluation report on the fourth round of mutual evaluations), Latvia has decided to transpose the Framework Decision into its national law by inserting several provisions into the Criminal Procedure Law, namely in part C - "International Cooperation in criminal matters", division fourteen - "Extradition", chapters 65 - "Extradition of a person to Latvia" and 66 - "Extradition of a person to a foreign State". As a result of this, the provisions regarding EAW procedures were mixed with the provisions on extradition procedures. Furthermore, the provisions concerning EAW procedures were in general given as an exception to the general rules on extradition, although the EAW has abolished extradition among Member States.

As it appears to be documented in the appendices of the Report On the operation of the European Arrest Warrant Act 2003 (as amended) in the year 2012 made to the Houses of the Oireachtas by the Central Authority in the person of the Minister for Justice and Equality pursuant to section 6(6) of the European Arrest Warrant Act 2003, developments in the year 2012 in relation to EAW received by the Central Authority, are illustrated as follows - 589 EAWs received between 2004 and 2011 were still ongoing at 1 January 2012. 253 EAWs received between 2004 and 2011 were completed in 2012, of which: surrender order executed in 2012: 125, withdrawn - 87, closed following arrest elsewhere – 2, released – 11, endorsement refused – 7, and surrender refused – 21. 359 EAWs were still at various stages of processing at 31 December 2012.

A total of 313 EAWs were received from Member States by the Central Authority in 2012; 170 warrants for Polish nationals, 25 for Irish nationals, 22 for Lithuanian nationals, 34 for UK nationals, 15 for Czech Republic nationals and 8 for Latvian nationals were among those sought on foot of European arrest warrants received in 2012. In all, nationals of 16 countries were sought in this jurisdiction during 2012.

Among the principal offences cited in EAWs received during 2012 were: murder/grievous bodily harm (22), sexual offences including rape and sexual abuse of children (13), drugs offences (34), organized crime/robbery (116), fraud (77), human trafficking (1) (Table 1).

29 persons who were the subjects of European arrest warrants transmitted between 2004 and 2011 were surrendered in 2012, 24 from the UK, one from Poland, one from Spain, one from Slovakia, one from the Czech Republic and one from Lithuania.

4. Conclusions

The Framework Decision on the EAW made in 2002 reflected a philosophy of integration in a common judicial area and showed a new pattern of cooperation based upon mutual trust between Member States. The EAW is the first legal instrument based upon mutual recognition of decisions in criminal matters. It implies a radical change from the traditional extradition system, which has been replaced by a system of surrender within an area of freedom, security and justice, with an impact, in particular, on procedures, time limits and grounds for nonsurrender of a person.

The EAW is supposed be used as a tool for the prevention and repression of crime, while safeguarding the human rights of suspects and convicted persons. The EAW has been designed to further the prosecution of more serious or
more damaging crime which may substantially justify its use, or for purposes of enforcement of convictions. It is only intended to be used if an arrest warrant or any other enforceable judicial decision having the same effect has been issued at national level.

Protection of fundamental rights related to the operation of the EAW system is one of the major statements fixed by commission reports to the European Parliament and the Council.

Latvian implementing legislation is mostly in line with the Framework Decision. However, some divergences can be observed and a number of provisions of the Framework Decision have not been transposed.

References


Legal acts


Reports


Table 1. Classification of European arrest warrants received in 2012 by nature of the principal offence

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Abstract

From the first text electronic books (e-books) to the latest digitally enriched e-books a long distance has been covered. E-book market blossoms while technologies for enhanced e-book development advance rapidly, leading to a surge in the demand for enhanced e-books, especially in education. This paper refers to electronic books and the way simple text e-books can be transformed into enriched e-books. An attempt is also made to highlight the role of enriched e-books in folklore education. Within the above framework, taking into account the rapid growth of electronic books and the availability of several development tools the following approach was adopted: a) Definition of an e-book taxonomy referring to the types and attributes of e-books in order to provide a helpful guide for those who choose to introduce e-books in their teaching meaningfully, b) Specification of the development process of enriched e-books through several applications such as the iBook for iPad, the most prominent candidate for e-book enhancement, c) Identification of the specifications and the process to create learning objects that can be used as enriching digital resources in enriched e-books.

Keywords: enriched e-book, text e-book, folklore, learning object, taxonomy, iBook, iPad

1. Introduction

A significant amount of time has passed since the introduction of electronic books (e-book) and e-book readers. However, the development of e-book devices and standards intensifies from 2004 onwards. Electronic book is referenced in the literature as ebook, e-textbook, web textbook, online textbook, digital textbook, ePUB, Portable Document Format (pdf), Mobipocket etc. and indicates publication of a printed book in electronic form. E-book can be
read in a desktop computer, laptop, handheld computer (handheld device, PDA: Portable Digital Assistant) and standalone devices (Dedicated Reading Device, tablet PC, e-book reader, iPad) (Pedagogical Institute, 2009).

The educational community facing the new trend of digital reading is obliged to participate in an international dialogue for digital books, digital readers and the educational use of new learning tools. There are concerns on the possibility of reading books from digital devices, on the educational benefit of this new form of reading and finally on whether digital books will serve students and educators needs. Especially in recent years, the emergence of enriched e-books feeds this international debate about digital reading by bringing pedagogical design at the focus of discussions. As a consequence, the development of learning objects and their integration in enriched e-books in order to support learning experiences and teaching scenarios gradually comes to the centre of attention. So, we move away from the simple e-book to digitally enriched e-book, which mobilizes more, senses (vision, hearing, touch), provides multiple sources (Internet), offers composition control capabilities (notes, bookmarks, advanced search) and constantly updates its contents with the introduction of new versions.

In the educational sector, especially in folk culture, such books are tools to record, update, distribute and disseminate educational material on folk culture. Moreover, considering electronic readers’ portability we can easily understand the added value of enriched e-books on student visits to museums, cultural sites, fieldwork folklore research etc. Taking into account the interface between Internet (links to material folk culture), web 2.0 applications (authoring tools) and enriched e-books, then we can certainly reflect on ways to create learning experiences enhanced with learning resources based on folk culture teaching scenarios.

2. Digital Reading and Folklore Education

Digital books and digital reading in general have emerged as an important issue in the education community. There are concerns regarding digital reading feasibility and convenience and how useful digital reading can be for both educators and students. Digital reading both as a concept as well as everyday practise is not new to the new generation of students and teachers. Students are accustomed to digital reading through the Internet (e.g. Facebook), mobile phone, PDA and other portable devices, making digital reading an everyday practise. However the mood differs when reading literature in print, browsing the web or performing another task. In the end the prevailing factor in what is exciting for anyone is the content itself and not the media. (Gasouka, Kapaniaris, Arvanitidou, Foulidi & Raptou, 2013; Kapaniaris, Vainas, Papadimitriou & Valatsou, 2010).

Some of the key characteristics of e-book reading on digital devices are the following: a) promotion of reading, as especially young people spend most of their time in front of screens as they are accustomed to this type of reading, b) production of books on hot issues and events in a short time, c) quick content updates for error correction and additional information, d) portability, as reading device can store the contents of a small library, e) people with special needs can benefit, as visually impaired can easily adopt text size and font to meet their needs (Kapaniaris et al., 2010).

Digital reading can be exploited in folklore education through simple and complex learning object development. Learning object development provides the raw material for the digital enrichment process of e-books on folk culture in HTML or any other format (Gasouka et al., 2013).

3. E-book Evolution

E-books are a new trend in education. E-book penetration boosted following evolution of multimedia and the Internet along with enhanced portable e-book reader availability. As Guenette, Trippe, & Golden (2010) mention except for some powerful interactive systems, there is a shortage of enriched digital books that creates uncertainty of their future deployment. The enriched e-book timeline starts at 1990, when Robert Abel founded «Synapse Technologies», a pioneering company for mass media interactive applications, which produced innovative education programs for IBM, including the application «Columbus: Discovery, Encounter and Beyond». Nowadays the evolution of enriched e-book is constant with the majority of them concerning the iPad (Guenette, Trippe, & Golden, 2010).

By introducing high-resolution touch technology, e-book reading has been enhanced through embedded multimedia including narration, music, animation, video and games. Enriched e-books are a developing industry addressing tablet PC and smartphone markets. The majority of e-books are offered in epub format, which is satisfactory for text but inadequate for digital publications requiring precise layout or special formatting, as is the case with children and education books. A constantly increasing number of e-books embed multimedia applications especially in the children and education market (Jack and Beanstalk Aryars Animation, Toy Story by Disney, Cat in the Hat by
Oceanhouse Media, Curious George by Iceberg Reader, and Our Choice by Push Pop Press). These interactive e-books feature animation, sounds for user login, zoom, embedded video and embedded mini-games, making the books more interactive and attractive compared to simple e-books and printed books (Mori et al., 2011; Vasileiou, Hartley & Rowley, 2009).

3.1 E-book Taxonomy

Figure 1 provides an e-book taxonomy taking into account the device (desktop or mobile device), development technology and different levels of reading, interaction and exploration:

a) E-books in pdf, doc, docx or rtf format: created by free or commercial software, featuring fast and easy development but limited interaction.

b) E-books in html and epub format: created by html editors or free/commercial software, introducing a first level of interaction.

c) Flipbooks: created by free or commercial software in html, exe or swf format, featuring interaction through links in webpage resources.

d) Enriched e-books: created entirely in html, featuring high interactivity, exploration and reading.

e) eAnagnosis enriched e-books: created by pdf files using eAnagnosis software (www.e-anagnosis.com), featuring interaction, exploration and reading.

f) iBooks for iPad: enriched e-books for iPad created by iBooks Author software from Apple, featuring the highest levels of interaction, exploration and reading.

![E-book Taxonomy Diagram]

Figure 1: E-book taxonomy

3.2 Enriched e-books

Enriched e-book is defined as a digital form of a book in html, epub, or any other format (like iBook), digitally enriched with simple learning objects (Learning Assets) and complex learning objects (Learning Resources) with specially marked corresponding icons, mouse over enabled object icons and information on every learning object. Learning assets are image, simulation, text, experiment, sound, exploration, video, open activity, model, research activity and data representations while learning resources are education game, practice and training, evaluation applications, educational scenario – lesson plan, role play, glossary, reference guide, textbook, source-reference, webcast, webpage, blog, wiki and social media. (Kapaniaris & Papadimitriou, 2012).

3.3 Enriched e-books and Folklore Education

Learning process in the folk culture area can be enhanced though the use of enriched e-books and generally enriched digital content for presentations, recording and imprinting folk culture views. Enriched e-books and enriched content can be read by special readers and various types of computers, thus enhancing the teaching of popular culture: a) in the classroom (cross thematic approaches), b) educational visits in museums, libraries and exhibition areas, c) fieldwork folk research, d) additional material in school project.

With the help of enriched digital media students have the opportunity to form a new perspective on fairy tales,
myths, riddles, folk songs, folk art and traditional crafts in an interactive way where exploration, participation and the individual learning path is chosen by each student in a fairly constructive way. So students from passive receiver and serial reader of conventional books or sources become more active through interaction with a number of interactive elements, links, informative text pop ups, and by using the internet resources embedded in the enriched books gain the opportunity to participate in folk culture activities and games (Gasouka et. al., 2013).

3.4 Enriched e-book Development

The determining factors for the process of reading, exploring, interacting and generally enriching e-books are based on five key principles and are presented in Figure 2:
  a) Technological framework for the hardware of the reading device (e-reader, iPad, tablet, personal computer).
  b) Technological framework for the authoring software (html, eAnagnosis, iBook).
  c) Depth of the enrichment process (icons linked to learning objects, internet links, links to internal resources – glossary of terms).
  d) Pedagogic/teaching framework of the book.
  e) Learning object types that will be used in the authoring process (simple and complex learning objects).

![Figure 2: Enriched e-books, determining factors.](image)

There are three authoring tools for enriched e-books: a) html language, b) iBooks Author by Apple and c) eAnagnosis, presented in Table 1 below. Learning object development of the learning objects to be used during the authoring process is a requirement for all three.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HTML editor</th>
<th>Apple iBooks Author</th>
<th>e-anagnosis’s Marginalia (Composer &amp; Paspartu)</th>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="HTML editor" /></td>
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<td><img src="image" alt="e-anagnosis’s Marginalia" /></td>
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4. Learning Object Specifications

During the design and development phase of learning objects the following technical and functional requirements must be taken into account:

- Learning objects must rely on some learning theory (constructivism, behaviourism) depending on the learning goal and the context of their use,
- Learning objects must provide added value to the learning process as well as the educational material with which they are combined,
- Learning objects must have an “Info” button which opens an informational card,
- Learning objects must have a “Help” button that provides convenient and readable instructions/help info – utilization of the digital learning object,
- Learning objects must be created in a form that can be posted on the web or in another multimedia application (html, htm, swf, ppt, word, xml, flv, mp3 etc.),
- Learning objects must be compatible with the available browsers (IE, Mozilla Firefox, Opera, Google Chrome, Safari, etc.),
- Operation in relation to the dimension of the learning object in order to allow shadowbox operation,
- Learning object must be accompanied by Metadata, which are declared following its construction according to the standard,
- Technical requirements must be stated for the learning object operation (plug-in).

5. Digital Enrichment through the iBooks Author for the iPad

iBooks Author for iPad is a valuable option for authoring enriched e-books on folk culture by creating units and narrations, fairy tales, biographies, beliefs, crafts, myths, folk songs etc.

There are numerous features available in iBooks offered by iBooks Author software, such as: a) book opening (visible controls, image zoom, transition to a page, word search, table of contents view, add/delete bookmark), b) book commenting (add label, add/delete note, view all notes), c) appearance settings (fonts, zoom, page/text colour, contract, enable/disable justification and spelling).

One of the advantages of using iBooks Author for enriched book development is the organization options offered by the software on top of the interactive capabilities of the iPad. The tool enhances content through exploration, discovery, consolidation, presentation and practise/training. Movies, diagrams, presentations, galleries, 3D objects and chapter reviews are easily introduced, enabling students to utilize multiple senses concurrently through touch and multitouch gestures (tap, drag, pinch, swipe).

5.1 Using iBooks to Develop Learning Experiences

In order to take full advantage of the iBooks authoring capabilities in learning experience development, we need to clarify the notion of a «learning experience». A learning experience is more than developing an activity by using ICT to create satisfactory activities for the students that are effective, easily comprehended and flexible. It also needs to be useful in students' real life. The iBooks and their valuable features must be used to create learning experiences. So, one has to create the conditions to take advantage of multisensory experience and different interaction levels (Thomas, Carroll, Kop, & Stocking, 2012).

Moreover, iBooks applications for iPad satisfy learning experiences and needs of particular schools by adapting school textbooks in order to achieve learning goals for a series of courses (Melhuish & Falloon, 2010).

Thomas et al. (2012) suggest that research and development framework of a complete learning experience consists of four stages. First is the starting stage, where the area and the key goal of the learning research are defined. Specifically, users are identified, user purposes are clarified, context analysis is performed along with market research, and needs assessment and literature review. In the second stage requirements definition and structure definition are performed. Use analysis and determination, interactivity level definition, concept development, identification of cognitive and sensory directions, formulation of the research question, data mining, pedagogic analysis, scheduling based on learning and education process, development technology evaluation and plan finalization are all taking place during this stage. Transitioning is taking place during third stage, namely production control, installation and development of the learning process. Publication of text (content) with accompanying presentations, learning plan formulation along with
overall evaluation and dissemination is taking place. The last stage concerns the creation of the learning experience upon its final plan, structure, testing and reviewing. In effect during this stage the standard material is developed following control and user experience evaluation. Moreover educational research is conducted (interviews, focus groups, ethnography) followed by analysis of the research results and discussion with teachers in order to complete the final deliverable (Thomas et al., 2012).

5.2 iPad in Folk Teaching

Mobile device technology and touchscreen development in tablets like the iPad offer new opportunities and novel approaches in education and folk culture. Folk culture extracurricular activities as well as visits to museums and cultural sites in conjunction with the use of iBooks may have a special impact in cognitive skills building (Jones et al., 2011).

The iPad apart from its portability is an ideal tool to use in rural cultural sites, allowing students to recall documents and enriched e-books in real time while keeping notes or accessing multiple learning object sources in a short time (Melhuish & Falloon, 2010).

Moreover, iBooks offer the opportunity to comprehend complex concepts bringing together mobile technologies and the iPad with folk culture areas and concepts. It is quite impressive how students can use (multi) touch technology enhancing the museum experience with learning through gaming and social media. Children interaction with archived material through publications-reading applications for the iPad enhances the dialectical process not only in the classroom but also in cultural sites by combining digital gaming with raw material (Jones, et al., 2011).

6. Conclusions

Enriched e-books created by authoring tools such as iBooks, e-anagnosis, html techniques and other possible environments are expected to see higher growth in the future. The development rate and future of enriched e-books is associated with the rapid development of portable reading devices (tablet PC, iPad) and with new handling capabilities of e-books provided by the relevant reading software. All the above combined with portability, increased interactivity and incorporation of alternative sources of information and learning lead to expected growth of the enriched e-book market.

However, the use of technological tools (software & hardware) itself never affected education and was not beneficial for the learning process. The new teaching framework that can be configured using enriched e-books demands specific pedagogical design based on authentic learning experiences, exploration, discovery and synthesis of learning materials. The challenge for the future of enriched e-books is whether such a tool can be successfully incorporated in designing instructional interventions and whether teachers and students can themselves become creators of material that can be incorporated into enriched digital books. Also, institutional stakeholders (Ministry of Education) are expected to formulate specific design and development specifications (pedagogical - teaching context) for enriched e-books to be used in education.

The example of Greece for primary and secondary education is the creation of enriched e-books (in html) and the «Photodentro» repository of learning objects (http://photodentro.edu.gr) as part of the digital school initiative (http://digitalschool.minedu.gov.gr). A similar ongoing effort is taking place in higher education through «Kalippos» (http://www.kallipos.gr), a very interesting project for enriched e-book development from the educational community on various subjects. Upon completion and use, evaluation of the above two efforts will be beneficial in designing similar initiatives.

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Traumatic Stories of Humiliation and Ill-Treatment in African American Biographies

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Abstract

The evolution of the racial supremacy of whites against African Americans in US history has spanned over four hundred years. It has been documented in the lives of the innumerable people who participated in the class struggle against whites. The aspect of colour of skin, fragmented the societal norms and culture, had started off when US encouraged the import of Black slaves. This led to the formation of an invisible workforce supporting the nation. Brutality in the form of racial hatred has evolved to the finer nuances of abuse and harassment at every sphere of life in US against African Americans over the years, against men and women across the ages. Incidents of torture, rape, plunder and looting, denial of economic sustenance in the ‘land of free’ was a sort of mockery. This study will try to throw light on the different perspectives of the impact on African American society, their lives and a profession that has made their lives much different as espoused by the human rights commission. This opens up the debate of group abuse and ill treatment or the wider agenda of a personalized hatred as a result of ego gratification. Different perspectives of ill treatment, torture and humiliation which are hugely race specific was reported earlier. Many forms of these were not reported in the press but documented in biographies which illuminates our knowledge on what used to happen. Biographies reported both the racial discrimination and personal experience pertaining to the issue, that are evidences of how these practices were executed. Legal help in judiciary was formulated as a fallout of relentless revolution against the white to help the African American community. The result led to modifications in the approach of hatred towards African Americans, in a more subtle form. Harassment in different forms evolved to match up the previous records of psychological humiliation inflicted on African Americans under the disguise of civilised societal norms. As the world has evolved through the ages, so has the societal norms and laws to exercise control, but the treatments African Americans underwent was different from what it used to be earlier. The history through biographies tells us now what to expect from an African American and white fallout, so with the legal aspect controlling the outcome, freedom of speech, actions of African Americans is still considered as a cherished dream.

Keywords: African American society, abuse, Blacks, inhuman acts, racism, American domination

1. Introduction

Trauma of torture and ill-treatment has been caused from severe pain and suffering. It is either in instigated cause, or solely driven by cultural factors. The human rights commission has reiterated that torture in any form which leads to inhuman practice, while degrading treatment creates psychological and mental suffering. In a white world, the black people in America has been subject to suffering which is has connotations in political, social, economic, historical, physiological and philosophical aspects. Dawn (2007) stated that though colour has no meaning, American history of independence which spanned over 400 years has proved that the humiliation and ill-treatment of African Americans happened at national, city and individual level. It has been defined as class struggle and different biographies in African American literature are a testament to this.

We look at Maya Angelou’s famous book ‘Caged Bird Sings’ published in 1969 which tells about her life experiences of open racism and oppression. She used a metaphor in the book to represent Angelou as a bird, and the central theme is against the injustice of racism and the ways to fight it. She is the leading female writer on black-white relationships and particularly about Black women. The African American books appear stereotypical portraying a culture full of nuances of how humanity had degraded its definition through the colour of racism. The book has created a theme of identity which was established and demonstrated the formation of a distinct identity through the narratives. It created a symbol of women’s strength which sailed through the oppression and sufferings through the white supremacy (Grier and Price, 1968). There are three characters in ‘Caged bird’, Angelou’s mother Vivian, her grandmother Annie Henderson,
The male writers through their viewpoint defined Black struggle as a social institution which created a fragmented, prejudiced and opinionated society (Grinberg et al. 1989). The so called ‘Land of the free’ and the aspect of equality drifted away into oblivion when they landed in America. The literature and the characters are protagonists who depicted the class struggle for Black American men. The evolution of African American society in slavery to blue collar job took more than 400 years of American history and has not been able to write out the slate clean. Emergence of Black character and their lifestyles are depicted in novels down the pages of history gradually. Thus, the literature style which depicted the American history did evolve in portraying racial ideology (Tate, 1998). Much of it had to do with the country’s political system driving it. Martin Luther King biographical history depicts that racism existed in politics and sometimes in over-powering form while the personal racial comments were aimed to demean the individual self. Thus, racism slowly moved towards a less aggressive oppression which is evident in the literary scene with years rolling by. The backdrop of the discussion of abuse, harassment, torture and oppression which happened was more explicit in the lives of Black men (Rasheed & Rasheed, 1999). As human beings, men are more aggressive and explicit in their moves and intentions. Abuse in many forms from verbal intonations to further advanced types of insults proved that they are targeted against the African American race in general. Male authors depicted economic deprivation as a main issue since earning their livelihood is their primary role in the society. Finkelhor et al. (1990) indicated that social abuse in neighbourhood, home being targeted for graffiti, stone pelting, controlling the social participation were some of the softer activities. Increasingly in due course of time, literature revealed that a covert abuse was taking roots slowly which had its intention to marginalize the Black people. The different segmentation of the working class in society led to random discrimination of African American people, which had its base in economic deprivation. They also depicted that race or skin colour was not
an issue in society but underneath they hated the ethnicity at large which led to the formation of laws to prevent its effects. It was a joy for the African American population which limited the emergence of white supremacy in the national positions which always ruled in their favour.

The most common tactic used for abusing was defamation for something which they are not a part of and have not done. Totally false in its course of action, publication of such fallacy led to subjugating and oppressing a race not to emerge as a dominant one. It also affected the family system where the males in the roles of dads, fathers, uncles, have to experience bullying by whites. This is depicted as a standard societal fallout in African American literature even though there were later laws against it. Therefore, being famous as an African American like Muhammad Ali led to a belief that celebrity status in America tends to change the acceptance level of white people. Being famous, as a sportsman and a boxer has changed Muhammad Ali’s social acceptance which depicts a change in stance and perception from white people (Rasheed & Rasheed, 1999).

Earlier biographies from pre World Wars were full of incidents where there were mass removal of African Americans and directly sending them to prison. Incidents of tarring and feathering, and violent forms of crime that is now banned legally in US, and by human rights existed back then. In fact, there was a time when African Americans occupied the maximum prison cells as per prison literary records (Bennett, 2006). There are biographies post World War II era, which endlessly describe the difference in the culture between African American and whites. The events in history also discusses how the inclusion of African American in some specific jobs has led to a more structured society. Nevertheless, there exists the aspect of sidelining, professional abuse, peer abuse, taunting, teasing in the workplace that has same humiliation intent that are camouflaged with the same feelings that also existed centuries ago. James Baldwin presented gloomier perspectives as there exists a subtle form of hatred which began to be expressed at an individual level than as groups against African American community. These were also reported by many writers of African American race, as protesting against them legally led to systematic abuse which ignored the tenets of human rights (Finkelhor et al. 1990). The aspect of the judiciary, police system turning a blind eye and ignoring the human rights issues has been a history of sorts. This evokes the response which reflected unreasonable response and attitude in line of work and societal influence. Antipathy expressed towards African Americans have even been found in excerpts of prisoners where physical abuse dominated the scene. Nella Larsen of Harlem Renaissance sketched the biographies with the plot and the sequence of events which we gather from literary discourses are more of torture where pain prevailed in whatever they could express. Carlson and Donald (2010) stated that abuse from the social setting had become more animalistic in prisons where enhanced interrogation was used against African Americans. They were subjected to special treatments from white police officers who were purposely doing a routine extraction of information and subjected to torture. There were instances and reports of male African American being sodomized which is an advanced form of sexual abuse using a male to male domination (Lisak, 1994). This was a common event observed in prisons. Thus the political direction of exuding nationalist white power from the centre in the US has been directing whites to influence a culture to show dominant white supremacy (Tate, 1998). Therefore, it has now evolved to be a known fact, as both African American and whites know what to expect. So, biographies depicting a personal recount of a life event, now portray more of an ego-gratifying hatred rather than violence which took a form of war (Soller, 1986).

As a result, America offered numerous concessions to the African Americans which was not allowed to be availed as per records. Incidents like these generated bitterness and was clearly indication of social oppression. The American politics though not bipartisan, were partial towards whites and supported the money driven strategies to dominate African Americans. Vote bank from African Americans were used to procure seats in Senates, promising to make lives better (Bennett, 2006). African Americans labelling as potential traitor to a revolutionary class struggle at all levels of society existed for many years and was projected in the media. Therefore the creation of the African American community led to the common objective to liberate themselves from the so called freedom to reach the ‘Promised Land’ has gained momentum. Influenced over the ages, through the biographies of African American, people had gathered courage to fight against the evils of the fragmented colour doctrine in the US.

Critically viewing the abusive and dominating nature of power, we can conclude that the real motive is superiority of race, so whites dominating African American is driven by power to control others. Krš (2002) stated that though large the American history has defined racial abuse in different forms and ways, the initial effort to stop a cycle or system of abuse had African American struggling hard for their own sustenance. Alain Locke an African American through his biography critically argue on this point of racial supremacy has been rooted in the fact that whites discovered America and allowed people or African origin much later. The purpose was to keep them as slaves, and make them do work which were menial in nature.

Abuse against African Americans have now spread to hospitals, against patients, schools, in somewhat overt and
covert form (Rasheed & Rasheed, 1999). It has now been actively reported and most of them are more personalized or towards specific individuals. Harming through everyday activities and social behaviour happens through social behaviour which affects the psychological development. It has taken many forms, as disassociating an African American or exploitation through a forced labourer, ignoring human rights has a component of victimization to it. Many of the experiences documented in biography of Jean Toomer related to different forms of atrocities they have experienced as an individual male or female. Though there is a system to counter it through legal channels, the same is expected from a white when they deal with a ‘mullato’ a mixed breed from a white and a black. Essentially, it proves that African American are still trying to find an identity in the society (Soller, 1986).

Newer literature supports ‘social drifting’ which corroborates that social life in America is now more open where the mixed marriage is slowly refuting the racial ideology of African American and white differences (McGrath, 2006). Thus the emergence of a modernist approach is looming large which makes the concept stand out. The biographical details of the writer of both genders from the African American community therefore reveal dark aspects of freedom in the land of the free. There were shades of racial solidarity and traces of literary ambiguity in Jean Toomer’s biography that was a new throw of light. Carlson & Donald (2010) mentioned that mixed race experiences have emerged in biographies in African American literature have tried to explain the new look of the definitions of the race. The racial composition has evolved with mixed marriages taking place between African American and whites, and reflection of it as a theme for majority of biographies has not yet been a point of obsession to many. So the light skinned African Americans who are in between the black and white colour spectrum are loosening the societal rigidity and ramifications.

References

Abstract

This work aims to analyze, through the work of the journalist Cipriano Barata, how was the absorption of Enlightenment ideas in the context of Brazilian state’s organization after its independence. In the early nineteenth century, Brazil became free of its colonial situation before Portugal, and the Enlightenment ideas, which arrived there through various filters and reinterpretations, served as a basis for ordering the new country. It’s in this context that Cipriano Barata’s work, which, among others, brought to the public context those political discussions which were based on this set of ideas, that helped in the huge transformations that were developed at that time.

Keywords: journalism, Cipriano Barata, Brazil at nineteenth century

1. Introduction

The independence and state-building are subjects whose studies in Brazil have proliferated quite generous since its establishment in the nineteenth century. Brazilian historiography was lavish in constructing interpretations of this event, viewing it from different perspectives, either as fact, by pointing the October 12th as foundational moment in Brazil, since in that day in 1822, D. Pedro I was proclaimed emperor; as building the September 7th as key to understanding of liberation against Portugal (especially after the abdication of the emperor, in 1831); or as a process, which would have given early in 1808, with the coming of Portuguese royal family to the country, in the context of the Napoleonic wars, and culminated with the formal separation, which dates can be put between the "Grito do Ipiranga" as the granting of the 1824 Constitution.

Such historiographical discussions point a path that has been trodden long, but about which we discussed more intensively in the 1970s and 1980s, when it proposed the so-called "linguistic turn" in the wake of the so called postmodernism, which bolstered the idea that history is, in particular, a narrative that is sustained by the real, but that would not be able to give account of it in its entirety. Thus, the many reinterpretations arising on certain events would be evidence that, apart from the "real", the discussion that takes place is about what the historian, endowed with scientific knowledge, recognized by their peers, and in possession of their sources, would able to build in order to convince the reader of a certain vision of the past. The works of Hayden White, Paul Veyne and Michel de Certeau, in the early 1970s, have started a supposed "crisis of history", by questioning what Chartier (2010) named as “epistemology of coincidence” (p. 12), in which what is told would be a reconstruction of what would have happened. This crisis might be interpreted as a construction of "modern historians" before the posture of the "post modern historians" because as stated by the French historian, "recognizing the rhetoric or narrative dimensions in the history writing does not deny, in any way, its condition of true knowledge, built from evidence and controls"
Thus, discussing the independence and the construction of the Brazilian state does not appear as a mere rhetorical exercise, since it is based on socially constructed knowledge, accepted from a position of power occupied by the historian, which helps society to provide intellectually accounts with their past. Upon such positioning, we believe we build a possible version of what happened, trying to demonstrate a likelihood ratio between our report and the sources we have at our disposal. Likewise, we’re not seeking a totalizing account, that could explain all aspects of the process that culminated in the liberation of Brazil before his Portuguese metropolis, but to indicate a possible path followed by the men who were engaged in this process.

Therefore, we find in the early nineteenth century Brazil a philosophical source available to that men at that time (the Enlightenment) and various characters who made use of these ideas in different perspectives, as well as through various means. One of these characters is a journalist, born at Bahia, called Cipriano Barata, editor of the Sentinel of Liberty, one of the many newspapers that circulated in Brazil at the time. We intend to analyze how, from the writings of the journalist, the Enlightenment permeated the construction of the Brazilian state, in the various discussions that took place in this context.

2. Cipriano, His Newspaper and His Time

Cipriano Barata figured as a typical man of Brazil in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century. Born in 1762 at Bahia, a year before the transference the country's capital from Salvador to Rio de Janeiro, a fact that marked, among other events, an economic shift shaft in Brazil at the end of the century. In the transition from an agrarian economy, based on sugar cane, for a mining economy, the Northeast of the country had their political participation also decreased on the national scene. At the same time, an powerful white elite lived at Bahia, composed of a very small number of people, with a huge contingent of blacks and mulattos, priced out of basic rights by virtue of the existence of the slave regime. However, this distance was not definitive, because as shown by the reports about Conjuração Baiana in 1798, there was a relative movement of blacks in some white circles, which even helped in organizing the revolt.

It is through this movement, enshrined in history as the first “social revolution” of Brazil, as called Affonso Ruy (1978), which Cipriano Barata became visible to the eyes of power, when he was arrested and accused of being a leader of the movement. In the movement’s wanton, Cipriano was accused of active participation in the formulation of the ideals of conjuration, although in later confrontations has vehemently denied such participation.

What interests us at the moment, however, are the factors that could have actually taken the future journalist to have been involved in this movement, despite its vigorous denial. One of the elements of great interest in the biography of Cipriano Barata is the fact that he studied at the University of Coimbra, Portugal, where he enrolled in 1786. According to studies by Marco Morel (2001), there Cipriano had enrolled in Philosophy, Mathematics and later in Medicine, leaving the university in 1790. It is of interest to note that the fact that he enrolled in different courses is part of a particular behavior of some members of the Brazilian intelligentsia at that time, that guided its formation under the Enlightenment principle of a broad education, but also focused on one special technical aspect, that was training of staff for the state bureaucracy. Thus, we realize that many of the men who participated in the Brazilian independence process were honed with this spirit, diffused from the university. This is the case, for example, about José Bonifácio, which would stand out later as a major Minister of D. Pedro I. Also formed at the University of Coimbra, Bonifácio served as minister, while writing a newspaper at Rio de Janeiro, and had previously written works of economic and technical nature, such as a publication on whaling in Brazil.

The University of Coimbra has undergone a makeover from the year 1772, set in a broader process of measures taken by the Marquis of Pombal. The marquis was Minister of D. José I, King of Portugal, but ended up concentrating himself all the administrative duties, within an absolutism context, but influenced by Enlightenment ideals that propagated through Europe. Thus, we can understand the stance of Pombal in what is conventionally called Enlightened Despotism, i.e., a particular form of absolutist government mediated Enlightenment principles.

The Portuguese appropriation of the Enlightenment by the central power has developed from a perspective that is termed as Civil Empire, which was founded on the existence of a need of a government as a center for the conservation of rights, which would be preserved by making laws through the figure of the king. This same monarch should ensure the advancement of economy and science, in order to ensure the growth and wealth of his kingdom. This Portuguese reading of the Enlightenment was based on the ideas of the jurist Carlo di Martini, who served at the same time in the Austrian court, where he became known as Karl Anton von Martini. In this reading, are combined: the idea of rights and scientific advancement, dear to the Enlightenment, with the prominence of the central government, the cornerstone of
Its publication is inserted in the middle of a huge amount of journals that arise in the country after the fall of censorship in conflict for independence. This is where his newspaper, Sentinela da Liberdade (Sentinel of Liberty), starts in April 1823. yet come to Portugal, Barata, followed by other companions, flees from Portugal towards Brazil.

Once his claims have not been accepted, like his request for waiting the other Brazilian deputies which had not even with the Brazilian representatives whose posture was aligned over the idea of continuing Brazil as a colony of organized in the metropolis. government and political situation in Brazil and Europe, since, at the time that unfolds in Portugal the movement know as continued working as a doctor. We also believe in the idea that this character had continued to spread his ideas about the meantime, his performance has been more discreet, since his letters show that he became cane farmer, and through a period in which there’s no notes or events whose relevance could be documented. We must assume that, in makes a survey of the works that made up the participants’ libraries, sensing a presence of French ideas in Conjuration.

Also concerning the entry of Enlightenment ideas in Brazil, Katia Queiróz Mattoso edited a small book in 1969, which the ideas illustrated is striking, and these had been gestated in contact made from the studies developed in Coimbra. As well as proposing a new social order, which would combat discrimination of color, we can infer that the presence of the accused in the movement's leadership. Since that was a movement that demanded the independence of the country as well as proposing a new social order, which would combat discrimination of color, we can infer that the presence of the ideas illustrated is striking, and these had been gestated in contact made from the studies developed in Coimbra.

After his alleged involvement in the movement, his arrest and subsequent release in 1800, Cipriano Barata goes through a period in which there’s no notes or events whose relevance could be documented. We must assume that, in the meantime, his performance has been more discreet, since his letters show that he became cane farmer, and continued working as a doctor. We also believe in the idea that this character had continued to spread his ideas about government and political situation in Brazil and Europe, since, at the time that unfolds in Portugal the movement know as Liberal Revolution of 1820, Cipriano were elected as a representative of his province to compose the Cortes that were organized in the metropolis.

His performance as a deputy in the Cortes was marked by intense discussions with the Portuguese deputies, and even with the Brazilian representatives whose posture was aligned over the idea of continuing Brazil as a colony of Portugal. Once his claims have not been accepted, like his request for waiting the other Brazilian deputies which had not yet come to Portugal, Barata, followed by other companions, flees from Portugal towards Brazil.

On his arrival, Cipriano Barata settled in Pernambuco, in the year 1823, since their state was in the midst of conflict for independence. This is where his newspaper, Sentinela da Liberdade (Sentinel of Liberty), starts in April 1823. Its publication is inserted in the middle of a huge amount of journals that arise in the country after the fall of censorship in the changes context brought about by the revolution in Portugal. This scenario was quite conflictuous, like Isabel Lustosa showed when she studied this period, naming the relationships among the editors as a “war among journalists” (2000). It must be understood as the moment in which the public opinion had arose, bringing too many different ideas to be discussed, even with violence in some cases. It is through this newspaper that Cipriano gives greater visibility to his ideas, although we cannot ignore that, in the midst of a society with a vast amount of uneducated, other forms of appropriation and circulation of information has also had its role. Robert Darnton (2005) makes an important contribution towards understanding this reality in his text about Paris in the eighteenth century, to call it a “pioneer information society”. What the American historian presents is the idea that, even in societies whose media are scarce, it creates circulation networks of information that assist in the dissemination of a variety of issues, which are constantly reviewed and rewritten. Thus, we cannot assume that the newspaper, despite its importance as a vehicle of communication, has been a privileged channel to the diffusion of ideas, like the Frankfurt school would had said. For we to have a more accurate view of the importance of the newspaper, it would be necessary, in addition to the assessment that we do now, also elaborate reception studies on such ideas, which does not fit within the limits of this article nor is it our intention. Thus, we intend to show how to work one of the links in this information chain that is created in Brazil in the nineteenth century, serving as a basis for further studies that will supplement or revise the same data presented here.

3. The Enlightenment Ideas in the Newspaper’s Pages

When we talk about the Enlightenment, there is a tendency to confuse this eighteenth century set of ideas with all the subsequent fate of Western culture, as stated by Robert Darnton (2005). In his view, the Enlightenment was a French phenomenon, specifically occurred in Paris, during a given time, developed by a limited number of philosophers (p.18). It can be seen with some clarity Darnton's exaggeration in claiming such reductionism, since this doctrine was not restricted to this country, but it has spread, with strength in other regions, such as Austria, Portugal and even Brazil. We
agree with the idea that there wasn’t, with the same prominence elsewhere, philosophers formulators similar ideas, but we can not deny how much of it spread around Europe and the world amidst various readings and appropriations.

In the Brazilian case, as noted, the entry of the illustrated ideas is given, with particular relevance, by the returning to the country of students whose previous studies had been done at European universities, especially in regard to the case of Coimbra. By going through such sites, the Enlightenment doctrine gained new aspects and even blended up with several theories that retook ancient teachings of the Portuguese monarchy, as pointed out by Eduardo Romero de Oliveira (p. 3), to discuss the formulation of the idea that had been developed in Portugal, which is the same notion diffused in Cipriano Barata’s writings (2009), as we found when it says: “Vele V.M. para que os ministros não atentem contra as garantias sociais, como já têm feito contra as Leis, a segurança particular e a liberdade pública” (p. 242).2

This passage, published in a newspaper of May 21, 1823, presents one of the possible readings that can extract than would the Enlightenment in its Brazilian version. Such movement preached, in its French origins, the predominance of reason as an instrument of knowledge of the world as one of its lines of force. By placing this same reason as a basic component of the human condition, eventually equalized all the men, giving them, according to the theory of John Locke, certain rights, which would be natural.3 So when Cipriano refers to the king, is the sense that such rights must be respected, since they are essential and that not preserve them is an attack against the people. At the same time, one can realize that it is the king who must ensure these guarantees, because that is where the power resides, being the only one able to maintain the security and tranquility of the state, not allowing abuse or disregard for the laws. As a stay of the Old Regime, is the figure of the king that the journalist refers, keeping the tension between the old and the modern.

One can reaffirm such movement between the need of the king and the establishment of law that guarantees rights when the journalist states: " eu sou e quero ser de muito boa vontade Súdito (mas não vassalo) de nosso Imperador Constitucional Liberal D. Pedro I" (p. 252).4 The image of the king is held to affirm the desire to be subject, to be the one who obeys the laws and the government, as the doer of an order which does not want to subvert, but at the same time that the king should establish a commitment to the people to be guided in accordance with the laws, instituted and maintained by means of a constitution. This document reiterate the basic assumptions upon which society rests, in a liberal sense of preserving the essential conditions of human as well as we can still observe in passing another newspaper, published May 17, 1823: " eu desejo o Sistema constitucional do Império bem direito e firme. Desejo que nosso Imperador seja bem obedecido " (p. 237).5

Elsewhere, we realize that there is still an effort to exempt from the figure of the king possible abuses and excesses that occur in government, attributing such errors to the ministers, that would be reckless and greedy, and badly advise the ruler, which should be attentive and vigilant to these excesses of his aides. Thus, the journalist would act towards a civic education, to show what are the defects and instruct the government, to lead the ruler and the people towards a better and more liberal coexistence, based on rational principles derived from the Enlightenment. It is in this sense that we can understand when Cipriano says: " Mas eu hei de abrir os olhos do Nosso Adorado Imperador " (p. 241), since the ministers are abusing the good faith of the emperor, and the journalist, educated man and builder of the public opinion, has the duty to assist in the smooth conduct of the government being run by King.6

There’re still other issues that we could quote, because of its actuality, which attention-grabbing in Cipriano Barata speech, as the discussion on press freedom, a theme dear to the journalist and running through several volumes of his work. Those would be more information in order to understand how the Enlightenment served, proposing solutions or paths that could be trod in the construction of the new independent nation, but that does not fit within the limits of an article.

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2 “Watch Your Majesty for ministers not threaten social guarantees, as they have done against Laws, private security and public freedom”
3 We could enlarge the discussion about the influence of John Locke’s ideas in Cipriano Barata’s works by remembering a passage which was published in May 25th, 1823: “the people in a revolution reassume its authority and its imprescriptible rights, and destroys his government, destroys the Kings, Laws and everything old to create the new, according to his Sovereign Will”. This passage, which tell us about the Revolution idea in his thoughts, can be seen as another example about the Enlightenment incorporation in the Brazilian thought, but to discuss this, it’d be necessary just another paper.
4 “I am and gladly want to be subject (but not a vassal) of our Liberal Constitutional Emperor D. Pedro I”
5 “I wish the Empire Constitutional System to be right and firm. I wish that our Emperor is well obeyed”
6 “But I shall open the eyes of Our Beloved Emperor”
7 José Murilo de Carvalho, about this kind of behavior, would tell us “Not blaming the king and incriminating his counselors, in an attitude typical of the Old Regime” (2012, p.10). This could still confirm the circulation between the old and the new that was present not only in Cipriano Barata’s works, but was quite spread among the journalists ideias.
4. Final Statements

We should understand the Enlightenment as a movement that, although preached a fundamental idea of rationality as a guide to human existence and understanding of the world, presents itself multifaceted. Within the various perspectives presented by their thinkers, we can find many principles that were more or less appropriated and reinterpreted differently by the various places we passed by.

Thus we understand that in Brazil the discussions done by Cipriano Barata, through your newspaper, are not the only possibilities to understand how this theory came to the country, nor that this was the decisive interpretation that led the consolidation of the state and nation. They are indicative of a particular form of retelling, set in a broader context of discussions among journalists who have spoken at the time of independence of Brazil and the initial phase of nation building. We understand that Barata binds to a posture of liberal political ideals absorption, even though it’s permeated by continuities of the Old Regime. At the same time, other journalists would write further, deepening such propositions in positions more radical or more conciliators, forming an immense kaleidoscope of political possibilities.

Concomitantly, the absorption the Enlightenment can be also seen through the encouragement to technical studies, in the development of a science that would serve to practical purposes, stimulating agriculture, manufacturing activities and trade, as Maria points Odila Days in his study "Aspectos da Ilustração no Brasil" (2009). Beyond what has materialized as a proposal of social or policy reforms, the historian bothered to check how the Enlightenment philosophical doctrine was translated into practical activities, within what was later called as instrumental rationality, a characteristic attributed in particular to the Nazi totalitarian regime8. We might say that such instrumental use of rational thought is not configured as a historical accident of the twentieth century, but was an integral part of the Enlightenment development as a practice in the places where it settled and diffused.

At the end we can say that the Enlightenment was a common basis from which emerged several branches, some more revolutionary, most other reformers, who in their confrontation through the press and other forms of information flow, assisted in the development of Brazil as nation and in building their state, in particular through the establishment of the first Constitution in 1824. In the particular case with what we deal briefly, we can see that Barata appropriated himself of certain elements of this discourse, in a Brazilian variation of French ideas9, which, through its dissemination through public opinion, helped to shape the nation that emerged in the early nineteenth century.

References


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8 That was the main criticism of the Frankfurt School to the Enlightenment, because these ideas, instead of freeing the man and remove him from his minority, as Kant hoped, become man a propaganda slave, whether political or simply shopping, taking him to believe in any political regime, as happened in Nazi Germany.
9 We talk about the Enlightenment as a French movement, but it must be clear that there were a lot of different ideas, like the ones which came from England, that helped to shape the thought of the Brazilian journalists at the early nineteenth century.
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Action And Learning: Making Sense Of And Giving Meaning To.
A Research On Enquiry Based Learning In An Applied Theatre Model

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Abstract

This article presents the results of a three year research conducted by the author based on an educational project which was implemented in a Greek Secondary school for two years (2009-11). ‘We organise a conference’ was a project that presented students with an open-ended key evaluative question which they were required to answer. It was based upon enquiry based learning and it used the methods and techniques of applied theatre. Over the school year students researched an issue through role play (related to the process of organizing and taking part in a conference), which led to improvements in their cognitive skills while at the same time gaining greater insight into the issue and their own attitudes and practices. This is the educational way of ‘making sense of’ and ‘giving meaning to’ an issue related to students’ lives. The author discusses the learning outcomes of the process and the educational importance and value of the method in the larger context of educational design. Empirical methods such as texts and by-products of the project, a research journal and semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and observation provided the basis for the hermeneutical analysis method which was used in the quantitative and qualitative survey, the findings and results of which are presented in the article.

1. Introduction

The fundamental purpose of this study was to answer the question of whether the effectiveness of a constructivist approach to learning based on action in the classroom could be measured or not. Although studies concerned with scaffolding an enquiry based learning process in science are common (Kirschner, Sweller & Clark 2006, p. 75-6) in the Humanities and especially in the fields of Religious Education (hereafter RE) (Grimmitt, 2000; Stern, 2006; Erricker, 2010) and Applied Theatre (hereafter AT) (Etherton & Prentki, 2006) there are few of them and they largely posed more questions about assessment and evaluation than answers. Moreover it is difficult to find such researches in the Greek educational context (Koukounaras-Liagkis, 2009) especially in the field of RE mainly owing to the lack of academic interest not only from Primary Education Faculties where the subject of RE is widely disparaged (in 9 Faculties RE does not exist as a compulsory subject although RE is a compulsory subject in 4 of the 6 years of Elementary Education) but also from the Faculties of Theology where educational research is limited.

The combination of pedagogy and experience of RE and AT posed a challenge for the author while at the same time providing a basic platform from which to conduct the research. Over a two-year period the learning process was studied whereby students researched an issue through the medium of role play. This was facilitated through the students organizing and taking part in a conference. Evaluation was made as to whether their actions led to improvements in the students’ cognitive situation while at the same time gaining greater insight into the issue and their own attitudes and practices. This article summarizes the findings of the study and examines the implementation of the post-modern constructivist theory in everyday practice in education especially since most RE teachers in Greece have no experience of this approach.

2. Context of the research

2.1 RE in Greece

Although Greece is a secular state, the presence of the Eastern Orthodox Church established by the Greek constitution as the prevailing religion of Greece, has led to the institution of elements of legal agreements between the State and the Church in different areas. One such area is RE which is a subject contained within in the national curriculum of the school system. (The recent curriculum of 2011 is under a pilot scheme).
Since the majority of the population belongs to the Orthodox Church, although the state does not keep a record of the numbers anymore concerning the religious landscape of religious believers or non-believers, RE remains in practice and in content Orthodox Christian. The framework for RE in schools is provided by the basic Law for Education (1566/1985) which decrees that all students on a mandatory basis have to have been taught ‘the authentic’ tradition of the Orthodox Church (article 1, paragraph 1). At the same time article 13, paragraphs 1-2 of the Greek constitution guarantee the basic right to freedom of religion and associate it with the development of religious consciousness. As a consequence everyone has the right to be exempted from RE by making a statement arguing that his religious consciousness is offended by taking part in a RE class. Of course there are a number of Muslims in Greek schools which include migrants and the Muslim minorities in Thrace (a region in the northern part of Greece), together with minorities of other religions. The native Muslims who live in Thrace and are recognized as a minority according to the Lausanne Treaty (1923) are entitled to their own educational system which comprises 11.197 (2003) students and is based on a strictly confessional RE meaning that young Muslims study only the Holy Qur’an. It should be noted that many young Muslims in Thrace go to Greek public schools but there are no official statistics for them. Recently the Greek State amended a 2007 law which was never implemented and enacted a formal Muslim RE only for the schools of Thrace and for the students of the Minority who attend Greek public schools and have the right to withdraw from RE due to reasons relating to their religious consciousness (Amendment of Law 3536/2007-16 January 2013). This movement although it seems fair and friendly for the minority is controversial because at the same time the State has radically transformed the Curriculum of RE (2011) for Greek compulsory education aiming, theoretically at least, to have a non-confessional RE. Furthermore, among the migrant population there are not only Muslims but adherents of other religions. In 2007-8, 112,082 migrants were enrolled in Greek education from pre-school to secondary education including vocational. The migrants who accounted for 10% of the total number of students in schools during that period, numbered 1,208,040 (I.P.O.DE 2008) and were Albanian, Russian, Georgian and Bulgarian, comprising Christians and non-Christians. Thus RE as a compulsory subject, nowadays, is considered as an open-ended educational process that does fair justice to religious pluralism whilst providing religious literacy and supporting students in developing their cultural identity by teaching mainly Christian Orthodoxy and other religions (Yangazoglou, 2007). Despite the Orthodox content of RE only a few parents wish to withdraw their children from RE even though it is possible by law and historically this has been the case with Muslims and Jehovah’s Witness parents in particular.

2.2 Pedagogical context-a constructivist approach

Constructivism is a meta-theoretical label that has been used in a wide variety of disciplines including pedagogy and education. In each discipline it has a different meaning so there would be no point in starting out with an all-embracing definition of the concept. Firstly, one issue that needs to be addressed is that constructivism has moved away from trying to explain an objective reality. It should be considered more as a critique of realism, emphasizing that reality is constructed and contingent on the individual’s standpoint. With reference to pedagogy and education, the theory identifies knowledge as a process of constructing subjective representations of reality, which is dependent on the way individuals and communities order the experience and interpret reality (Grimmitt, 2000, p. 208). This means that previous knowledge, beliefs and ideas are valued but at the same time all truth claims, even religious ones, are open to challenge (Erricker, 2010, p. 78).

In RE Grimmitt (2000) introduces a three-stage constructivist process which is based on the radical constructivism of von Glasersfeld (1995) since he argues that knowledge is ‘exclusively an order and organization of a world constituted by our experience and not a reflection of an objective ontological reality’ (Grimmitt, 2000, p.210). Thus knowledge is constructed by each student individually while the lesson engages students in enquiry rather than instruction and links their own experience to the religious content. Erricker (2010) places more emphasis on a conceptual basis for religious development through his work and research contextualizing a constructivist pedagogical model of ‘conceptual enquiry in RE’.

In these respects a lesson focused upon the memorization of or learning facts and knowledge of which students can be certain, has no meaning (Dewey, 1902). On the contrary an enquiry based method of teaching which focuses upon enquiry as a way of making sense of, and giving meaning to the students’ world is more worthwhile, hence students actively become experienced investigators of their reality and existence, seeking to answer questions and inquiring rather than validating certain objects of knowledge (Webster, 2009, p. 98-100)

On the other hand, AT often draws upon constructivism methodology as a way of bringing participants into direct engagement with their own learning experiences. Youngsters as learners bring a wealth of experiences and perspectives
that further affect how they interact with a theatre/drama-in-education experience in the classroom and how they respond to a variety of concepts, beliefs and practices within religions and their own cultural experience. An approach to RE using AT emphasises the development of skills and attitudes required to debate and deconstruct knowledge as well as to construct persuasive arguments. This means that the role of RE is to develop the capacity to interpret, evaluate different values and beliefs through the development of the students’ analytical skills as well as their creative, imaginative and emotional capacities. AT facilitates interaction between students and religious content in classes or projects dealing with religion in a form of role play (a ‘Mantle of the expert’ technique) (Heathcote & Bolton, 1995) which can constitute a safe space for students’ experimenting with religious and non-religious world views. Moreover in AT a) drama involves the modelling of the reality of life and its complexities through the use of the dramatic medium, b) cultural identity can be seen as a personal narrative which is constantly extended and modified by many other narratives - global and local - and experiences to which we are exposed; The use of Drama/Theatre in education creates opportunities for participants to recognise how identity orientations (religion, nation, race, gender) shape their actions and positions and how irreversibly ‘the other’ has a central role in constructing the individual’s identity and knowledge, c) by entering the fictional world created in the drama, a participant may gain greater understanding of his own, personal narrative. This is a major source of scientific claims that attitudes and behaviours can be changed; and d) providing a safe educational environment where the dramatic experience is not real so one can release oneself safely into it. This is also a dynamic key factor in attitude and behavioural change (Somers, 2004, p. 2).

2.3 ‘We organize a conference’ project

The concept of the ‘We organize a conference’ project (WOCproj) incorporated the enquiry based method and a contextual dramatic enquiry approach named ‘Mantle of the Expert’ (Heathcote & Bolton, 1995). Basically the approach is always contextual. Teacher and students create a context and they do all the work as if they are all a group of experts. In the ‘Mantle of the Expert’, there is always an enterprise to be run. So teacher and students share the responsibility for the enterprise, just as one would an enterprise in real-life, based on action and processes; therefore a context of learning is provided and at the same time the dramatic and inquiry learning medium helps students to develop ways of seeing through the eyes of others and develop ownership over their enterprise. Moreover they are motivated by the challenge of making their enterprise work. Of course classes do what the curriculum demands as they explore their learning and this brings special responsibilities, literacy needs and social behaviours.

In the WOCproj the enterprise was for the teacher and students to organize a scientific conference related to religion and issues contained in the curriculum of RE which matter to them personally. They were asked to agree, for the school year, to imagine themselves as groups of scientists, conference organizers and journalists. The project was part of the lesson and the classes had agreed from the start that every week one of the two hours of RE had to be dedicated to this enterprise. They followed the whole procedure of organizing a conference and at the end they actually held a conference. They found the idea and the goals of the conference, they made all the preparations concerning the location, time, programme, finances, technical support, they issued an official invitation for submitting applications, the evaluation of the abstracts (the teacher was the scientific committee) and finally the assessment of the event. The scientists and the journalists were the participants of the conference and the proceedings included their papers and articles (Koukounaras-Liagkis, 2011, p. 153-158).

3. The research

3.1 Research Facts

The time line: September, 2009 – May, 2012

The location: A Greek Secondary Education School (Lyceum) located in Attica at Neo Iракlion (1st Lyceum of Neo Iракlion of Attica), which is an urban school with regard to socio-economic position and religious background and gender. The students were all Christians.

Sample: Students started the 1st class of the Lyceum in 2009-10 and graduated in May of 2012. There was a fluctuation in the total number of participants every year (table 1)
3.2 Hypothesis and research questions

The research attempts to investigate the potential for the effectiveness of a constructivist action learning approach to RE according to its aims which were predicated upon a contextual dramatic enquiry method. Mainly the discussion broadened to investigate an intrinsic aspect of the existence of RE: whether students construct their own knowledge by making sense of and giving meaning to their world when they study issues of RE. Other questions were raised related to the subject and its issues and to pedagogical techniques but these are not analysed in this paper.

The projects had the following topics and aims regarding RE:

**Topic of 2009-10: ‘The position of the laity and women in Christianity’**

Aims: To help young people
- to consider the contribution and the role of the laity, and especially of women in Christian communities throughout the centuries and the current situation concerning them.
- to investigate feminist theology and other modern approaches to Religious studies
- to understand how Christian believers act as members of their communities and follow the requirements of their beliefs and traditions.
- to evaluate their ideas and positions about contemporary parishes.

**Topic of 2010-11: ‘We and the world’s religions’**

Aims: To help young people
- to survey the beliefs and traditions of different religions of the world (Islam, Judaism, Buddhism, Hinduism, Taoism)
- to discover aspects, symbols and elements in their lives from a variety of religions and world views regardless of having a religion or not.
- to realize that religions affect the world, ethnicities, countries and students themselves, in some cases imperceptibly.
- to evaluate the dialogue on religious issues as an important mean of understanding others as well as the current events going on in the world
- to explain significant examples of how their response to the concepts of religious aspects would affect their own lives and those of others.

The projects for both of the school years had the following aims regarding pedagogy:

- to support students by asking and defining questions, debating ideas, making predictions, designing plans, collecting and analyzing data, drawing conclusions, presenting their ideas and creating posters, badges, etc.
- to develop students’ thinking and critical skills and their creative, imaginative and emotional development.
- to develop their capacities to interpret, evaluate and respond to different beliefs and values.
- to foster mutual understanding between themselves regardless of their cultural and religious backgrounds.
- to improve their communication and interpersonal/social skills.
- to engage the students in investigation and to take active roles in their learning process
- to encourage them to take full responsibility for their learning and so to construct their own attitudes toward it.

3.3 Methodology

The research was an educational qualitative research with a quantitative component using empirical methods and hermeneutical methods for text analysis. The research tools were:

- Observation of the groups during the entire process of their research, creation and presentation of their projects.
- Written questionnaires (2) were filled in anonymously in two stages: September and May of each school year.
- Recorded semi-structured interviews (3) with randomly selected students, before, during and after the application of the project.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st LYCEUM of Neon Iraklion</th>
<th>1st class</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>2010-11</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2011-12</td>
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<td>118</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Journals were kept by the RE teacher throughout the process. Observation of the students’ responses during the application of the project by videotaping for interaction analysis.

The data was analyzed using the SPSS (Statistic Package for Social Science) due to the need for simultaneous processing and depiction both of qualitative and quantitative variables. The written and oral material (questionnaires, journal, semi-structured interviews, observations) were analyzed by hermeneutical critical content analysis.

4. Presentation of the results

After two years 88% of the students stated that participation in preparing the conference project had led to them learning more about religion than they had with other teaching methods applied by the same teacher during the two years of the research and the three previous years in Gymnasium.

‘I learned about different religions and my own and now I recognise that many things and problems in my life are related to them’ - ‘I never believed that I could have such an interest in religious topics’ - ‘Religion is a part of our everyday life. We have to be active even if we are not very religious. Maybe with our actions things will get better in the religious communities and for all the others who are affected by their activities’.

These are some representative students’ comments about the outcomes of the project. Moreover there is a 3%, with correlation (p<0.001) between it and gender (they are all males), who stated that they had problems investigating different religions to their own.

The questionnaires before and after the conferences revealed that there is a significant difference in the answers after the implementation of the project and that defines the value it has for RE (Table 2 and Table 3). Furthermore the majority of the students admitted that after the two projects they found religious issues interesting (78%), that RE helped them to understand current issues (68%), to learn about themselves (72%), to learn about their religion-even if the project was for other religions (77%). It is worth noting that the students did not seem to have a problem expressing their views about religion openly in school (90%-100%). Finally, the two tables indicate that after the first year the majority of the group had changed their opinion about RE by the start of the second year.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
\text{2009-10} & \text{SA} & \text{A} & \text{NAD} & \text{D} & \text{SD} & \text{SA} & \text{A} & \text{NAD} & \text{D} & \text{SD} \\
\hline
\text{I find religious issues interesting} & 9 & 26 & 23 & 28 & 13 & 18 & 39 & 17 & 10 & 16 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to understand current issues} & 4 & 23 & 44 & 21 & 8 & 14 & 28 & 32 & 20 & 6 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to learn about myself} & 10 & 13 & 41 & 26 & 20 & 22 & 30 & 19 & 20 & 9 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to learn about my religion} & 21 & 22 & 35 & 17 & 5 & 42 & 36 & 12 & 10 & 0 \\
\text{I am uncomfortable with sharing my views about religion openly in front of all} & 5 & 9 & 26 & 32 & 28 & 2 & 2 & 6 & 17 & 73 \\
\end{array}
\]

Table 2

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
\text{2010-11} & \text{SA} & \text{A} & \text{NAD} & \text{D} & \text{SD} & \text{SA} & \text{A} & \text{NAD} & \text{D} & \text{SD} \\
\hline
\text{I find religious issues interesting} & 16 & 38 & 22 & 16 & 10 & 48 & 30 & 22 & 0 & 0 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to understand current issues} & 8 & 26 & 49 & 10 & 7 & 32 & 36 & 22 & 10 & 0 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to learn about myself} & 20 & 28 & 20 & 22 & 10 & 32 & 40 & 18 & 8 & 2 \\
\text{Learning about religion helps me to learn about my religion} & 29 & 42 & 19 & 10 & 0 & 23 & 54 & 11 & 10 & 2 \\
\text{I am uncomfortable with sharing my views about religion openly in front of everyone.} & 0 & 8 & 12 & 14 & 66 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 16 & 84 \\
\end{array}
\]

Table 3
In the final exams the number of the students who reached the targets and cognitive aims were significant as Table 4 shows. Moreover, the comparison between the grades in RE and other similar subjects of the Curriculum (History and Literature) defines the importance of the choice of learning and teaching method for all students.

Concerning the statement ‘I find religious issues interesting’ there are significant correlations (p<0.001) to those who stated that through the WOCproj they learnt a lot (67%). Moreover the majority admitted that in their role they felt responsible (91%), they were co-operative (59%), they were creative (62%), they were known each other (78%), they felt safe (78%) they felt satisfied as a member of a team (82%), they felt confidence (56%). Above all the students noted that they wanted all the subjects of the curriculum to be taught by action learning (88%).

Finally, the data interpretation and the comparison with the data of the qualitative study indicates that the majority of the students agree that they learnt to have respect for everyone regardless of their religious beliefs or non-beliefs because they had discussed all religions from different perspectives at school.

5. Conclusion

The research illustrates that an action learning project based on the contextual dramatic enquiry method firstly effectively helps students to learn to work in a community, thereby taking on social responsibilities. Additionally, when students take responsibility for their learning, their self-esteem soars and they feel confident in creating better work habits and attitudes toward learning. Of course the final tests revealed that students had been able to raise their testing grades by implementing the project. Students also learn cognitive and meta-cognitive skills that are essential in their education and generally in their lives. Most important of all, students effectively refined their understandings of concepts, phenomena and issues with their own knowledge building. It is truism to say that if the project does not remain true to its original plan and is not content driven, the student will not have a successful learning outcome. Benefit is only derived when it is applied successfully. Finally, what cannot be concluded with any certainty and answered in a definite way is the duration of cognitive and meta-cognitive effectiveness and that is the reason findings about tolerance and openness are not mentioned even though they were measured.

The findings, however, of the analysis suggest that for the vast majority of students thinking and talking about religion is worthwhile. They agree that when they learn about different religions and at the same time their own religion, they learn to respect the ‘others’. They also believe that RE helps them to understand and interpret current issues and, more importantly, that school is a safe place to openly discuss religious topics.

To summarise the overall conclusion of the data analysis on the role of RE in the curriculum, it is important to stress that religion and knowledge of it seems to be widely considered a positive factor and an essential aspect of the students’ education and their lives in general. As school is a place of learning it should provide not only knowledge about religions but allow students to develop the ability to communicate about different religions. It is a place where students should not merely be introduced to one specific religion but to gain a deeper insight into other religions, to re-think their ideas and preconceptions and to justify their own beliefs and values.

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Faces of Postmodern Education. Educational Challenges in a Culture of Participation

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Abstract

The educational processes themselves, as well as images of a teacher in the learning space, constantly change and get modified under the influence of a variety of phenomena taking place in the culture. This mainly applies to institutional activities, supported by various system training models and methods, but also to the direct relationship between a teacher and a student. The article points therefore that such processes occurring at the same time in the culture as: hybridization, fragmentation, multi-culture, virtualization or common life technical improvement comply with so called auto telic education and various forms of non-formal education. There will be undertaken the issue of acquisition of participation in culture competences, and then the attention will be put on educational priorities, adopted within the framework of the European Union, which can be analyzed in a variety of perspectives. However, just like the whole culture, they combine with effects of the so-called “meeting” or “mixing” of various spheres of postmodernism, which is a challenge for a man itself. The article will also attempt to answer, among other, the questions: How does the idea of direct teaching enter it? What challenges appear in the education facing the culture of participation, in the world of complex cultural phenomena? And what are the possibilities and prospects of teaching the Net Society?

Keywords: education – post-modernity – challenge - culture of participation

The postmodern transversal awareness allows a human being to participate in many levels or dimensions of human existence as a subject, it means that he is aware of penetration and merging of all elements of this participation, i.e. spheres of common life are connected with scientific knowledge, virtual space, education, religion, spirituality, art, economy, politics, customs and common history etc. This variety of possibilities of “being” in the world favors not only shaping of diverse styles and ways of action, but it also builds or designs varied picture of the post-modern education as the space for clarifying and designing of forms of participation in the culture, and similarly for creating opportunities for acquisition of cultural competences.

Generally, we discuss post-modernity in the frames of the culture of participation, we emphasize a human’s opportunities to engage in all socio-cultural spaces, dimensions or spheres. A human being is considered an active subject that involves himself in a range of interactions, independently of a kind or a type of a relation. The issue of participation was already brought up and analyzed in the 1960’s and 1970’s. On the Polish ground, among others, Andrzej Tyszka defined a human’s participation in the culture, considering and emphasizing that it is “every contact of a human with products of the culture, cultural behaviours, and simultaneously direct or indirect contact with other people. This contact bases on the use of products of the culture, on acquisition and reconstruction of values inherent to them, on undergoing current cultural patterns, but also on creating its creators, values as well as behaviours” (Tyszka, 1972, p. 56).

Even then, he pointed at the activity of “being” in the cultural space and taking the projection actions. Nowadays, special attention is being paid to the participation in the culture through multimedia and in multimedia, especially in the convergence of media. And it is connected not only with gaining of receiving competences, but all competences in reading, creating and designing of codes, in plunging oneself in VR and navigation, surfing on the net, which enable to fully engage in the trans-media space connected with learning and applying of new methods, techniques and tools of actions. This also happens in the educational space. Taking into consideration the fact that new technologies stimulate ideas of development and participation in the culture of tomorrow, education, teaching and raising must also undergo these ideas.

The committed participation is clearly visible in educational propositions that are linked with opportunities supplied by M-learning or educational games, Virtual learning VLE and Rapid e-learning, Informal learning and many other types of projects like WebQuest that uses webcasting, blogs and social networks in teaching. It seems important to teachers...
and students to notice in this whole process embraced in it potential and to activate it. Extracting of it to the light and making it present in the socio-cultural life space depends mainly on the subject, on his willingness to engage himself in the process of teaching, learning and self-education. According to Roman Lorens, when considering ways of the use of new technologies in education and problems referring to it, “one can not forget” about the fact that “a human still remains the key element of this system – in both forms as an educated person and an educator” (Lorens, 2011, p. 11).

Due to this, the participation or the activity in the culture become the challenge for the subject in the post-modernity, and simultaneously they become the challenge for those who design educational space. It is strongly connected mainly with shaping of the process of education and training in complete participation in the culture, and taking actions in gaining by children, adolescences as well as by adults socio-cultural competences. This process is widely known under the name of the common literacy. It refers to the area of media, and one of the media researcher, Henry Jenkins, in his consideration on the issue of literacy in the scope of the convergence culture, defines media literacy as “the ability to be a rightful participant of the modern media culture” (Jenkins, 2007, p. 251), which should be actualized by every receiver. He emphasized that a human as a subject has not only the right to participate in the culture, but he also has a particular ability to active and multi-aspect, full “being” in the socio-cultural processes and phenomena. According to him, the media themselves allow us to fulfill ourselves in the cultural space, and the extent of these opportunities increases, which forces us to look critically at the processes of education and teaching that perform an important role in opening of the access to the symbolic culture. Leaving of the educational space in too rigid frameworks of teaching and education as well as its bureaucratization give favourable conditions for reduction of this access, what results in selection and exclusion from “the circle of full participation”. Furthermore, Jenkins maintains that already mentioned media give great opportunities for the development of this area. Media are something more that applied technologies, they are texts and pictures, ways of thinking and interpretations, forms and places shaping “mixture of all kinds of opportunities for participation” (Jenkins, 2007, p. 249).

One of the elements that create the face of postmodern education is diversely perceived and interpreted in these times idea of university, which is observed among others by Hans-Georg Gadamer, who deliberates over the issue of the organization of new order at the level of higher education. The axis of his considerations is the question about the future of universities, about the innovation in higher education, but without schematization and objectification. He asks: “What the Universitas Literarum in the face of parceling and isolation of departments that is inevitable because of the quantitative growth of institutions really is? (Gadamer, 2008, p. 248). This so-called parceling, as he emphasizes, “leads to collapse of university into vocational schools, less or more tightly isolated from themselves” (Gadamer, 2008, pp. 248-249). This indicates the clear internal breakdown of the idea of humanitas, and what follows it coursing of other elements of this structure in different directions. He is convinced that the imminent tearing of a spiritual circle belonging to the university has started (Gadamer, 2008, p. 249).

However, leaving of the academic world on the margin turns out to be also an essential problem. This is marked by H.G. Gadamer in the following question: What happens with the idea of university in the world that among those who roots into it more often cultivates distrust towards the whole way of life of a society and listens to every appeal with lack of trust? In what way the idea of education (Bildung) that supplies participation in researches, which is possibly still something that is genuinely appealing in academic studies, is possible in the reality? (Gadamer, 2008, p. 249).

Unfortunately, there are no clear answers to these questions nor the one and universal face of the postmodern education, nor even an universal face of a university –or speaking more widely – of higher education. Both, the idea of a university as well as the idea of education from the perspective of post-modernity seem to smear, though we can not ignore some signs of turnabouts in the area of education that head towards the future, in the direction of so-called “education of tomorrow”.

H.G. Gadamer, himself, while deliberating on problems connected with higher education and with the perception of the idea of a human’s education in general, points out the important cause of this state of things. He blames the way of thinking about a human in general. Therefore, he refers to a very basic and anthropological issue, stating that “We speak about (...) a basic, anthropological issue that is present in all cultures, in all teaching and raising institutions. We speak about the human place in nature. The point is that a human in a specific way – differently from animals – is a social creature, who goes beyond the order of natural drives, the order of instincts and hierarchy according to which the nature’s life take place, though we– humans – are undeniably involved in it through the whole process of life” (Gadamer, 2008, p. 251).

H. G. Gadamer highlighted the problem of a human’s complexity, its specificity of being a human being and ipso facto a social being, which is strongly connected with a skill at using a language by him, and an ability to keep the distance and suppress his drives or a skill at creating opportunities for common life through institutions, customs and
laws etc. Simultaneously, it is also connected with a human’s ability to socialize. All these create one specific feature, which is pointed out in H.G. Gadamer’s work, i.e. “never ending process of learning that finishes with no knowledge at all” (2008, p. 252).

But, is a human being able to meet the challenge? Especially, when *theoria*, which is a little bit underestimated in the world of practical solutions, despite the fact that according to Gadamer “it should be developed and raised to a higher level by a human”, seems to be a problem (Gadamer, 2008, p. 252). Many researchers and analytics of post-modernity notice the occurring and becoming more visible problem of approach of researchers as well as students towards theory, that is being more often separated from the sphere of practice with so-called demarcation line. Meanwhile, theory and practice should have the same importance, and so far it has been the task of universities realizing those earlier mentioned ideas to combine and unite these two areas. However, today, their path has split up. The practical, technical aspect of teaching is being paid attention to, whereas theory is being left in “the another dimension” or just put aside, left alone.

So, it seems essential to find an appropriate criterion of teaching in the world of diversity, multiplicity and intensity of technological development and the convergence of the world of media. We can agree with the statement of Jean-François Lyotard that this basic criterion is a human’s effectiveness in action-taking, which is visible in teaching system, notably those at the level of higher education (Lyotard, 1997). This refers also to the issue of cognition and understanding of the idea of interdisciplinarity that is promoted mainly in the academic environment and currently put aside in favour of specializations. One may assume after J.-F. Lyotard that if we agree with Humbold’s university model, in which every discipline has its own specific place, the idea of interdisciplinarity loses its meaning and can appear only at a speculative level (Compare: 1997, s. 146-147).

Stating that teaching has become somewhat of a subsystem of a social system, J.-F. Lyotard locates the criterion of effectiveness, applied in a particular social system, in teaching. This creates a situation, in which “the purpose of knowledge transfer is no longer the education of elites”, but to supply “the system with players who will be able to satisfactorily perform their role on pragmatic positions that are indispensable in many institutions” (1997, p. 136). So, the purposes of higher education may be described as functional. This phenomenon is described by T. Parsons as “the instrumental activism”, who emphasizes that the important premise of the culture of the instrumental activism is “the orientation to rational cognition”. According to him, this is exactly what creates the basis of the pragmatic society (Parsons, Platt, 1968, p. 507). We may consider it one of the effects of the socio-cultural hybridization, furthermore we may also assume it some kind of an important element of the constantly modifying postmodern trans-cultural order.

Independently on which type of hybridization we choose, the cultural or structural, one of these hybridizations moves to the fore. It is an indication of the phenomenon of “mixing” and “merging” of socio-cultural spaces and simultaneously of shaping and forming new types of identity. This also appears in the sphere of education, especially through merging of some forms – such as already mentioned WebQuest using blogs, social forums, computer games etc. and projects like Theater Virtually created by the laboratory of the Swiss Institute of Technology in Lausanne (EPFL) – into the spheres of teaching and education.

Moreover, the structural hybridization as the one that refers to various, both institutionalized and not, forms of social activity allows to– according to culture researchers such as J. Pieterse or Chris Barker– raise or deepen the scope of a human’s participation in diverse “forms of organizations of humans’ groups” (Barker, 2005, p. 293).

Such important forms of organizing of humans’ groups occurs in the Web. They are mostly fan websites, so-called fan fiction which gather young fans of digital cinema, TV shows, games or science-fiction novels, and specific cartoon characters, movie or television series superheroes. The most important reason for establishing and functioning of such groups is the sense of team spirit and identity of their members that is often strengthened by “common rituals or judging of prepared projects” or “performing of joint rituals” or presenting of “some expert competences” (Jenkins, 2007, s. 83).

We may state that communities of fans of for example Star Wars, American Idol, Pulp Fiction, Airwolf, Zorro, The Sims and Harry Potter etc. believe that the unrestricted transfer of information is the fundament of their functioning. The transfer that is beyond all borders (borders of culture, nationality, politics or economy). Such a free communication allows them to enter deeper, immerse themselves into designed worlds and simultaneously strengthen the feeling of “being” a part of this world. It is a crucial aspect of shaping of some patterns in the sphere of the youth culture. Due to this, the specific exchange of thoughts between various media becoming more visible, because all possible stories and interesting characters from books, movies or games start to function in the same space of participation.

This situation, which Jenkins describes as the convergence of media, is connected with the co-existence of different media and the unrestricted flow of information between them, creates favourable conditions for the development of informal education, that is understood according to the earlier mentioned author as the teaching that “takes place
outside school" embracing "supererogatory and evening classes, learning at home, classes performed at museums and other public institutions, as well as lesser structurized teaching that happens when we encounter new ideas through contact with informative and entertaining media or in social interactions" (Jenkins, 2007, s. 253).

The free transfer of information and common access to the Internet has raised the value of involuntary teaching as well as learning at a distance (on-line education). This creates new educational challenges for authors of numerous projects of new education or so-called "education of tomorrow".

The process of changes of the ways of media circulation in the sphere of culture and similarly in the area of education happens gradually. This requires considerable deepening of social awareness through increasing of the importance of media education in teaching, for which inter alia Jenkins and participants of American projects promoting the idea of media literacy such as New Media Literacies or The Education Arcade opt.

The mentioned literacy does not deny the user his power, but, what Jenkins also highlights, its role is to making present the thinking about oneself as an active participant of the culture, even as a producer or a creator of some content. This literacy aims at building or forming, especially in children and adolescents’ actions, “rich in their meaning relations with media” (Compare: Jenkins, 2007, s. 250).

Whereas, both convergence as well as hybridization touch the earlier mentioned spheres of education and teaching significantly; and “mixing” of various socio-cultural spheres, spaces and dimensions finds its reflection in pedagogical concepts and theories. We may assume that certain aspects of this hybridism were enclosed in the pedagogical proposition of Gregory Ulmer, which is known as teletheory (Compare: 1989). The teletheory proposed by G. Ulmer is some kind of a reinterpretation of Jacques Derrida’s Grammatology. G. Ulmer, himself, emphasizes the fact that the postmodern world created essentially unlimited opportunity for a man to take the advantage of achievements of science, and to use new technologies in everyday life as well as in schools. Due to this, he indicates the necessity of changes in the area of communicative behaviour and of developing of communicative competences. This creates the need for educational reformation through enclosing so-called media literacy in functioning teaching programs. Moreover, he suggests to introduce audiovisual language into every didactic process, considering television techniques very useful for the transfer of knowledge (Ulmer, 1989). In reference to these ideas, we may assume that science, knowledge and education are a particular space for integration of traditional as well as technological elements. And G. Ulmer’s idea according to which “learning should be a game written with the use of technique, an audiovisual interaction between public and personal knowledge and technical realization of one’s individual >>story of life<<, understood as history” seems actual and reasonable from the perspective of the post-modernity (Ulmer, 1989, p. 311).

The standpoint of the already mentioned post-modernity researcher, J.-F. Lyotard, seems to be equally important in this discussion. Asking a question about the future of the teacher-student relation, Lyotard points at the tendency, notably visible at universities, to design classes in the frames of system of messages, which may as well be passed by “cyber-professors”. Furthermore, he states a little bit ironically that pedagogy, itself, will not suffer because of the new technological transformation, since students should be still taught something, and if not teaching contents then at least how to use terminals (Compare: 1997, s. 142-143).

This is one of the faces of the postmodern education, which is strongly linked with virtualization of reality and commercialization of knowledge, showing essential transformations in the approach and in the ways of acquisition of competences in participation in the culture.

The clear direction of development and the area of challenges for educators, care takers and teachers in the scope of acquisition of cultural competences is determined by members of various network communities, for example modders of games such as Counter-Strike or Half-Life, who seem to be more interested in escaping to the world of digital images and system abilities than in manifesting protest or in putting resistance to what reality offers them. They are an important social group that is often described as a subculture, whose activity and creativity on the Internet seems to be limited only by capabilities and frames of a software.

It seems important to notice that the attitude of young people towards goods, also those virtual, which are present in the surrounding them consumer culture, and similarly their attitude towards the media space, as Paul Willis maintains, is creative. According to him, young people create meanings actively and they are also creative receivers of all what culture gives them in the form of various stories, information as well as commercials, movies and games etc.

Meanwhile, it is worth to pay attention to the fact that communities functioning on the web are tribal in their character, what favours maintaining and developing of new types of interpersonal relations, stimulating social development. And their participants – what is emphasized by Jean Baudrillard– "undergo (…) the same fundamental mechanisms, that rule the whole society. Their anti-sociality is communal, tribal in its character. We can consider them in the frames of McLuhan’s category of >>tribalism<< that means global revival, under the auspices of mass media, of the
oral world and the world basing on touch, the music world and the world of communication (…)" (Baudrillard, 2006, p. 252).

Shaping of this type of spaces and relations, that binds particular individuals in the global arrangement of the world, leads to changes in the approach to participation in common “being” in this world, and simultaneously to changes in education and teaching. Since, many of educational actions are being moved to the Internet space. Contacts between educators/ teachers/lecturers and pupils/students are extended by virtual contacts, e-education and Internet forum meetings or hobby groups meetings. It is a great challenge for authors of educational programs and people designing educational processes, notably at the level of universities.

An important direction of considerations on the issue of the activity of universities and their postmodern functioning was pointed out – back in the 90’s – by Prof. Jacques Derrida, who touched the topic of universities’ responsibility for the idea of their own independency, and furthermore the responsibility manifesting in tangible resistance against all, appearing in social life, forms of dogmatism (political, ethnic, religious and ideological). During his lecture at the University of Silesia in Katowice, delivered on the occasion of granting him the honorary degree of Doctor honoris causa Universitas Silesiensis, Prof. Derrida drew attention to the need to take care of critical independency of universities and pointed at the necessity of skilful coming into so-called “Enlightenment of tomorrow”, that is a project of the universal rationalism. In his opinion it should be a concern for teaching of tomorrow, a concern – associated with preparation in each of cultivated scientific disciplines– that belongs – as he writes – to well known terms such as: Lumières, Aufklärung and Illuminismo (Derrida, 1997, p.62). Notions that are supposed to refer to various different characters and differently shaped, in the terms of history, cultures. Hence, he proposed and made an appeal to scholars and scientists to create a critical culture and “one universal discipline which would combine all existing ones” (Derrida, 1997, p. 62). It is another face of postmodern education that tries to “give itself a careful consideration” and participates in the critical discourse on knowledge, institutions and post-modernity. In any discourse, especially in these on educational ground, there is an idea of a single entity participating in both, global and the local socio-cultural space. We often talk in discourses about the need for a human’s identification and the search for his own identity; therefore, in the view of interaction of many cultures, it arises a large number of problems and questions. It also refers to the sphere of education that embraces institutional activities as well as informal education together with self-education and designing of own life space.

Then, it seems important to pay attention to a subject functioning in a particular space of a class, a school or a university, which can be considered places of assimilation and search for one’s identity or of shaping of subjectivity. As it is being pointed out by many researchers of post-modernity, all activities taken in this scope by a subject have forward looking character and many of them associate the above mentioned future with the development of virtual reality. For example, in the terms of Derrick de Kerckhove’s theory, the future is linked with the full experience of virtual world, as he says: “give oneself to the experience”. This full experience is possible only due to general virtualization, because “we need just to mix tactile interfaces like for example Wii (…) with picture and sound to achieve, sooner or later, “the total record”, which enables simulating and stimulating senses of proprioceptive memory (2009, s.82). But, will this “total record” become an expression of a new face of postmodern education? The way to this seems to be very long.

We can conclude that, despite the fact that modernity exceeds anthropocentrism and a human has stopped imitating nature and is no longer completely subordinated to it, we due to our inborn creative aspirations will never become just passive observers of the culture, we will be always its trans-navigating creators and products, and at the same time – acquiring competences– participants. Thus, both a teacher as well a student, a professor and a student are participants of the same way to cognition and experience of the reality, to experience the area of simulation and new forms of communication; and hence they undergo processes of shaping of their own diasporic identities.

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Lithuania’s Export Specialization According to Technological Classification

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Abstract

In the period of the last decade, Lithuanian economy has undergone numerous structural changes concerning manufacturing and exports. This research study introduces the pattern of Lithuania’s export specialization according to technological classification and analyses the changes of trade-based indices over the period of 2006 – 2011. The evaluation of export specialization lays the foundations to the analysis of actual performance of the manufacturing industry, the current exports structure and forecast the trends of transformation into relatively technological intensive and high-skill labour intensive areas. The core aim of the research paper is to reveal the peculiarities of export specialization according to technological classification of commodities of Lithuanian manufacturing industry. It is significant to reveal the importance not only of the high-tech, but also of the low-tech manufacturing industries for the country’s economy, whereas these industries prevail in the Lithuanian economic structure. This study employs the revealed comparative advantage approach to examine export specialization pattern and trends in the Lithuanian manufacturing industry according to technological classification at product category level. The study presents calculations of the Balassa, RCA and XCI indices to illustrate the solutions of the raised scientific problem.

Keywords: export specialization, technological classification, revealed comparative advantage index.

1. Introduction

Exports reflect not only the pattern of manufacturing industry specialization and achieved comparative advantage, but make it possible to indirectly evaluate the relative level of factor costs and non-price competitiveness of a country. The growth of Lithuanian economy mostly depends on export demand in international markets, so more attention of researches, business and policy makers is now being played to the analysis of exports results, pattern, development and exports competitiveness. Considering the results of country’s economic development, an important task is to evaluate the main changes of export volumes and pattern of export specialization. The rise of costs caused by the increased competition in foreign markets and other problems have impacted the changing trade markets and patterns, the decline of demand of most commodities and the reduction of competitive ability. The specialization changes of Lithuania’s exports naturally depend on aspects that are well identified in international trade theory, such as factor of market structure, geographical factors, applied technologies, consumer preferences. The estimation of export specialization according to technological classification is a relevant scientific issue aiming to analyse the actual structure and performance of manufacturing industry, achieved export results and to indicate the competitive commodities demanded by foreign markets. It is actual problem to indicate to what extent has export specialization moved from labour and raw
material resource intensive goods to high-value added knowledge and technology intensive industries.

The core aim of the research paper is to reveal the peculiarities of export specialization according to technological classification of commodities of Lithuanian manufacturing industry. This paper presents the Lithuanian export specialization indices in the period of 2006–2011 in order to indicate the main changes in comparison with previous periods. The methods of the scientific research employed in this study are scientific analysis and summarizing of literature, mathematic calculations, the comparative analysis of statistical indexes.

2. The theoretical issues and the methodology

This research paper uses revealed comparative advantage approach to examine the export specialization pattern and trends in Lithuanian manufacturing according to technological classification of produced commodities. This approach assumes that observed exports patterns reflect the international differences in price and non-price factors. The intent is to provide a deeper understanding concerning the export specialization tendency.

The trade theory suggests several methods to evaluate the trade specialization in a given country. Most of methods aiming at identification of the comparative advantages, revealed past trade data. While considering the changes in industry structure, the most common approach is to evaluate the degree of specialization of a country, or region in trade of output generated within a particular industry. This approach could be applied by considering shares of merchandise exports and imports.

The methods solely based on trade flows could be divided in two groups: the first group of indices use export data; the second group of indices use both export and import data. The best known and widely used indicator to evaluate the export specialization in the first group is the Balassa index, also known as the Revealed Comparative Advantage index. Balassa (1965) outlined that the usage of export and import values of the imported intermediate goods, used for manufacturing of export commodities, can take useful information for evaluating the comparative advantages of a country. The Balassa index is calculated by the product’s share in the country’s exports in relation to its share in the world trade. This study employs this index, which is calculated in the following way:

\[
B_i^A = \frac{(x_i^A/X_A)}{(x_i^w/X_w)}
\]

Where:
- \(x_i^A\) – country A exports of product i;
- \(X_A\) – total exports of country A;
- \(x_i^w\) – world exports of product i;
- \(X_w\) – total world exports.

Several modified indicators are presented in modern theories to determine the product’s comparative share in international trade among other products (Laursen, 1998, Vollrath, 1991). The most applied index in the second group is known as the LFI index, suggested by Lafay (1992). In contrast to the Balassa index, the LFI index takes imports into account in measuring specialization of export and is represented as a modified version of indicators of international trade specialization, and the competitiveness structure of the domestic manufacturing sector, measured by a set of industry and country-specific variables. The modified Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) indices (which use export and import data) have been suggested by Donges, Riedel (1977), Ml angeni (2000), Vollrath (1991) and applied in numerous research studies (Amir 2000, Laursen 1998, Lee 1995, Maule 1996, Prasad 2004, Rana 1988, Saboniene 2009, Yeats 1985).

This study also uses the modified RCA index (based on export and import data), calculated as:

\[
RCA_i = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sum \left( X_i - M_i \right)} + \sum \left( X_j + M_j \right)} \cdot \frac{\sum \left( X_i - M_i \right)}{\sum \left( X_j + M_j \right)}
\]

Where:
- \(X_i\) – country A exports of product i;
- \(M_i\) – country A imports of product i;
- \(X_j\) – country A exports of all others products except i (j =1 to n and j ≠ i);
- \(M_j\) – country A imports of all others products except i (j =1 to n and j ≠ i).

The RCA index indicates the comparative disadvantage when it is between –100 and 0; when the value is between 0 and +100, it illustrates a specialization and comparative advantage. Revealed comparative advantage index determines what commodity groups take the most important part in the export structure and allows evaluate the level of
import penetration into the domestic market. This index identifies the groups of commodities that compete in international and domestic markets in the most successful way, in comparison with the import and export data of previous periods. This study applies both indices (Balassa and RCA) to explicitly assess Lithuanian export specialization and to avoid the distortions. The changes in RCA over time reflect the trend in export specialization and the variations relative position of different activities in overall export structure of country, but the absolute value of RCA does not reflect its competitiveness in world markets. This research also uses the export competitiveness index XCI, suggested by Jean-Michel (1998) (cited in Amir, 2000) in order to express the ratio of the world share of country A in export of commodity i in period t (the period under review) to its worlds market share in the previous period. If XCI of a commodity takes value of greater that unit, this points towards rising export competitiveness.

\[
(XCIA)^t = \frac{(x^A_i/x_i^m)^t}{(x^A_i/x_i^m)^{t-1}}
\]

Where:
- t – the period under review;
- t-1 – the previous period;

The application of these indexes is based on understanding that Balassa, RCA, XCI indices, despite of their limitations, provide a useful guide to defining comparative advantage and offers a further insight into the competitiveness of a particular commodity or manufacturing industry and the implications for trade. Although these indices don’t provide the source of comparative advantage, they reveal the trade patterns that reflect both relative costs and differences in non-price factors.

3. The results and the research findings

Recent economic theory presents several classifications of commodity groups according to resources, technology and skill intensiveness. Krause (1984) applied the commodity classification system grouping commodities to four groups: technology intensive, skilled labour intensive, natural resources intensive, unskilled labour intensive. Trade and Development Report (TDR, 2002) classified product groups into six different categories according to the mix of different skill, technology and capital intensities and scale characteristics: primary commodities, labour-intensive and resource-based manufactures, manufactures with low skill and technology intensity, manufactures with medium skill and technology intensity, manufactures with high skill and technology intensity, unclassified products. This study is based on the technological classification, used by Erlat et al. (2006), who classified produced commodities to difficult-to-imitate research-intensive goods, easy-to-imitate research-intensive goods, capital-intensive goods, raw material-intensive goods and labour-intensive goods.

The Lithuania’s manufacturing industry after its transformational period of two decades mostly consists of low-tech industries (the share of low-tech exceeds 70 per cent in industrial structure). As the state’s industry development level is usually evaluated by the structure of manufacturing industry with particular emphasis on high-tech industries, Lithuania’s high-tech is quite small as well as medium-high-tech and has comparatively narrow specialization. The long-term variation of Lithuanian manufacturing industry structure in accordance with the level of technological developments has revealed that the low-tech and the medium-low-tech industries gradually grow, but the shares of high-tech and medium-high-tech industries slowly decrease in general industrial structure. The indicator of labour productivity of Lithuania’s manufacturing is relatively lower than in EU old timers. It suggests no surprise that commodities with high Balassa, RCA indicators belong to Lithuania’s low-tech and medium-low-tech. It can be stated that the raw-material intensive goods and labour intensive goods prevail in Lithuania’s exports pattern. The technological classification of commodities at two-digit level according RCA indices are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The technological classification of commodities at two-digit level. (sorted according to positive RCA values and Balassa over unit in 2011, XCI in 2011 compared with 2006)

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<th>CN</th>
<th>Commodity groups</th>
<th>RCA</th>
<th>Balassa index</th>
<th>XCI</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Difficult-to-imitate research-intensive goods (DIRG)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Plastics and articles thereof</td>
<td>24.91</td>
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<td>1.71</td>
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<td>Albuminoidal substances</td>
<td>8.23</td>
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<td>1.5</td>
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<td>Easy-to-imitate research-intensive goods (EIRG)</td>
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<td>Capital-intensive goods (CIG)</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitues</td>
<td>37.08</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
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<td>Commodity groups</td>
<td>2006</td>
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<td>2008</td>
<td>2009</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Raw material-intensive goods (RMIG)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>31 Fertilizers</td>
<td>67.02</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Cereals</td>
<td>60.94</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Products of the milling industry</td>
<td>53.92</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04 Dairy produce</td>
<td>49.10</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01 Live animals</td>
<td>46.87</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.36</td>
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<td>12 Oil seeds and oleaginous fruits</td>
<td>45.59</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Preparations of meat, fish</td>
<td>42.38</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23 Residues and waste from the food industries</td>
<td>26.78</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>02 Meat and edible meat offal</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.44</td>
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<tr>
<td>19 Preparations of cereals, flour, starch or milk</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.19</td>
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<tr>
<td>18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.92</td>
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<tr>
<td>07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.21</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 Miscellaneous edible preparations</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.48</td>
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<td>78 Lead and articles thereof</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.08</td>
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<tr>
<td>03 Fish and crustaceans</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labour intensive goods (LIG)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94 Furniture; bedding, mattresses</td>
<td>72.85</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens</td>
<td>46.70</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49 Printed books, newspapers, pictures</td>
<td>45.35</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>43 Furskins and artificial fur</td>
<td>44.32</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44 Wood and articles of wood</td>
<td>40.85</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, not knitted or crocheted</td>
<td>36.11</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, knitted or crocheted</td>
<td>29.96</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63 Other made - up textile articles</td>
<td>28.48</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96 Miscellaneous manufactured articles</td>
<td>21.18</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 Other vegetable textile fibres</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 Manufactures of straw, of esparto</td>
<td>13.38</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73 Articles of iron or steel</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68 Articles of stone; plaster, cement, asbestos</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** estimates based on statistical data of International Trade Centre and data of The Department of Statistics to the Government of the Republic of Lithuania.

The significance of low value-added manufacturers, such as, food, textile and clothing, wood and furniture has not been replaced by the strong performance of relatively high-value added manufactures. Aiming to evaluate the changes and trends of commodity groups which prevail in export structure of Lithuania, the calculation of revealed comparative advantage indices during the period of 2006-2011 has been performed (see Table 2).

Table 2. Balassa, RCA indices of commodities at two-digit level, 2006-2011.
Furniture and bedding (94)
Balassa 5.10 5.30 4.30 5.10 4.80 4.80 fluctuated
RCA 62.98 58.92 57.10 68.52 72.69 72.85 increased
Preparations of meat or fish (16)
Balassa 3.80 3.60 3.30 4.60 4.50 2.50 fluctuated
RCA 50.92 45.61 45.18 48.73 56.23 42.38 fluctuated
Wood and articles of wood (44)
Balassa 4.40 5.10 4.10 4.30 4.80 4.80 increased
RCA 50.92 45.61 45.18 48.73 56.23 42.38 increased
Wadding, felt and nonwovens (56)
Balassa 2.80 3.30 2.40 3.10 4.00 3.60 increased
RCA 23.18 26.05 27.20 34.82 39.29 46.70 increased
Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, knitted or Crocheted (61)
Balassa 1.50 1.30 1.30 1.50 1.40 1.20 declined
RCA 48.03 40.69 25.41 24.63 28.57 29.96 declined
Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, not knitted or crocheted (62)
Balassa 2.50 2.20 1.60 1.60 1.60 1.40 declined
RCA 58.34 43.07 31.56 32.69 35.88 36.11 declined

Source: estimates based on statistical data of International Trade Centre and data of The Department of Statistics to the Government of the Republic of Lithuania.

The high trade-based indices belong to commodity groups, which are classified as Raw material-intensive goods – 31 Fertilizers, 10 Cereals, 11 Products of the milling industry, 04 Dairy produce, 01 Live animal and 16 Preparations of meat and fish. The manufacture of chemicals and chemical products holds a relatively large share in industry structure, but only the production of 31 Fertilizers dominate as key export product group. While the Balassa, RCA indices are relatively high, XCI index (see Table 1) below unit shows the decreasing export share. The declining trend is also confirmed by the decreasing values of the Balassa and RCA indices over the period of 2006-2011.

The Lithuanian food industry is characterized having the largest potential industry in terms of production growth and positive trends. 11 Products of the milling industry has obvious increasing trend over the period studied while other commodity group’s indices are relatively high and rotational (see Table 2). In contrary, the indices of 04 Dairy produce gradually decrease, but the XCI demonstrates a constant export share.

The thirteen groups which are classified as Labour intensive goods have positive RCA and the Balassa index over unit. The study demonstrates the high indices of 94 Furniture and bedding, 44 Wood and articles of wood, 56 Wadding, felt and nonwovens, 53 Other vegetable textile fibres. Lithuania’s manufacturing of textiles and wearing apparel is very important in aspects of employment and export. However this low-tech industry is gradually declining. The future performance and potential of this industry requires deeper analysis. On the contrary, wood and furniture manufacturing industries have stable comparative advantage indices and growth of market share. 94 Furniture and bedding, 44 Wood and articles of wood demonstrate increasing indices and growing export shares.

It can be assumed, that only 39 Plastics and articles thereof in Difficult-to-imitate research-intensive group has export specialization (also RCA indices are quite high in 89 Ships, boats and floating structures, but Balassa index is below unit). 35 Albuminoidal substances have relative positive values in the group of Easy-to-imitate research-intensive goods. 24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes could be highlighted in the group of Capital-intensive goods.

4. The concluding remarks

The transformation of economic system experienced by Lithuanian economy formed the manufacturing industry based on Raw material-intensive goods and Labour-intensive goods. This process has been affected by raw- material and financial sources, labour structure, limited research and innovation activity, rising global competition and variable global demand in the international market. The empirical study of the trade-based indices of manufacturing industry according product’s technological classification reveals important insights on the exports pattern and changes of export specialization over the last years. The empirical study confirms the significance of Lithuania’s low-tech and reveals the demand of attention for policy makers to analyse the potential not only of the high-tech and medium-high-tech. The
Lithuania’s low-tech and medium-low-tech exports have a vital impact on the country’s economic growth and exports thus cost-based comparative advantages in these industries should be replaced by non-price factors based on research and innovation activity.

The empirical study has demonstrated the narrow list (the analysis of commodities has been performed on two-digit and four-digit level) of *Difficult-to-imitate research-intensive and Easy-to-imitate research-intensive* goods as well as *Capital-intensive* goods. The transformation of Lithuania’s exports pattern to high-value added knowledge, high-skill labour intensive and technology intensive industries is a challenge ahead. An attention should be paid to another problem: the decreasing of trade-based indices of commodities with quite good export performance, for example 31 Fertilizers, 04 Dairy produce, 61, 62 Articles of apparel and clothing accessories. The potential possibilities to compete in the international market have been confirmed by dynamics of indices of wood, furniture and food industry. In considering the development of these low-tech industries, very significant aspect for further successful performance is innovation activity and the adoption of higher technologies.

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**References**


"Testate Succession" in the Italian and Georgian Legal Systems. Terminological Differences

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Abstract

Throughout the centuries human societies of the world have progressively established closer contacts. However, the pace of these processes has significantly increased during the last decades. The growing tendency of globalization has stipulated the resemblance of juridical norms of different countries. The given paper is dedicated to the problems associated with the transference of a deceased person's property. It describes a legal mechanism of practical realization of the right of inheritance and nominates it as one of the major rights of an individual. The rules of inheritance are usually applied after the death of a person. They comprise the norms of "testate" and "intestate" successions. However, "testate succession" - the inheritance established through the last will or testament – acquires pressing urgency in today's world. It enables individuals to make valid distributions of their property during the epoch of "all-embracing" market economy. The given paper presents a precise study of the Italian (capitalistic) and Georgian ("almost" capitalistic) "testate successions". It singles out major terminological units and underlines the most prominent differences of capitalistic and "almost" capitalistic mechanisms of the modes of inheritance.

1. Introduction

During many centuries human societies of the world have progressively established closer contacts. However, the pace of these processes has significantly increased throughout the last decades. "Constantly progressive" process of globalization has stipulated an international integration arising from the interchange of the experiences depicted in different areas of life. The latest advances in communication and transportation technologies have given capital, goods and population unprecedented mobility. The world has been gradually becoming a boundless space connected with the exchange of ideas, world views and advances. Besides offering significant innovations, the process of globalization has even changed the contours of law and has created new global legal institutions and norms.

The given paper makes an attempt to answer the demands of the modern epoch via studying the Italian and Georgian legal norms dedicated to the testate succession. The greatest emphasis is put on the major concepts and their nomination, which somehow reveal the impact of the contemporary globalizing processes.

2. “Testate succession” in the contemporary Italian law

Succession can be regarded as “the procedure through which all legal aspects pertaining to the deceased are transferred to the heirs” (Italian inheritance). It means, that “the successors occupy the part of the deceased person in property relations. This type of permanent link between generations is a sine qua non (essential precondition) for public stability and perpetuity of cultural, property and spiritual traditions” (The Commentary of the Civil Code of Georgia, 2000) all over the world.

It's a well known fact, that during the centuries, transference of the estate has involved assets and liabilities of a deceased person. In modern times, any society considers the following issues having primary importance for the distribution of wealth and for the social and political structure of the society:

1. the issue of the extent to which owners of property shall have the power by their own decision to determine the course of inheritance and, 2. the issue of whether or not estates shall be allowed or even required to pass undivided to one single heir” (Rheinstein M.).

Contemporary hereditary law is oriented on the disposition of a deceased person’s property via a valid will (testate succession) or according to the rules of intestacy (intestate or legitimate succession). The given paper studies the Italian
and Georgian legal norms dedicated to the testate succession.

The Italian inheritance law dates back to the Roman law tradition. The Roman citizens could create a will via considering several very formal requirements of the validity of this legal document. The major requirement was the appointment of the heir/heirs. “An heir, in the Roman sense of the term, was a universal successor; that is, he took over the rights and duties of the deceased (insofar as they were transmissible at all) as a whole. On acceptance, the heir became owner if the deceased was owner, creditor if he was creditor, and debtor if he was debtor, even though the assets were insufficient to pay the debts” (Glendon M. A.). Till Justinian’s famous reform, certain categories of heirs could avoid payment of debts via refusing the acceptance of the inheritance. Hence, Justinian changed this law. One of the most important peculiarities of the Roman legal system was the freedom of testation. However, it was limited to a certain extent. A part of a testator’s property had to be left to his children (in some cases - to brothers, sisters and ascendants).

The contemporary Italian hereditary law vividly shares the principles of the Roman law tradition. If a person dies without leaving a valid will (Intestata), intestate succession (Successione legittima) takes place. If a person creates a will (Testamento) during his/her lifetime, the family members have to deal with a testate succession.

“Testamento” usually represents a legal document drafted and signed by a deceased person (testatore) during his/her lifetime. It states a testator’s wish regarding the distribution of his/her estate between his/her beneficiaries (Eredi/Legatari). The contemporary Italian law makes distinction between three major types of wills:

1. **Testamento Olografo** (handwritten/holographic will) – this is a private deed, which is created, dated and signed by the testator himself/herself. A holographic will “can be drawn up at any time using any kind of sheet, without any cost. It can be kept by the testator, but it is more convenient for the testator to deliver the will to a public notary for publication, in order to avoid destruction before or after death” (Inheritance law, 2011);  
2. **Testamento Pubblico** (formal/public will) – this is a formal deed drafted by the Italian notary under the instructions of a testator, read out by the notary and signed by the testator in the presence of witnesses;  
3. **Testamento Segreto** (secret will) – “this is a will drafted/written by the testator and placed in a sealed envelope which is then delivered to an Italian notary. The notarial fees are reduced, the contents of the will shall remain secret until after the death of the testator when, the sealed envelope will be opened” (Dr. Claudio Del Giudice).

It’s worth mentioning, that the creation of these three types of wills is available not only to the Italians, but to the foreigners as well. Moreover, a foreigner, who is not resident of Italy can draw up an holographic will according to the formal requirements provided by the Italian Civil Code. Such type of a will must be delivered to a trustworthy person, preferably, in a sealed envelope. After the death of a testator, a trusted person will deliver this document to the Italian notary for making all the required fulfillments: publication, registration, transcription in the Real Estate Public Register and payment of an inheritance tax. It’s also worth mentioning, that “pursuant to Law No.90/387, Italy entered into the Washington Convention of October 26, 1973, providing a uniform law on the form of an international will. As a consequence, if the international will (of an Italian or a foreigner) is handwritten, even by the third parties, it is considered formally valid, irrespective of the place where it was drawn up, the nature of the goods, the object of the inheritance, the domicile or residence of the testator, or the language used to write the will” (Inheritance law, 2011).

All the above mentioned indicates to the freedom of the disposition of property by the will. However, the Italian law protects the members of the deceased person’s immediate family via entitling them to the minimum statutory share (Successione necessaria). Therefore, the law reserves a portion of the estate (a reserved quota) to the so-called forced heirs. Accordingly:

- “The spouse is reserved half of the estate, unless the deceased leaves children. Article 540 of the Italian Civil Code reserves the right of the spouse to occupy the family home, and to use its furniture, even if there are other heirs;”  
- If a parent leaves only one child, legitimate or natural, he/she is reserved half of the estate. If more than one child is left, the children receive two thirds of the estate, divided into equal parts;  
- If a deceased leaves only legitimate ancestors, they have the right to receive one third of the estate;  
- If a deceased leaves a spouse with only one child (legitimate or natural), both of them have the right to receive one third of the estate…” (Inheritance law, 2011).

The rights of forced heirs are strongly defended by the law. It’s a well known fact, that any person during his/her lifetime may donate the ownership. He/she can also make a testamentary disposition of the wealth. However, if in consequence of testator’s actions, the reserved portion is not respected i.e. if the testamentary dispositions or donations exceed the portion which the testator may legally dispose of, “azione di riduzione” takes place. “Azione di riduzione” is a specific legal action, which permits the forced heirs to restore their right of a minimum statutory share via asking for the abatement. This legal action must be filed within ten years from the opening of the estate. “Any person who has received
donations or legacies in terms of money or property from the deceased during his/her lifetime is obliged to give back such things to the forced heirs (the so-called “collazione”) (Inheritance law, 2011).

3. “Testate succession” in the contemporary Georgian law

Under conditions of globalizing processes and the growing tendency of the rapid development of the market economy, a testate type of succession becomes more and more popular in today’s Georgia. It enables a testator to distribute his/her assets and liabilities according to his/her last will and testament. During the Soviet era, the acting legislation required a notarial attestation of a will. However, the contemporary Georgian law of succession enables each person to make a preferential will. Therefore, the distribution of property depends on the testator, who makes a valid will in order to leave his/her estate or its part to one or several persons from the circle of intestate successors or outside it. The Georgian testate succession comprises the following major elements:

- moanderZe (moanderdze) – a person who creates a will;
- anderZismieri memkvidre (anderdzismieri memkvidre) – a person or an entity, which receives property from the estate of a deceased through a valid will;
- anderZi (anderdzi) – a document created by the testator.

A person making a will must be a capable adult, who wisely justifies his/her actions and clearly expresses desires during the process of the creation of the document. The Georgian wills are created according to the proper format. They must be in writing. A written will may be in a notarial form (the so-called sanotaro anderZi (sanotaro anderdzi)) or without it.

“A notarial form requires a will to be prepared and signed by the testator and attested by a notary, but if a notary is not available, the above mentioned function is executed by a local self-government body” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2012). Generally, wills are prepared by testators, but in certain cases, it is permitted, that a will in words of the testator be written down by a notary in the presence of two witnesses. The usage of generally accepted technical means while writing down the given document is also permitted. “A will written by a notary in words of the testator will be read by the testator and signed by him (her) in the presence of a notary and a witness” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2012).

"Notarized wills" (official wills) differ from unofficial or holographic wills (the so-called xelnaweri anderZi (khelnatseri anderdzi)).

Holographic/handwritten wills are made personally by the testator. The creation of a will through a representative is not permitted. The category of handwritten wills consists of a "domestic will" (the so-called Sinauruli anderZi (shinauruli anderdzi)) and a “closed will” (the so-called daxuruli anderZi (dakhuruli anderdzi)). "Domestic wills” are made in the testator’s handwriting and signed by him (her). In cases of a “closed will”: “at the request of a testator, witnesses will confirm the will so that they do not know its content. In this case, the witnesses should be present during the signing of the will. During the confirmation of a closed will, the witnesses have to indicate that it was made personally by the testator and that they did not become aware of the content of the will” (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2012).

A will is usually executed by one person. However, the Civil Code of Georgia permits a joint creation of a will by two or more individuals. In such cases, only spouses are allowed to make a reciprocal will on joint legacy, which may be revoked by one of the spouses, but still during the lifetime of both of them. This type of a will is called a "joint will" (the so-called saerTo anderZi (saerto anderdzi)).

Like the Italian legal system, the Civil Code of Georgia often faces the problem of the freedom of disposition by will. Testators’ wishes are usually restricted by the existence of the so-called “reserved quota” (savaldebulo wili (savaldebulo tsili)). However, in contrast to the Italian law, the Georgia’s Civil Code entitles all the forced heirs to receive equal shares. Therefore, according to Article 1371: “despite the contents of a will, a deceased person’s children, parents and spouse are entitled to a reserved portion, which is equal to the half of the share transmitted to them in case of an intestate succession (The Civil Code of Georgia, 2012).

The rights of forced heirs are strongly defended by Georgia’s law. It’s a well-known fact, that any person during his/her lifetime may donate the ownership via making a gift. However, Article 1378 of The Civil Code of Georgia permits the forced heirs to increase their minimum statutory shares via asking for the inclusion of a testator’s “inter vivos” gifts into the estate. This legal action is considered only within ten years from the donation.

4. Conclusions

All the above mentioned enables us to conclude, that the process of globalization has embraced the whole world. It
“unites the world communities” (Makstutis A., Tumalavicius V., 2012), facilitates the emergence of political changes and stipulates the integration of the legal systems of different countries. Certain changes can be seen in the laws of the countries of the former USSR. The given paper has presented a comparative analysis of the Italian law and the Georgian legislation, which was formed on the basis of the legal system of the USSR. The major emphasis has been put on the concept of “testate succession” and terms related to it. The carried out research enables us to single out the following outcomes:

1. The contemporary laws of Georgia and Italy make distinction between testate and intestate successions. The legal systems of both countries single out three major elements of testate succession: a testator (the Italian - Testatore; the Georgian - moanderZe), an heir (the Italian - Erede; the Georgian - anderZismieri memkvidre) and a will (the Italian - Testamento; the Georgian – anderZi).

2. The contemporary laws of Georgia and Italy nominate a "will" as the most commonly used legal instrument by which a testator regulates the rights of others over his/her property after his/her death. The legal systems of both countries differentiate official (notarized) and unofficial types of wills. However, the major difference lies in the fact, that the Civil Code of Georgia recognizes domestic (Sinauruli anderZi), closed (daxuruli anderZi) and joint (saerTo anderZi) wills, while the corresponding legal terms are not found in the Italian law. The Italian legal system makes distinction between Testamento Olografo (handwritten/holographic will) and Testamento Segreto (secret will). However, it’s worth mentioning, that Testamento Olografo can be identified with Sinauruli anderZi. Both of them represent a private deed, which is created, dated and signed by the testator himself/herself. Testamento Olografo and Sinauruli anderZi can be kept by the testator or can be delivered to a notary.

3. The contemporary Italian and Georgian legal systems single out a concept of a forced heir, which is entitled to a reserved portion. Italian law strongly defends the rights of forced heirs via a specific legal action “azione di riduzione”. This concept and its corresponding terms are not found in the Georgian Civil Code. However, the Georgian law permits the forced heirs to increase their minimum statutory shares via asking for the inclusion of a testator’s “inter vivos” gifts into the estate.

Finally, it's worth mentioning, that the comparative analysis of the Georgian and Italian legal systems revealed their major differences and similarities. Obviously, the existed terminological and conceptual gaps will be filled during the flow of time via the influence of ongoing globalizing processes. The Georgian testate succession has already undergone important changes after the completion of the Soviet era. Wills acquired holographic forms and simplified the process of the transference of property. Supposedly, the final establishment of capitalism (in Georgia) will “increase the homogeneity” of the Georgian and Italian legal systems.

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Ethnic Conflicts, Democratic Governance and Administration in Nigeria: The Relevance of Hislope’s Generosity Moments Theory as a Solution

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Abstract

Ethnic conflicts are not new in Nigeria. They have existed in the regions long before British colonization of the various ethnic nationalities that comprise the country. The persistence of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria has become a threat to peace, unity and democratic governance and administration in Nigeria. This paper examines the nature and causes of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria’s political processes and how these conflicts have militated against the development of democracy and public administration in the country. It also examines the efforts made by the various governments in the country to resolve the problem; and finally examines how the application of Hislope’s “generosity moments” theory to the Nigerian situation could serve as a solution to ethnic conflicts in the nation’s political processes and democratic governance in the country as earlier adopted solutions have been ineffective. The paper finds that there are structural factors inherent in the Nigerian federation that militate against the resolution of ethnic conflicts and consolidation of democracy in the country which would also militate against the working of Hislope’s generosity moments theory and recommends some structural adjustments in the nation’s constitution as a solution to ethnic conflicts and democratic governance in the country. The paper concludes that if the structural adjustments are made, the Hislope’s generosity moments theory would provide an adequate solution to the problem of ethnic conflicts and democratic governance in Nigeria.

Keywords: generosity moments; ethnicity; ethnic conflicts; regime transition; political transition;

1. Introduction

The challenge of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria is not a recent phenomenon. It has existed in the region long before the British colonized the various ethnic nationalities that comprise the country today. The inadequate understanding of ethnic phenomenon in Nigeria made the colonial government in the country to set up the Sir Henry Willink’s Minority Commission on September 27, 1957, to look into the problems of the minority ethnic nationalities that had complained to the colonial government of being marginalized in the country’s political processes. The Willink’s Commission did not offer any solution to the minority problems in the country then, and these problems lingered into an independent Nigeria where they have become worse.

The Independent Nigerian Governments tried solving the problem through state creations exercise in 1962, 1966, 1976, 1986 and 1996. And in 1979, the “federal character principle” was introduced into the country’s constitution under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy, aimed at making the governments in the country representative of the various ethnic groups and peoples of the country. Rather than solve the ethnic question in Nigeria, these measures reinforced the problem and even posed new problems that complicated the ethnic question, leading to the mismanagement of the nation’s economy and to the creation of a “cult of mediocrity” (Achebe, 1983) in the nation’s
administrative bureaucracy.

Some political parties in the country resorted to the zoning of certain political positions to some ethnic regions as a measure of stemming down the tide of ethnic crises in the political process but there were no measures in place to ensure that the positions rotated among the various ethnic nationalities and geo-political zones or regions in the country. These zoning policies became sources of personality clashes and ethnic crises that sometimes led to political assassination and balkanization of political parties that had national appeals.

All these devices have failed to solve the ethnic question in Nigeria and the ethnic crises become more intense during political and regime transition periods. The intensities of these conflicts show that ethnic conflicts are incompatible with democracy as the conflicts threaten the peace, security, development, the legitimacy of the regimes and consolidation of democracy in the country. This has made the government to adopt the method of sending military expeditions to ethnic regions where the crises exist; and to ethnic regions that one way or the other “threaten” the peace, security and the corporate existence of the country; after which administrative panels of inquiry are established to investigate the “remote and immediate causes of the conflicts, and to make recommendations to the government”. However, the reports of these panels are rarely made public in the country.

More than two decades ago, Hislope (1998) postulated a “generosity moments” theory as a solution to ethnic conflicts in multi-ethnic societies. The theory holds that in the course of regime change in a multi-ethnic society, that there exists a critical juncture – a generosity moment- at which the dominant ethnic groups must decide how to respond to minorities demands; and that elites’ decisions at such points establish distinct trajectories along which transitions (and consolidation) unfold and or, are reversed. And suggested that a generous liberal approach towards minorities is the best way to ensure peaceful transitions, and secure the security and legitimacy of the state. The elites are therefore, significant causal factors of transitions and consolidation of democracy in a polity.

Every political and or regime transition period in Nigeria is a generosity moment – the 1979 political transition period of General Olusegun Obasanjo; the 1993 transition period of General Ibrahim Babangida; the 1997 political transition programme of General Sanni Abacha; the 1999 political transition period of General Abdulsalami Abubakar; and the 2003 regime transition period of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo; and the 2007 regime transition period of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo were such identifiable moments that call for generosity by ethnic majorities towards the ethnic minorities in the country. All these periods had been tense and violent, and threatened the legitimacy of the government and the corporate existence of the country because two particular ethnic majorities (the north and the west) that have dominated the politics and economy of the country since 1966 have refused to be generous to the other ethnic nationalities in the country.

During the regime transition of 2007 in Nigeria, the minorities ethnic nationalities especially those in the Niger Delta Region and the Igbo ethnic majority of the Eastern Region that has been marginalized in the nation's political process since 1966, were poised to have the highest political posts in the country. They felt that they are no longer satisfied being spectators in the Nigerian political process and threaten the corporate existence of Nigeria should they be denied the opportunity to occupy the highest political post in the country. Their plights really called for “generosity” by the other majority ethnic groups in the country during the 2007 regime transition. This may have accounted for the selection of the vice-presidential candidate of the ruling Peoples’ Democratic Party (PDP) from the Niger Delta Region. This study therefore examines the ethnic factor in Nigeria’s political process and the prospects of the generosity moments theory being a workable solution to the crises.

2. Statement of the Problem

Nigeria has the largest number of ethnic nationalities amongst all African countries. It is believed that there are more than 400 ethnic nationalities in the country and recent discoveries are being made of new ethnic nationalities in the northern region of the country. With so many ethnic nationalities purposely and forcefully put under a roof by the colonial forces without due regard for their ethnic differences, there is bound to be conflicts amongst them. Furthermore, these ethnic nationalities have never come together since the departure of the colonialis t, to discuss the basis under which the country should continue to remain as one united geo-political entity called Nigeria; but have through the colonial design, been forcefully made to remain in that colonial arrangement by one ethnic group in the country. It is therefore the purpose of this paper to investigate why after fifty years of Nigeria’s existence as an independent country, the struggle for political power in Nigeria’s has been characterized by ethnic conflicts and ethnic considerations rather than issues of development and good governance; how have these ethnic conflicts in the political process affected the consolidation of democratic rule in the country, what measures have been adopted by the various governments in the country to solve the
problems generated by ethnic differences in the political process and how successful have these measures been; and, what are the prospects of solving these ethnic problems in Nigeria through the application of Hislope’s generosity moments theory in the country’s political process.

3. Ethnicity and Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria

Ethnicity is a political concept and denotes the expression of ethnic sentiments or ethnic nationalism. It involves the practice of ethnic ideology which enables a group to exploit natural differences in nationality for specific purposes. As Igwe (2002) pointed out, it is an outward-looking chauvinistic attitude towards one’s nationality and cultural group with a correspondingly suspicious and hostile attitude towards others, especially those held to be in competition with one’s own ethnic group.

Ethnicity manifests in the political, economic and cultural processes of a country and is propagated by the family, economic groups, and political groups in the labor process. As Nnoli (1989) noted, it is determined by the size of a linguistic group, location of the group, strength and cohesion of its leadership, the nature and leadership of under-privileged classes, foreign influences and dominant ideology.

Ethnic conflicts had been in existence in Nigeria before the advent of colonialism. Ethnic wars were fought over natural resources, farmlands, grazing lands, water supply, fishing rights, hunting rights, items of trade such as slaves, ivory, gold, etc. Later, religious beliefs and power positions became issues keenly contested in and across the length and breadth of the country, leading to wanton destruction of lives and property across the country (Ifemesia, 1965; Aderibigbe, 1965; and Tamuna, 1965).

Ethnic conflicts in Nigeria are therefore generally caused by (a) struggles over natural and economic resources by ethnic nationalities, (b) as a result of migration, and (c) state and empire building processes by ethnic nationalities (Ifemesia, 1965; Aderibigbe, 1965 and Tamuno, 1965). Some of the expansionist tendencies by some ethnic nationalities were successful in some areas, while in so many areas, they were checkmated by the ethnic militias of the invaded ethnic regions and nationalities; and by the advancement of the colonial occupation forces (Akpofuru and Crowther, 1965).

Most ethnic conflicts in Nigeria are outcomes of foreign influences – colonization and unification of disparate peoples around the River Niger area into a country by the British colonial forces without due consideration for their ethnic diversities (Balewa, 1948); western education which led to social mobilization and the creation of new social classes or what Deutsch (1961) called the “new marginal men”, and whom Nnoli (1989) referred to as “educated and insecure elites” who have resorted to organizing collective ethnic support to ensure their successes in the competition for national posts and resources because they have either failed to achieve, or, the available national institutions have failed to accommodate them and their ethnic interests.

The same social mobilization via education created what Nnoli (1989) has called “middlemen minorities” who took advantage of the unification of the various ethnic nationalities into a country called Nigeria, to venture out of their ethnic regions for business ventures (this is particularly true of the Ibo ethnic group in Nigeria. There is a popular saying that wherever you do not find an Ibo-man, no one is there. - just leave the region). In their host ethnic regions, they became ethnic minorities and targets for all forms of ethnically motivated attacks because of their business acumen.

Finally, ethnic conflicts are endemic and rampant in the country because of the multiplicity of ethnic groups in the country. It is estimated that Nigeria has more than 400 ethnic nationalities and linguistic groups (Murdock, 1959). This is too much for a single country. It is extremely difficult to have 400 or more ethnic nationalities under a roof without conflicts each day. With the multiplicity of ethnic nationalities in the country, it is extremely difficult to achieve a “unity in diversity”.

Nigeria is not a country; it is merely a geographical expression (Awolowo, 1946). It is evident that ethnic conflicts in Nigeria took a national outlook with the formation of the Nigerian state by the British. Simply put, it was the colonization of Nigeria that halted state formation processes in the present day Nigeria, and set the stage for ethnic conflicts which have characterized the country’s political processes and militated against the development of stable democratic governance in the country. Ethnicity has become a potent force in politics. It was the basis for the formation of nationalist movements during colonial era in Nigeria (Coleman, 1963), and the basis for political party formation, membership and support (Sklar, 1963).
4. Measures Taken to Combat Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria

The various governments in Nigeria have adopted varying measures to combat ethnic conflicts in the country, and most of these measures have not been effective hence the persistence of the problem in the country especially during political and regime transition periods. The measures adopted so far have been:

1. Establishment of administrative commissions of inquiry into the conflicts. 
2. The creation of autonomous ethnic regions (states and local governments) for the ethnic regions where such creation would reduce the ethnic advantage of others (considered as opponents) and, or, advance the ethnic interests of the creators of the autonomous ethnic regions. 
3. The entrenchment of the “federal character principle” in the constitutions of the country under the fundamental objectives and directive principles of state policy. 
4. Sending of military expeditions to the ethnic regions in conflict to give military solutions to the conflicts. 
5. Zoning certain key political posts to certain ethnic nationalities and, or, ethnic regions in the country.

Almost every government in the country has adopted the use of administrative panels of inquiry to investigate and resolve ethnic conflicts in the country. The most popular of these panels was the Sir Henry Willink’s Minority Commission set up by the colonial government on September 27, 1957 to investigate the complaints of the various ethnic minorities in the then three geo-political zones that formed the country – the Eastern, Northern and Western Regions. They were the federating units in the formation of Nigeria.

The ethnic minorities in the then three geo-political zones in the country had complained of being marginalized in the political and economic processes of their geo-political zones in particular and the country in general, and demanded for the creation of autonomous geo-political zones for them in their various ethnic regions. The three ethnic majorities in the then three regions – the Ibos in the East, the Hausa/Fulani in the North and the Yorubas in the West took diverse stands on the issue, while the Ibos of the east and Yorubas of the West favored the creation of autonomous geo-political zones for the ethnic minorities across the country and the redrawing of the geo-political maps of the regions; the Hausa/Fulani of the North rejected such creation as it would rob them of their political advantage of dominating not only the politics of the Northern region but also that of the country as a whole (Orjiakor, 1981; Blitz, 1965). Though there were disagreements among the ethnic minorities themselves over the membership of the new geo-political zones to be created across the country (Orjiakor, 1981; Coleman, 1963; Sklar, 1963), the colonialists had said that such creations would have created new minorities and new minorities problems; and would have also delayed the Nigeria independence (Blitz, 1965).

But the Sir Henry Willink’s Minority Commission was not disposed to solve the minority problems. It noted in its report that “real danger existed among the minority ethnic groups in all the geo-political zones in the country” then. The commission was therefore of the opinion that creating new autonomous ethnic regions in each of the existing geo-political zones would create problems as great as those it sought to solve. It ended up recommending the creation of special and minority areas and one of such recommended special area is the present day crises-ridden Niger Delta Region in the country. Except the Sir Henry Willink’s Minority Commission, no other administrative commission of inquiry into ethnic conflicts in the country has had its report made public for obvious reasons.

The use of state creation to solve ethnic conflicts found favour before the successive indigenous governments in the country, as they believe that the state creation exercise would reduce ethnic tensions across the country. This led to the state creation exercises by the various governments in 1962, 1966, 1976, 1986 and 1996, and ethnic and cultural interests guided such state creation exercises (Ikejiani and Ikejiani, 1986; Awolowo, 1947 and Ellah, 1983). The state creation exercises have tended to produce “new elites” or “contending elites” in the various geo-political zones who constitute new problems of accommodation in the system. They have also produced new majority and minority ethnic groups in the newly created states or geo-political zones, an issue the Willink’s Minority Commission had noted and warned against. The ethnic interests of those in power or operators of the various regimes have guided almost all state and local government creation exercises in Nigeria.

The use of the federal character principle as a means of solving ethnic conflicts endemic in the Nigerian political process was introduced in 1979 under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy in the 1979 Constitution and in all other subsequent constitutions. The federal character principle aims at making it difficult for the government or any of its agencies to be dominated by any one ethnic group in the country by insisting that the composition of the government of the nation, or any of its component states or local government councils, and or, their agencies shall be carried out in such a manner as to reflect or recognize the pluralist nature (ethnic diversities) of the country and or its component states, local governments and agencies. It should be in such a way as to promote a sense
of belonging and loyalty among all peoples of the country. Such composition must reflect the “federal character”.

The federal character principle however fell short of solving ethnic conflicts and problems endemic in the polity during political and regime transitions because it failed to give equal opportunities to all Nigerians or ethnic regions to produce in turns, the occupants of the highest political seats in the country. This would have eliminated the ethnic crises and violence that accompany the struggles for such posts in the country. This simply means that the members of the minority ethnic groups would be accommodated in government only in the places where the majority ethnic groups want them to be; and since politics is a matter of majority votes, the minority will always remain out of power. So the federal character principle falls short of solving ethnic conflicts in Nigeria. As Achebe (1983) noted, it has led to the creation of a “cult of mediocrity” because incompetent persons get these power positions due to their ethnic origins, religion and other undue considerations. And this has also led to the mismanagement of the nation’s economy and corruption among political office holders. This has really affected the development of democratic governance in the country.

The next method adopted by the political elites themselves rather than the government as solution to ethnic conflicts during political and regime transitions is the “zoning” of key political posts in the political party, and in the nation if victorious at the polls, to certain ethnic regions or ethnic nationalities.

The National Party of Nigerian (NPN) employed this strategy to reduce ethnic conflicts during the 1979 political transition in Nigeria, and this saw the Party chairmanship going to Chief Akinloye of the Yoruba Western region, Presidency to Alhaji Shehu Shagari of the Hausa/Fulani group of the North and Vice President to Chief Alex Ekwueme of the Ibo ethnic group of the Eastern region. Some other posts in the legislatures – the speakers and deputy speakers of the Senate and House of Representatives were also zoned to ethnic nationalities. This zoning system attracted most conservative elites of the various ethnic regions into the Party and made the Party victorious at the 1979 Presidential election.

The desire of the other ethnic groups to have the Presidency zoned to another ethnic group in the regime transition of 1983 almost tore the NPN to shreds. Chief M.K.O. Abiola, a Yoruba businessman from the Western region that had wanted the Presidency was told by Alhaji Umaru Dikko of the Hausa/Fulani North that the Presidency was not for sale to the highest bidder. Chief Abiola with his Yoruba supporters left the NPN.

The NPN maintained the 1979 zoning system in 1983 and emerged victorious at the Presidential election, and the desire of the Hausa/Fulani ethnic majority not to leave the Presidency to any other ethnic group in the country led to series of military coups between 1983 and 1999 that saw the Hausa/Fulani group still in control of the central government.

The Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) employed a zoning system in the 1999 political transition period and became victorious. Retired General Olusegun Obasanjo of the Yoruba (Western region) won the Presidency under the platform of the PDP. His desire to have a second term in office triggered off conflict between him and the vice president Alhaji Atiku Abubakar, the Yoruba ethnic group and the elites of the other ethnic nationalities in the party especially those from the Northern region. This conflict became personalized, heated the polity, and threatened the peace, security and corporate existence of Nigeria, and aborted the several attempts by General Obasanjo to remain perpetually in power after the second term in office; just like his Hausa/Fulani military counterpart did. Eventually the Presidency went back to the Northern Hausa/Fulani ethnic group.

From the lessons of zoning system in the country, it has becomes clear that the peace, security and corporate existence of the country can be secured and democratic governance evolved and sustained, and even consolidated if the majority ethnic groups can be generous not just to one another but to all other ethnic groups especially the minorities, in the political processes of the country. And this can be achieved through the entrenchment of zoning of political offices in turns, to ethnic regions or nationalities in the country’s constitution.

5. Hislope’s Generosity Moments Theory and Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria

Hislope’s (1998) thesis states that in the course of regime change in a multi-ethnic society, there is a critical juncture – a “generosity moment” at which dominant ethnic groups must decide how to respond to minority demands. At such points, elites’ decisions establish distinct trajectories along which transition and consolidation processes unfold, and or, are reversed. Therefore, a generous liberal approach by the majority ethnic groups towards the minorities is the best way to ensure peaceful transition, win the democratic consent of the minorities, and secure the legitimacy of the state.

For this method to work out, Hislope (1998) maintains, it is the elites that matter. The elites of the majority and minority ethnic groups are seen as significant causal factors during transition and consolidation of any new regime. The elites of the majority ethnic groups have to be conciliatory and promote avenues of dialogue and cooperation with those
of the minority groups to reduce the prospects of inter-ethnic violence in the polity. The elites of the majority ethnic groups must be able to identify moments which are conspicuous for generous overtures and intervention towards those of the minority groups – how and when to be generous, what structural factors should be put in place for the generosity to work out, and to ensure that the generosity does not lead into a “slippery slope” for the minorities who may become unduly demanding, making impossible demands and become insatiable thereby holding the entire nation to ransom. To overcome all these problems, the elites of both the majority and minority groups must promote dialogue and cooperation to produce factors that are acceptable to all groups.

Hislope (1998) also noted that certain structural factors prevent the elites of the majority ethnic group from being generous towards the ethnic minorities, and these are: the demographic pattern of the society; the existence of historical memories of violence between the groups; the existence of contested borders; if being generous would not create a ‘slippery slope’ for minority demands; and the existence of a large number of ethnic groups in the society which would make it difficult (but not impossible) to find a solution that would satisfy all groups.

Unfortunately, these structural factors identified by Hislope do exist in Nigeria. Though it is difficult to get the ethnic majorities to be generous to the minorities, it is not impossible because, successive governments in the country have created most of these structural factors that impede generosity especially the colonial administration in the country. And lessons from the internal arrangements of the political parties to zone out political posts show road maps towards generosity and should be pursued in the interest of peace, unity and progress and development of democratic governance in the country.

6. Generosity Movements in the Nigerian Political Process

Several moments could be identified as being proper for the majority ethnic groups to have been generous to the minority ethnic groups in the nation’s political process (but they never were). The first was in 1957 when the minorities wanted autonomous ethnic regions across the country. The British colonial administration in the country and the majority ethnic groups that dominated the regions did not want it. Even the creation of the Mid-Western region out of the Western region in 1962 was under crises conditions.

The second opportunity was in 1979 political transition from military dictatorship to civil democracy. The Hausa/Fulani and the Yoruba groups having been in power from 1958 to 1978 would have given other ethnic groups the opportunity to occupy the highest political posts in the country.

The third was during the 1983 regime transition when the civilian President, Alhaji Shehu Shagari, sought a re-election under the NPN thereby destroying the zoning system introduced by the NPN. This desire to remain in power against the good intentions of the zoning system evolved by the National Party of Nigeria (NPN) created ethnic crises that led to the Northern military elites taking over political power in 1984.

The fourth was in 1993 during the political transition period of General Ibrahim Babangida. His annulment of the 1993 Presidential election won by Chief M.K.O. Abiola of the Yoruba ethnic group of the Western region set the stage for violent ethnic clashes between the Yorubas and Hausas all over the country. The ethnic conflicts may have made the Northern elites to allow the presidency to the Yoruba ethnic group of the Western region in the 1999 political transition period under the Democratic Party.

The fifth was in 1997 during the political transition period of General Sani Abacha. General Sani Abacha’s desire to succeed himself in office as an elected head of state intensified the ethnic conflicts between the Hausa/Fulani group which the General represents, and all other ethnic groups in the country.

The sixth was during the political transition period of General Abdulsalami Abubakar in 1999. General Abdulsalami Abubakar simply handed over power to an ex-military dictator General Obasanjo (a member of the majority Yoruba ethnic group) as a civilian head of state. Retired General Olusegun Obasanjo was touted as the “President we can trust” by the Northern elites to allow the presidency to the Yoruba ethnic group of the Western region in defiance of the 1979 constitutional provisions on the election of the president.

Alhaji Shehu Shagari did not meet the constitutional provisions to be declared the duly elected president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in 1979 and the issue became a legal battle between Chief Obafemi Awolowo (a member of the majority Yoruba ethnic group of the western region) who contested for the presidency under the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN), and Alhaji Shehu Shagari who contested for the same post under the National Party of Nigeria in 1979. The Supreme Court of Nigeria instead of ordering for a re-run of the elections, awarded the post to Alhaji Shehu Shagari of the NPN, and he was sworn in by General Obasanjo. General Obasanjo can be trusted to return that same office to a Northerner, and he did so in 2007. At this time, the northern Hausa/Fulani ethnic group was not generous to the Yoruba
ethnic group of the western region because the Yoruba majority ethnic group had become more cohesive than the Hausa/Fulani group due to the events of the June 12, 1993 Presidential election, more very restive, and poised to balkanize the nation, should they miss the opportunity of producing the president; and the Hausa/Fulani group of the north was not sure of the support of the Ibos of the eastern region, and of the support of the minority ethnic regions in the northern and eastern regions to pull back the western region should there be a secession by the western region. There therefore seem to have been a “tacit agreement” between the elites of the two majority ethnic groups that power must elude the Ibo majority group of the eastern region, and be returned to the Hausa /Fulani group of the north after the Yorubas had taken their turn. For there to be a generosity, power must change hand from a majority ethnic group that has held power for a long time, to a minority ethnic group that has never held the power position for the first time, or to a politically marginalized ethnic majority group that has not held such power position for a very long time.

The seventh moment was in 2003 during the regime transition of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo. His desires to re-contest as the President in 2003 set the nation on fire, and a series of personality clashes between the president Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, and his Vice, Alhaji Atiku Abubakar who also wanted the same post. Chief Olusegun is from the Yoruba group of the west, and Alhaji Atiku Abubakar from the Hausa/Fulani of the north. The desire of the Igbo ethnic group of the east, and the desire of the ethnic minorities of the Niger-Delta region for the post, intensified ethnic crises between the minorities of the Niger Delta who ask for a fiscal federalism under the slogan of “resource control”, and the Ibos on the one hand, and the Yorubas and the Hausa/Fulanis and the northern ethnic groups in the country on the other hand.

The eighth moment was in 2007 regime transition period when the majority Hausa/Fulani ethnic group of the north and the majority Yoruba ethnic group of the west refused to let the Ibo majority ethnic group of the east, or any of the minority ethnic groups in the country especially, in the Niger Delta region to produce the president of the country.

The marginalized Ibo majority ethnic group and the ethnic minorities of the former Eastern region had once seceded from the Nigerian Federation due to genocide against the groups and fear of political domination by the other ethnic majorities and minorities in the northern and in the western regions of Nigeria; and due to their perceived further marginalization in the country's political and economic processes should they continue to remain in the Nigerian federation. The secession led to a thirty month civil war that forced them back into the Nigerian federation. Since the end of the civil war, they have remained as “endangered species” in the Nigerian federation, suffering all forms of ethnically and religiously motivated attacks wherever they are found across the country; and have remained virtually excluded (marginalized) from the nation’s economic and political processes. The marginalized Ibo majority ethnic group and the ethnic minorities of the former Eastern region are in the oil producing areas of Nigeria, and they are threatening to secede again from the rest of the country should they not be allowed to produce the next President. The ethnic groups of the former Eastern region are responsible for about 75% of the national foreign revenue earnings due to the mining of crude oil and natural gas in their regions.

These ethnic groups in the eastern Nigeria and the Niger Delta regions have not produced a Nigerian President with the exception of Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe (an Igbo) who served as the Colonial Governor-General of the Federation, and as the first President of the Nigerian Federation when Nigeria became a republic in 1963. Effective political power was in the hands of the Prime-Minister Alhaji Abubakar Tafawa Balewa (a Hausa/Fulani). It would not be improper for one to say that since the inception of the country till date, that the majority and minority ethnic groups of eastern Nigeria have not produced an executive president of the country (Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe lasted only three years in office (1963-1966) before being removed in a military coup; while Major General Aguiyi Ironsi, an Ibo Military officer that emerged after the coup lasted only six months in office before being killed in another military coup by General Yakubu Gowon, a Hausa/Fulani military officer. Ever since, all military coups have always been led by the Hausa/Fulani military officers); and two of the three elected executive presidents of the country- Alhaji Shehu Shagari and Alhaji Umaru Y’adua are from the Hausa/Fulani ethnic group; while the third - Retired General Olusegun Obasanjo is from the Yoruba majority ethnic group.

The demands of ethnic minorities of the Niger Delta and the Igbo ethnic majority in the eastern region are genuine and their threats are real. They already have ethnic militias - the Niger Delta Volunteer Force (NDVF): the Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign state of Biafra (MASSOB); the Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People (MOSOP) and Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) that work towards the actualization of their goals - politically independent ethnic regions, or the control of the economic resources in their ethnic regions, and the production of the occupants of the highest political posts in the country. But they are more inclined to secession than any other option.
7. Why Have the Ethnic Majority Groups Refused to be Generous to the Minorities?

All the factors identified by Hislope (1998) that militate against the generosity moments theory in a polity are all present in Nigeria except one - the fear that being generous would produce a “slippery slope” – or make the ethnic minorities become insatiable in their demands or hold the nation to ransom by making impossible demands:
   a) the demographic pattern of the country,
   b) the existence of contested borders,
   c) historical memories of violence among the groups,
   d) the multiplicity of ethnic groups in the country.

7.1 The Demographic Pattern of the Country,

The greatest of these impediments has been the demographic pattern of the country. The ascription of more than half of the nation’s population to the former Northern region by the colonial administration in Nigeria has been at the centre of Nigeria’s political crises. This has given the Northern Hausa/Fulani group the strength to dominate the political processes of the country since the colonial era to the present.

Population is about people and not about land mass. That the North has “two-thirds” of the landmass of Nigeria does not give it two-third of the nation’s population. The colonial census gave the population density in the North to be 67 persons per square mile, and that of the East to be 269 per square mile, and that of the Western region to be 148 per square mile (Coleman, 1963; Sklar, 1963). How come the North has two-third of the country’s population in the 1953 population that gave the densities, this was colonial calculations to impose the north on the rest of the country.

Though population census is not the issue under discussion here, it is pertinent to state that Nigeria is the only country in the world where more than half of the country’s population live in the desert and sahel savannah regions of the North, while the flood plains and forest region of the South are uninhabited or unpopulated.

Population census has been one of the greatest sources of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria and will always remain so unless it is removed as criteria for representation in the national legislatures and a basis for revenue allocation to the regions. The 1962 population census was the first census conducted by an indigenous government in Nigeria and clearly showed that the Hausa/Fulani ethnic group of the North was not in fact the largest ethnic group in Nigeria. The Ibos of the East are, followed by the Yorubas of the West. The Hausa/Fulani is the third. This truth led to the cancellation of the census by the then Prime Minister Alhaji Abubakar Tafawa Balewa who happens to be of the Hausa/Fulani group (Ofiaja, 1979). The Prime Minister re-ordered another population census in 1963 that clearly gave two-thirds of the nation’s population to the Hausa/Fulani group of the north.

Since the Hausa/Fulani can comfortably control the national government with or without any other ethnic group in the country due to this population advantage, it can and has always refused to be generous to the other ethnic groups in the country. The 2006 population census figure was another source of national/ethnic strife when it was released, and the National Assembly is yet to adopt and approve the report.

The ascription of more than half of the nation’s population to the Hausa/Fulani ethnic group has enabled it to control the politics and administration of the country. It has also given it the opportunity to control the armed forces since the counter coup of July 1966, and about 60% of all the political appointments in the country. This population superiority has given the Northern elites the impetus to create more autonomous ethnic regions or states in their ethnic region than in any other ethnic regions in the country. The Hausa/Fulani ethnic group has been unfair to the other ethnic groups and there is an urgent need for them to be generous to the other ethnic groups in the nation’s political process. This domination of the rest of the country by the north was crowned with Abacha’s division of the country into six geo-political zones with three of geo-political zones in the north while the rest of the country was divided into three geo-political zones; and this division was tacitly approved with the imposition of an unworkable constitution on the country in 1999 by General Abdulsalami Abubarkar.

The demographic pattern of the country has made it impossible for the last factor identified by Hislope - the fear that being generous would make the ethnic minorities to be insatiable and hold the nation to ransom by making one impossible demand after another (creating a slippery slope) to hold as a factor. The emergence of Retired General Obasanjo as an elected civilian president in 1999 was not an act of generosity by the north to the rest of the country, but was because the entire southern Nigeria was united in seeing that the next Nigerian President does not come from the north; but from the Yoruba ethnic group as a remedy to the annulled “June 12” presidential election of 1993 which was won by Chief M. K. O. Abiola, a Yoruba man and annulled by General Ibrahim Babangida, a northerner of the
Hausa/Fulani extract.

7.2 Multiplicity of Ethnic Groups

One important fact to note about the Nigerian nation is the multiplicity of ethnic groups in the country. Murdock (1959) in his study of Nigerian linguistic groups and cultures listed over four hundred ethnic groups whose populations ranged between five hundred and five million based on the 1921 census of Nigeria. According to Blitz (1965), the 1921 census figures was largely on estimates, and was the only one in the history of Nigeria that gave detailed information on the ethnic composition of the peoples especially, for the relatively small ethnic groups. Of the 416 known ethnic groups based on the 1921 census, 297 or 70% were located in the middle belt region; 75 or 18% in the south; and 44 or 9% in the north. The middle belt contained a larger proportion because it halted the northern intrusion into the south; and the downward state formation process by the Hausa/Fulani jihadists; (and also contained those fleeing from the north to the south due to the jihad; and also contained those fleeing from the south, northwards, due to the slave raids in the south).

The vegetation of the middle belt also provided difficult terrain for horse-riding invaders from the north thereby providing a place of refuge for those fleeing from the onslaught of the jihadists. It provided shelter for small heterogeneous groups that maintained their local identities, languages and cultures. The vegetation also discouraged the fusion of small ethnic groups into larger more homogeneous groups unlike what happened in the wide-open desert region of the north that encouraged expansion, interaction and fusion that formed the monolithic north of the Hausa/Fulani group. These ethnic nationalities now assert their local autonomies and identities, and want to be recognized in the nation's socio-political processes. This makes the national political arena more difficult to understand and to predict.

7.3 Historical Memories of Violence among the Groups and the Existence of Contested Boundaries.

As Aderibigbe (1978) observed, the concept of Nigeria came in the much later period of colonialism. The peoples of modern day Nigeria lived in isolation until they were brought together by British rule (Burns, 1964; Crowder, 1962; Perham, 1961). Though they were linked together in various ways especially wars that resulted in conquests, overlordships, and, or, enslavements; there were still some forms of beneficial movements of people for trade purposes and movements of refugees who fled the harsh consequences of state formation processes and slave raids. These movements saw the formation of new settlements by diverse ethnic groups which gave rise to new social relations and ethnic cleavages. The peoples of Nigeria were therefore religiously and ethnically polarized before their unification into the modern Nigerian state in 1914 by Lord Lugard. Without this unification, what is today seen as Nigeria would have been more politically independent geo-political entities.

The intrusion of the Fulani group into the middle belt region (of the Tivs, Jokuns, Idomas, and the other minor ethnic groups in the region) started with alliances with factions of the indigenous ruling elites of the various ethnic nationalities they could not overrun during the jihads. The ruling elites in the unconquered ethnic nationalities were then gradually eliminated or gradually deposed and replaced with Hausa/Fulani elites or stooges from the ethnic nationalities to avoid civil unrest. So also was the same process employed in the deposition of traditional Yoruba elites in the Yoruba enclaves of Kamba, Ilorin and Kwara in the northern fringes of the Yoruba ethnic region, and in the incorporation of the Igalas in the northern fringes of the Igbo ethnic region into the Hausa/Fulani feudal oligarchy before Nigerian independence. These depositions have become sources of perennial border and power conflicts in the regions between the Hausa/Fulani settlers and the indigenous populations especially in the middle belt region especially the plateau areas of Jos; Ilorin, and other parts of the north and the middle-belt where the Hausa/Fulani group claims ownership as a result of the Usman Danfodio’s jihad.

Political power has been more at the root cause of the crises and the essence is to control the economic resources available in the regions for selfish ends. With the globalization of democracy, colonialism, either external or internal in form, is incompatible with modern civilization and must be opposed by all means at all costs. One should expect more ethnic conflicts in a country with so many ethnic groups under the authority of a government; especially in the middle belt region than in any other region in the country as the region was a melting pot for the various ethnic nationalities that settled in the area. Conflict over farmland, water supply sources, and political leadership came to the fore and has presented themselves more as religious conflict in contemporary Nigeria.

The dangers of mixing religion with politics in Nigeria have been seen in all the bloody ethnic conflicts of the 1980s that were religiously motivated. The Kasuwa-Mangani communal crisis of 1980; the Zangon Kataf and Gure-Kahugu
crisis of 1984; the Kaganchan and Lere crisis of 1987; the Ilorin and Jere crisis of 1989; the 1991 crisis in Tafawa Balewa; the Zango Kataf crisis of 1992 and the Jos crises of 2006 and 2010 in which the migrant Fulani settlers have consistently persecuted the indigenous populations especially Christian in their midst are good pointers that ethnic conflicts under the guise of religious conflicts are incompatible to peace, unity and development of democratic governance in Nigeria, and is an agent of under-development in any country where it is found.

7.4 The Fear that Being Generous would Make the Ethnic Minorities to Become Insatiable.

There has never been a case in the Nigerian political process where the majority ethnic groups have been generous to the minority ethnic groups. From the colonial era to independence, the minority ethnic groups within the then three geo-political zones in the country (the eastern, western and northern regions) were marginalized economically and politically. This led to a series of minority protests and agitations for the creation of autonomous geo-political zones for them within the three regions. The protests and agitations later led to the establishment of the Sir Henry Wilink’s Minority Commission by the colonial government to look into the problems of the minority ethnic groups in the country and make recommendations to the government. Despite state creation exercise by subsequent governments in the country, ethnic conflicts and agitations for the creation of more autonomous regions have been on the increase in the country.

The emergence of Chief M.K.O. Abiola (a member of the majority Yoruba ethnic group) as the winner of the annulled June 12, 1993 presidential election was not due to any generosity. The emergence of Retired General Olusegun Obasanjo (a member of the majority Yoruba ethnic group) as the a civilian head of state during the political transition period of General Abdul Salami Abubakar of 1999 was not also a generosity by the Hausa/Fulani majority ethnic group. And the selection of Dr. Jonathan Goodluck (from Ijaw - one of the minority ethnic groups in the Niger Delta) as the vice-presidential candidate of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) was not a generous act to the minorities of the Niger Delta because any other party could have won the election, but a political strategy by the PDP to win the 2007 election.

For there to be an act of generosity, the majority ethnic tribes must consciously agree to allow the minority ethnic groups to produce the occupants of the highest political posts in the country and in the states of the federation. There has to be a tacit agreement by the elites of the groups on how and when these should take place. And the arrangement should follow a regular pattern guaranteed by the constitution or any other legal document.

8. Generosity as Solution to Ethnic Conflicts in Nigerian

There are very good prospects of the generosity moments theory being a good antidote to the ethnic conflicts in Nigeria. The zoning system adopted by the NPN in 1979 and PDP in 1999 seem to be very close to the generosity concept and indicate that the country could have peaceful political and regime transitions if the structural factors that can ensure respect and adherence to the zoning arrangements are put in place. Experiences from the zoning system has shown that transitions could be smooth, peaceful and the legitimacy of the regime secured when political posts are properly zoned to ethnic nationalities but the elites of the majority ethnic groups are not prepared to be generous enough to allow the posts to rotate among the various ethnic groups in the nation due to the economic and social benefits that accrue to them. Otherwise, the generosity moment theory offers a very good solution to the ethnic conflicts endemic in Nigeria’s political process.

For the ethnic majorities to be generous to the ethnic minorities in the country, a lot of structural factors have to be put in place to ensure its success – a constitutional review that should include these:

a) The country should constitutionally revert to the three-regional arrangement that existed during the colonial period – the Eastern, Western and Northern regions and the highest political offices at the national level should be constitutionally made to rotate among the regions in a fixed order. (These three geo-political regions were the federating units that formed the Nigerian federation. The creation of six geo-political zones by the northern military elites is against the spirit under which the Nigerian federation was formed and reinforces the internal colonization of the rest of the country by the Hausa/Fulani ethnic group). If the Presidency is zoned to the northern region, the Vice-President to the western region; and the Speaker of the National Assembly to the eastern region in any regime transition period by the constitution, all political parties in the country are bound to sponsor only northern presidential candidates with western vice-presidential candidates; while the party with majority seats in the National Assembly would elect a speaker from the eastern region. This arrangement would change at the expiration of the tenure of the regime. In the next
regime, the presidency would go to the next region. This rotation could take the alphabetical order to avoid confusion – the eastern region first; followed by the northern region, and then the western region. And the regions would work out the order in which these national posts would rotate among the component states in fixed turns to avoid crises.

b) The political parties should be constitutionally bound to respect the zoning system and made to work out and submit to the Electoral Commission and the Supreme Court of Nigeria, a detailed account of how national, regional, state, and local government political posts are zoned to all the regions in the federation; to all the states in the region; to all senatorial districts of the states; to all the local government areas in the senatorial district and to all wards in the local government. It should also specify how state political posts are zoned to the component senatorial districts in the state, and to the local governments in the senatorial districts in turns; and how local government political posts are zoned to the component communities or wards in the local governments in turns. This would remove the internal colonization that go on in most of the states in the country, as most states in Nigeria contain majority and minority ethnic populations. Certain minority sections of some states find it extremely impossible to produce the governors or other principal political officers of their states and or local governments. The zoning system would also help to solve the problems of personality clashes and politically motivated assassinations rife in the Nigerian polity.

In the event of the sudden exit of any of the political officers, the political parties in the ethnic origin of the exited political officer would come together to select and elect a replacement. The selection and election processes should be based on the zoning system adopted by the party in the region as each political party would be made to adopt a zoning system for each of the regions which must be deposited with the Supreme Court and the Electoral Commission before the general elections.

It is the zoning system among other things that gives a party an edge over the others in the elections as the political party with the best zoning system would sweep the polls. People would embrace political parties with the most appealing manifestoes and most favorable zoning systems. And once a zoning system has been adopted, it should form an entrenched part of the party’s constitution and shall not be easily changed.

It must be noted that judicial and the civil service posts and positions shall not be zoned. This is to protect their independence, neutrality and integrity of the judiciary and the civil service and to reposition the judiciary and the civil service to check the abuse of powers by the political class.

c) There should be a constitutional provision for a unicameral national legislature with representation based on the equality of regions; a unicameral regional legislatures with representation on equality of states basis; unicameral state assemblies with representation on equality of local governments; and unicameral local government legislatures with representation on equality of wards. This will help to create healthy legislatures across the country where no one would feel superior or inferior to the other; and where national and local matters would be discussed with respect for one another and on level playing grounds without fear or favor. This would also help curb the formation of dubious political groups and unholy alliances among political parties that is characteristic of the Nigerian political process. It will usher in transparency and accountability in governance, check corruption and abuse of office by public office holders.

d) Each geo-political zone should have regional executive and legislative arms of government with the powers to create states and local governments in their geo-political zones. This would ensure that all ethnic groups in the regions are given a sense of belonging to the Nigerian state through state and local government creation and good governance. State and local government creation should not be at the mercy of the federal government because our past political leaders have abused the state and local government creation exercises in the country by creating more states and local governments in their ethnic regions.

The creation of regional governments would make more money and resources available to the states and the local government areas, directly from the regional governments and the failure of any state or local government to develop would be blamed on the natural indigenes of the local government who rule and administer the local government. This implies that only the natural indigenes of a local government should be constitutionally allowed to contest elections into the local government area and elected to take charge of the affairs of the local government area, and be employed in the local government service for the administration of the local government. This would help abolish the pockets of powers created by some ethnic majorities and minorities within the states, check corruption and lack of accountability and transparency in governance which have led to infrastructural decay and the neglect of certain sections of the states and local governments that did not support the party in power, or produce the ruling elites at the particular point in time. It will also help to
check unemployment in all the local governments across the country. There exist ethnic dichotomies in almost all states of the federation and the internal colonization of communal/linguistic groups by others like what happens in the present day Enugu, Abia, Akwa Ibom, Delta, Edo, Kogi and Cross River States just to mention but a few.

e) The tenure of a regime should be constitutionally pegged at five years only and each geo-political zone should produce state officials in turns, for a fixed tenure of five years without an option of a second term in office or re-election. This would enable governance rotate fast among the ethnic regions and groups in the country.

f) Any Nigerian citizen who has served a particular regime at any level or tier of government should be constitutionally barred from serving in another regime until after ten years of his/her exit from service. This will help to bring out better and highly talented Nigerians for public service, prevent corruption and the abuse of power; and, the domination of the Nigerian political process or scene by one particular group of national elites and by a particular generation of rulers. It is disheartening to find those that ruled Nigeria in the late 1960s still holding onto power till present. This will help right the wrongs committed by a regime early enough to promote the peace, unity and progress of the nation.

g) The census figures should be constitutionally barred from being the basis for representation in any legislature in the country. Representation in the national legislatures should be on equality of regions, and representation in the regional legislatures should be on the equality of states; and representation in the state legislature should be on the equality of local government areas in the state; while representation in the local government legislature should be on the equality of wards.

h) The population figures should also be constitutionally barred from being the basis for revenue allocation in the country. This will help remove the conflicts over population census figures and revenue allocation in the country; and direct the efforts of the political leaders to more meaningful ventures. Revenue allocation should be based more on derivation, rather than on any other principle. States with large populations would thus be in good positions (advantage) of having large chunks of their internally generated funds from taxation of the large populations.

i) Revenue allocation formula for the country should be constitutionally changed to be thus:

- 20% derivation to regions
- 45% to the regions, (i.e. 15% to each of the three geo-political regions of East, North and West)
- 35% to the federal government.

Any geo-political entity that feels it has more population than the others should harness that population to its advantage. Collect taxes from the population based on federal tax laws to boost its internally generated funds. This would make tax evasion a very serious crime as most of our businesses dodge tax payment. While the tax laws are made by the central government to create uniformity and order in the tax system and for national unity; the administration of the laws remains the duty of the local governments that would utilize the funds as part of their statutory allocation for each year. And the regions should see to the financial and development needs of the states and local governments in their regions.

j) Each federal ministry, parastatal or commission should have three ministerial appointees, one from each region. This would enable the federal ministry or agency to coordinate and harmonize its functions evenly across the country, create sense of belonging in all the regions, and promote national unity. It is on record that since the inception on Nigeria, the ministers of agriculture and water resources have always come from one particular geo-political region of the country. With three ministers in the ministries, water resources and agricultural production would be evenly developed across the country thereby making the country meet its food production needs and water needs.

k) The salaries and allowances of all political appointees at the federal level shall be paid by their regional governments from their respective regional allocations. The essence is to allow more monies at the federal level to run the national government, and to make politics a calling to serve humanity rather than an avenue to quick riches. This will certainly curb the ostentatious life styles of our political leaders as the regions would not afford to support frivolous life styles by the political class from their meager financial allocations.

9. Summary and Conclusion

This paper has examined ethnic conflicts in Nigeria noting that the conflicts had been in existence between the various ethnic nationalities that comprise the country long before the colonization of the country by the British; and that the...
The colonization of Nigeria only brought the ethnic conflicts to the national political scene. It also observed that these ethnic conflicts are caused by regional struggles over economic resources, foreign influences, and education (social mobilization); and would continue to persist due to the economic and social benefits that accrue from it, especially to the various ethnic elites who employ it in national struggles for resources and positions.

The paper also observed that ethnic conflicts took a national outlook with the colonization and unification of the various ethnic nationalities into a country called Nigeria. Ever since, ethnicity has become a potent force in Nigeria’s political process; and that the various governments in Nigeria have used administrative panels of inquiry, state creation exercises, the federal character principle and military expeditions to address ethnic conflicts in the country, and that these measures have not been very effective.

The application of Hislopes generosity moments theory to problems of ethnic conflicts and democratic governance in Nigeria appears as a workable solution. If this is applied, ethnic conflicts in the country would certainly be less severe and less violent. The zoning system adopted by some political parties (the National Party of Nigeria - the NPN, and the Peoples Democratic Party – the PDP) in Nigeria were good step towards the use of the generosity moments theory in solving ethnic conflicts in the Nigerian political process.

The paper further observed that though some structural factors exist that militate against the use of the generosity moments, it suggested constitutional changes that can remove such structural factors to ensure that the ethnic majorities become generous to the ethnic minorities in the political process.

10. Notes

1. The colonial government instituted the Sir Henry Willink’s Minority Commission on September 27, 1957 to investigate the complaints of the various ethnic minorities in the then three geo-political zones that formed the country – the Eastern, Northern and Western Regions. They were the federating units in the formation of Nigeria.
2. The pattern of state creation in Nigeria have been based on political considerations rather than the need for the development of the regions.
3. See the fundamental objectives and directive principles of state policy of Nigeria in the various indigenous Nigerian constitutions (1979, 1989, 1999 Constitutions)
4. General Olusegun Obasanjo as a civilian Head of State sent military expeditions to Odi, Bayelsa State; and Zongan Kataf, Kaduna State to quell ethnic crises
5. The zoning system as introduced in Nigeria’s political process by the National Party of Nigeria in 1979 as winning strategy and was abused by the northern members of the party in 1983 when the western and eastern regional members of the party wanted to invoke the principle for either of them to produce the next presidential candidate for the party for the 1983 presidential election. The crises of confidence generated by the issue among the ruling elite was in part why the military under the leadership of General Buhari took over political power in 1983. The coup was part of the Northern scheme to hold perpetually onto power in the country. So also were the other coups designed to work to the Hausa/Fulani advantage and cling onto political power.

References


Mathematics Teachers' Conceptions of Sense-Making in Word Problem Solving:
A Case of Postgraduate Students at a University of Technology

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Abstract

In this paper, I discuss teachers' conceptions of what means to solve mathematical word problems that are connected to their daily lives. The role of social and cultural issues as well as participating teachers' were explored in relation to their understanding of what constitute modelling in word problem-solving. The results presented here are part of a wider study that followed a mixed-methods design with the qualitative results informing the quantitative data. For the purposes of this study, data that were collected via administering a test and conducting focus group with few selected teachers from a University of Technology in South Africa are presented. The main finding of this study is that teachers demonstrated a tendency to relegate multiple modelling techniques when they engaged with mathematical word problem solving. Moreover, the manner in which the participating teachers made meaning to word problem task seemed to be connected to issues relating to both the language of the solver as well as that used in the mathematical word problem task.

Keywords: problem solving; sense-making; realistic considerations; word problems

1. Introduction

Issues of teaching mathematics through understanding and use of problem solving as a pedagogical tool in mathematics classrooms seems to be a concern for many teachers in South African schools. The recently introduced Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement advocates for a mathematics lesson that is characterised by integration of problem solving accross the curriculum, with emphasis put on connecting classroom mathematics activities with out-of-school students' informal knowledge and experiences. However, little or no training of teachers in the suggested teaching methodologies took place. In fact, in few cases where curriculum training occurred, teachers were expected to understand the entire curriculum after a 3 to 4 days intensive training by untrained facilitators. It is against this background that the study reported in this article, sought to unpack teachers' multiple concepts of a notion of mathematical word problem solving, and how these problems could be modelled or taught in a 9th grade classroom.

The issues of sense-making in word problem solving were shown to have been connected to factors such as language of a problem solver, language used in the mathematical word problem statement, as well as the language used to teach and learn mathematics. Issues of language complexities are linked to the fact that South Africa is a contry with 11 official languages, yet English is predominantly used as an official language of learning and teaching in schools, a language which is not spoken at home (see Adler, 2001; Sepeng, 2011, 2013a; Setati, 2005). A major source of difficulty with mathematical word problems is the fact that the language used in the mathematics and English usage often differ in significant ways (Sepeng, 2013a). According to Kane (1968) there are four key difference between the two languages: (i) there are fewer redundancies in the language of mathematics; (ii) names given to mathematical objects usually have only a single denotation in mathematical language; (iii) adjectives are usually unimportant in mathematical language; and (iv) the grammar and syntax of mathematical language are far less flexible than is the case for general English. However, despite such differences being well-known, many children still encounter challenges in reading and writing mathematics because not much has been done by teachers to counter this (Durkin, 1978).

The South African National Curriculum Statement emphasises not only in the teaching of problem-solving, but pleads for (more) instructional attention to the acquisition of problem-posing skills (Department of Education, 2005). In developed countries, such as the US, there is also a growing interest among researchers in problem-posing (see e.g., Brown & Walter, 1993; Verschaffel, Van Dooren, Chen & Stessen, 2009). According to Verschaffel and his colleagues (2009), the most cited motivation for instructional and curricular interest in problem-posing is its perceived potential value in assisting students to become better problem solvers. To explore this potential value, several studies (Cai & Hwang,
2002; Ellerton, 1986; Silver & Cai, 1996) have been set up to investigate the relationship between word problems solving and word problem-posing. In these studies, students were given opportunities to generate a few problems starting from a situational description, a cartoon (or picture), and afterwards, the quality of the mathematical problems produced by the students was compared with their ability to solve problems. Other studies (English, 1997a, 1997b; Verschaffel, De Corte, Lowyck, Dhert, & Vandeput, 2000) have since revealed that having students engage in some activities related to problem-posing may have a positive influence not only on their word problem-posing abilities but also on their problem-solving skills and their attitude towards mathematical problem-solving and mathematics in general.

This topic of real-world knowledge and realistic considerations in students' solutions of arithmetic word problems has attracted the attention of many researchers in mathematics education. Several studies (Cai & Silver, 1995; Greer, 1993) have addressed this issue by looking at students' approaches to, and solutions of non-standard or problematic arithmetic word problems wherein the appropriate solution or mathematical model is neither obvious nor indisputable, at least if one seriously takes into account the realities of the context evoked by the problem statement.

An increasing number of researchers have consistently suggested that current school instruction given for arithmetic word problems is likely to develop in students' tendency to exclude real-world knowledge and realistic considerations from their solution processes (Cooper & Harries, 2005; Moreno & Mayer, 1999). For many children in elementary school, emphasis has been put on syntax and arithmetic rules rather than treating the problem statement as a description of some real-world situation to be modelled mathematically (Xin, 2009). For example, studies (Liu & Chen, 2003) conducted on 148 Chinese students from 4th and 6th grade, reported that only one fourth (26%) of the students' solutions of problems were from a realistic point of view (attending to realistic considerations). Almost half (48%) of the responses revealed a strong tendency to exclude real world knowledge, and in the rest of the cases, no answer was given. Word problem-solving in school contexts serves as a game under tacitly agreed rules of interpretation (Greer, 1997). According to Gatto (1992), these agreed rules are internalised in the students’ minds through the socio-mathematical norm, or hidden curriculum of traditional schooling that could influence many aspects of the intellectual activities in schools.

2. Materials and methods

The main aim of the study discussed in this article was to explore issues of sense-making that play a role in grade 9 in-service teachers’ mathematical problem-solving abilities. To address the above aim, a mixed method approach was used, viz. by gathering quantitative and qualitative data using test and focus group. These data were triangulated in order to make a stronger case in terms of the explanatory quality of this study (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007), provides better argument (Creswell, 2008) and produce better understanding and verification (Creswell & Garrett, 2008; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Mixed methods approaches intertwine both qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study (Lichtman, 2010) and combine elements of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. According to Lichtman, these approaches are not parallel, but are an attempt to meld the best of quantitative and qualitative research designs. (Gilbert, 2006) suggests that a mixed methods approach intensifies the effect and enriches the adaptability of the research design.

2.1 Sample of the study

The main aim of the sampling in the study reported here was, among others, to select possible research participants because they possess characteristics, roles, opinions, knowledge, ideas or experiences that may be particularly relevant to this research (Gibson & Brown, 2009). The sample consisted of 40 grade 9 teachers from 40 secondary schools in 9 provinces of South Africa, four of which were urban schools and the rest of which were rural schools. The rural schools draw students from low economic status. All participants in the study were a convinience sample of teachers studying towards a Bachelor of Education (Honours) at a University of Technology in South Africa.

2.2 Procedure

The participants were given a word problem solving (PS) task in a form of a test that was administered in one of the lectures at a University of Technology. The PS task were coded using a schema that was an elaboration of the classification schema developed by Verschaffel et al. (1994) and satisfy the assessment standards as reflected in the South African Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). The questions are standardised, criterion-referenced
measures of problem-solving skills with proven reliability and validity devised and verified (Maxwell, 1992). The classification schema comprised fourteen categories, the categories were reduced to three general categories: realistic reaction (RR), no reaction (NR), and other reaction (OR). These categories are explained and described later in the results section. The test items were as follow:

**PS1:** Two boys, Sibusiso and Vukile, are going to help Sonwabo rake leaves on his plot of land. The plot is 1200 square meters. Sibusiso rakes 700 square meters during four hours and Vukile does 500 square meters during two hours. They get 180 rands (R) for their work. How are the boys going to divide the money so that it is fair?

Immediately after administering a test, a group of 8 participants were purposively selected to participate in a focus group. The discussion that took place during the focus group aimed at understanding the reasoning and thinking behind solving problems the way they did. The semi-structured questions of a focus group were asked as follow:

- How did you solve the problem?
- Why did you solve the problem the way you did? Explain.
- If the same thing happens to you, would you respond in the same way in real life as you did in solving the problem? Why?
- Your solution may not work in real life because of realistic considerations. Why did you answer that way?
- Please think about on what condition your answer could become realistic. Could you come up with any assumptions or explanations that can make your answers justifiable?
- Do you think the contexts used in the content of tasks (or problems) that you solved in the pre-test are familiar and/or relevant to your everyday life experiences? Why?

### 2.3 Data analysis

The process of data analysis involves making sense out of the data (Creswell, 2009); which requires the skill to depict the understanding of the data in writing (Henning, 2004). In other words, data in the study discussed in this article were analysed and interpreted via a process which involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making interpretation of the larger meaning of the data.

Students responses (or answers) to the problem-solving tasks (PS1 and PS2) were coded into three general categories: realistic reaction (RR), no reaction (NR), other reaction (OR), which were adapted from a schema developed by Verschaffel, et al. (1994). As noted earlier in chapter three, RR comprised all cases wherein a learner either gave the most accurate numerical response that also considered real-world aspects and context of the problem, or cases where there was an attempt to consider real-world situations without providing a numerically most correct response. On the other hand, OR were all those responses without real-world considerations, and situationally inaccurate responses with correct computations. NR were all the cases with no numerical responses and mathematically incorrect, without any further written responses that indicated that the learner was not aware of real-life aspects of the problem that made it impossible for him or her to solve the problem.

### 3. Results and discussion

Teachers responses to PS1 task were characterised by use of multiple models (see Extract 1) that demonstrated different interpretations and use of real-world knowledge and experiences in problem-solving. The following extract shows how students interpreted and solved this problem:

#### 3.1 Extract 1

##### 3.1.1 Teacher A:

Firstly I divided the Square metres that each an every one rakes by their total number of hours. I decided to use a mathematical method in order to get the correct solution and as sibusiso rake 700 square metres in 4 hours and Vukile rakes 500 square metres in 2 hours The number of square metres + the total square metres × the amount that must be share , which give me 26 then × by the 4 hours which give us 104 for Sibusiso. Even for Vukile I did the same method but I just multiply it by 2 that give me R76.
3.1.2 Teacher B:

We compare the two quantities by using ratio. And I solve by using this way because sibusiso and vukile they did not doing the same square meters and they are not working equal hours sibusiso did rakes of 700 square meters for for hours and vukile did rakes of 500 meters for two hours.

3.1.3 Teacher C:

I divided the metres rake by each by a square metre of the yard which is 1200 square metre which will give the fair share of each boy where Sibusiso will get R105 as he rakes the largest side while Vukile gets R75

3.1.4 Teacher D:

I divided the plot which Sibusiso and Vukile did by the total square of the plot and multiplied by the money they will have to share

Extract 1 is used as an example of teachers’ conceptions of what constitutes problem solving of mathematical word problems that requires more than mathematical computations. In most of the instances teachers responses to focus group discussions demonstrated a linear way of engaging with word problem-solving. The participating teachers suggested mainly a model of sharing the money that is influenced by amount of work done instead of considering other models that may include time taken to do the work and payment by performance. Mathematical terms used such as compare the two quantities by using ratio (Teacher B); divided the metres rake by each by a square metre (Teacher C), illustrated not only considering numerics when solving word problems but the nature of mathematical reasoning that seems to be connected to a problem-solvers’ social and cultural background and influence. In other words, a notion of what constitutes a relevant context (Julie & Mbekwa, 2005; Sepeng, 2013b) in mathematical word problems included in the school mathematics curricula.

Table 1. Comparison of PS2 results per country at both teacher and learner levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models for sharing</th>
<th>No. of students (Sweden)</th>
<th>No. of students (South Africa)</th>
<th>No. of teachers (South Africa)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=78</td>
<td>n=107</td>
<td>n=40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Divide equally (R180/2)</td>
<td>33 (42%)</td>
<td>45 (42%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Amount of work done</td>
<td>27 (35%)</td>
<td>32 (30%)</td>
<td>29 (73%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Time taken to do work</td>
<td>18 (23%)</td>
<td>11 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Payment by performance</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Other</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>12 (11%)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are almost similar patterns that emerge from the situation in which both Western students (e.g., Sweden and the US) and South African students have been challenged by the problematic word problems (Greer, 1997; Sepeng, 2011, 2013b; Verschaffel et al., 2009), the results in Table 2 showed that the participating teachers are not in the position to connect classroom mathematics activities to their own out-of-school informal knowledge about the mathematics during their problem solving processes. The data in Table 1 depict that majority (73%) of the teachers in this study only focused on one type of modelling technique viz. amount of work done and translated it to equating a “fair sharing” of the money. As such, only few (13%) and 7% of these teachers used time taken to do work and payment by performance models respectively, in their solution processes. The data in Table 1 appeared to suggest that participating teachers did not include realistic considerations when solving PS1 task. In addition, teachers’ problem-solving techniques were torn between two minds, one that considered machanical way of solving a mathematical problem that needs a straight forward computation, and those needing to consider both reality and contexts used in a mathematical task. It was evident that majority of them went for the former, which reflects pedagogies that are employed in their respective classrooms.

4. Conclusion

The study reported in this article seems to suggest that a recognition of the role of common sense reasoning and/or out-of-school knowledge in teaching mathematical word problems, coupled with considerations of the complementary roles of
socio-cultural and multilingual nature of South African classrooms settings. In these classrooms, the pedagogies that are employed in the teaching and learning of mathematics do not only focus on the mathematics that is taught, but multiple issues that relate to how to empower themselves in order teach mathematics through problem solving. A key implication of the study in terms of teacher development in teaching mathematics with meaning and understanding via the use of contextual (or situational) problems is the explicit consideration of teachers’ conceptions of contextual problems in multilingual classrooms. The findings in this article appear to suggest that if teacher development programmes are designed and structured in a way that empower mathematics teachers with knowledge and skills that promote understanding of the contextual role of problem situation in (word) problem-solving, they would be better placed to bridge the gap between school and everyday mathematics, as well as gaps between, home, school and mathematical language, whether using mother tongue or English.

References


The Influence of Ndebele Cultural Practices on School Discipline in Two Secondary Schools in Mpumalanga Province; South Africa

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Abstract

There is no much research on how Ndebele cultural practices influences school discipline. This study investigated the influence of Ndebele cultural practices on school discipline. Qualitative data were collected where two principals and two teachers from two rural secondary schools were interviewed and submitted written lived stories. Participants’ narratives revealed that the two sample secondary schools were characterized by disciplinary problems ranging from absenteeism, late coming, learners especially boys not doing their home works, disrespectful and bullying. The findings of the study further indicated that Ndebele cultural practices rendered the two sample schools dysfunctional as results which affected learner performance. It has become clear, as set out in this paper, that the school discipline in a way may be influenced by cultural practices that are prevalent in Ndebele communities of the two rural secondary schools in the study. The study recommended strategies to ensure that Ndebele cultural practices contribute towards better functioning schools with less disciplinary problem.

Keywords: Teachers’ narratives, school discipline, community and traditional leaders.

1. Introduction

The hallmark of an effectively functioning educational organization is an effective system of discipline for both teachers and learners (Phatlane 2001; Squelch 2000; Van Wyk 2000). Two schools selected in this paper experiences disciplinary problems which affected learner performance. Classroom disruption is a major impediment to learning (Lorgat 2003). This paper aimed at showing how Ndebele cultural practices influence learning in the sampled schools. It is true that many studies on school discipline approach the problem from an almost fix-the kids approach (Walsh 1991; Good 1973; Savage 1991), it is the assumption of this paper that in part, the root cause of school discipline may be Ndebele cultural practices within the two communities. The problem of school discipline is as old as education itself and it dates back to the days of Socrates when discipline was regarded as a factor that hindered teaching and learning; Socrates wrote:

“Our youth now love luxuries. They have bad manners, and have contempt for authority. They shock, disrespect elders and they love to chatter instead of exercise. Children are now tyrants, not the servants of their households. They no longer rise when elders enter the room. They contradict their parents, chatter before company, gobble up their food, and tyrannize their teachers” (http://www.worldofquotes.com/author/Socrates/index.html).

These perceptions about learners are valid today as they were in the time of Socrates (Savage 1991). What is clear from the literature is that school discipline during twentieth century has become one of the most topical and contentious issue in education being commented upon by parents, educators, researchers, politicians and speakers at public forums but there is not much on how Ndebele cultural practices influence school discipline, this paper wants to close the gap.

2. Ndebele Cultural practices

The two schools in the study are in the former KwaNdebele homeland which is in the cultural heartland of Ndebele cultural practices. As is often the case in the traditional patriarchal African societies, Ndebele women do not enjoy the same social status as their male counterparts. Parents do not invest in the education of their daughters. They believe that they will be married during their adolescence and will then focus on raising family. Young girls are socialized into believing that males are born to be dominant over females and that they should not presume to compete with their male
counterparts in any aspect of social life, as results girls are inclined to drop out of school before their education is completed, at certain point they absent themselves from school. The practice of Iqude among the cultural Ndebele communities socializes young girls from puberty; between age ten to twelve years onwards into adult practices such as a good citizenship, child bearing, raising a family and the acquisition of general family nurturing skills. Obviously these cultural practices influence class attendance and school discipline.

Boys are also involved in cultural practices; their initiation which is called Ingoma is an Ndebele cultural practice which is followed to initiate boys into manhood and is a highly esteemed practice among Ndebele people. Boys between the ages eighteen to twenty one years are taken out into the bush or nearby mountainous terrain for a period of two months. Before the initiation is due to begin, the entire month is devoted to Ukukhanya, which involves the preparation of the initiation. During the period the youths spend time together at night practicing songs and psyching themselves up for the most important event of their lives, which among other things will teach them how to live and behave as socially responsible men. These practices often have disruptive effects on school discipline.

Boys find it difficult to observe school rules during Ukukhonga period, late coming becomes rife because their initiation tutors are usually unemployed men and have little regard for the boys’ school commitments. Preparation for initiation continues until late at night, this denies the boys enough time to rest and do their home works. Boys become disrespectful to their teachers especially female or uninitiated male teachers. At the end of initiation period the families of the boys hold a huge graduation celebration called Ukuhlaba which happen after two months in the bush where boys have been initiated into all their cultural practices. The celebration parties continue for another month and cattle are slaughtered, family members present the celebrant with gifts. The period of Ukuhlaba is an acknowledgement of the manhood of these boys. They are encouraged to behave like men rather than boys they used to be before initiation. During the celebrations each youth has to announce his initiation or manhood name to his mother, sisters, and younger brothers. These names are derived from a respected list of names used to identify men who are from the initiation school. Time is usually taken off from school for the celebrations which result into long period of absence from school and had adverse effect on school discipline. After all the celebrations the boys ultimately should go back to school. Majority of them refuse to take instructions. The period of uncertainty lasts for months; while these boys thinking that they are men, trying to adjust to the realities of life that require them to be obedient to teachers irrespective of their age, gender and social standing as far as Ingoma is concerned.

Except the Ndebele cultural practices mentioned above, there are other factors that may influence school discipline; girls who are from initiation, “Iqude” become involved in unprotected sex with boys from the mountain, as results schools experience high pregnant rate of young girls and low learner achievement.

3. **African cultural practices and African self**

A number of social and cultural factors and practices have bearing on the self of Africans. Many young people give up their own education to take up jobs for sole purpose of being afraid of being punished at school. In polygamous home, children have different mothers but common father. Once the mother pass on, children face discrimination from remaining wife, this results in children running away from home and leaving school. Another factor is interdependence among African transcends death, while death terminates a person’s visible physical presence in given space of time.

4. **Theoretical framework**

Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model of human development underpinned this paper. This ecological perspective stresses the importance of understanding the relationship between the organism and various environmental systems (Hetherington; Parker 1993). Children are seen as active participants in creating their own environment. Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model is multi-dimensional and it suggests that the level of interacting systems such as biological, psychological, social and cultural result in growth development and change (Smith et al 2003). Individuals and groups may be understood more clearly within different social context, as well as in terms of the way changes in the macro structures of the system influence those in the micro-systems (Swart; Pettipher 2005). The importance of Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model in this paper is the premise that the ecological environment is set of four nested

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1. Iqude is a Ndebele cultural activity that initiates girls into womanhood and responsibilities, this entails
2. Ingoma is a Ndebele cultural activity which initiates boys into manhood
3. Ukukhonga is one month preparation period during which initiates psyche themselves up in preparation for initiation
4. Ukuhlaba is celebration after initiation. It signifies the completion of the traditional initiation ceremony
systems, the most familiar is micro-system, that is what individual experiences in a given setting. For learners a micro-system may consist of the school’s environment with teachers and learners, another micro-system may be the home environment with parents and the community. A home environment might affect the learner in its school performance, where cultural adherence comes into play.

5. Delimitation of the study

This study is of necessity a limited one and includes teachers employed at the two secondary schools in Nkangala district of Mpumalanga province; South Africa. The conclusions drawn from the study thus apply only to the above-mentioned population. The questions asked were designed specifically for the study. Given the reasonably small sample size, the findings of this paper cannot be randomly generalized to apply to all rural secondary schools and teachers. The paper aimed at achieving the following objectives:

- To understand and interpret teachers’ stories
- To examine the influence of Ndebele cultural practices on school discipline
- To examine teachers’ perceptions about Ndebele cultural practices and school discipline
- To enlist teachers’ recommendations

6. Research method

A Qualitative narrative approach was employed to explore on four rural secondary teachers’ accounts of the influence of Ndebele cultural practices on school practices. Lieblich et al. (1998) divide approaches to narrative analysis along two axes: holistic-categorical and form-content. Riessman (2008) adds to this two more types of narrative analysis; the performative or dialogical aspect of narrative and visual narratives. In this paper the focus was on sequencing of themes within narratives, thus foregrounding the specifically narrative aspects of texts meaning (Squire 2008). The researcher focused on what participants said and their lived stories.

7. Sample

Permission was obtained from the relevant district of education department in Nkangala district, the teachers themselves, school governing bodies and the principals. Anonymity was assured by using pseudonyms for the schools, teachers and the principals. Traditionally, secondary schools are judged on their performance in grade 12 results. The performance is thus used to measure the effectiveness and functionality of the school. The two schools in the study were consistently performing poorly and were characterized by disciplinary problems emanating from late coming, absenteeism, learners not doing their homework and stubbornness by boys. The performance of these two schools for the years 2007-2010 is indicated in annexure 1. The two schools thus provided spaces where an exploration of the influence of Ndebele cultural practices on school discipline could provide rich insights. Four participants; two from each school were invited to participate in the study. The researcher was given a permission to use a voice recorder.

8. Ethical consideration

After Regional director had given a permission for the two schools to participate in the study, the researcher arranged two meetings one at each school to make a presentation to the affected participants, the purpose of the study. The participants were informed about their right not to participate in the study if they feel like and that all ethical requirements will be adhered to; that is their names, and that of their schools will not be mentioned in the study.

9. Data collection

Semi structured interview and participants’ stories were used. The study approached the problem from the perspective that Ndebele cultural practices are necessary but at certain point they affect school discipline. Semi structured interviews were used to explore certain aspects but also retained enough flexibility to allow participants to tell their experiences of working within Ndebele communities (Rossman & Rallis, 1998).
9.1 Semi structured interviews

Participants were asked the following key questions:
- When did they start teaching and were?
- How Ndebele cultural practices influenced school discipline?
- What are participants’ perceptions on Ndebele cultural practices and school discipline?

9.2 Teachers’ Stories

The researcher interacted well with the participants through conversation. Participants were requested to focus on four key issues when telling their stories; they were requested to write or tell their stories. All four participants told and wrote their lived stories.
- How many years of service in the school
- Their home
- How Ndebele cultural practices affected school discipline
- Their recommendation regarding school discipline and socio cultural practices

10. Data analysis and findings

The purpose of this paper is to explore how Ndebele cultural practices affect school discipline. Prior to the discussion on data analysis, an overview providing background information on issues relating to school discipline in the two schools were mentioned; poor learner performance, school environment, school management and governance.

10.1 Poor learner performance

Table 1: Pass rate for grade 12 in two schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above pass rate declares these schools dysfunctional. These schools could not reach 70% mark in the four years, which is a challenge to the departmental officials. School B managed to obtain 60% but this is far below the National average of 70%. Ndebele cultural practices partly might be the cause of disruption of teaching and learning which led to poor performance of learners as indicated in table 1 above.

10.2 Community involvement

According to Fuller (1987) the school institution exerts a greater influence on learner achievement. Lack of proper measures to manage school discipline may affect learner performance. Although the two schools might have proper system of managing disruption behavior, schools cannot act against traditions and culture. The schools had no power not to refuse learners to be part of their cultural practices, the whole community is involved. What is puzzling is when the schools call parents to school meetings, the turn up is very low as compared to high participation of community members in their cultural practices.

10.3 School management and governance

Haddad et al (1990) note that well managed, effective schools share several characteristics, they display and orderly environment and emphasize academic achievement. Although in the two schools South African Schools’ Act allow them to deal with any disruptive behavior, they find it difficult when these disruptive behaviors are caused by culture.
10.4 Findings from semi structured interviews

10.4.1 Year participants started teaching

With regard to the year participants started teaching, data revealed that all participants had more than ten years working in KwaNdebele area; one participant started in 1989, another one in 1990 and two in 1994.

The following graph represents the years the participant started teaching in KwaNdebele:

![Graph showing the years participants started teaching in KwaNdebele](image)

Based on their years serving in the two communities, it seems in all these years, participants had experienced how Ndebele cultural practices affected school discipline.

10.4.2 How Ndebele cultural practices influenced school discipline?

When asked how Ndebele cultural practices influence school discipline participant A responded by saying that boys who are from the mountain are stubborn, they do not want to do their homework and it causes disciplinary problems, some learners feel it is not necessary to do the homework. Participant B felt that girls think they are matured they sleep with elder men and fell pregnant, as result they continuously become absent, because of their visits to the clinics for check up. They have little time for school work said participant B. participant C and D said learners become disrespectful.

10.4.3 Participants’ perceptions on Ndebele cultural practices and school discipline

Participants felt that they do not have power any more, since the abolishment of corporal punishment, learners do as they wish. One participant said:

“When I was young are was afraid of the teachers”

Taking an overview of the participants’ responses, poorly disciplined learners are prone to lose interest in their schoolwork and neglect their studies, and destroy their teacher-learner relationship. It also happened with girls in the two schools, those who initiated from “Iquadle”, they continuously became absent and saw themselves as future mothers. Their parents also encouraged them to sleep with men of which some of them they fall pregnant at early age.

10.5 Teachers’ stories

Teachers were able to tell the researchers about their years of service in the school, their home, how Ndebele cultural practices affected school discipline and their recommendation regarding school discipline and Ndebele cultural practices

10.5.1 Years of service

From what the participants said, it was noted that participant A taught for 24 years, participant B for 23 years and participant C and D 19 years.
10.5.2 Participants’ home

From the participants’ lived stories, it was noted that none of the participants are staying in the village they are teaching. They travelled to and fro to work. The reason might be that they are afraid to be scolded by their learners who initiated from the mountain school, or they do not feel comfortable to stay among Ndebeles due to their cultural practices.

10.6 How Ndebele cultural practices affected school discipline

Participant B told the researcher that he hated the period prior Ndebele initiation schools. Learners, both girls and boys do not come to schools regularly, people are afraid to walk at night and no one is allowed to speak bad about “Ingoma”, that is why he opted not to stay in the community where he is teaching. Participant C emphasized that from his experience working within KwaNdebele community, he realized that parents respect and love their culture at the expense of their learners’ education. From what participant D and a said, that despite the fact that South African Schools’ Act allow each school to have Code of conduct of learners, no teacher will use the Code of Conduct to correct learner behavior which was as the results of Ndebele cultural practices.

10.7 Participants’ recommendations

Common thread that runs through this paper is that participants have all been exposed to Ndebele cultural practices hence they recommended that initiation ceremonies should take place during school holidays, and that the duration is too long it must be reduced from three months to two weeks. Learners should be given a chance to complete grade 12 before going for initiation school.

11. Discussion

The central argument of this paper is that certain Ndebele cultural practices affect school discipline. The qualitative data analysis and interpretation revealed that certain Ndebele cultural practices do influence school discipline. It became evident to the researcher that participants are encountering disciplinary challenges in their schools and classes and this can be attributed to Ndebele cultural practices.

When referring to qualitative research results, theoretical frame work and literature study on Ndebele cultural practices, and relating these to the influence of Ndebele cultural practices on school discipline, the researcher conclude that participants are challenged to deal with disruptive learner behavior caused by Ndebele cultural practices. This is also supported by participants’ years of experience of working in the Ndebele community. Researcher assumed that for participants, working in the Ndebele communities was not pleasant. They were exposed to disrespectful learners who prioritized their cultural practices over their education. The community and their parents supported them. The micro-system as explained by Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model, played a role in affecting how learners should behave. It is interesting therefore to note that participants respect Ndebele cultural practices, and become frustrated when it disrupt teaching and learning.

From what the participants said, it seemed that they have no hope that they will be respected by boys who are form the mountain. One participant fell it was better for him to relocate to nearby town to avoid being scolded by boys coming from initiation school.

It was further understandable that participants recognized that the school discipline is a challenge. It was noted that most of the participants suggested recommendations on how cultural practices in the two communities may contribute towards school effectiveness with less disciplinary problems if these practices happened during school holidays were teaching and learning are not disrupted, communities should move away from organizing these practices for longer period and they should adopt an approach which is clearly focused on building a sustainable positive relationship with School management and community. Because when learners use these cultural practices as a weapon of disrespecting school management and school rules, teachers feel lost and have subsequently lost hope in maintaining school discipline. It was also mentioned by two participants that as teachers are responsible for children future and that although cultural practices instil a sense of responsibilities to those who are initiated, celebrants should be responsible, while celebrating their achievement of attaining manhood, they must start doing their school work.

This is confirmed in the following statement:
"Be responsible for yourself and allow kids to take responsibility for themselves" (http://www.ascd.org/readingroom/books/curwin99book.html).

12. Recommendations

Based on the findings from the study; the researcher support recommendations by the participants. The researcher also recommends:

- Planning of Ndebele cultural practices should be communicated to school management
- To think of having these practices during schools holidays
- The celebration to take place during weekends
- Tutors of initiation schools to emphasize respect by the graduates to their parents, teachers and any senior person regardless of his/her social standing.
- Graduates to understand and know that school environment while different from initiation school support and complement all what will occur during initiation period.
- To allow learners to complete their grade 12 before going for initiation schools

13. Conclusion

Conclusions reached are derived from research findings. The conclusions drawn indicate that Ndebele cultural practices impact on school discipline. Participants acknowledged that Ndebele culture need to be respected and adhered to, but it must not cause disciplinary problems. The findings in this paper raised many questions that suggest a need for further research. It must be acknowledged that many aspects of this study could be replicated with other participants to determine whether or not the themes identified here hold true for the participants in other settings.

This study was able to determine were elements assisted in answering the research problem and addressing the research objective. One of the positive finding is that Ndebele cultural practices either positive or negative, affect school discipline and happened within Ndebele people. Although this finding, this study appears to be one of the first to confirm this assumption. Further study using other methods would help to confirm or refute this finding. In the pursuit of more information and knowledge, a similar study could be undertaken where the stated limitations of this study are with regard to sample size in respect of the number of schools and teachers involved in the study are addressed.

It might also be important determine the correlation between discipline carried out at initiation school and the one that is implemented in schools. There is definitely incongruence between what happens at home during the initiation period and at the school that might merit a study. It could also be determined how the disconnection affects school discipline. Considering the finding and my observation in this study; I conclude that Ndebele cultural practices have a varying impact on school discipline.

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Iqude is a Ndebele cultural activity that initiates girls into womanhood and responsibilities, this entails Ingoma is a Ndebele cultural activity which initiates boys into manhood

Ukukhonga is one month preparation period during which initiates psyche themselves up in preparation for initiation

Ukuhlaba is celebration after initiation. It signifies the completion of the traditional initiation ceremony
The Sense of Insecurity and the Language of Pinter’s Absurd Play the Birthday Party

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Abstract

This article introduces Pinter as an early practitioner of the Theater of the Absurd who clearly omits melodramatic and supernatural elements without any loss of mystery, interest or horror. The sense of horror and terror is still preserved by several other devices such as pauses and silences, which turned out to be his hallmarks. The absurdity used by Pinter can sometimes be funny and we can laugh at it, but his idea is to reflect how people felt in their own realities. He uses this comical way to laugh at everything, even at tragic situations. Another important feature of this play is the way how words are used as weapons to avoid being hurt and not to reveal the past. They evade direct communication so that they can evade the past and protect their territory. We will explain how territory is inevitably related to personal autonomy and security and how the characters achieve this through their language. The funny and comic side of the play is revealed and interpreted differently at the end of the play. It will change our viewpoint of looking at things.

Keywords: Pinter, Theater of Absurd, Funny, Drama.

1. Introduction

Esslin, a critic, placed Pinter among other absurdist writers such as Adamov, Ionesco, Genet, Albee and Beckett. He used the phrase "Theatre of the Absurd", to describe the plays of the 1950s and 1960s. It has been derived from an essay by the French philosopher, Albert Camus, “Myth of Sisyphus” written in 1942, who defined the human situation as basically meaningless and absurd. “In the Theater of the Absurd,” writes Esslin (1964), “the human condition is presented to us as a concrete poetic image that has become flesh on the stage and that is at the same time widely comic and deeply tragic” (241). This drama, which is Pinter's first full-length play, combines some of the characters and situations of The Room and The Dumb Waiter, while for the first time, omitting melodramatic, supernatural elements without any loss of mystery or horror. (Ibid. pp. 202).

What they have in common is exactly this sense of anguish, terror and menace that is felt throughout the whole play. The sense of absurdity of human life and the sense of territorial intrusion appear to be present even in this play. As in The Room, Stanley is not happy for the arrival of new guests, because he feels that his territory is being threatened. They are once again under the menace of being invaded and the sense of insecurity is felt throughout the play.

The human consciousness seemed to be facing an apparently absurd world, because it finds itself at the crossroads of “Being” and “Nothing”. The two world wars affected the human soul and destroyed everything left. There seemed to be no meaning in that post war life. Everything was surrounded by a disbelief in God and humanity. No one could escape reality. Authors tried to reflect these consequences on human soul in theatre, poetry, novels etc. The same did Harold Pinter. He tried to reflect this sense of anguish that the humans were experiencing in this absurd post war existence. So from this point of view existentialism seemed inseparable from absurd and they cohabitated perfectly well.

The essence of the European Absurd theatre finds a new dimension in the plays of Pinter. He has shown the drawbacks and tension in the social life of today. His dramatic style and techniques are fundamental and served a lot to younger generations. His plays are not easy to grasp and understand. This is a main feature of all absurdist plays and works. He has denied the presence of any allegorical meaning in his plays. Brevity is the hallmark of Pinter’s dialogue which naturally gives rise to many shades of meaning. The reader of Pinter’s plays cannot always arrive at the exact meaning of the cryptic sentences, and one can draw many different ideas from them.

He may be considered the most challenging contemporary British dramatist who revolutionized our understanding of the theatre (Pandey.A; 2013:19). Etheridge (1963) believes that Pinter has artistically employed “tactics derived from Kafka, Hemingway, and Ionesco” (427). He seemed to have read all of the secondary sources—Beckett, Ionesco, and
harmony of life.

...make any sense at all when they speak. In this play, the atmosphere is charged with fear and threat to the natural

among them is not possible; each person finds himself far from the other, completely disconnected. Either they do not

Party, the characters try to conceal their self by using language in a special way in which the mutual understanding

too fearsome possibility. (Pinter; 1962; 15)

Communication is too alarming. To enter into someone else's life is too frightening. To disclose the poverty within us is

well, is present in almost all of the absurd plays of Pinter. He believes that we communicate only too well, in our silence,

may be turned as a weapon against its originator. The term "Failure of communication" present in The birthday party as

explained, in his plays "communication is a fearful matter" (Pinter. 1961; 257) Information imparted to another character

be overheard on a London bus, as his work progresses they realized that its structure was in fact highly selective.

Language now ceased to be a means of interpersonal communication or a carrier of factual information, but was merged

with the dramatic action as a weapon in the character's armory of evasion, “a constant stratagem for covering

nakedness” (Pinter; 1962;82). The speech we hear is an indication of that which we do not hear. It is a necessary

avoidance which keeps the other in its true place. When true silence falls we are left with echo but we are nearer

nakedness. (Ibid, 14). Analyses of Pinter’s verbal language have often been focused on how Pinter presents the problem

of communication. Hollis, for example, in Harold Pinter, emphasizes that Pinter uses language in order to describe the

failure of language and points out the poverty of man’s communication (Hollis 13, quoted in Quigley. pp. 12-13) In such a

direction, the phrase “failure of communication” has often been used as an important way to explain characteristics of

Pinter’s plays.

Words reveal to the audience not the character’s motives or history, but only their current aims and fears. Pinter’s

characters do not wish to communicate: to do so would be to compromise their individuality, for as Pinter himself

explained, in his plays “communication is a fearful matter” (Pinter. 1961; 257) Information imparted to another character

may be turned as a weapon against its originator. The term “Failure of communication” present in The birthday party as

well, is present in almost all of the absurd plays of Pinter. He believes that we communicate only too well, in our silence,

in what is left unsaid, and what takes place is a continual evasion, desperate attempts, to keep ourselves to ourselves.

Communication is too alarming. To enter into someone else’s life is too frightening. To disclose the poverty within us is

too fearsome possibility. (Pinter; 1962; 15)

Like music, absurd dramas, communicate an experience of human situations. In the absurd play The Birthday

Party, the characters try to conceal their self by using language in a special way in which the mutual understanding

among them is not possible; each person finds himself far from the other, completely disconnected. Either they do not

communicate, or they communicate through silence, pause, repetition and non-verbal expression. The characters’ words

do not make any sense at all when they speak. In this play, the atmosphere is charged with fear and threat to the natural

harmony of life.

Though Pinter depends on the form of comedy rather than that of tragedy, this does not decrease the hidden
menace against the characters who want to escape from the forces of evil. Pinter likes to show the inevitable contradictions faced by people in today's world. His plays have been rightly called Comedies of Menace. The same with those written by Oscar Wilde. The heroes of Pinter are pessimistic and function as tools in the hands of unbanning powers. Like the existentialist playwrights Pinter has given expression to the hopelessness and anxiety felt by the individual in the modern society. The Birthday Party is a good sample of all of these things let’s clarify it below

2. The Birthday Party and Absurdity

The Birthday Party has a credible dramatic situation, but not a credible plot structure, characters or any logical, linear action. In Pinter’s theatre, the continuous presence of a closed room, with a few persons huddled together inside, in a sort of “non-communicative conversation”, is significant. He got this example by Becket. The dramatic image of his play is based on a basic human situation: individual’s search for security in a world which is full of anxiety, terror, false friendship and a lack of understanding between people. “We live on the verge of disaster” [Esslin: 1977: 23]. Esslin defined absurd as “what is devoid of purpose… Cut off from his religious, metaphysical, and transcendental roots, man is lost; all his actions become senseless, absurd, useless”. (Pinter.H., in Joseph F. McCrindle, 1971:218.)

This sense of anguish at the absurdity of human existence is broadly speaking the theme of plays of Becket, Ionesco, Genet and Pinter as well. (Ibid, 218). Some critics claim that Pinter is absolutely absurd as they see the first side; while, on the contrary, some other critics repudiate Pinter as being an absurdist writer because they see the other side. For instance, Philip Hope-Wallace (1986) regards Pinter’s works as absolutely absurd, saying that “These Pinter pieces, variously amusing according to taste, and often fraught with that fashionable commodity menace, are not really “about” anything” (197)

The absurd character of Pinter is built up by three distinct elements: mystery, menace and humor. Pinter successfully creates a drama of human relations at the level of language. According to Ganz (1970:3), “The most distinctive elements in Pinter’s dramatic technique are the ambiguity that surrounds events, the mysterious behaves of characters, the presence of menace, and the silences and other verbal characteristics.” His characters are in fact quite mysterious and never reveal anything about their past. They are what they are, and we get to understand them and not prejudice their way of being only at the end of each play.

The plot of the play hinges on Stanley who isolates himself from the world by putting up in a squalid seaside boarding house, owned by Meg and Petey. The couple protects Stanley and tries to make him comfortable. But the peaceful atmosphere is disturbed by unexpected guests, McCann and Goldberg, the agents of unknown forces who have come to claim Stanley. The language they use is really important in understanding the sense of insecurity and to reflect the tension that is being created. In fact it is a barrier in communication. This leads characters into pauses and silences, and any verbal assertiveness causes communicative disjunction. The dialogue between Petey and Meg is more an attempt at evasion than communication. For instance, Pinter uses repetition as a way to create laughter and also to ease the tension of the scene and entertain the audience. In the first Act, Meg repeatedly asks a question to create laughter

Meg – Is that you, Petey?
Pause
Petey - Is that you?
Pause
Petey?
Petey – what?
Meg –Is that you?
Petey – Yes it’s me.
[The Birthday Party:24]

Absurd ideas and fanciful imagination indicate the feeling of hollowness in Meg and Petey’s married life and also in Stanley’s life gripped by uncertainties and insecurities. This peaceful atmosphere is disturbed by the unexpected entry of McCann and Goldberg who come to perform a “job”. They not only disturb Stanley but arouse his fear for unknown reasons. And this tension passes on to Meg as Stanley starts behaving peculiarly. Pinter is more preoccupied with our fears, our anxieties that are reflected throughout the play. Meg’s fear of losing Stanley, “You wouldn’t have to go away if you get a job” (The Birthday Party: 9), reveals her sense of insecurity. The arrival of the two men at the boarding house reflects Stanley’s fear of losing the security, which he was getting from Meg. Again, Stanley’s fear becomes an inevitable cause for absurd imagination. He says:
“They’re coming today.”
Meg: Who?
Stanley: They’re coming in a van.
Meg: who? They’ll carry a wheel barrow in a van.
Stanley: They’re looking for someone.
Meg: No they’re not. (The Birthday Party: 24)

Pinter’s dialogues are so well constructed that the ambiguity is maintained and several ways for interpretations are possible. In this context, Hobe (1977:418) says: “Pinter has consistently relied upon language device for his effects rather than ritualistic visual devices characteristic of the theatre of Absurd.” He uses silence and pauses as mediums of communication. The characters convey a lot by being silent or giving a pause during their conversation, both the actors and the spectators are left wondering as to what would follow. Terror is intensified further with the arrival of two agents who start interrogation and cross-examination. They accuse him of unknown guilt and sins. Stanley remains speechless and only makes the inarticulate gurgling sounds. His silence only stresses the disintegration of the human personality. In this process words serve as weapons. Stanley is virtually brain-washed through a series of incomprehensible questions.

In Pinter, the structure of the dialogue plays a vital role in creating a tense dramatic atmosphere of menace, and the absurd changes, from one to another, which is a major linguistic element in The Birthday Party. Pinter arranges his words carefully, and he listens to them through silence. Dialogue is shaped on bad syntax, tedious repetitions and excruciating contradictions. Through dialogue he presents the inadequacy of the words we use. He hints at the unspoken and he creates an absurd atmosphere by means of the theatrically useful nature of words pertaining to correct rhythm.

The Birthday Party evokes a mood of terror and mystery by creating a distorted world. Illusions, past recollections and childhood memories also become a medium for the characters to relieve their tensions and serve as an escape from the present world of brutality. Meg easily enters into her world of happy memories and illusion the next day after the Birthday Party. She is not aware of the harsh reality that Stanley had to undergo harassment, and that he was carried away by force by McCann and Goldberg. With an unconscious irony, she recollects the happy moments and insists….

“I was the belle of the ball.”
Petey: Were you?
Meg: oh Yes, They all said I was Petey, I bet you were, too.
Meg – oh!. It’s true, I was. (Pause) I know I was. (The Birthday Party: 59).

Another example in the drama is:

Goldberg: Where was your wife?
Stanley: In—
Goldberg: Answer.
Stanley (turning, crouched): What wife?
Goldberg: What have you done with your wife?
McCann: He’s killed his wife!
Stanley: What wife?
Goldberg: Why did you never get married? (514)

Language fails to unite these individuals and an intentional deviation from communication leads them to the solitude. Thus, the bigger questions concerning man and his position in the universe emerge: what is man and where does he really belong? Does his existence mean anything? Is he able to know the nature of his being in a world where the relationship between being and nothingness, between different entities in an undefined system of life, is contingent and arbitrary? The attempt to answer these questions associates the idea of the Absurd with the more philosophical explorations of Existentialism which opens up a new chapter in the history of man’s struggle to define his being and to determine his position in the universe. The problem of verification in Pinter’s theatre is closely linked with his use of language.

There are a lot of misunderstandings arising from inability to listen, incomprehension of polysyllabic words used by the more articulate characters, mishearing and false anticipations. But life in Pinter’s view, like all other absurdist-existentialist writers, is a big game in which everything may happen, and the gun that you have aimed at the other, may suddenly turn back at yourself. As Buck (1997) states, “. . . the language of the text demands that we participate in a probe for meaning, but a probe that leads us down paths that are all possible at once, but questionable. In other words, we see possibilities but are sure of absolutely nothing” (45-46).
3. Conclusion

As a conclusion to what we mentioned so far, we can say that Harold Pinter’s plays reveal our state of isolation, alienation, nothingness and meaninglessness. In Pinter’s world, language has lost its power and significance. Words do not unite but they separate, they have lost their primary function which is Communication. The characters in The Birthday Party are not capable of using the language; language for them is like movement, the irrationality, aggressiveness and violence. Absurdity engulfs everything and everyone, even language and life itself. Language, like an absurd hero, brings to the audience the absurdity of human condition. The characters feel they are outsiders and are alienated. Pinter succeeds in creating this type of drama: Man versus existence, or Man versus language. But even though we are destined to fail, at least we fail heroically in our battle between nature and us.

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Abstract

This paper refers to Digital Storytelling as an alternative tool enhancing children’s way of expression in kindergarten classroom. Storytelling is a global culture depicting the way people live, feel and interact in life. Especially in early childhood storytelling springs naturally in children’s play helping them to exercise a great variety of skills. Nowadays, advances in technology offer the opportunity to create a new form of storytelling, namely digital storytelling. The idea of creating a digital story is based on processes similar to those used in traditional stories. On the other hand the story is supplemented with various types of multimedia content. Meaningful integration of technology into kindergarten gives children the opportunity to create their own digital stories and thanks to multimedia technology children are enabled to become co-authors in the story writing process. In this paper a teaching experiment that took place in the kindergarten of an urban area in Greece on February 2012 is described. The teaching experiment lasted three weeks. We present the attempt of creating an educational framework in which the children were given the opportunity to combine various elements and Information Computer Technology tools, in order to express themselves and give birth to a digital story. It was found that children were engaged to the whole process, showed responsibility, self-confidence and they also exercised cooperation skills.

Keywords: Storytelling, Digital Storytelling, ICT, Early Childhood, cooperation skills

1. Introduction

According to Booth, stories constitute a fundamental way of organizing human experience. We look for our stories in other peoples’ stories. Therefore storytelling is a way to look back in time in order to move forward and it is an active process (Booth, 1994). According to Culler, stories are the main way for anyone to apply meaning to things, either by reflecting his own life as a process that leads somewhere, or by saying to himself what is happening in the world. Scientific explanations reveal the meaning of all through laws, but life generally is not like that (1997:82).

Storytelling is reformed to digital storytelling with the introduction of multimedia in everyday life. Many definitions exist for digital storytelling, however they all converge to the combination of storytelling with a variety of digital multimedia like image, sound and video. Almost every digital story combines graphics, text, oral storytelling recordings, video and music in order to present a specific subject. Digital storytelling, just like traditional storytelling, revolves around a specific
topic and often involves a concrete meaning. Stories typically last a couple of minutes and they may either refer among other things to personal experiences and historical events or they can provide information or guidance on a particular topic.

According to Lathem, digital storytelling is defined as «the combination of traditional oral storytelling with 21st century multimedia and ICT tools». It is a process that combines digital media in order to enrich and enhance written or spoken stories (Lathem, 2010: 2286-2291). Meadows concludes that even if storytelling is not something new, digital storytelling is a novelty (Meadows, 2003: 189–193). For Pedersen digital storytelling is a relatively new form of art that uses music, image, video and storytelling to create stories about life, work and human experiences that share through the Internet (Pedersen in Sadik, 2008: 489). Meadows believes that digital storytelling is the social practice to tell short multimedia stories from data derived from low cost digital cameras, non-linear authoring tools and computers (Meadows, 2003: 189–193). Finally, the International Organization for Digital Storytelling defines digital storytelling as the modern counterpart of the ancient art of storytelling. Storytelling has evolved through history as a way of sharing knowledge, wisdom and values. The seven key components of digital storytelling are: 1) main idea, 2) dramatic question, 3) emotional content, 4) the gift of “voice”, 5) the power of background music, 6) economy and 7) pace (Robin, 2008: 220-228, The Digital Storytelling Association, 2002).

2. Digital Storytelling in Education

Digital storytelling, according to many researchers, is a simple yet dynamic method that helps students understand the complicated, without rules world of experiences through story composition (Bruner, 1990” Gils, 2005 in: Sadik, 2008: 489). Compared to traditional storytelling, the audience of digital storytelling is not passive but rather patricipates as coauthor that interacts and shapes the story (Dorner et al. 2002: 45–55). Digital storytelling encourages children to «organize and express their ideas in a personal and meaningful manner», according to research (Sadik, 2008: 490).

Jonassen and Hernandez-Serrano suggest three ways to support learning through storytelling. First, they can be used as examples of notions or values that have been taught with direct learning. Second, they can be presented as problems to be solved by the students. Third, stories can have an advisory role and help students solve problems (Jonassen και Hernandez-Serrano, 2002: 65–77).

As digital storytelling promotes an in-depth understanding of texts, it also encourages children to become competent in terms of the technical aspects of the language, and just ‘play’ with words and familiarize with the writing process. Studies reveal that children gradually increase their desire to experiment with the language and make changes when involved in digital storytelling (Hull & Katz, 2006: 43-81’ Ware, 2006: 45-54” Ware & Warschauer, 2005: 437). Moreover, digital storytelling increases the chances for students to be engaged in problem solving and familiarize with technology through practice and experimentation (Kajder, 2004: 64-68” Robin, 2008: 220-228’ Ware, 2006: 45-54).

Digital storytelling requires children to compose information, to enhance their creativity, conduct research and exercise critical thinking (Hull & Katz, 2006: 43-81” Ohler, 2006: 54’ Ware, 2006: 45-54” Ware & Warschauer, 2005: 436).

Naturally children can use traditional storytelling to express themselves. However children awareness and confidence to tell an interesting story that will grasp the audience’s attention is increased through digital storytelling. (Ware, 2006: 45-54). In addition to that, combining music with personal storytelling boosts self-control over one self’s presentation to the world (Hull & Katz, 2006: 43-81).

Researchers suggest that suitable technology integration in the classroom is a critical condition for success for teachers and students as well. The authentic effort is crucial in design, flow of the story and filming of each activity, which may be related to technology in order to comprehend the result of a successful learning process (Pitler, 2006: 38-42).

One must always have in mind that «the story must be in the foreground while keeping technology in the background» (Bull & Katz, 2004: 47). The focus should remain in the writing process and not in technical results (Ohler, 2008: 56). As far as the actual story is concerned, the definition of the Seven Components of Effective Digital Stories is crucial according to researchers, like Bull & Kajder, Ohler and Sadik. Teachers should provide beforehand brief explanatory guidance and examples of all components in every stage of the authoring process:

2. Initial scenario: a draft of the story helps basic ideas to evolve. It can also be redefined after input from the children.
3. Storyboard: a basic structure of the story complements the initial scenario. Storyboarding reveals the content of the story. Image selection, slides text input and transitions are all defined in this step.

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4. Discussing the scenario with children and recapitulation: this process ensures that focus is kept on the story, concepts are clarified and proper words are chosen. The message of the story is revealed along with the emotions emerging from the story.

5. Video editing: image and frame setting in the video editor are performed in this step. The best way to organize material is to create a folder with all images of the story.

6. Voice insert: voice of the narrator is inserted at this stage. The addition of children’s voices enhances the digital story. narration enables pace control in order to present the meaning of the story in the best way.

7. Special effects and transitions are added in this step. Special effects have an added value depending on the type of story (Bull & Kajder, 2004: 46-49, Kajder, 2004: 64-68, Ohler, 2008: 133, Sadik, 2008: 490).

Teachers who wish to use digital storytelling in the teaching process should bear in mind that technology integration is successful when it includes practices, techniques, such as children engagement in discussions, collaboration, critical thinking, and feedback at all stages of the project, i.e. before, during and after (Pitler, 2006: 38-42).

3. Methodology of Research

3.1 Research Type/Framework

For the implementation of the current research the teaching experiment was chosen, which took place in a traditional urban nursery school in Greece in a classroom consisted of 19 children. The material and technical support exploited for the production of digital stories in the classroom included a computer, speakers, digital camera and webcam, as well as raw materials and materials for experiential activities-dramatization. At the same time, the activities were supported through a blog created for this purpose (http://elmer-project.blogspot.com/2011/01/blog-post_9004.html). Finally, Vegas Pro 11 video editor (http://www.sonycreativesoftware.com/vegaspro) was used for digital story processing.

3.2 Research Mission

To investigate preschool/early primary school childrens’ interest in digital storytelling.

3.3 Research Goals

a) To investigate children interaction and children-teacher interaction during the digital story development process.

b) To investigate preschool children motivation and their engagement with the activities within a learning framework that combines raw material, experiential activities and ICT tools.

3.4 Research Assumptions

a) Digital story development promotes children interaction among them as well as with their teacher.

b) Digital storytelling development motivates children’s interest in storytelling.

3.5 Research Type

Teaching experiment was the chosen approach in this case, as it allows for systematic exploration and interpretation of the learning process, but also «experimentation» in the teaching framework (Chronaki, 2009: 605).

4. Sample Selection

The teaching experiment took place in a kindergarten classroom, consisting of 19 children, 13 of them are infants and 6 of them are in preschool. There are 10 girls and 9 boys in this class. The particular needs and characteristics of preschool and early primary school age was an important factor for the selection of our sample. Due to the size of the sample, results apply only to the present research carried out under the specific conditions and cannot be generalized in any way (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2008:170).
5. **Data Collection Tools**

Data collection tools are the semi-structured group interviews, observation, notes and filming of the activities.

5.1 **Data Processing and Analysis Method**

The qualitative data obtained were organized per subject, according to children interaction and their interest in storytelling, followed by classification by induction into categories. Then they are tested and examined in relation to the assumptions of the research (Roberts-Holmes, 2008:155-160, Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2008:251).

6. **Research Validity and Reliability**

Subjectivity of the researcher, difficulty in isolating the factors that influence the experiment, subjective interpretation of psychological phenomena, difficulty in external factors recording and analysis, limited sample size, sample heterogeneity and lack of a control group in the conditions of the research are defined as inherent constraints of the teaching experiment (Dina van Hiele in: Briasouli, 2010: 32).

7. **Research Ethics**

Parents were informed beforehand for the activities and the research mission. They all gave their consent. Moreover, an initial discussion with the children made it clear for them that they will conduct different activities with their teacher/researcher at the end of which they will comment whether they liked it and whether they would like to do it again (Roberts-Holmes, 2008:63)

8. **Application of the Teaching Experiment**

Project title: «Shall we play with Elmer, the pied elephant?»

Class: 2nd traditional Kindergarten of Volos

Subjects: Cross curriculum approach with elements from Curriculum on Audio-visual expression in Elementary School, as well as the Cross thematic Curriculum Framework for Compulsory Education and the Kindergarten Teacher’s Guide.

Duration: three school weeks.

9. **Research Phases**

The research was divided into three distinct phases: the investigation phase, the phase of introduction to the scenario and the implementation phase. The duration of each phase of the research is a school week, therefore the experiment lasted three weeks.

9.1 **Phase A’ – 1st Week (Jan 9-13, 2012)**

During the first week children get to know the teacher-researcher and they familiarize with the use of digital camera and webcam. In parallel, semi-structured group interviews in groups of two and three were organized, in order to detect children views and knowledge about the new technological tools they would use during the activities.

This is a very interesting point, as for some children these tools are unknown or their use is forbidden. Even if their parents had digital cameras and webcams they didn't allow their children to use them fearing that the children would mess things up or even ruin them.

During the interview, children were asked to identify the objects in the researcher's hands and their potential uses and if they were capable of using them. All children recognized the digital camera but they were not aware of its capabilities. Some children didn’t recognize the webcam because of its small size, whereas professional cameras used in social events (weddings, baptisms) are quite large. The vast majority of the children could not correlate these digital tools with classroom activities or storytelling. We present below a brief part of an indicative dialogue:
9.1.1 Dialogue 1: 3rd group (P., N., M.)

... Researcher: What do you think are these items? (She holds a digital camera and a webcam)
P.: Digital camera.
M.: Yes, it is a digital camera. This one too (points at the webcam).
N.: What is this?
P.: Can I take some photos? Let me take some photos!
Researcher: Sure P., you can take some photos as soon as we finish our discussion, ok?
P.: I want now!
N.: I want too!
Researcher: First we will discuss a little while for the tools I hold in my arms and then I will show you how you can take photos so that you can try and take whatever photo you like, agree?
M.: Yes, I know how to take photos.
P.: Me too!
N.: Me too! But my dad doesn’t let me to!
M.: Mine let me a bit, once, a little bit.
P.: Mine doesn’t let me either! He doesn’t let me!
N.: We also have one in school ... (he runs and grab the toy camera from the toy basket) can I take a photo of you? (He poses and gets excited when he takes some «photos»)...
able to produce a simple audio-visual narration (daily process) with successive images, d) realize that the image series form a single narrative set.

In this activity a "magic box" was chosen as a starting point. More specifically, the teacher-researcher comes in the classroom holding a cheerfully wrapped box that aims to excite children's imagination. Immediately children make different assumptions about its content. They interact really positively and they start arguing with each other about what might be hidden in the magic box. The teacher encourages children to create a new adventure story with Elmer, based on animals that are brought out of the box. The teacher-researcher provides the beginning of sentences like: «another beautiful day dawned in the jungle! Elmer has not returned yet... so...» The teacher attempts to address questions during this process, like: «what can we do in order to...? What would change if...? What do you think it will happen if...? If this is as you say, what will happen when...?». This proved to be quite difficult, possibly due to the fact that this was the first effort for children to create a story exclusively on their own, as the teacher herself already mentioned.

At the same time an attempt to create a story map according to Ohler. Children aided by their teacher produce a «map» of the story containing the main figures, the heroes of the story and its core, the heart of the story which resides in the centre of the map. Children select the scenes they wish to dramatize or to visualize based on this map. The dramas and the visualizations form the main material of the digital storytelling (Ohler in: Kotronidou & Toziou, 2011:27-28)

9.2.3 3rd activity: Wednesday, Jan 18, 2012: First class period.

Title: We look for Elmer!

Learning objective: Children recreating, dramatizing their adventure using material and furniture in the classroom. As a starting point, the teacher displays the video of the story made by children and suggests giving "life" to it. During implementation of the main part of the activity, using the standard method followed by free improvisation, children narrate while giving 'life' with their bodies on the adventure of elephants and other jungle animals, searching for their friend and "pass through different obstacles. Meanwhile, a small voluntary group is responsible for filming the event. Children inform the teacher on what they want to film. This cooperation is mandatory in order to achieve the desired result. Children seem to enjoy their «director» role, explaining to the teacher where she has to focus. This role exchange is a new experience for the children in which they respond with excitement. So, children offer the «view» and the teacher does the technical part that requires stability that children can't achieve in this age. Children defined the plot of the dramatized story.

9.2.4 4th activity: Thursday, Jan 19, 2012: First class period.

Title: We draw frames from our adventure!

Learning objectives: a) Children visualizing their adventure in any way they can, b) posting results in the blog. The teacher-researcher displays the video from the story of the children and suggests creating successive frames, to make their main storyboard.

Children, after discussion, chose their main story frames that they feel mandatory to tell their adventure. Next, the teacher with the children's help digitizes the material and helps them with their storyboard. In the end, children with the teacher's help verify image and speech correlation (frame descriptions).

Throughout the activity children respond and interact positively. The fact that they are accustomed in such processes, where they visualize scenes they liked the most among stories told by their teacher in the classroom contributes to the positive attitude they maintain.

9.3 Phase C’ – 3rd Week (Jan 23-27, 2012)

Third research phase – digital storytelling development

Three more classroom visits were made during this phase, where children divided in groups discussed the ways to display their story to the neighbouring classroom or to their parents, by using the dramatizations along with their pictures.

At first it was made clear to the children that the teacher-researcher could use an ICT tool for video-picture combination. This was the hardest part of the process. Children proved to be incapable of comprehending the final outcome of this process («product»). However children showed they understand the suggestion to «make a movie» of the story.

Storyboard proved to be valuable from this point on. Children formed groups to decide about each frame of the
storyboard. The teacher-researcher and the kindergarten teacher were guiding children during this phase. The process went smoothly from the point where each team comprehended the way to visualize every frame, which is to select either a video from the drama or a particular drawing.

Vegas Pro 11 software was used to create the digital story based on the frames selection from the children groups. The teacher-researcher added writing in the digital story where it seemed necessary. Finally, children watched their digital story in the kindergarten projector and their reactions testify they liked the result.

10. Discussion

The initial target of this teaching intervention was to offer new ways of expression to the children, namely storytelling. By making use of dramatization as the digital story material along with children’s drawings, the result was pleasant especially for the children participating.

The experiment in the kindergarten classroom revealed that preschool and early primary school children respond to such a learning experience. Teaching experiment was chosen since the point of interest was the ability to interpret the learning process and the «experimentation» in the teaching framework and not the learning result alone.

It was found that there is a positive interaction in line with the original goals set, among students and with their teacher as well during the digital story development process. Furthermore, it was found that children are motivated and engaged in the activities within the learning context that combines materials and experiential activities along with new ICT tools.

As far as the research assumptions are concerned, it was verified that digital storytelling development encourages interaction between students and the teacher as well. However, no evidence was found to indicate that the creation of digital storytelling motivates children's interest in storytelling. More time is required for observation of children behaviour and their classroom interests, beyond the timeframe of teaching intervention through digital storytelling, in order to evaluate whether children’s interest on storytelling is affected. This proposal aimed to focus on the experiential, cooperative and mainly playful learning. At the same time children were active composers of the learning framework. This boosted children confidence, enhanced cooperation and revealed possibilities that could never emerge through traditional activities. Children not only managed to make their own Elmer story, but they animated it with their personal way of expression.

It is highlighted that the teacher in this process provides the "spark" and tools and helps students using them, but at every stage of the process it is the children themselves that give meaning to what they do, play and create. So children and teachers are companions in the same learning process, equal and complementary to each other.

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The Low Management Level of Urban Waste and its Impact on Environment in the Lushnja Municipality

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Abstract

The almost uncontrolled waste management activity in the condition of the biological factors degradation is bringing negative changes to the natural environment, such as in water, air and land, as well as in its physical chemical composition. The institutional apathy on the environmental protection field, that is being threatening to the environment, by no managing and no treating the urban waste, composing so the most unique case in the world, where the urban municipal waste threat with their three paradox, such as they are thrown out near the river systems or they are thrown out on loose deposits and they have been left in opened damps and burned into the air. Under this condition the paper treats and find out the ways how to accept an action local plan for a careful management and integrated treatment of them. The waste management is a national problem, as well. Legislation, public consideration and the other groups related with the growth tendency for the waste management problems has passed the geographical limits of a certain municipality. The engineering controlled landfill or sanitary one, today in the Albania is the dominating waste management option, irrespective they have not few problems related with technology and emissions. The papers deals with waste management in the way how to be collected or to promote discussion in Strategic Issues or provide and organize education in waste management, life cycle analysis, risk assessment, environmental impact assessment, EMAS, quality control procedures and cost benefit analysis., cost optimisation, separate collection, case studies, subsurface systems.

Keywords: waste management, landfill, risk assessment, environment impact, composing;

1. Introduction

Waste management strategies and technologies are currently under going rapid development. Albania is going through a crisis of the system related to the treatment of urban solid waste, which is a serious issue dealt by civil society and state institutions, in order to be solved as a challenge, but also as a reality in Albania. While the Albanian society is passing
into trade economy, the production of solid waste in the country increased obviously. A series of import products entered for the first time into Albanian market. Raid increase of population, urbanism and expansion of activities revealed a non-efficient system for the actual administration of waste. The Albanian Government is involved in the process of full membership into the EU and in this context the Ministry of Environment has worked for the transposition of the main instruments of EU legislation into Albanian legislative instruments. The spinal column for the management of environmental infrastructure in the legislative field is based on Law No.10431, dated 9.6.2011 “For Environmental Protection”, meanwhile that of urban waste administration according to Law No. 10 463, dated 22.9. 2011 “For the Integrated Waste Management”.

2. Literature review

This chapter persists in various definitions from the lack of urban waste processing plants, incurring an uncontrolled distribution of waste, which cause the contamination of air, ground and water. The effects and concerns for such waste are related to soil, surface and underground waters, as well as air, smell (odors). The greatest problem in the administration of waste in Albania is not the lack of laws¹, but of the following:

- lack of an institutional administration and technical plan, human resources, financial sources and investments in infrastructure;
- lack of experience/tradition in the administration of this sector;
- lack of economic means used for waste administration;
- poor communication between local and central government on waste issue;
- poor collaboration between the community, business and managing enterprises on waste issue;
- lack of monitoring, the indicator and waste statistics;
- lack of networks in order to collect and process them, etc.

3. The Target and Objectives of the Study

The study aims to synthetize the management elements of municipality waste, which impacts on environment in the Lushnja municipality, by evaluating also the health risks for the residents in the surrounding areas, including concepts and methods for integrated waste treatments.

The objective of the study is to evaluate the level of environmental pollution (soils and surface waters and groundwater) to avoid health risks on Municipality Lushnja area from activity of the low management level of urban waste on the basis of the reason-consequence connection of the waste, with consequences on health, based on direct measurements of environmental elements and diagnosing of human health of the residents surrounding these areas and giving the relevant recommendations for the improvement of the situation.

The objectives of the study were realized based on the following:

- Selection of the main pollutant indicators which are present in the air, surface and underground waters in different situations and periods;
- Verification of contamination resources;
- Stipulation of pollution level in the ground, air and surface and underground waters;

4. Research methodology

The methodology of study is based on the realization of activities, such as:

- Observation on site, in a broad region, carrying out all the relevant pedological, geomorphological, hydrological, as well as ecological observations.
- Identification of issues which complete the assessment for environmental pollution;
- Localization of spots or areas of health risk;
- For the realization of objectives under the present study, the following were obtained:
  - Sample extraction and photos of the territory under study;
  - Meetings with local experts and area community;
  - Testing of water and soil samples obtained;

¹ Albanian National Strategy of waste management, April 2010
- Elaboration of results;
- Risk assessment: identification of resources, levels of exposure, localization and potential risks;

Argumentation based on the evaluation of:
- Collection and transportation of urban waste in the collection site;
- Spread of urban leachate waste waters in the waste field;
- Cleaning and disinfecting of the area around waste containers;
- Washing and disinfecting the waste containers;
- Maintenance of urban waste collection spots during the day;

Argumentation based on the evaluation of:
- Inventories of existing data;
- Basic information, in periodic publications on this area;
- Norms of discharges and emissions into the air and water discharges, according to European and Albanian Legislation;
- Conformity with legal requirements, such as the quality of air, soil, surface waters and liquid flows.

Foto 1. Water sample taken near Lushnja waste dump (© A. Guri, March 2013)

Foto 2. Air parameters measurement at the home yard near the waste dump (© A. Guri, March 2013)
5. Overview on the problem of the actual administration of urban waste in Lushnje

Administration of Urban Waste in the Municipality of Lushnje has been made and continues to be made in a primitive way. They have been freely discharged in unsuitable areas and in agricultural lands, near irrigation channels, near residential areas, causing an uncontrolled spreading of them, which have influenced in the contamination of air, soil and water. Paradoxes of waste management in the city of Lushnje are the following:

- Collected in open storage places in nature;
- No processing or treatment is made;
- Places in friable deposits, cropland;
- Thrown near water systems (irrigation channels, waterworks);
- Burnt in free condition;
- Outside the conditions of medical control;

From approximative calculations (according to the report on the condition of environment in Albania, for the year 2010) the following assessments result for urban waste in this area:

• 20,120 ton/year, municipality waste for the Municipality of Lushnja.

Tab 1. The annual waste production amount in Lushnja Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Annual amount ton/inhabitant</th>
<th>Annual amount Urban waste/ ton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29649</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>20000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Albanian Environmental Report, 2010

Tab 2. The characterization of municipality in % of waste content in Lushnja, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waste type</th>
<th>Concentration in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organic</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Card</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textile</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferrous metals</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non ferrous metals</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital waste</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goma</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inerts</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitary waste</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Actually, the waste is collected according to a simple norm and it is deposited in open damp field. The place of discharge is located in an open field (Photo-3,4, March 2013, A. Guri), which is located in the south-west of Lushnja city, approximately 1km from the city center. This place of deposit which is stipulated and which has not been surveyed is located on friable quaternary deposits, represented from suargils near the track of the railway and several housing buildings in a distance of 10m from its boundaries. The actual area is the main spot for the collection of rubbish in Lushnje (Photos 3, 4, March 2013, A. Guri). The greatest amount of urban waste, as well as hospital waste are freely burnt for 20 years near a great water channel, which are then discharged into the waters of Shkumbin river, which, after being polluted from the lexiviati of urban waste is discharged into the sea. The presence of animals and poultries constitute a concern for the spread of infectious diseases. By means of complicated chemical and physical processes, dangerous substances penetrate into the food chain of people, plants and animals by communicating with depth, (friable...
sediments, water, etc.) due to high permeability of sandy particles, found in the layered formation of Quaternary, where they discharge, as well as from the lack of protection layer in the bottom section and lateral sides. There is also missing the drainage system for flows and filtrations from the waste amount (lexiviati). Water which drain from the discharge place, flow easily into the secondary water catchment and in Shkumbin river. Underground waters, which flow from the discharge place, are used for potable water and irrigation, in the bottom areas of the channel flow or Shkumbin River. The wells which are found in the bank of Shkumbin river, supply many villages of the area with potable water. The field collects water through several irrigation channels, which are located 10-100m away from the waste. Drilled wells surrounding the region absorb water from a depth of about 5-8m underground. Due to the proximity of wells with channels and relatively shallow levels, filtration is huge. Smoke and bad odors are spreaded in a distance with a radius of up to 5km. From this place of discharge, methane gas is released and dust particles with heavy metal content, as well as other inorganic and organic contents, such as: dioxine, furans.

Foto 3. The contaminated surface water around the waste dump of Lushnja municipality (© A. Guri, March 2013)

Foto 4. View from waste dump of Lushnje Municipality (© A. Guri, March 2013)

6. Findings and discussion

6.1 Assessment of geological – engineering aspect

The area is classified as an unfavorable area, because it has the following parameters:

- Heterogenous facia (clayey, alevroliths, sandy);
- Easy ability of communication between surface and underground waters;
- seismicity Mmax=6.0-6.9 or VIII grade;
- not very good geomorphological conditions;
• liquefaction opportunity;
• near active tectonic area;
• mild average rocks;
• demographic impact;
• environmental and ecological impact;

6.2 The data for the environment pollution

In the concrete case, based on the test carried out, it results that dust particles PM10 are emitted in the air, which has resulted 5-6 times more polluted than the norm (table 3). We highlight that the measurements for dust content in the air have been made, not in the burning stage, but in normal and calm moments of waste, which naturally, at the moment of rubbish burning, we can say that the comparison is more high polluted. Nevertheless, from the measurement carried out, it results that matters in suspense is 4 times higher than the norm of the country or 6 times higher than the European norm.

Tab 3. Air indicator measurement in the house near Lushnja dump

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PM10</th>
<th>Albanian limit</th>
<th>EU limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>236,56 µg/m³</td>
<td>70 µg/m³</td>
<td>50 µg/m³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Measurements were carried out even in surface waters between the waste and the nearest housing building, and another sample for surface waters was taken from the channel near the waste, where waste water discharges from the waste dump. For these samples, we have the following results:

Tab 4. The physico-chemical analysis results of surface water near the urban waste dump of Lushnja city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Albanian limit, Alb. Gov. Deciss. 177</th>
<th>EU limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ph (pH)</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>6-9</td>
<td>6-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Suspended matter (mg/l)</td>
<td>2125</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>COD (mg/l)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Analyses report Nr. 14, dt 28.01 2013, Institute of Public Health, Tirana

• ph is normal due to the mix of waste water and rain water.
• Matters in suspense is 61 times higher than the norm of the country or 85 times higher than European norm.
• Demand for chemical oxygen is as per Albanian norm, but 1.9 times higher than the European norm.

Tab 5. The analyses results of heavy metals concentrations in surface water near the dump waste in Lushnja city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Albanian limit</th>
<th>EU limit</th>
<th>The polluted amount in % higher then Albanian limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zn (mg/l)</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>2.0 mg/l</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu (mg/l)</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>&lt;0.5 mg/l</td>
<td>&lt;0.5</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co (mg/l)</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>&lt;0.5 mg/l</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pb (mg/l)</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>&lt;0.5 mg/l</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cd (mg/l)</td>
<td>0.0034</td>
<td>0.02 mg/l</td>
<td>&lt;0.005</td>
<td>&lt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Analyses report Nr. 14, dt 01.02 2013, Nuclear Physics Institute, Tirana

From this test (Tab 5), it results that heavy metals in water are respectively in Albanian norm, but not in EU norm. In order to assess the impact on environment near the urban waste dump site in the city of Lushnja, measurements were
made even in underground waters, which are used for drinking by the residents in the area, for which two samples were taken, one in the depth of 3m from the surface and the other 10m far from the dump site, hence in the nearest housing building and the other in the same depth, but 20m far away from the dump site.

Tab 6. The bacteriological analyses results of underground water (10m from the urban waste dump) in Lushnja city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Analytical index</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Albanian limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Coliforme totale</td>
<td>Too much</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>E. Coli</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Streptococu phecal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Analyses report Nr. 19, dt 01.02 2013, Institute of Public Health, Tirana

Tab 7. The physical-chemical analyses results of underground water (10m from the urban waste dump) in Lushnja city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Chemical indicators</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Albanian limit</th>
<th>EU limit</th>
<th>The polluted amount in % higher then Albanian limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>8,48</td>
<td>6.5-8.5</td>
<td>6.5-8.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Suspended matter (mg/l)</td>
<td>531</td>
<td>&lt;30</td>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>1770%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ammoniac (mg/l)</td>
<td>0,41</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
<td>800%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Nitrites (mg/l)</td>
<td>2,39</td>
<td>&lt;0.005</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>47800%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Nitrates (mg/l)</td>
<td>&lt;15</td>
<td>&lt;0.5</td>
<td>&lt;0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Phosphates (mg/l)</td>
<td>1,38</td>
<td>≤0.7;</td>
<td>&lt;0.2</td>
<td>200%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>COD (mg/l)</td>
<td>97,6</td>
<td>≤20</td>
<td>≤20</td>
<td>480%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Analyses report Nr. 19, dt 08.02 2013, Institute of Public Health, Tirana

From this test (Table 7) for underground waters of the family well, shows the presence of ammoniac in water is a risky pollution of potable water\(^2\), as well as the content of nitrates in the value of 2.39mg/l, which are components that have a toxicity and their quantity in potable waters should not be higher than 0.005mg/l according to Albanian standard. From this test for underground waters, it is observed the aggravation of chemical-physical parameters in it, the wells of residential houses near the dump site of urban waste, the hydraulic conductivity in 400%, matters in suspension 13,333%, ammoniac 1,800%, as the result of lexisiviity impact of the urban waste dump site with 1,890% above Albanian norm. If we compare them with the concentrations according to international standards of potable waters, then it is presented a rather pronounced pollution. From the comparison of values analyzed with Albanian norms and EU, it results that we deal with chemically and bacteriologically polluted water, and threatening for the health of residents\(^3\).

Tab 8. The physical-chemical analyses results of underground water (20m from the urban waste dump) in Lushnja city

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Chemical indicators</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Albanian limit</th>
<th>The polluted amount in % higher then Albanian limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ph</td>
<td>7,03</td>
<td>6.5-8.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Electrical conductivity (uS/cm)</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>≤ 400</td>
<td>400%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Calcium (mg/l)</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>136%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Suspended matter (mg/l)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>≤30 µg/l</td>
<td>13333%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Ammoniac (mg/l)</td>
<td>0,903</td>
<td>≤0.05</td>
<td>1800%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nitrates (mg/l)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>≤0.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nitrates (mg/l)</td>
<td></td>
<td>≤15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Phosphates (mg/l)</td>
<td>1,48</td>
<td>≤0.7</td>
<td>200%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Organical matter (mg/l)</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>160%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Sulphates (mg/l)</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>250mg/l</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 Evaluation of healthy riskness

The risk is the relative probability of damage or injury, which is based on the natural toxicity of substances with content above the allowed norms and standards, which reach the people through physical contact, inhalation and the tract of food chain. Revealing the risk aims the identification and description in a comprehensive way of existing risks, really potential, which are produced from the existence of pollution in the water and in the air. Based on WHO-EEA, polluting substances in potable waters are selected as harmful priority substances in this area.

6.4 Clinical characteristics of chronic intoxications

The residents around the dump site are under the influence of pollution and negative effects in their health are sensible. Such effects have brought numerous and various organic and functional disorders, which have influenced in the decrease of ability to work and in many cases, have passed to medical control with aggravation of health condition. Pollutant components, being introduced into organism in small quantities and relatively for a long time, influencing chronic intoxications as the form which is more often encountered in the residents, who exercise their activity in this area. In the contingent of residents, where the medical check up has been carried out, the most frequent and severe complaints have been observed in the nervous and peripheric system, which belong to the disorders of the activity in this system with functional character. The clinical characteristics of such disorders are in the syndrome viscerale vegetative asthenia, with headache (Cefalea), often continued with not a strong intesity, aggravating sensation in the back area of the head, fatigue, loss of attention, lack of concentration, often sleepy condition, disorders in the mood, reduction of memory, sweating palms and soles. Cefalea has been present in 86% of cases. This condition is subject to age, years of living on this area, as well as profession. More pronounced it is at residents living near the dump site, as well as those who have more than 10 years of living in this area. Cefalea constitutes the periodic symptom of asthenis and has a different character from cefalea and other pathologic nature. It becomes more pronounced with the increase of physical and mental pressure, particularly during the night shift. In most cases, it is fixed the sense of general apathy, as a consequence, headache becomes more pronounced and continuous, reduction of attention and sight, both near and far away, photofobia and redness on eye. Such a syndrome constitutes a toxic encefalopathi or the so-called “Toxic Cerebroasthenia” and it is followed by organic alterations in the central nervous system. Poisoning gases which are produced from waste free burning also give sharp functional disorders in the liver, which is expressed with fat deposits, with hiperalbuminemia and hipergamaglobulinemia. Furthermore, in the cases which have been examined, it has been encountered reduction of glicogen in the liver, as well as the reduction of anti-toxic function, glikco-regulating of albumins. Sick residents complain for the dry sensation in the throat, as well as bitterness in the mouth, especially in the morning, thirsty for water at night, etc. Patients, who are presented to the aggravated health condition, have been admitted to hospital, where their treatment is done until improvement. This consists on 34.6% of controlled patients. Respiratory tract injuries are another concern at the resident of this area, where a series of complaints are: cough, runny and dry nose, toracoalgia, laeringite, etc. The diseases that predominate are: chronic bronchitis, chronic broncho pneumopatites associated with a considerable amount of respiratory, ventilatory, restrictive insufficiency, obstructive and mixed which make up 66% of the cases checked.

7. Concluding remarks

The most important results of the analyses for impact on environment from the dump site of urban waste are found in the air and surface and underground waters. The research presents situations of the low management level of urban waste and its impact on environment in the Lushnja municipality.

The assessment of environmental impact in the areas surrounding the dump site of urban waste was made by performing physical – chemical and bacteriological tests of environmental parameters, the stipulation of main pollutants and their origin.

Risk assessment was made by comparing the results obtained with Albanian and European standards. High values of chemical and bacteriological pollutants resulted.

Indicators of physical – chemical and bacteriological measured parameters express the increasing effect of pollution and concentration of pending substances, ammoniac, nitrates in the rate of 47,800%.

The presence of ammoniac in water which is used by residents as potable water is a risky pollution, which
threatens the health of these residents near the waste dump site.

Nitrites are compositions, which have a high toxicity and their quantity in water shall not be greater than 0.005mg/l nitrite according to Albanian norms.

Comparing the values of nitrite results with respectively 2.39mg/l of Table 7 (physical – chemical test of underground waters at the family well 10m far from the dump site of urban waste in the city of Lushnje) and 0 of table 8 (physical – chemical test of underground waters at the family well 20m far away from the dump site of urban waste in the city of Lushnje) we observe that, going away from the contamination resource (waste dump site) the content of nitrites disappears.

Environmental risk assessment is made by comparing the results obtained with international standards.

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Non-Finite Constructions in Time Clauses

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Abstract

What is the syntactic status of non-finite constructions in English and Albanian? Are they considered as clauses? And, what is more, when carrying temporal meaning, can we classify them as non-finite clauses of time? Non-finite constructions, which are sequences of words that lack a finite verb, have attracted the attention of English and Albanian grammarians. Due to the variety of structures and semantic relations triggered by them, non-finite constructions stand in a thin line between phrases and clauses. While many modern English grammarians treat them as clauses, Albanian grammarians give relatively controversial comments on their status. In addition to the status of non-finite constructions, this paper aims at identifying the major semantic relations expressed by them, analyzing examples from a corpus taken from “The Da Vinci Code” by Dan Brown, where time clauses make up about 20,000 words. Comparing the examples from the original text to their counterparts from the Albanian translated version will offer a new prospect on the peculiarities of non-finite constructions in time clauses.

Keywords: non-finite, time clause, semantic relations, syntactic status

1. Introduction

In the study of complex sentences with time clauses, the use and status of non-finite constructions are of special interest for the grammarians of English and Albanian. Because non-finite constructions present a variety of structures and semantic relations, maybe more than finite clauses of time, the boundaries of the sentence are somewhat unclear at this point. However, according to Miller’s definition, which is in line with that of other English grammarians, “non-finite clauses are sequences of words which lack a finite verb but nonetheless are treated as subordinate clauses” (Miller, 2009):

(1)

a. While sitting at the table, Captain Wentworth wrote a long letter to Anne.

b. (Duke qëndruar ulur në tavolinë, Kapiten Uentuorthi i shkroi një letër të gjatë Anës.)

Among the reasons Miller gives for treating non-finite constructions as subordinate clauses, we can mention:

1. Non-finite and finite verbs have the same modifiers, i.e. like finite verbs, non-finite constructions can be followed by objects, complements, adverbials, etc.
2. They can have a subject
3. Some non-finite clauses express aspect (perfect, or progressive)
4. They do allow some modality to be signalled (necessity, permission, ability, etc.)

Quirk (1972) claims that non-finite clauses are means of syntactic compression in which the verb, an ‘ing’, ‘ed’, or ‘to infinitive’, functions as predicate and the subject is omitted. It is assumed that the subject can be treated as recoverable from the context, namely from within the same complex sentence, having the same reference as a noun or pronoun in the main clause. In addition, non-finite clauses, just as finite and verbless clauses, can express semantic relations of time, condition, concession, purpose, reason, and manner in a complex sentence (Popa, 2008).

On the other hand, Albanian grammarians recognize some non-finite constructions as expressing temporal relations, but they hesitate to classify them as clauses. Instead, they consider them as “functionally synonymous” with subordinate clauses of time (Akademia e shkencave, 2002). According to Totoni (2012), these constructions are part of the verb paradigm, because they denote an action or a state as process, and have grammatical diathesis (voice), but they are different from other verbs because they don’t have the grammatical categories of mood, tense, and person. The first two features, the meaning and the category of voice, make these constructions be organized as clauses, but the lack of the other features, which are the basic components of the meaning of the sentence, drifts these constructions away...
from the clauses and joins them with the sentence elements. What is more, Çeliku (2012) argues that non-finite forms in standard Albanian cannot make a predicate, cannot have a different subject of their own, and they generally function as sentence elements. The noun ligji in (2) below is not considered by him as a subject but as “essential semantic compliment of the verb”, and the verb has no grammatical indicator of agreement with the noun:

(2) **Pa dalë ligji**, ata nuk u besojnë fjalëve.

In this context of controversial ideas in the previous literature, this paper attempts to rich a conclusion on the status of non-finite constructions in the Albanian language, as well as to identify the Albanian equivalents of English non-finite clauses of time and make a semantic-structural classification of them.

2. Materials and Methods

The corpus taken into consideration for the examples and analysis in this paper comprises some 40 non-finite clauses of time out of a total 870 complex sentences with time clauses extracted from the novel “The Da Vinci Code” by Dan Brown, comparing these examples to their counterparts from the Albanian translated version.

All complex sentences with non-finite clauses of time found in the original text and in the translated one were used to create an electronic corpus in order to facilitate their study in this, and in further research. Non-finite constructions were classified according to the semantic relations they express, the conjunctions used to present them, and their structural properties. In addition to providing natural language examples to illustrate certain theoretical points, the analysis of these data has led to very valuable findings on the most common non-finite constructions used in English, as well as on identifying the equivalent structures in the Albanian language.

3. Results and Discussions

In the corpus, I identified five main structures of non-finite constructions, namely *before* + *-ing*, *while* + *-ing*, *after* + *-ing*, *since* + *-ing*, and *until* + *-ing*. The most frequently used structures are *while* + *-ing* with 31%, *before* + *-ing* with 28%, and *after* + *-ing* with 23%. Non-finite constructions like *since* + *-ing*, and *until* + *-ing* are apparently less common.

![Distribution of non-finite constructions in the corpus](image)

Fig. 1. Distribution of non-finite constructions in the corpus

For study purposes, non-finite constructions of time have been further classified into three main groups, taking into consideration the temporal relations expressed by these constructions in English, and by their Albanian counterparts:

3.1 *Non-finite constructions of anteriority*

The first group consists of a non-finite construction that is very common in the complex sentence with time clauses in English, the structure *before* + *-ing*, and *until* + *-ing*, which is less frequently used:

(3) a. Lieutenant Collet, you will wait for me to arrive *before taking action*. (Brown, 2003)
b. Toger Kole, mos bëj asgjë **pa ardhur unë!** (Brown, 2006)
In the example above, the structure of the subordinate clause in English is conjunction + non-finite construction + object, while we can notice that even though the subject is not expressed in the subordinate clause, it is understood to be you, given in the main clause. The non-finite construction before + -ing expresses temporal relations of anteriority and, in the Albanian language, it is equivalent to the non-finite construction of the type: përcjellore mohore (pa bërë). The use of the non-finite form with temporal meaning pa bërë, ‘which is often followed by a noun in the nominal case (more rarely by a pronoun or noun phrase) in the position of the subject’ (Çeliku, 1986), shows that the action expressed in the main clause occurs before the action in the time clause. Indeed, as we can see in (3b), the structure of the translated version is non-finite construction + subject, where the subject of the non-finite construction is different from the subject in the main clause.

The use of a non-finite construction without a subject is a very common phenomenon in English and Albanian, and this absence of the subject has no deficiency in meaning whatsoever because both the subject and the tense are assigned in the main clause. Compare the structure and the semantic content of the non-finite construction in (4a) to the finite subordinate clause of time in (4b):

(4)
   a. Before entering, she gazed reluctantly farther down the hall, twenty yards or so, to the spot where her grandfather's body still lay under the spotlight. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Even before Sophie entered, though, she knew she was missing something. (Brown, 2003)

While the semantic content of the subordinate clauses in the examples above is the same, the only obvious difference is in their structure. In addition to the non-finite construction, and the time clause illustrated in (4), English and Albanian distinguish another structure expressing temporal relations which is even more frequently used, the phrase. Now, let’s study the distinctions among these three possible structures in order to better evaluate the status of non-finite constructions in both languages:

(5)
   a. I bore you from the womb before the start of the day. (Time adverbial)
   b. I bore you from the womb before starting the day. (Before + -ing)
   c. I bore you from the womb before I started the day. (Time clause)

(6)
   a. Të kam lindur nga barku im para fillimit të ditës. (rrethanor kohe)
   b. Të kam lindur nga barku im pa filluar ditën. (përcjellore mohore)
   c. Të kam lindur nga barku im para se të filloja ditën. (fjali kohore)

Does the non-finite construction demonstrate more features of a phrase or clause? Avoiding giving a definite answer to this question at this stage, I will try to make a presentation of facts about English and then Albanian. First, the -ing non-finite construction (5b) is similar to the time adverbial (preposition + noun phrase) (5a), in that the gerund in itself also carries nominal characteristics. Second, neither the non-finite construction nor the time adverbial has any indicator of agreement in number, case, etc. On the other hand, the similarities of the non-finite construction with the clause include: Both the finite (started) and the non-finite form (starting) denote action; they are both followed by an object, the day; the subject in the non-finite construction, even though unpronounced, is the same as that of the finite time clause, I; the non-finite construction is presented by the time conjunction before, just like the time clause.

In Albanian, the non-finite form pa filluar, unlike the time adverbial, does not show any nominal characteristics and, while the time adverbial demonstrates synthetic means of agreement (the ending and particle of the genitive case), the non-finite construction doesn’t. What is more, the non-finite construction in (6b) does not share many similar features with the time clause in (6c) either. The finite and the non-finite forms are followed by objects, but there is no time conjunction or agreement in the non-finite construction.

Another less common non-finite construction of anteriority is until + -ing in English and its Albanian counterpart sa + përcjellore mohore (sa pa bërë), which emphasize that the action in the main clause continues up to the moment when the action expressed by the non-finite form starts. See (7) and (8) below:

(7) Nonetheless, Christ’s line grew quietly under cover in France until making a bold move in the fifth century, when it intermarried with French royal blood and created a lineage known as the Merovingian bloodline. (Brown, 2003)

(8) Ruaju sa pa u bërë e liga. (Akademia e shkencave, 2002)
3.2 Non-finite constructions of simultaneity

Non-finite constructions like while, whilst, when + -ing, and when + -ed make up another important group expressing temporal relations in the English language, with while + -ing being the most frequently used non-finite form in the corpus:

(9) a. He paused while working his fingers across the seam of his bedsheet, then continued. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Heshti pak duke kaluar duart mbi palën e çarçafit, pastaj vijoi. (Brown, 2006)

(10) a. Designed by Da Vinci in 1495 as an outgrowth of his earliest anatomy and kinesiology studies, the internal mechanism of the robot knight possessed accurate joints and tendons, and was designed to sit up, wave its arms, and move its head via a flexible neck while opening and closing an anatomically correct jaw. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Mekanizmat e brendshëm të kalorësit, që Leonardoja i kishte vizatuar në vitin 1495, kur studionte së pari antominë dhe leviçjen, kishin një dhe muskuj të punuar me shumë kujdes: mund të ulej, të lëvizte krahët dhe kokën fals gafës së përhyshtëmise dhe të hapte e të mbjellte nofullat, që ishin të përposura nga pikçamija anatomeka. (Brown, 2006)

Going back to the issue of the status of non-finite constructions, let’s study the example above in the light of Miller’s theory in treating them as clauses. We can say that the non-finite construction in (9a) is followed by an object (his fingers) and an adverbial (across the seam of his bedsheet), expresses progressive aspect, and has an understood subject (He). These are sound reasons to treat non-finite constructions in English as clauses.

As far as the subject is concerned, since the subject of the dependent clause is the same as that of the main clause, it is left out to avoid repetition – although this is an unusual phenomenon for finite clauses of time in English, which never have missing subjects. However, Newson (2006) claims that non-finite clauses do not lack subjects at all, they simply do not have pronounced subjects. One argument in favor of this assumption is that one absent subject ought to be exactly the same as another absent subject and only if they are present could they possibly differ from each other. In (10a), the subject (the internal mechanism of the robot knight) is only mentioned in the main clause and is not pronounced in the preposed –ed non-finite clause and in the postposed –ing non-finite clause of time. In other words the main clause must begin with the subject that performs both the action in the main clause and that in the non-finite clause, otherwise the sentence would be ungrammatical:

(11) a. While telling Sophie about the Knights Templar, this key, in addition to having the Priory seal embossed on it, possessed a more subtle tie to the Priory of Sion.*
   b. While telling Sophie about the Knights Templar, Langdon had realized that this key, in addition to having the Priory seal embossed on it, possessed a more subtle tie to the Priory of Sion. (Brown, 2003)

Example (11a), which is grammatically incorrect, gives the subject of the main clause (this key), but it is not the doer of the action in the non-finite clause of time, which is why it is unclear who was telling Sophie about the Knights Templar - definitely not this key! In (11b), on the other hand, the subject (Langdon) placed at the beginning of the main clause expresses the person that performs the action denoted by the verb realized in the main clause and that denoted by the non-finite construction telling in the dependent clause.

Meanwhile, in the Albanian language, the subject can be present as in (3b), or it can be missing and be understood by the use of endings and other synthetic means. Thus, even though the subject in (9b) above is neither placed in the main clause nor in the dependent clause, it is understood to be Ai (He) due to the context outside this complex sentence and the use of the –i ending in the finite verbs heshti and vijoi.

The non-finite construction of the type duke bërë (përçjellore), which is the Albanian counterpart of while + -ing, is considered by the Albanian grammarians as “synonymous with the time clauses of simultaneity in the functional point of view” (Akademia e shkencave, 2002):

(12) a. Langdon had already made his decision several minutes ago, while standing alone at the window overlooking College Garden. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Tek ishte duke parë oborrin nga dritarja, Langdoni kishte do çaste që e kishte ndarë mendjen. (Brown, 2006)

The temporal relations in the non-finite construction in (12b) are strengthened by the use of the time conjunction tek, although non-finite constructions with temporal meaning in the Albanian language are typically not preceded by time
conjunctions – a fact which sometimes makes the identification of semantic relations even more difficult since the same structure can also express other syntactic functions and relations. For example, the non-finite forms *pa bërë* and *duke bërë* in the following sentences expresses semantic relations of manner, not time: Zefi hyri *pa u ndier*. Ecte *duke mbajtur* bukën nën sçetull (Çeliku, 2010).

Similarly, if the time conjunction is left out in such constructions in English, the temporal relations are somewhat diminished, as compared to the cases when the non-finite –*ing* form is preceded by *while*:

(13) a. **Attempting** to steal a case of cured ham from a cargo ship, he was caught by a pair of crewmen.
   b. **While attempting** to steal a case of cured ham from a cargo ship, he was caught by a pair of crewmen.
   (Brown, 2006)

In addition to the above-mentioned structures, simultaneity in English can be expressed by the non-finite construction *when + -ed*, which in the Albanian translation of the corpus corresponds to the use of the participle (*pjesore*):

(14) a. *When diagrammed* inside a circle, these thirty-two points of the compass perfectly resembled a traditional thirty-two petal rose bloom. (Brown, 2003)
   b. *Të vizatuara brenda një rethi*, ato trihjetë e dy drejtime të busullës apo të erërave, i ngjanin një trëndafili me trihjetë e dy petale. (Brown, 2006)

3.3 Non-finite constructions of posteriority

The third group of non-finite constructions used in English time clauses includes structures like: *after + -ing, since + -ing*, and in isolated cases, *upon + -ing, once + -ed*.

(15) a. **Since hosting** the coronation of William the Conqueror on Christmas Day in 1066, the dazzling sanctuary has witnessed an endless procession of royal ceremonies and affairs of state—from the canonization of Edward the Confessor, to the marriage of Prince Andrew and Sarah Ferguson, to the funerals of Henry V, Queen Elizabeth I, and Lady Diana. (Brown, 2003)
   b. *Qysh kur në të u bë kurorëzimi i Uiliam Pushtuesit ditën e Krishtlindjeve të vitit 1066*, abacia ka qenë dëshmitare e një serie të pafund ceremonish mbretërore dhe punësh të mëdha shtetërore, që nga kanonizimi i Eduard Rrëfyesit derë të martesa e princit Andrea me Sarah Fergusonin dhe te varrimi i Enrikut V, Elisabetës I dhe Lady Dianës. (Brown, 2006)

(16) a. Fache, **after finding** Saunière’s cryptic text on the floor, had uploaded photographs of the entire crime scene to the Cryptography Department in hopes someone there could tell him what the hell Saunière was trying to say. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Fashi, *mbasi kishte zbuluar shkrimin misterioz mbi dysheme*, kishte shkarkuar në kompjuterin e departamentit të kriptologjistë të gjithë fotografitë e skenës së krimit, me shpresë se mos ndokush mund të shpjegonte ç’kishte dashur të thoshte Sonieri. (Brown, 2006)

(17) a. Despite the pall of trepidation that settled over him **upon seeing** the words, Langdon told himself this was good news. (Brown, 2003)
   b. Sado që ishte dïcka shumë shqetësuese, Langdoni e gjiykonte një lajm të mirë. (Brown, 2006)

As we can see from the above examples, the non-finite time clause can come before (15a), in the middle (16a), or after (17a) the superordinate clause.

However, what I would like to focus on is the fact that non-finite constructions *after + -ing, and since + -ing* denote posteriority in the general sense, and are synonymous with the Albanian finite clauses of time with the conjunctions *pasim*, and *qysh kur*/*kë kur*, which is why the Albanian translation in each case uses a finite clause of time, instead of a

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1In addition to the term non-finite clause, some grammarians of modern English such as Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, etc. also use the terms adverbial –*ing* clause of time, and adverbial –*ed* clause of time.
non-finite one. Albanian non-finite constructions of posteriority një të bërë and me të bërë, on the other hand, denote actions immediately following each other and are closer in meaning to the English finite time clauses with the conjunctions as soon as, once. “The non-finite construction of immediate posteriority me të bërë can be followed by a noun or pronoun in the nominal case in the position of the subject: then we can treat it as a clause (Akademia e shkencave, 2002): 

(18) 
(a) Me të ardhur shoferi, do të nisemi për në Durrës.
(b) Një të dëgjuar që u trembën shqerrat në mezhdë, la delen e hodhi në qafë çorapen.

Çeliku (2010) claims that non-finite constructions of the type me të bërë, and një të bërë cannot be treated as clauses but as complex sentence elements. According to him, we can talk of non-finite constructions equivalent to the clause only in some cases: 

(19) 
(a) Një të vajtur në shtëpi, një të fjetur. (Two or more “gerund”-s) 
(b) Me të ardhur ai, ajo heshti. (“Gerund” followed by a nominal + finite form with a subject)

(20) 
(a) Sa vajti në shtëpi, fjeti.
(b) Sa erdhui ai, ajo heshti.

The non-finite constructions in (19), which are synonymous to the finite time clauses in (20), describe two actions that immediately succeed each other in time.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we can say that non-finite constructions in complex sentences with time clauses are a very interesting linguistic phenomenon that deserves special attention not only by the grammarians of English language but also by those of the Albanian language. The crucial point in the study of non-finite constructions is definitely their status i.e. are there predicative relations between the components of non-finite constructions so that we can consider them as subordinate clauses, or these constructions function as a phrase?

While English grammarians agree on treating them as clauses, their classification in the Albanian language still remains a problem. On the one hand, Albanian traditional grammar treats them as subordinate clauses, and (Akademia e Shkencave, 2002) considers non-finite constructions as “functionally synonymous” with subordinate clauses.

On the other hand, the Albanian grammarian Mehmet Çeliku claims that these constructions function as complex sentence elements (non-finite form + a nominal in the role of time adverbial). To support his point, he argues that the relationship between the non-finite form and the nominal is mainly a semantic one, not a grammatical one. “The non-finite form is not grammatically dependent on the nominal case, while semantically the nominal case expresses the doer of the action, the subject, and functions as a modifier of the non-finite form. Thus, there exist reversed relations compared to the Subject-Predicate construction, where the predicate, as we know, modifies the subject” (Çeliku, 2010). Another argument that he uses to support his point, is the fact that these non-finite constructions in Albanian are not presented by subordinating conjunctions, which distinguishes them from subordinate clauses.

However, taking into consideration the main characteristics of these constructions in Albanian, and the basic grammar rules of the Albanian language as an inflectional language which, unlike English, requires agreement between the subject, the verb and other sentence elements, non-finite constructions should be classified neither as sentence elements nor as clauses. The non-finite form expressing temporal relations should simply be treated as another syntactic construction adding up to the existing traditional forms such as the adverbial of time or the subordinate clause of time. Thus, the temporal context of the main clause can be completed by a non-finite construction, just as it can be completed by an adverbial of time, or a dependent clause of time. Classifying non-finite constructions as a special separate category opens a new venue for further research on their peculiarities regarding the semantic-functional relations and structural characteristics.

References


Social Representations of Russian Cuisine in Multinational University Students

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Abstract

The paper presents the results of a study on the social representations about the Russian national cuisine in the modern Russian and international students. A total of 331 respondents took part in the research, including 246 Russian students and 75 international students of various departments of a multinational university (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, PFUR). They completed a four-part interview on the Russian cuisine. The concept of “social representation” by S. Moscovici and the structural approach by J.-C. Abric were used for data analysis. There are many similarities in the structure of social representations of Russian cuisine in Russian and the international students. The main difference is that the structure of social representations of the international students does not include the elements related to the history and traditions of Russian cuisine. Information about the traditions of Russian cuisine can be included in the program of Russian language study for help of intercultural communication and adaptation of international students.

Keywords: Russian national cuisine, national cuisine, social representations, intercultural adaptation, intercultural communication, international students, multinational university.

1. Introduction

Adaptation to the national cuisine is the main part of the intercultural adaptation. Adaptation to the change in food is considered as one of the highlights of both physiological and psychosocial adaptation to a new environment, such as life in a metropolis or abroad (Khodorovich et al., 2008).

Representations about national cuisine often are part of the ethnic stereotypes about other nations. Therefore, these representations can play an important role in intercultural adaptation and communication in new country.

National cuisine is one of the essential components of the culture of any country, it bears the imprint of the peculiarities of geographical location, historical, socio-political, religious, economic development. For example, the formation of the national Russian cuisine is associated with the traditions of the peasant cuisine of olden Russia, and the influence of the Orthodox Church with a lot of fast days. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Russian cuisine was heavily influenced by European, especially French cuisine. Modern Russian cuisine took some culinary traditions and the dishes of the countries that were previously part of the Russian Empire and the Soviet Union (Emelyanova, 2013).

Russian cuisine is very diverse, as Russia is a very large and multicultural country. However, Russian cuisine has some typical dishes and features. For example, a soup as the most important attribute of a lunch; porridge of different grains, and especially of buckwheat; brown bread (rye bread); pancakes (“blini” in Russian) and pies (“pirogi” in Russian), etc (Emelyanova, 2013; Pokhlebkin, 2004). Many Russian proverbs are connected to the national cuisine, such as “Shchi and porridge are our staples” (“Shchi da kasha pishcha nasha” in Russian).

The central problem of our research is to identify how the Russian national cuisine is perceived by modern young people (Russian and international students of the multinational university). One of our aims is to identify and compare the social representations of the Russian national cuisine in the modern Russian and international students.

2. Methodology

We conducted a brief survey to identify the student preferences on the subject of Russian cuisine. The questionnaire includes four main questions asking respondents to name: (1) most typical dishes of Russian cuisine; (2) a few associations that come to mind at the mention of Russian cuisine; (3) a favorite dish of Russian cuisine; (4) a favorite
national cuisine.

The question regarding the associations of Russian cuisine is central to the study. The answers to it can us to reveal the structure of the social representations of Russian cuisine by using the concept of “social representation” by S. Moscovici and the structural approach by J.-C. Abric.

By S. Moscovici a social representation is a stock of values, ideas, metaphors, beliefs, and practices that are shared among the members of groups and communities. They are further referred to as “the system of values, ideas and practices with a twofold function; first, to establish an order which will enable individuals to orientate themselves in their material and social world and to master it; and secondly to enable communication to take place among the members of a community by providing them with a code for social exchange and a code for naming and classifying unambiguously the various aspects of their world and their individual and group history” (Moscovici, 1973; 1998).

There are four areas in the structure of social representations according to the structural approach by Jean-Claude Abric (Abric, 2001): the Core includes the most frequent and high rating associations; the Periphery One (the area of potential change) includes the most frequent, but lower rating associations; the Minority area includes the associations which have a small frequency but high rating; the Periphery Two (a real peripheral area) includes associations with low frequency and low rating. This approach is widely used by social psychologists to analyze the social representations (e.g., Bovina, 2007).

A total of 331 respondents took part in the research, including 246 Russian students (120 persons from Moscow and 126 – from 72 Russian cities) and 75 international PFUR students (from more than 20 countries, e.g., China, Mongolia, Armenia, Kazakhstan, Ecuador).

3. Results

Most typical dishes of Russian cuisine. The Russian students named 94 dishes, which they think typical for Russian cuisine. They listed from 1 to 18 answers to this question.

Russian students believe that the most typical dishes of Russian cuisine are the following:
1) “Blini” (pancakes) – 76%;
2) “Shchi” (cabbage soup) – 48%;
3) “Pelmeni” (meat dumplings) – 39%;
4) “Borsch” (cabbage and beetroot soup) – 37%;
5) “Okroshka” (a cold soup made from kvass) – 35%;
6) “Kasha” (porridge) – 34%;
7) “Pirogi” (pies) and “Pirozhki” (pasties) – 31%;
8) “Kartoshka” (potatoes) – 25%;
9) “Varenyky” (potato, cottage cheese or berry dumplings) – 15%;
10) “Ukha” (fish soup) – 14%.

This rating corresponds to the generally accepted characteristics of Russian cuisine. The respondents named soups four times among the ten most popular dishes. The famous Russian pancakes, porridge and cakes are also among the leaders. But it is interesting that caviar, vodka and bread were named by less than 10% of the respondents.

The international students believe that the most typical dishes of Russian cuisine are the following:
1) “Borsch” (cabbage and beetroot soup) – 64%;
2) “Blini” (pancakes) – 55%;
3) “Pelmeni” (meat dumplings) – 27%;
4) “Kasha” (porridge) – 21%;
5) “Shchi” (cabbage soup) – 20%;
6) “Kartoshka” (potatoes) – 20%;
7) “Okroshka” (a cold soup made from kvass) – 13%;
8) “Solyanka” (thick, piquant soup) – 11%.

This rating includes 4 different soups and pancakes. In general, we can say that the concepts of most typical Russian dishes are very similar both for the Russian and international students.

An interesting fact is that the first place in the rating given by the international students and the fourth place in the rating given by the Russian students is taken by “Borsch” which is one of the most famous dishes of Ukrainian cuisine. Borsch is really often cooked and eaten in Russia, so a lot of people list it among Russian dishes without any doubt. We can say that borsch is one of the most famous dishes of Slavic cuisine in general.
Favorite dishes of Russian cuisine. 86% of the Russian students named from 1 to 5 favorite dishes of Russian cuisine (tab. 1). 6 people say that they love all Russian dishes.

Table 1. Favorite Russian dishes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating of the Russian students</th>
<th>Rating of the international students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. “Blini” (pancakes) – 42%</td>
<td>1. “Blini” (pancakes) – 36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. None – 24%</td>
<td>2. “Borsch” (cabbage and beetroot soup) – 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. “Pelmeni” (meat dumplings) – 10%</td>
<td>3. None – 17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. “Borsch” (cabbage and beetroot soup) – 10%</td>
<td>4. “Pelmeni” (meat dumplings) – 8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. “Kartoshka” (potatoes) – 8%</td>
<td>5. “Kvas” (bread juice) – 7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. “Pirogi” (pies) and Pirozhki – 7%</td>
<td>6. “Olivje” (Russian salad) – 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. “Kasha” (porridge) – 6,5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. “Shchi” (cabbage soup) – 6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. “Varenyky” (potato, cottage cheese or berry dumplings) – 6%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. All – 2,5%</td>
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</table>

42% of the Russian students said that their favorite Russian dish is “blini” (thin pancakes). Many of them indicated favorite toppings for pancakes. This is caviar, sour cream (”smetana” in Russian), jam, etc. There is a match between the most popular and favorite dishes of Russian cuisine in this case.

83% of the international students named from 1 to 4 favorite Russian dishes. The favorite dish in most cases is pancakes as well as in Russian students. The second place goes to the borsch.

Social representations of Russian cuisine. The question regarding the associations of Russian cuisine is central to our study. The answers to this question can reveal the structure of the social representations of Russian cuisine.

Only 4 of the Russian students did not name any association with Russian cuisine. The other students listed from 1 to 9 associations. Half of the respondents named 2-3 associations. For analysis, we used associations which were named at least 5% of the respondents.

Table 2 shows that, first of all, the Russian respondents perceive Russian food as tasty. Then they called the favorite and most delicious Russian dishes such as blini and borsch. Russian food is also associated with the grandmother, stove and rustic home. This group of associations reflects the traditional nature of Russian cuisine, its origins and roots.

Table 2. Social representation structure in Russian students (n=242)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The frequency of association</th>
<th>The average rank of the association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>≤ 2.12</td>
<td>&gt; 2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core</td>
<td>Periphery One</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasty (51; 1,86)</td>
<td>Nourishing (37; 2,14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian stove / oven (39; 2,08)</td>
<td>Bread and salt / caraway (23; 2,36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blini (25; 2,12)</td>
<td>People in national dress / national dress (22; 2,5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borsch (23; 1,65)</td>
<td>Holiday / merriment (21; 2,24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother (21; 2,00)</td>
<td>Vodka (20; 2,3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant's house (19; 1,84)</td>
<td>Liberal-table (19; 2,26)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

≥ 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minority area</th>
<th>Periphery Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lot of different food (15; 1,93)</td>
<td>Healthy and well-balanced food (16; 2,75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelmeni (14; 2,1)</td>
<td>Samovar (16; 2,19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wooden tableware (13; 2,08)</td>
<td>Pickled vegetables (15; 2,73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatty and high-calorie foods (12; 2,08)</td>
<td>Countryside (13; 2,46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home cooking (12; 1,75)</td>
<td>Potatoes (11; 2,36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caviar (10; 2,1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

< 19

Note: In parentheses after each association the first is its frequency, and then the average rank.
The associations of the first peripheral area informatively complement the associations of the core area. The Russian students perceive Russian food not only as tasty, but also nourishing. The traditional nature of Russian food is associated with people in national dress and with traditional Russian Caraway (a big Russian pie) or Bread and salt. Bread and salt (or a round loaf with a small saltcellar) is at the same time a traditional attribute of Russian holidays, such as weddings. During the holidays there is a tradition in Russia to cover a large and liberal-table, which includes vodka among other dishes.

The minority area includes the associations reflecting the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of Russian food, such as, a lot of food, homemade food, rich and high-calorie food. These characteristics are important for people who keep to a diet and monitor the quantity and quality of food. This area also includes dumplings and caviar, which are traditional Russian dishes, but are the symbols of Russian cuisine for a smaller part of the sample compared to blini and borsch. Finally, in the area of minority there is wooden tableware, which was traditional in the Russian countryside, but is not currently used and is mostly decorative.

7 international students did not name any association with Russian cuisine. Other students listed from 1 to 9 associations. Half of the respondents named 2-3 associations.

Similar to the Russian students, the international students first of all perceived Russian food as tasty (tab. 3). The core area also includes the most popular Russian dishes among the international students such as pancakes and borsch.

Table 3. Social representation structure in international students (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The frequency of association</th>
<th>The average rank of the association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt; 1,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 7</td>
<td>Tasty (17; 1,41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Borsch (10; 1,70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blini (7; 1,57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Potato (7; 2,29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 7</td>
<td>Fish / fish food (6; 1,67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fat food (4; 1,75)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: In parentheses after each association the first is its frequency, and then the average rank.

Periphery One area includes the association of Russian food with a sense of satiety. This area also includes Russian vodka, as well as vegetables and potatoes, which are often a side dish or a snack to vodka.

The minority area contains such associations as fish and fat food. These associations were named by those students who try to keep to a healthy diet.

Overall, there are many similarities in the structure of the social representations of Russian cuisine in Russian and international students, which are presented in the table 4.

Table 4. Similarities in the structure of the social representations in Russian and international students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Periphery One</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tasty</td>
<td>Nourishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borsch</td>
<td>Vodka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blini</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority area</td>
<td>Periphery Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seafood / caviar</td>
<td>No Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatty food</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main difference is that the structure of social representations of the international students does not include the elements related to the history and traditions of Russian cuisine. In our opinion it is quite natural, since most international students are not fluent in Russian history in general, and especially in the history of Russian cuisine.

Favorite national cuisine. And finally, we present the popularity rating of national cuisines in the Russian and
international students.

14 Russian and only one international student said that they did not have a favorite cuisine. Italian (58% of the respondents) and Japanese (46% of the respondents) foods are the most popular among the Russian students. Russian cuisine takes only the third place (only 33% of the respondents named it).

The international students primarily named the national cuisine of their own country as their favorite (71% of the respondents). Italian (37% of the respondents) and Japanese (21% of the respondents) foods take the second and third place respectively. Russian food takes the fourth place, 15% of the respondents named it.

4. Conclusions

Summing up the results of the study, it can be concluded that:

1) The most popular symbol of Russian cuisine is pancakes (“blini” in Russian), one of the most popular and favorite dishes of Russian cuisine among both Russian and international students;

2) There are many similarities in the structure of social representations of Russian cuisine in Russian and the international students who live and study in Russia. Both Russian and international students view Russian food as tasty, nourishing, and name some favorite dishes as borsch and pancakes. The main difference is that the structure of social representations of the international students does not include the elements related to the history and traditions of Russian cuisine;

3) Russian students prefer primarily Italian and Japanese cuisine, while international students prefer the cuisine of their home country.

Information about Russian cuisine, its history and traditions, can be included in the program of Russian language study. This knowledge will help intercultural communication and adaptation of the international students.

5. Acknowledgement

This research was kindly supported from the Russian Foundation for the Humanities, project № 13-06-00673 (“Formation of cross-cultural interaction experience in students in the system of class and extracurricular activities”).

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Railway Connection between the Countries of Corridor VIII and the Opportunities of Trade Development

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Abstract

During the recent decades the world has been faced the globalization more than ever. Countries have taken the form of a huge global village. Need to trade have increased efforts to meet customer needs. Trade between countries has become necessary to improve the infrastructure. Railway is one of the most economical means of transportation. To promote economic development, it is anticipated the construction of Corridor VIII connecting the Adriatic Sea to the Black Sea. This corridor is extended from Bari and Brindizi to Burgas and Varnas. Albania will serve as a connection point between west and East Europe. In this paper we will discuss the positive effects of the construction of the railway Corridor VIII in the development of trade between Italy, Albania, Macedonia, Bulgaria, Greece and Turkey. It will also identify opportunities for the development of these countries and will be treated as a barrier that may inhibit economic development.

Keywords: Corridor 8, railway development, economic benefits, railway infrastructure, trade development

1. Introduction

Albania and some of the other Balkan countries have signed the Stabilization and Association Agreement with the EU. In this context, Albania must respect the pillar for democracy and human rights, the issue of security and an important pillar where this agreement is based which is the economic development and reconstruction. In the context of this column, it must be said that Albania has signed several important agreements with the EU and Balkan countries to market liberalization. In this way it will be possible to promote free trade among countries and ensure future prosperity.

In this work, we will not stop to analyze the agreements in terms of benefits for each of them. We shall stop only on issues related to favoritism that makes development of railway to the trade relations in the context of the signing of these agreements. Countries that are included in Corridor VIII railway are Albania, Macedonia, Bulgaria, Italy and Turkey, which will link voluntarily to this corridor. These countries have trade relations between them related by the Free trade agreement. Albania currently has the lowest rate of imports in the region. In recent years our country has signed different regional agreements for the liberalization of markets. Most important among them are: CEFTA and the free trade agreement with the EU. Based on these agreements Albania has the right to export goods without tariffs or low tariffs towards the EU. In the course of these agreements, Albania is an important partner in Eu exports to about 77% of products and 62% of imports.

1.1 Methods

This qualitative study employs the characteristics of railway system in Albania. The purpose is to find out how railway in Albania can provide an economic development. The case study was written based on literature, official data from Albanian railways, and round tables with experts of the field, economy, sociology, business etc. All these sources and discussions gave us information to prepare this paper. We must point out that the lack of the official information about the railway number of passengers and volume of good limited us on doing this. There is no data and statistics about railway transport volumes in EUROSTAT and INSTAT.

1.2 Research objectives

The hypothesis of this paper is:
How important is the development of railway network in Albania and which are the economic and social benefits?

The objectives of this paper are:

- Obtain an extended view of railways in Albania
- Identifying the importance of this transport
- Exploring the causes of the barriers and opportunities for development of railways in Albania

2. General overview

Request for use of rail for passengers as well as for businesses has been growing more and more in recent years. In this situation, when the transport is considered quite economical and advantageous for the population, the most difficult issue is the investment required in this area. Railway Transport category is mainly used for cargo and passenger transport (Di Pietrantonio & Pelkmans 2004: Deloitte 2011). Transport is considered very favorable and carries some social and economic value compared to other types of transport. Literature suggests that among the advantages of rail, we can highlight: urban distribution, producing fewer carbon, less accidents, removal of social barriers as a result of the urbanization of areas, increasing the value of real estate, the highest level security etc. (Deloitte 2011)

Albania’s geographical position is a strategic country in the Balkans. It serves as a bridge to the West for trade relations between the countries. Despite the geographical position and favorable conditions for investments it provides, Albania has a transport network that leaves much to be desired. Developed railway infrastructure will give another impact to the economic development in the country and will contribute positively in trade relations.

Railways directly influenced the development of cities and economies around the world. As one of the most powerful tools that capitalism used to his arrival, railways gave contribution in the development of various industries, in the early mines factories and plants and then transport of the passengers. In our country the railways were built relatively late compared to other countries of the world. In this chapter we will present a historical overview of the Albanian railway.

Globalization of the economy and liberalization of markets has resulted in an urgent need of transport of products from one place to another. In our days, the products are transported not only in close geographical locations but also internationally. Expansion of the European Union member states and other new or aspiring candidates was accompanied by the growth of markets and therefore, goods and passengers traveling from one place to another.

In the Central Europe rates of use of transport are the same excluding Bosnia and Herzegovina and Slovenia. On the other hand in Western Europe the use of trains is high. Increased investment in the rail network continuous improvements liberalization of transport markets encourages further the development of railway transport than road transport.

3. Physical condition of rails in Albania

Railways in the country dates back to 1947 when first was constructed the axis linking Durres Peqin the intention of using trains for passengers goods and trains on the same line. The train crossing was done in strict schedules and signs that made it possible to avoid accident because there was only one railway track crossing. By 1986 Albania had built all axes that currently have nowadays, including railway line Hani Hoti which serves to connecting Montenegro for the transport of goods. It was a completely industrial railway line, because at that time Albania was isolated and the citizens were not allowed to to move abroad. On the eastern side of the country, near the border with Macedonia, the railway reaches up to Red Stone, near Pogradec. In communist government projects envisaged the establishment of a railroad bridge connecting this side of the border was not foreseen.

The length of the railway is 447 kilometers, of which 425 are in use, 23 kilometers are outside function. Currently 370 miles should be replaced as they are enough amortized. The average speed of the passenger trains is about 40km / h while of the the goods is 25 km / h. Another problem that is added to the amortized lines and old trains is the fact that in total there are 160 illegal crossovers which prevent the normal flow of trains, and may cause delays and stops in traffic. Also these crossovers are the main source of accidents occurring in Albania with trains. Albanian Railways has currently only 57 locomotives, of which only 19 are in use. Wagons are 537, but less than half of them have the capacity to use, 231, while passenger wagons are 44.

Tirana-Durres line is one of the main railway lines in the country, with a length of 37 kilometers with a total of five stations. The speed of the trains is about 60km / h after the last reconstruction was performed. Line-Vore- Shkoder- Hani i Hotit - is the longer than 120 km with 10 stations. This line is the line completely industrial and trains have a speed of 25
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Rome-Italy

km / h. Durres, Elbasan line is 75 kilometers long, with 9 stations and trains with an average speed of 40 km / h. Another important line is Rrogozhinë-Vlora with a length of 85 km, with 9 stations and a speed of 40 km / h. Last but not least is the Elbasan, Pogradec with a length of 75 km, with 8 stations and a speed of 40 km / h. There are 5 branches in the railway network, branching to the port Durres, branching Budull-cement factory Fushe Kruja, branching Elbasan-cement factory, branching Ballesh Fier, Elbasan Kürüm branch.

Rail network standards would create more incentives for the development of trade, but also the free movement of the citizens. Port of Durres and Vlora and Shëngjin are a great opportunity for the development of trade with Italy. On the other hand, our country borders with Macedonia to the east and northeast. Pan-European Corridor VIII passes in Macedonia. The nearest railway lines in Macedonia, is Struga while in our country is the Red Stone. It is sufficient is just 2.8 miles to connect two respective railways in Pogradec Lin village and a sum of around 7 million euros. Albania's involvement in this Corridor would give a positive impact both on economic and social aspect in that country.

4. Analysis results

Rail corridors make it possible to development of the countries and regions they that link and pass through them. If refer to international corridor between Rotterdam and the Harbour of Costanca in Romania the literature suggests that it has brought interoperability to the area and generate better opportunities for competition. International undertakings generate multiple sources of the systems plan and might be a key investment target. Distribution of the goods in different states makes more efficient the infrastructure makes it more liveliness of the frrt rail market transparency. But in this regard be taken into consideration that the role of human resources is critical related to the value of knowledge for implementation of transport services with low cost (Simola & Szekely 2009).

Relationship between countries of Corridor 8 has numerous benefits not only for them but for the whole region in terms of economic and social development. Construction of Corridor VIII rail carries political and economic values for several different reasons. At first this corridor is part of the Pan European Corridors network aiming to connect all countries and stimulate economic development of the trade and pass through them. On the other hand is a good opportunity to establish a bridge between West and East to the fact that it aims to connect a European country such as Italy in the Adriatic Sea with a country like Bulgaria in the Black Sea and then to other countries of origin. Countries of east all come from totalitarian regimes and have developed a system of free trade only these last two decades. Their economic and trade level is lower in comparison with Italy which has a consolidated capitalist economy. In this context, economic value are added even those geopolitical when it is known Balkans and especially Albania is an integral part in the Eastern Europe.

Second, from an economic perspective the construction of a railway infrastructure with lower cost and reduce travel time adding comfort and safety conditions enables the development of free markets between the countries. Balkan region is in within the EU integration (Bulgaria is is a member with rights full and Greece) while Albania Macedonia and Turkey aspire to join the great European family.

Despite its convenient geographic position geographic favors made by the state to encourage foreign businesses to invest in Albania Albania's trade relations with the EU in 2012 left much to be desired. For countries with which the EU imports Albania still ranks last in the 60-with 0.1% or 2,376 million euros. In the list of the trade partners Albania is ranked 68th with 01% of the total, or 3,489 million euros.

4.1 Benefits of Corridor VIII

To speak of the benefits generated by the connection of the railway infrastructure means primarily economic improvement. Countries related with this Corridor would be given the opportunity to have facilities and a trade with all countries of the Europe. In a way, there will be a drop of virtual borders that will give push to the development of trade. The construction of the Corridor VIII aims to shorten the distance Durres-Sofia to 500 km will, was of give equal opportunity of developing countries and regions affected by this corridor.

Furthermore we will present a list of expectations this corridor:

Reducing the distance from Durrësi to the Bulgarian capital, Sofia. The distance to be provided by railway is expected to compete the distance that actually offers the road transport. The estimates provided a distance in about 5 hours. With the construction of this corridor Macedonia is expected to be only 200 kilometers away from the Black Sea and about 150 kilometers from Istanbul. If refer to the corridor 8 survey, we learn that the average speed of trains that will travel to the Corridor will be over the whole length equal to 100 km / h. In this way, the distance from Skopje to Istanbul
will be around 1 hour and a half. Based on distances from Macedonia we can calculate the distance from Albania. Less than two hours journey from Macedonia to Durres.

In the space of 8 rail corridor is expected to circulate 10 cargo trains per day. Under this project the weight will be kept by these trains is 400 trucks. In the space of 8 rail corridor is expected to circulate 10 cargo trains per day. Under this project the weight will be kept by these trains are 400 trucks.

Meanwhile, the railway line to be built from Kristollopogji in Greece that will link border crossing with Kapshtica and then with Lin, will provide good opportunities of to the development of transport of the passengers and goods. Not only Albania will have access of the rail link with Greece but also Macedonia. Thessaloniki as an important tourist destination of Greece would be more susceptible to Macedonian citizens.

The last benefit but not less important is the fact that the improvement of rail transport for goods and passengers especially will make possible large facilities for Macedonian citizens. They will thus have closer Coast and mountain destinations in Albania Bulgaria Greece and Turkey, but will give them the opportunity to explore and areas within Macedonia.

### Strong Points

| Economic stability | Markets are not fully developed |
| Good levels of inflation | Problems of land ownership, still unresolved |
| The terrain is suitable for the development of agriculture | Problems on the privatization of former state enterprises |
| There is a large presence of minerals | The migration rate is high |
| Has a very long coastline of the investment opportunities | Difficult conditions for bank credits |
| Road infrastructure has improved significantly throughout the country | High borrowing interest |
| The vast majority of the population owning at least one foreign language of the European Community |  |
| Vast majority of the population have high educational level |  |
| The labor force is cheap compared to other European countries |  |
| The government initiative "Albania 1 euro", which favors foreign investors |  |
| Good communication infrastructure and mobile telephone, Internet, etc |  |
| Good infrastructure and air traffic |  |
| Favorable industrial climate |  |
| The workforce at low cost |  |
| Water and forest sources |  |
| Trained and educated personnel |  |
| Favorable geographical position |  |
| Small distance to the Greek state |  |
| Albania's entry into NATO |  |

### Weak Points

<p>| |</p>
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### Possibilities

| Supportive government policies are quite favorable for foreign investment | Replace investments in Albania with Montenegro, Macedonia, Kosovo, etc. Konkurrence e pandershme |
| Registration procedures for foreign businesses are shortened | Air pollution from smog |
| The Albanian membership in NATO | Illegal construction |
| Signature of MSA (stabilization agreement and association) | The political crisis between majority and opposition forces |
| The visa liberalization with the EU | The global economic crisis |
| Albania is no longer considered a transition state | Illegal unfair competition |
| Numerous opportunities for improving industrial infrastructure and initiatives to attract potential industries | Competition from lower prices of indigenous or imported from the East |
| Opportunities to build industries based on natural resources that possess Albania (food industry, mining, construction, farming, fishing, etc.) | The lure of a potential competitor from the west |
| Can organize promotional activities for export merchandise | Monopolization of the industry which aims to invest |
| The European liberalization markets |  |
| Achieving set standards for global trade |  |

### Risks

|  |

**SWOT analyses for Albanian economy, trade and development**
5. Conclusions

One of the aims of this study was to bring attention to the value of the construction of Corridor VIII in establishing economic relations between the countries affected by this transport. It must be admitted that until now, this project has not been any major development, at least in the case of Albania. Conditions continue to remain the same, although Albania expects to gain candidate status conditional on European Union. The first prospective comparison with the other countries, Albania in this regard is left behind. Railway Law was approved late and did not comply with the regulations rules under EU directives. Railway situation remains so backward in terms of both cargo transportation and passenger in it. Some of the countries that are members of CEFTA in 2006, but relations have not been successful for the fact that road transport costs are higher than those of railway. On the other side, it is worth noting the fact that Albania has important trade partner Italy and Macedonia. The works on the outcome of this corridor will further develop these relations.

The development of this transport, which accounted to offer lower fees than other means, could promote the development of trade between countries in the region and beyond. Besides commercial exchanges between countries involved in Corridor VIII, Albania has geographic favor to serve as a key for transport from the Adriatic Sea to the Black Sea. Upon rational Albanian government and interest groups for starting work on a much faster time, will promote and develop trade significantly in these countries. In the future is thought to be succeeding railways transport, as considered with good reputation in environmental issues. There are many studies in literature as western and Eastern Europe to treat railroad as an attractive market for investment. The future of railway transport is considered golden. Railways transport is considered as an effective and ecological transport, factors these which can be used in their marketing. Yet are issues related to high technology, their accuracy, providing good service and affordable tariffs that serve as attractive in the development of railways. To attract new investors is necessary to assist new arrivals with bureaucracy. In this way the selection of new operators will provide potential competitors (Simola & Szekely 2009).

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After the Lost Decades: 
Rethinking Africa’s development from a Developmental State Perspective

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Abstract

This article rekindles the debate on the developmental state for the consolidation of gains in the growth of Africa’s economies in recent years. That Africa is unlikely to meet any of the ‘poverty-busting goals’ nor the United Nations benchmarks on education, health, and women’s empowerment is the rationale behind the argument for the developmental state. This article argues that African does not need some delusional epistemological or ontological revolution of paradigms but Africa needs a new cause that suggests practical and pragmatic approaches to both economics and politics. Highlighting the Chinese experience, the article demonstrates that a declared commitment to poverty eradication is not an end in itself, rather, it must be a means to an end, coupled with the promotion and sustenance of development and a far reaching transformation of society's economic, social, political and cultural structure which is typical of a developmental state.

Keywords: developmental state, poverty alleviation, development, Africa

1. Introduction

There can never be a more noble call than a call for Africa to strategically position itself in the 21st century given the vagaries of globalization and there can never be a more opportune time than now. The fact that Africa is unlikely to meet any of the ‘poverty-busting goals’ - nor the benchmarks on education, health, and women's empowerment is the rationale behind such a call. What African needs is not a rhetoric of development but the practice of development. Africa does not need some delusional epistemological or ontological revolution of paradigms perse but Africa needs a new cause that suggests practical and pragmatic approaches to both economics and politics. It is against this background that this paper argues that what the post-colonial African state need today as it seeks to position itself in the twenty first Century is a ‘Developmental State’. While this paper does not necessarily advocate a look east policy, it, however, acknowledges the stunning developmental progress realized by the East in the past decades and asserts that Africa can draw lessons from the East.

While endemic, pervasive and persistent poverty continues to disfigure the face of the African continent and compromise the dignity of the African people, the eastern Countries particularly the Asian Tigers and China have seen decades of tremendous economic growth that have catapulted their masses from the doldrums of poverty. Most African economies have been shrinking and regressing despite a declared commitment to do the opposite and decades of preoccupation with development.

A state is developmental when it is has established as its principle of legitimacy its ability not only to promote but also sustain development and a far reaching transformation of society's economic, social, political and cultural structure (Mkandawire: 2001). China has set an example internationally for reducing poverty, raising hundreds of millions of people out of poverty in 20 years. China’s celebrated success in rural poverty alleviation was premised on a powerful vision of a developmental State. After carrying out a well thought out, comprehensive and coherent poverty alleviation strategy the number of persons living in poverty in China was reduced from 250 million at the start of its reform process in 1978, to 80 million by the end of 1993 and to 29.27 million in 2001.

While China has achieved such a feat, the efficient and effective alignment, integration, and coordination of policy actions has been and continues to be one of the major challenges that has frustrated post-colonial African governments in their quest to eradicate poverty and provide basic services to all its people as well as progressively advance the quality of life and opportunities for all Africans.

The ‘policy crisis’, therefore, over the last decade has been manifest in a range of Acts, policies, strategies, development planning instruments, integration mechanisms and structures which did not necessarily yield meaningful results on the ground. Ideally a plethora of these policies coupled with their noble objectives would have been foundation
stones in the fight against poverty, if they were premised on efficiency, effectiveness, equitability and sustainability of governmental resource allocation all of which epitomize a developmental state. Therefore, this paper posits that an African policy on development is not supposed to and cannot be a ruling political party slogan rather it must be a meaningful and purposeful statement of intent with a coherent, consistent and commensurate set of well thought out and achievable objectives and instruments deliberately seeking to ameliorate a properly diagnosed policy problem. A policy document does not emanate from a ‘black box’ and neither does the policy process have to be sacrificed on the altar of political expediency as is often the case with many policies in Africa.

Against this background, it is important to note that a developmental policy for Africa must be predicated on a vision to transform the economy and society at large and while emphasizing on deployment of resources for development which is not the case with many African States. The Chinese government has carried out a full-scale fight against poverty in an organized and planned manner over the past two decades, having amassed human, material and financial strength and mobilized all sectors of society for this purpose. While increasing investment to improve production and living conditions in poverty-stricken areas, China has also paid more attention to ecological and environmental protection and for sustainable development. This was all attributable to broad participation in subsequent reform driven economic growth and a well funded national poverty reduction program.

It is against this background that this paper observes that in order to fight poverty in Africa the vitality of the need for a comprehensive all encompassing and multifaceted national strategy powered by a sublime vision of a typical developmental state can never be overemphasized otherwise the fight against poverty will not only fizzle into thin air but will be reduced to moribund efforts and ‘paper tigers’. Currently, what poverty is to Africa seems to be like what spots are to a leopard. Endemic, pervasive and persistent poverty continues to disfigure the face of the continent and compromise the dignity of the African people. Africa is a continent not only of great potential but of great promise and hope as well due to the abundance of human and natural resources. However the socio-economic and political conditions on the ground portray post colonial Africa as a continent of despair, war, disease, poverty and hunger.

Therefore, a triumph over poverty in and for Africa is not necessarily a symbol of goodwill nor is it an end in itself rather it is a fundamental and monumental act of justice as well as the protection of fundamental and inalienable human rights, including the right to self esteem, the right to a decent life and dignity. Thus for Africa, the dignity of its people cannot be said to be fully restored and it will always be a negation of fundamental human rights as long as the African masses remain trapped in the vicious circle of poverty. It is against the backdrop of such observations that this paper reflects on the Chinese model to glean for opportunities for replication in the African context.

That Africa remains not only poor but unevenly developed not only racially but geographically cannot be contested. This is manifest in the dichotomy between the rural and the urban as well as the ‘blacks’ and the ‘whites’. While development ideally is supposed to be organized and not disorganized African development has always been dominated by capitalism instead of zeroing in on development of the underdeveloped. The majority of the rural populace not only in Africa but in third world countries in general and African countries in particular remain trapped in the vicious cycle of poverty if not abject poverty which in some cases is demeaning, dehumanizing, and grueling. It is against this background that most post colonial governments in Africa came up with a plethora of policies and strategies to address the poverty pandemic. However, there appears to be lack of policy clarity, coherence, and alignment prompting some authors to assert that Africa still needs a strategy to combat poverty as if nothing has been done as yet.

2. The African State and development in perspective

Without being ‘pessimistic in diagnosis’ and ‘optimistic in prescription’ one can still argue that the African state has failed to develop at least for the past decades despite its declared commitment and preoccupation with development. The goal of development has been an elusive one for Africa and the prospects of meeting the millennium development goals get dim as the year 2015 draws near.

The United Nations called for an emergency summit in the light of the inevitable failure by the continent to meet the millennium development goals one of which is poverty alleviation. The World Bank (2006:x) observes that reducing poverty in Africa might appear to be an “exclusive, even quixotic goal”, by all measures poverty in Africa as a whole has increased and deepened and the prospect of meeting the millennium development goals seem to be receding. In fact the number of poor in sub Saharan Africa is expected to rise from 314 million in 2001 to 366 million in 2015. In the definition of poverty it is important to note that theory distinguishes between “relative poverty” and “absolute poverty”. While relative poverty suggests that People are judged to be poor if they are poor in comparison to those around them-implying that the meaning of poverty changes from time to time and place to place (Mkandawire 1999:30), absolute poverty implies an
definition of a developmental state potray it as a State with a leadership genuinely committed to the accomplishment of developmental goals. Thus, a developmental state does not sacrifice policies, programs and projects on the alter of political expediency rather it is informed and inspired by patriotism and nationalism and powered by a sublime vision of developmental goals. Therefore, a developmental state may be simply defined as a state whose primary goal and commitment is the accomplishment of developmental goals, while development is defined as a far reaching transformation of society’s economic, social and political structure, of the dominant organization of production, distribution and consumption (Baran 1957:3).

While the developmental orientation of a state is dynamic and not static, such a state envisions development as its ultimate goal. Mkandawire (2001:2) succinctly posits that the definition of a developmental state however runs the “risk of being tautological since it is deductively drawn from the performance of an economy”. A state is also said to be developmental when “it establishes as its principle of legitimacy its ability to promote sustained development, understanding by development the steady high rates of economic growth and structural change in the productive system, both domestically and its relationship to the international economy” (Catsells, 1992:55). Such a state has a “developing economy and equates economic success to state strength while measuring the latter by the sustained development, understanding by development the steady high rates of economic growth and structural change in the productive system, both domestically and its relationship to the international economy” (Catsells, 1992:55). Such a state has a “developing economy and equates economic success to state strength while measuring the latter by the presumed outcomes of its policies” (Mkandawire 2001:2).

Moreover, a developmental State implies a State whose vision, leadership and capacity result in a positive transformation of a society within a ‘condensed’ period of time Johnson (1982), Deyo (1987) and Evans (1995).These definitions of a developmental state potray it as a State with a leadership genuinely committed to the accomplishment of developmental goals. Thus, a developmental state does not sacrifice policies, programs and projects on the alter of political expediency rather it is informed and inspired by patriotism and nationalism and powered by a sublime vision of championing development. Implied in the notion of a developmental state, therefore, is prioritizing or putting national...
development first and personal aggrandizement last.

Therefore, a developmental state for Africa, goes beyond a ‘parasitical state’, ‘kloptocratic state’, ‘overextended state’, ‘crony state’, ‘overextended state’, ‘patrimonial state’, ‘predatory state’ (Mkandawire 2001:1) and neither is it supposed to be a dependent state. It must be one that has established as its principle of legitimacy its ability not only to promote but also sustain development and a far reaching transformation of society’s economic, social, political and cultural structure. Such a State will put national development first and political expediency last.

4. The Chinese experience: lessons for Africa

After the death of Mao Tse Tung, Deng Xiaoping came up with what he termed ‘four modernizations’ introduced first by Zhou Enlai in 1975. These were the modernization of science, technology, agriculture and defence. These modernizations coupled with the ‘help-the-poor program’ were the foundation stones upon which the unprecedented development which China enjoyed was built. After the implementation of the aid-the-poor program, 200 million people had food and clothing problems solved while the impoverishment rate tumbled from 30.7% close to three percent. The white paper on rural China’s poverty reduction program observed that by the end of 2000, 95.5 percent of administrative villages had electricity in poverty stricken areas while 89 percent were accessible by road, 69 percent had postal services, 67.7% could be reached by telephone and at least 77.25 million had drinking water.


At the beginning of the first stage the number of the poverty stricken population according to the poverty standard designated by the Chinese government was 250 million, thus constituting 30.7 percent of the rural population. This phase had a three pronged approach which saw reforms which led to a rise in the price of agricultural products (source of income for the rural poor), transformation of the land management system from a collective one to the house contract responsibility system, thereby, raising productivity, and creation of employment in non-agricultural sectors (thus generating income for the rural poor.)

All of these measures in the first phase saw grain output per capita increase by 14 percent, cotton by 73, 9%, meat by 87%, net income by over 3005, oil bearing crops by 174, 6%, the rural poor with food and clothes problems decreased from 250 million to 125 million thus 14.8% of the rural poor while on average the number of the rural poor shrunk annually by 17.86 million (white paper on rural China’s poverty reduction program).

The second phase saw uneven development between poverty stricken areas and coastal advanced areas due to geographical, economic, social historical and natural causes such that disparities became marked. It was against this background that the Chinese government sought to reinforce poverty relief through the reformation of ‘traditional relief type approach’ and the advancement of developmental orientation to the poverty relief policy. This comprehensive transformation program saw allocation of special funds, formulation of special policies and the setting up of help the poor work units.

Due to this historical period of transformation, only 8.75 down from 14.8% was the proportion of the poverty stricken rural poor, thus the number of the poverty-stricken dropped from 125 million to 80 million with an annual decrease of 6.4 million, while the net income per peasant in ‘poverty stricken counties’ leaped from 206 yuan in 1986 to 483, 7 yuan in 1993 according to the white paper on rural China’s poverty reduction program.

A seven year ‘priority poverty alleviation program’ was promulgated and implemented under the third phase which sought to tackle key problems of poverty relief from 1994 to the year 2000. The white paper on rural China’s poverty reduction program dubbed it ‘the first action program for development-oriented poverty relief with clear and definite objectives, targets, measures and a time limit’. This program emphasized concentration on human, material and financial resources and mobilization of all walks of life for the solution to clothing and food problems for the rural needy. For three consecutive years from 1997-1999, food and clothing needs for eighty million a year were met while the basic objectives of the seven year priority poverty alleviation program had been met.

China’s celebrated success in rural poverty alleviation was premised on a powerful vision of a developmental State. Ideally, a developmental state has a vision to transform the economy and society at large and emphasizes on deployment of resources for development which is not the case with many African States.

The World Bank, (2001: 8) asserts that China is widely recognized for its achievements in reducing absolute poverty since the adoption of broad program of rural economic reforms beginning in 1978, Rural poverty declined from roughly 260 million poor people to 42 million in 1998. This was all attributable to broad participation in subsequent reform
driven economic growth and a well funded national poverty reduction program.

The state council’s leading group for poverty reduction was established in 1986 to provide coherence to many poverty reduction initiatives and expedite economic development. Coordinating more than US$2 billion in annual funding to poverty reduction, the funding was organized under China’s 8-7 poverty reduction plan established by the LGPP in 1994 to overcome poverty (absolute) in nationally designated 592 poor counties.

The Chinese experience demonstrates the need for African Governments to do less harm to the poor by reducing the explicit and implicit taxes they face by setting the procurement price closer to the market price. This has got the trickle down effects of boosting disposable income to the power while increasing productivity from the same. Moreover, the pattern of growth for the Chinese carries a lesson that since so much of poverty in developing countries is found in rural areas agricultural growth plays a pivotal role in poverty reduction. Since the majority of Africans derive their livelihoods from agriculture the promotion of agricultural growth in particular and rural development in general is vital for pro-poor growth. The concept of pro-poor development areas and identification of poverty pockets carries (China’s poor area development programs) a crucial lesson for Africa. Macroeconomic stability (avoidance of inflationary shocks) is crucial for poverty reduction from the Chinese experience. Macroeconomic instability coupled with inflationary shocks erodes the value of real incomes that accrue to the poor.

China’s poverty reduction program reflects a comprehensive, planned, responsive flexible program deliberately targeting the poor. It demonstrates a high level of political will and commitment to pro-poor growth; these are critical lessons for Africa in its quest to alleviate poverty. The establishment of poverty counties/pockets was a manifestation of a deliberate policy action meant to deal with a properly diagnosed policy problem.

The geographic and sectoral pattern and poverty pockets specific and favourable policies from the Chinese experience reflect critical lessons to be learnt in the pursuit of pro-poor growth since many programs are pursued in the name of pro-poor growth yet in reality they are meant to gain cheap political mileage.

However, there are wrong lessons to be learnt from the Chinese experience since aggregate economic growth was emanating more from sources that accrue more benefit to the rich and less to the poor. Moreover, the Chinese experience has been labeled ‘the even progress against poverty’. It is therefore important for Africa to pursue pro-poor growth that does not necessarily ‘equalize poverty’ nor widen the income gap between the rich and the poor as reflected by the Chinese experience to some extent.

Half the reduction occurred in the first half of the 1980s, and the decline was not continuous thereafter, with the late 1980s and late 1990s periods saw some set-backs for China’s poor. This trend of inequality in poverty alleviation is a lesson to be learnt that economic growth at national level must translate to pro-poor growth, otherwise it will only serve to widen the gap between the rich and the poor.

China’s experience also suggests that poverty reduction occurs only when it is a high priority for decision makers and when they focus on institutional, technical, economic and social changes as pre-requisites. Thus political will and commitment, leadership and political support coupled with institutional, technical, administrative and political capacity for efficient and effective policy implementation tend to be pivotal in successful poverty alleviation.

5. Conclusion

China’s poverty reduction program reflects a comprehensive, planned, responsive flexible program deliberately targeting the poor. It demonstrates a high level of political will and commitment to pro-poor growth; these are critical lessons for Africa in its quest to alleviate poverty. The establishment of poverty counties/pockets was a manifestation of a deliberate policy action meant to deal with a properly diagnosed policy problem.

The geographic and sectoral pattern and poverty pockets specific and favourable policies from the Chinese experience reflect critical lessons to be learnt in the pursuit of pro-poor growth since many programs are pursued in the name of pro-poor growth yet in reality they are meant to gain cheap political mileage. Moreover, the Chinese experience demonstrates that the trickle-down theory in development is a myth in Africa propagated by mainstream western economists. Therefore, Africa needs pro-poor policies deliberately and directly targeting the poor. One can learn from the Chinese experience that poor area development programs based on the identification of poverty pockets is crucial for pro-poor growth.

Since the majority of the poor are located in rural areas in many developing countries Africa must learn from the Chinese that the promotion of agricultural growth in particular and rural development in general is critical for pro-poor growth. The Chinese experience also demonstrates that a declared commitment to poverty eradication is not an end in itself rather it must be a means to an end coupled with the promotion and sustenance of development and a far reaching
transformation of society’s economic, social, political and cultural structure which is typical of a developmental state.

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The Contractual Freedom as an Essential Condition for the Existence of the Contract in a Global Economy

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Abstract

“The idea of the contract as a sheer and complete subjective will which appears without individual barriers and without restrictions that derive from objective, factual, or legal conditions, is an abstract idea that cannot be reflected in the reality we live.” The contractual freedom makes possible the maximal development of the economic relations based on free and voluntary cooperation between the interested parties. "The private economic initiative is free, but cannot happen if it harms the common interest or damages the safety, freedom or human dignity". In conformity with the article 660 of the Civil Code "The parties can freely define the content of the Contract by respecting the restrictions provided by the current legislation". For the contract to be valid according to the article 663 of the Civil Code there must exist the reciprocal agreement between the contractual parties which is an essential condition for its existence. The content of the autonomy of the will is not limited only in the ability of the parties to make contractual agreement but more specifically to allow the parties to decide about the rules of signing of the contract on their own. But, is it possible to discuss the contractual freedom more practically only because two or more parties, without any influence from outside sources, agree to improve some of their interests? Nowadays, the private autonomy is more limited than in the past. The development of a modern globalised economy, has had an influence upon the traditional idea of the contract which is understood as a "converge of purpose between the parties". The economy has generated the massive standardization of the goods and services in the marketplace by defining the depersonalizing process of the individual contracts, by affecting the text of the contract, where in most of the cases there is no individual negotiation among the parties but the contract is one-sidedly prepared by the company and the consumers accept it as it is, without being able to affect by their will in its content.

Keywords: Contract, the will of the parties, contractual freedom, legal condition, globalization

1. The Importance of the Contractual Freedom

The contractual freedom has a special importance for the contractual right and it is its basic principle (Dauti,2010, p.59). This kind of freedom is considered indispensable for making the contracts in general, which appear in the economic activity for the circulations of goods and the offering of services. Concretely, the contractual freedom means that the legal system offers the opportunity to the contractual parties, by evaluating their interests under the circumstances specified by law, to define the legal regime of the contracts to be signed as well as the kind of rights and obligations that will derive from this for the parties. Typical for the right of obligations is the method of regulating the property relations in conformity with the will of the contractual parties that participate in such relations. The Albanian Civil Legislation specifies the rules by which the relations are regulated, only in those cases when the contractual parties have not decided on something else.

The contractual freedom offers the opportunity for the participants to regulate the relations of obligations among them by their free will. More concretely, the contractual freedom means that every subject of the right can freely decide to sign the specified contract or not, to freely choose the person with whom will make the contract, to freely define the content of the contract, its form and the way of its signing as well as to freely decide about the change and annulment of the contract. Seen in the historic perspective, the 20-th century is the century in which the contract triumphs (Zweigert K. & Kötiz H., 3-rd edition, 1998). The contractual freedom guarantees that the contract signed by the parties has the power of law above them. It is important to emphasize that the contractual freedom and the autonomy of the will of the contractual parties are among the main and the most significant principles of the right of obligations. Each contract has to do with the reasonable support of those interests that are expected to be achieved by the parties and there is no reason to define by law punishing conditions when none of the parties has demanded something like this on purpose. (From

In general, the contractual freedom implies the authorization of the subjects of right that in support of their will, can create contractual relations, perform legal actions by which to define the way, form as well as their content. However, contractual parties are free to decide with whom to make the particular contract, which is going to be the object and its content. Despite this fact, the contractual freedom must be in conformity with the legal regulations that have imperative, constitutional nature and are suitable to the morality of a society. The contractual freedom is a consequence of the operation of law of the market. The independence of the commercial companies is expressed in the fact that these companies have the opportunity to freely trade their products. These products can be launched, sold or bought in the market, the services of different kind can be provided as well as a series of legal activities can be performed which are related to the circulation of the goods and the provision of the services. All these actions of the commercial companies are executed by means of the contract, which is the most common legal instrument by which the rights and obligations for the parties are created, but as usually this happens only when they were expressed for these rights and obligations in their free will. The contract, being an instrument of this kind, makes possible not only the inner circulation but also the international one. (Dauti Nerxhivane, Some important issues related to the contractual freedom, Justitia, no.1, legal scientific periodical of the Faculty of Law, 2008)

2. The Contractual Freedom According to the Albanian Legislation

The contract is the most important means that harmonizes the economical, commercial, and legal interests among the parties. All the material and cultural demands of the society as well as those of the individuals are intended to be met due to the contract. The Albanian Civil Code regulates the most important contracts as well as those that are commonly faced in real life or in the civil circulation such as the selling, the renting, the contract of enterprise, the insurance contracts etcetera. Our contractual right does not recognise the principle "numerous ciazus" the so-called the principle of the permitted contracts. According to this principle, the parties in the civil circulation have the right to make only those contracts that are provided by law. In addition, our practice and legal doctrine about the contractual right goes further on because it allows the signing of contracts and agreements not provided by law as long as their content is not in contradiction with the provisions of the general part of the Civil Code and with those of the obligations and the general principles of the right (Seminii, 2010, p.11).

The contractual freedom is a relatively new principle even for the Albanian right. The definition of the contract is provided in the article 659 of the Albanian Civil Code, which declares that: "The contract is the legal act by which one or some parties establish, change, or annul a legal relation". (The Civil Code of the Republic of Albania, approved by law No. 7850 date 29.07.1994, changed by law No. 8536, date 18.10.1999 and No. 878, date 3.5.2001). As far as the contract of sale is concerned, the Albanian Civil code provides in the article 660 that "The parties in the contract define freely its content, within the limits specified by the legislation in power." In the same way, related to this issue the article 676 of the Civil Code, ratifies that "The contract is considered signed when both parties have given their mutual consent by agreeing for each essential condition stated in the contract". The demonstration of the will can be clearly expressed or approved in silence."

For the existence of the contract it is necessary the existence of the mutual consent between the parties. Such an important principle is provided in the first paragraph of the article 663 of the Albanian Civil Code which states one of the essential conditions for the signing of the contract based on the mutual consent of the parties involved. The Albanian author Mariana Semini treats the autonomy of the will in her book "The right of the obligations and contracts", in three main directions.

The first philosophical direction is based on the Russo's point of view, according to whom the man is free from nature and as such must be free to establish every legal relation. The supporters of this point of view accept the so-called social contract. The Albanian Civil Code has accepted and ratified for the first time in its provisions the theory of the free contractual will along with its three directions. The article 660 of the Albanian Civil Code in power which is mentioned above expresses the right essence of the theory of the contractual will and the first direction, its philosophical direction.

The second direction of this theory is the moral direction, according to which every contract must meet the condition: "where there's a contract, there's justice". The contract must be in the interest of both parties, because both parties have to build a kind of relation to one another in order to achieve something that would be beneficial for them. As far as this is concerned the article 422 of the Albanian Civil Code states that: "the creditor and debtor must behave
correctly to one another, must be impartial and based on common sense”.

The third direction related to the autonomy of the contractual will is the economic direction, according to which the autonomy of the will must be in conformity with the achievement of the economic interest, being these material or not material of the contractual parties. In other words, these interests must be accompanied with the increase of the quantity of the production, the raise of price, the reduction of the cost, release from the competition etc. The economic direction is ratified in the article 421 of the Albanian Civil Code which states the economic nature of the duty. This provision sanctions that “The object of obligation must have an economic evaluation and must answer the material or not material interests of the creditor”.

The display of the contractual will is truly free when these three directions are realized at the same time. If parties had not been free in their display of the will to sign the contract, then it would not be valid. The approval taken by use of force, under the conditions of deceit, threat, mental disorder or in the great economic need has no legal consequences, because the contract is not valid (Articles 94-99 of the Civil Code). As far as the effect of the the contract for the parties is force, under the conditions of deceipt, threat, mental disorder or in the great economic need has no legal consequences, because the contract is not valid (Articles 94-99 of the Civil Code). As far as the effect of the the contract for the parties is concerned, the article 690 of the Albanian Civil Code provides that “The contract signed legally has the power of law towards the parties. It may be annulled or changed by the mutual consent of the parties or due to the causes provided by law.”

3. The Restriction of the Contractual Right

The contractual freedom for the subjects of right is not unlimited. It is restricted by the viewpoint of the opportunity of choice by the contractual parties, the viewpoint of the content of the contract, by means of the contracts of adhesion, in the formular contracts by means of form of contracts, as well as in cases when for the signing of the contract is required the giving of the consent (Dauti Nerxhivani, Some Important Issues Related to the Contractual Freedom, Justitia, No.1 legal scientific periodical of the faculty of law, 2008). The adhesion contracts are contracts in which the conditions, the rights and obligations that derive from the contract of one of the parties, are defined. Essential standard conditions are present in their content. It is thought that these kind of contracts restrict the free will of the parties, due to the fact that they do nothing else but sign the contract. However, it cannot be said that there is any barrier in the expression of the free will because such contracts are provided for civil, legal relations that have a usual, continuous periodical nature such as the relations with the clients in the contract of sale or the contract of renting real estates, state owned property, etc. In relations of this kind, which more or less appear in the same way in the civil circulation, it is entirely in the hands of the party that will sign the contract to evaluate it and decide if it is worthy for them or not. In case they want to exclude any of the conditions, the proposal can be made to the other party that had compiled the contract and in case of discrepancy or disapproval of the proposal, to decide not to sign the contract and demand to sign another contract with another party.

Such standard contracts are provided in the legislation of France, Germany, Netherlands and of other countries but recently have appeared even in the civil area in Albania (Michel Fromont “ The Greatest Foreign Systems of Right”, Papirus, Tirana, 2009). The Albanian Civil Code provides the “model” contracts compiled by a powerful party in the market that has dominant position in a certain area in the articles 686 and 687 of the Civil Code. These articles use expressions such as “the contracts signed by modules or forms” which in fact are adhesion contracts. Concretely, the Albanian Civil Code in the article 686 provides that “The general conditions of the contract, prepared by one of the contractual parties, have effect upon the other party, when in the case of the termination of the contract, this one has approved or must have approved the conditions, by paying a usual attention upon them. The general conditions are rendered invalid when they cause disproportional loss or damage of the interests of the contractual parties, especially when they change essentially from the principles of equality and impartiality expressed in the provisions that regulate contractual relations in this Code. Legal effects are not caused by those conditions that are in favour of the party that has prepared them beforehand, restrictions of responsibility, opportunity to retract from the contract, to suspend its execution, or to appoint deadlines towards the other party, or restrictions to retract from the contractual freedom, in relation to another party, the conditions of arbitration or avoidance from the competence of the judiciary organs, despite the case when they are separately approved in handwriting form from the other party”.

The contracts signed in modules or form, are usually prepared by economical and financial companies that have a large number of clients. These contracts are compiled in a very explicit and racional way, which is a result of their long experience, and due to this the transaction happens faster. It is important to mention that this forms predict the numerous situations that can be caused from the establishment of the legal relations with their clients in general (Hetemi,1996, p.214). Their purpose is to accelerate and simplify the circulation of goods. The form contract are executed in our contemporary economy in the inner circulation as well as in the international one (Dauti, 2000, p.28). In
the civil circulation of the Albanian market the standard or form contracts are mainly used by the trade companies that have almost monopolistic position in the market or that are enough powerful to dictate their conditions to the consumer party. For instance, the contracts of supply of electricity KESH (The Albanian Corporate of Energetics), the contracts of telephone companies such as ALBTELECOM, or the contracts that offer cellular coverage services such as AMC, VODAFON, etc.

The Albanian Civil Code of 1929 provides that, if the duty of the party compared to the benefit that it gets due to the contract or compared to the benefit that the other party gets, is out of proportion in a way that it is assumed that the consent has not been completely free, the judge may annul the contract based on the request of the party concerned (The Civil Code of the year 1929, article 1029). The actual code has not provided this case but only the situation when one of the parties has been under a great need for money, something that has persuaded it to approve the juridical act. This situation is described in the article 99 which explicitly states that “The juridical action can be announced invalid in the case it offers the opportunity that one party, due to the great need of money, can undertake duties that compared to the benefits of the other party are negligible”.

4. The Interpretation of the Contract Related in Respect to the Contractual Freedom

The Civil Code of 1994 has regulated for the first time the institution for the interpretation of the contract in the articles (681 - 689). During the interpretation of the contract, special attention must be paid to understand the real and common purpose of the parties without being restricted only to the meaning of the words and in order to do that, the parties attitude before and after the contract must be analysed. The principle that must lead the parties in the interpretation of the contract is good will (article 682). The conditions of the contract must be interpreted one based on another by giving each of them the meaning that derives from the negotiation. In case of inclusions or doubts, the special conditions would be interpreted based on the effect that it would have on the parties and not in the meaning that would have no juridical consequence (article 683). If for one of the conditions more than one interpretation is possible than, it will be interpreted according to the normal practice in the country in which the contract is made.

If one of the parties is an enterprise, the conditions which have more than one meaning will be interpreted according to the normal procedures of the country where the headquarters of the company are located (article 684). In cases of standard contracts compiled by one of the parties, the general conditions provided by law will apply to the other party as well, only if at the moment the contract is signed, it is understood or must have been understood without any serious efforts. The expression without any serious effort must be understood not only in the fact that normal attention and concentration was paid in the study of the conditions of the contract, but also a normal level of knowledge of the conditions and the content of the contract are taken for granted. However, for this category of contracts, the conditions which are beneficial to whom has prepared the contract that result in the damage to the other party have no effect, despite cases in which this is explicitly expressed in the contract. Therefore, in the article 687 of the Albanian Civil Code is provided that “In the terminated contracts by signing modules or forms whose intention is to discipline in a uniform way the defined contractual relations, the extra conditions in these modules and forms will have priority towards the initial conditions of the modules and forms mentioned above, as long as there is a discrepancy among them even though they have not been annulled.” In each case, the conditions included in the general conditions of the contract or in the modules and forms, that were stated by one of the parties, when doubts arise, are interpreted in favour of the other party (article 688). In case of doubt, the contract will be interpreted in favour of the party that has contracted the duty and always against the one that has contracted the right. When after the use of all the rules mentioned above, the content of the contract is still unclear then it will be interpreted in a way that takes into consideration the interests of both parties.

5. Conclusions

The rapid development of science and technology has brought as a result the establishment of a great number of form contracts that include clauses with which the responsibility of the involved parties is restricted or excluded. The imposition of the use of form contracts from big companies causes the misuse of the freedom of the signing of contracts. The typical clauses in form contracts by which the misinterpretation of the freedom of signing contracts occur are mainly the clauses about price, freedom for responsibility, exclusion from guarantee, clauses about the risk, safety, damage award etcetera. In the business world the participants in the market often break the basic rules of well-behaviour by transpassing the limits of their economic activity, with the intention of gaining a more privileged position in the market and of attracting as many clients as possible. Consequently, based on what is emphasized above, we jump to the conclusion
that the forms presented in the market economy which are not in conformity with the principle of the contractual freedom must be considered as acts of unfair competition. This is the intention why when it comes to the defence of the interests of the consumers despite legal and juridical protection, an indispensable role must play even the interest groups.

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An Evaluation About Person - Organization Fit, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intention: A Case of Health Institution

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Abstract
Person-Organization fit is defined as consonance between aims, beliefs and values of employee and aims, beliefs and values of the organization. Because of the fact that person-organization fit has an important effect on business behaviors of the employee, the aim of this study is to examine the relationship of person-organization fit with job satisfaction and turnover intention. 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 statistically significant relationship between person-organization fit, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Also, in the context of this study, it is found that the employees having person-organization fit have more job satisfaction and less turnover intention.

Keywords: Person-Organization Fit, Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention.

1. Introduction
In today’s business enterprises, in which human capital is an important component, in providing the organizational achievement, the employees play key roles. From this point of view, in the process of organizational socialization, compliance of the value, attitudes, and behaviors of employees with the aims and targets of organization has importance in providing this achievement. Person-organization fit, one of the psycho-sociological dynamics taking place in organization, is evaluated as complying of the values of employees with the values of organization. Person-organization fit, in terms of its behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, engenders positive results in terms of both employees and organization. Person-organization fit, in terms of its attitudinal and behavioral implications, engenders positive outcomes from the point of both employees and organization. While person-organization fit is effective, getting the values of employees approached to the organizational culture that will be able to define as the values of organization, on the attitudes to the job such as job behavior, job satisfaction, and turnover intention, it can also be used as an instrument in reaching of organization its targets. In this context, determining the level of person-organization fit, job satisfaction, turnover intention of those working in a health institution being active in the province Konya, the relationship between these concepts will be scrutinized.

2. Conceptual Framework
2.1 Person-Organization Fit
The concept of person-organization fit is generally evaluated in organizational literature as a concept most commonly
considered under the heading of person-environment fit (Kristof et al., 2005). Person-organization fit is a concept beginning with the access of individual to organization and considering how the value, attitudes, and behaviors of individual are evaluated among the members of organization, in other words, socialization process of individual (Chatman, 1991: 459). In the most general, person-organization fit is defined as the congruence of individual values, and organizational values (Chatman, 1989: 339). Person-organization fit is defined as the agreeableness in the conditions, when among the humans and organizations, at least one part provides a need of the other part or they share similar radical qualities, or both phenomena exist together (Kristof, 1996: 4). That the individuals work in a job where their own values, attitudes, and behaviors with the values, attitudes, and behaviors of organization meets the career expectations of individuals and provides job satisfaction (Carless, 2005: 411).

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a multiple concept complex and changing from person to person. Therefore, job satisfaction is mostly behavioral and internal condition (Mullins, 2005: 700). Job satisfaction is defined in many ways in organizational literature, but the most general definition on job satisfaction is in the way that it is a satisfying and positive emotional state resulted from the assessment of person his/her job or job experience (Locke, 1976: 1300). Meglino and Ravlin (1998), in the study they carried out, they considered the job satisfaction as a result of the values of employees. From this point of view, three is a positive directional relationship between job satisfaction and person-organization fit (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Similarly, Yahyagil (2005) supports the conclusion that the relationship between person-organization fit and job satisfaction is positive. In addition, Wheeler and Sablynski (2007: 203) suggested that person-organization fit will reduce turnover intention while it increases job satisfaction.

2.3 Turnover Intention

The concept of turnover intention is expressed as “the conscious and deliberate decision and intention about leaving the organization” (Bartlett, 1999: 70). According to Jaros (1997), turnover intention reflects the continuous and also general cognitive arousal toward leaving the organization This arousal states whether or not the employee thinks of leaving, searching for the opportunity of another employment, and the way of turnover intention (Ceylan ve Bayram, 2006: 106). Turnover intension, in case that the employees are unsatisfied from the work conditions, is defined as the subversive and active actions they showed (Çarıkçı and Çelikkol, 2009: 160). Considering that the cost of managerial mistakes conducted to keep well –trained and effective employees in hand, Mobley (1977) pioneered to the research trying to understand why humans leave their jobs (Çakar and Ceylan, 2005: 57). Mobley (1977) says that dissatisfaction caused the thought of leaving. Turnover intension stands out as one of the withdrawal behaviors of employees and is defined as “being alienated of the individual from the organization and his/her coming to the search for a new job”(Martin, 1979: 316; Mobley, 1982: 112; Moore, 2000: 145; Marsh and Mannari, 1977: 58).

3. Methodology Of Study

In this section of the study, information will be given about the aim, hypotheses, method, and findings of study realized by using survey method, In addition, whether the findings obtained from the study are significant or not will be evaluated and whether the hypotheses are confirmed or not will be tested.

3.1 Method of Study and Sample

In forming the data set of this study, survey method was utilized and the study was carried out on the employees of a health institute being active in the province Konya (Since the institute did not permit its name to be published, it took place in the study as the expression of health institute). The data of study were collected by means of a standard questionnaire prepared by taking into consideration likert scale via the interviews conducted face to face with the employees. The items in the scale were put in order as “1 = I definitely disagree with” and “5 = I definitely agree with”. In determining the patients to be included in the sample, Kolayda sampling method used in the similar studies was prepared (Cui et al., 2003; Zhou, 2004). Since convenience sampling provided the possibility to reach in the number of data rapidly, it is 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 Study

The aim of study is to identify the level of person-organization fit, the level of job satisfaction, and the levels of turnover intentions of those working in an institute being in active in health sector in the province Konya and to study the relationships between the level of person-organization fit, the level of job satisfaction, and the levels of turnover intentions. In the direction of this aim, the hypotheses developed in the scope of study are put in order as follows:

Hypothesis 1: “There is as statistically significant relationship between the level of person-organization fit and job satisfaction of health staff”.

Hypothesis 2: “There is as statistically significant relationship between the level of person-organization fit and turnover intension of health staff”.

3.3 The Scales Used in the Study

In the study, in order to identify the level of person-organization fir of the employees of health institutes “Scale of Person-Organization Fit”, developed by Netemeyer vd. (1997) and Kristof vd. (2005) used in their studies; in order to identify the levels of job satisfaction, “Scale of Job Satisfaction”, developed by Spector (1994); and in order to the levels of turnover intension, “Scale of Turnover Intension”, developed by Mobley (1977), were used.

4. The Findings Of The Study

4.1 Specifications of the Sample

65.9% of those participating in the study is male, and 34.1% female. The mean age of participants is 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 on Person-Organization Fit

In order to identify the levels of person-organization fit of those participating in the study, the items taking place in Table 1 were asked as 5-point likert scale. In the scale, 1 is in the meaning of disagreeing at all, 5 in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. The Level of Person-Organization Fit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person-Organization Fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can work in this institutes without giving up my principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that there is a strong congruence between my institute and my personal values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this institute, there are a lot of people we exhibit similar behavior related to the work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can say that I share common feelings with my workmates on many points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institute where I work meets my all expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of institutes to satisfy my needs better than our present institute is less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have ability and skill that my institute demanded from me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My education and personal skills about job are compatible with the needs of my institute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am very different from the profile of typical employee, but I believe that my principles creating difference added richness to the workplace.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have a different personality, and I believe that, with this feature of mine, I consider that I fill a gap in the institute.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have a different personality, and I believe that, with this feature of mine, I consider that I fill a gap in the institute.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** (i) n=123, (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, $\chi^2=484.275; p<0.001$; the results are statistically significant.

When the table is examined and the answers of participants about each dimension are predominantly assessed, it can be generally said that the individuals in the health institute fit to the organization.

4.3 Findings about Job Satisfaction

In order to identify the levels of job satisfaction 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 in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I consider that I acquired a fair wage in response to work I conducted</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My raising chance in may job is low.</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My manager is quite sufficient about the work he performed</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not satisfied with the rights and subsidies provided for me</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I perform my task, I am appreciated</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rules in the workplace makes it difficult for me to do work thoroughly</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the people I work together</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel that the work I do is very meaningless.</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my communication in workplace is well</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The increase of wages in the workplace is less</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance to upgrade justly is given to that doing his/her task well</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My manager is not equitable to me</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rights and subsidies given in my work place is better than many of the other business enterprises</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I am not satisfied with the work I perform</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The efforts I spent for performing a good work are rarely impeded by formal works</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since the people I work together is insufficient, I have to work much more on my work.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the works I performed in the workplace</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The targets of this workplace does not seem to be clear and certain</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I am not appreciated when I consider the wage given to me</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people in this work place upgrade as fast as the people in the other work places</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My manager is very little interested in the feelings of employees</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rights and subsidies we had in the workplace is equitable</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The employees of this workplace are very little being rewarded</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a lot of things to be done in the work place</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my workmate</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel mostly feel that I do not know what happen in the work place.</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am pride of the work I perform</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied the increases in may wage rate.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are rights and subsidies we did not receive even if we have to receive them</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my manager.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have to engage in a number of correspondence and similar things.</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my efforts are necessarily rewarded.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I have enough of chance to upgrade</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are a number of confliction and quarrel</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my job.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.15</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 0.706. 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.
The tasks I have to do is sufficiently clear and net.  
Total* | 2.87 | 1.25 |

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 is examined, it can be said that the levels of individuals working in the health institutes are in the medium level, in other words, that the employees are satisfied with their works.

### 4.4 The Findings about Turnover Intention

In order to identify the levels of job satisfaction 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 in the meaning of agreeing in very high level. The results are as follows:

#### Table 3. Turnover Intention of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Turnover Intention</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I generally like work here.</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can say that I do not like my work, when I take into consideration everything.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not satisfied with the job I perform.</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not think of continuing to work in this business enterprise.</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) $n=124$, (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, $\chi^2=354.923; p<0.001$; the results are statistically significant.  
When the results taking place in the table, it can be said that the levels of turnover intention of employees are low. This situation can be interpreted that the employees do not want to leave their jobs.

### 4.5 Hypotheses

The assessment on the hypotheses developed in the scope of study will be done in this section. In the scope of the first hypothesis of study, the relationship between the level of person-organization fit and job satisfaction of health staff will be assessed, while in the scope of the second hypothesis, the relationship between the levels of person-organization fit and turnover intention of health staff. For assessing this situation, the employees participating in the study in similar way to the method applied by Dean and Snell (1996) are divided into two groups according to median rule as the level of person organization fit, low; and the level of person organization fit, high. The effect of the level of person-organization on job satisfaction is like seen in Table 4.

#### Table 4. The Effect of the Level of Person-Organization Fit of Employees on Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Person-Organization Fit</th>
<th>Mann Whitney U Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low ($n=74$)</td>
<td>High ($n=52$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>108.17</td>
<td>27.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) $n=128$; (ii) I is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree”

When Table 4 is examined, the levels of job satisfaction of the employees, whose person-organization fit is high, are also high and the results are statistically significant. It is seen that Hypothesis, developed as “there is a statistically significant
relationship between the level of person-organization fit of health staff and job satisfaction of health staff. In the scope of second hypothesis developed, the effect of the level of person-organization fit of the employees on turnover intention is seen on Table 5.

Table 5. The Effect of the Level of Person-Organization Fit of the Employees on Turnover Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turnover Intension</th>
<th>Person-Organization Fit</th>
<th>Mann Whitney U Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low (n=73)</td>
<td>High (n=52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean.</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>9.55</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (i) n=125; (ii) I is in the meaning of “I definitely disagree” and 5, in the meaning of “I definitely agree”

When Table 5 is examined, the levels of job satisfaction of the employees, whose person-organization fit is low, are high and the results are statistically significant. It is seen that Hypothesis, developed as “there is a statistically significant relationship between the level of person-organization fit of health staff and job satisfaction of health staff” Hypothesis 2 is supported.

5. Conclusion

One of the studies of fir taking an important place in the literature of organizational behavior is also congruence with organization. In this frame, in this study, the relationships between person-organization fit, job satisfaction and turnover intention were examined. According to the results of study, it was determined that the levels of person-organization fit and levels of job satisfaction of the employees of heath institute were low. In addition, in the scope of study, it was reached the conclusion that the job satisfactions of employees will increase, as their levels of person-organization fit. This conclusion is in quality supporting the studies carried out in the literature (Martin, 1979; Mobley, 1982; Moore, 2000; Marsh and Mannari, 1977, Wheeler and Sabljynski, 2007). In this context, but the further studies, due to the fact that there are some limitations in health sector, are carried out in the different sectors or that they are carried out on the same sector in the different sample sizes can be suggested from the point of generalizability of study.

References


*Cronbach's alpha values of the variables examined after added points related to variables. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale is 0.841. The Cronbach's alpha values show that the scale is highly reliability and possible to use total score by related to item scores of variables.


Transformation of Property Right as a Fundamental Right into Joint Property

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Abstract

Property rights are one of individual's fundamental rights that are considered absolute. In modern civilized world understanding of exhaustion of property rights is reduced to maximum protection of the third parties that is being accomplished by the encumbrances of property rights. One of them is joint property, the content of which constitutes a set of legal and factual conditions, and as a result the absolutism of property rights becomes relative. The state in the name of society promotes additional conditions for real division of joint property, because it considers it as an exhaustion of property rights that affects municipalities in which the item for division is situated, as well as that affects interests of the population. The research is conducted with an aim to determine the legitimacy and proportionality of the restrictive normative acts in relation to property rights as fundamental rights. Descriptive and analytical methods are used in the research. As a result of this research, the author came to a conclusion that additional preconditions set by the state and the municipalities for the exhaustion of property rights in joint property are disproportionate for the property rights as fundamental rights. It is manifested, first, as a restriction for the exhaustion of individual’s property rights in relation to equivalent individuals- in common items for other co-owners (horizontal vector), and second, as a restriction for the exhaustion of property rights in common items for all co-owners in relation to the third parties (vertical vector). The existing normative regulation is not satisfactory, and that is supported by the court proceedings in the Constitutional Court of the Republic of Latvia. Procedural arrangements for the division of joint property and their legal consequences do not affect the rights of other individuals; therefore, such amendments of normative acts are necessary that would separate the real division of joint property as a legal act that would not be bound to and made dependant on those possibilities of the real estate use that are created as a result of division.

1. Introduction

In this Article the author focuses on the causes of transformation and ways of manifestation of property rights as individual-specific fundamental rights into joint property. The theory of the Latvian civil law construes the Joint Property as the power restriction of the owner (i.e.co-owner) of property rather than that of the property (Sinaiskis 1996). The question is significant, because it is the “property right that ensures every person’s freedom in the proprietary legal field and the possibility to acquire and use financial benefits, and dispose of them.” (Grūtups & Kalniņš 2002). The problem under research will always be topical. The development of society, in the broader sense, and the development of the law institute, in the narrower sense, take place continuously and in a democratic country it is important to let it happen in its full range, according to the fundamental rights inherent to person.

This research was conducted in order to ascertain the legitimacy of the laws restricting real distribution of joint property and their proportionality in relation to the property right as a fundamental right.

The author uses the well-established research methods: descriptive and analytical. The content of laws is revealed by the descriptive method, using grammatical and structural methods of interpretation of laws. The analytical method was used for the analysis and evaluation of legal scientific opinions in conjunction with the content the law. The research is based on national and foreign literature, legislation and case law.

2. Research

Property rights have long and deep roots in human rights and fundamental freedoms. The right to property is a constitutional right and an essential element of basic human rights.

In the doctrine of private law, the property rights are viewed as natural rights, as a true public liberty. In this sense, private property should be viewed as a form of expression of personal freedom. Without the institute of property rights and the laws that protect it, one cannot speak about human rights. Private property allows for freedom of economic and
social relations, respecting general principles of human rights, such as equality and justice, and freedom of transactions.

The interpretation of national legislation is based on the principles defined in Section 17 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: "Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property." On the European level, Section 1 of the First Protocol of the European Convention on Human Rights contains such a provision: "Every natural or legal person is entitled to the property. No one shall be deprived of his possessions except in the public interest and subject to the conditions provided for by law and by the general principles of international law." Another elaborate defence mechanism is set by the norm contained in the first paragraph of Section 17 of the European Union Charter of Fundamental Rights: "Everyone has the right to own, use, dispose of and bequeath his or her lawfully acquired possessions. No one may be deprived of his or her possessions, except in the public interest and in the cases and under the conditions provided for by law, subject to fair compensation being paid in good time for their loss. The use of property may be regulated by law insofar as is necessary for the general interest."

Latvian legislation is linked to the international laws listed above. The Constitution of the Republic of Latvia contains specific property protective regulations: "Everyone has the right to property. Property may not be used against the interests of society. Property rights may be restricted only in accordance with the law. A forced alienation of property for the needs of society is permissible only in exceptional cases on the basis of an individual law, for fair compensation." To summarize, one would agree to the conclusions of the Constitutional Court of the Republic of Latvia that by nature and by its generality the property right is one of the most fundamental human rights, which can be and may be restricted only in exceptional circumstances and only on the bases of law. However, property rights should not be regarded as absolutely inviolable, because they not only serve the interests of the owner, but they should also serve the public interest.

Restrictions in the public interest are also reflected in joint property. Joint property is a complex type of property, where the co-owners are mutually subject to concerted expression of will, according to the Section 1068 of the Civil Law, as it is allowed to handle the object of a joint property, on the whole, as well as its individual parts, only with the consent of the co-owners, and also there are conceptual limitations to certain transactions for the public good. Section 1074 of the Civil Law provides that “None of the joint owners may be forced to remain in jointly owned property, provided that it is not provided otherwise in the provisions under which the joint ownership is established; on the contrary, each joint owner may at any time require a division.” Real distribution of joint property is a private law act. However, the current legislative framework has established procedures, where the co-owners are not absolutely free when addressing the real distribution of joint property, and they, in their agreed expression of will, should follow the restrictions for the good of society. What is the necessity and proportionality of the restrictions set out?

It is an uncontested allegation that any restriction of property rights must be as careful as possible. In this regard, one has to agree the opinion that “by interpretation of the rights set out in Section 105 of the Constitution and in Section 1 of Protocol 1 of the Convention, it can be concluded that the state has the right to restrict an individual's right to ownership, provided that:

1. the restriction of property rights is the law;
2. the ownership restriction serves to protect the rights of other persons or the general interests;
3. if the burden put on the person, whose rights are affected, is commensurate (proportional) to the benefit to society as a whole and there are no other solutions that would be more appropriate and less interfering with the individual right.” (Anspak 2012)

The prerequisite for a real distribution of real estate is, certainly, the agreement of co-owners, but the real distribution can be carried out only on condition that it complies with the requirements of the local land use (spatial) plan, including with those on a minimum of newly created parcels. The spatial planning can be recognized as one of the tools

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1 General Declaration of Human Rights. Available at: http://www.humanrights.lv/doc/vispaar/vispcd.htm (looked up on 31.05.2013.)
3 European Union Charter of Fundamental Rights. Available at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/lv/treaties/dat/32007X1214/htm/C2007303LV.01000101.htm (looked up on 01.06.2013.)
4 15.02.1922 Law "Constitution of the Republic of Latvia" ("LV", 43, 01.07.1993.) [came to force 07.11.1922.] with amendments
7 ibid
for aligning the individual and the community interests. It is a way to observe the public interest in the use of the real estate. Section 2 of the Law “Spatial Development Planning Law” of 13.10.2011 states: “The purpose of this Law is to attain such spatial development planning that would raise the environmental quality, ensure sustainable, effective and rational utilisation of territories and other resources, as well as purposeful and balanced development of economy.” With the aim to accumulate and manage information about all immovable properties on the national territory, their handling and owners, the National Real Estate Cadastre Law entered into force in Latvia on 1 January 2006. This Law introduced a requirement leaving a significant impact in the future on the distribution of real property, that is, in accordance with Section 9 of the Law “A purpose of use of real estate and the land area under the jurisdiction of the purpose of use shall be determined (...)”. It should be concluded that the real estate and consequently the adherent to it land area that do not have a determined purpose of use cannot exist anymore.

The right to determine the purpose of use of the real estate and the land area under the jurisdiction of the purpose of use is allocated to local governments. The local governments have a discretion in determining the content of spatial planning, which also implies the right to determine the generally applied requirements for real distribution of real estate. This follows from the second paragraph of Point 1 of Section 14 of the Law “On Local Governments” of 19.05.1994, according to which the local authorities are required to “develop local area development programmes and spatial plans, to ensure the implementation of the spatial development programme and administrative supervision of the spatial plan.” In practice, this leads to the situation that each of the nine cities of the republic significance and the hundred and ten counties has different requirements for the real distribution of real estate as to the minimum allotted parcels.

Chronologically the next law concerning the distribution of the real property is the “Land Survey Law” of 14.09.2006. With the objective of promoting land readjustment, this Law introduced the requirements not provided by the Civil Law. One cannot find there any mutual continuity and supplementing of legal norms, because the property originally is a private institute, which would require some references and links to the Civil Law. In accordance with paragraph one of Point 3 of Section 8 of the Law, the land use planning project is to be developed also for the division of land parcels, also those included in a joint property. In turn, paragraph one of Section 15, according to which “Joint holders may not request a division of a land parcel present in a joint property into actual shares, if the land parcels to be separated do not conform to the territory utilisation and building provisions specified by the local government, as well as to the other cases specified in the regulatory enactments” does not conform with the sense of the provisions included in Sections 1074 and 1075 of the Civil Law.

Taking a systemic look at the laws and regulations relevant to the real distribution of joint property, it should be concluded that the possibility of real distribution of joint property is determined by:
1. the intended use of the real estate created in the result of the distribution;
2. the territorial belonging of the real estate created in the result of the distribution.

There are no sufficient legal grounds that the law relating to spatial planning is automatically extended to all transactions in the division of real estate. Above all, the distribution of joint property means the termination of the joint property. It is an implementation of a property right, the reason of which cannot be automatically considered construction, transformation or any other activity that affects the environment, where public interest should be observed. The legal act, in the result of which several properties with a single owner are formed from a single property with multiple owners does not in itself affect the lawful interests of other persons and do not affect the public needs. But the burdens on the procedure of real distribution or even its complete impossibility due to the above reasons (impossibility to ensure the minimum area) substantially limit the subject’s property right and, obviously, reduces the value of the real estate, because co-ownership is a burden which, compared to the unitary property, is harder to sell, more difficult to manage and so on. State policy in the field of real distribution of joint property should be reviewed, because the first Article of the First Protocol of the European Convention on Human Rights “provides for the state responsibility for interference with the property rights, if such intervention results in lower economic value of a property”.

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11 Data available at: http://www.varam.gov.lv/lat/darbības_veidi/pasv/kont/?doc=13066 (looked up on 11.06.2013.)
3. Conclusions

In the result of the research the author came to the following conclusions:

1. In the case of joint property the property right of co-owners is subject to severe restrictions;
2. There are no single criteria in the country for newly formed real estate;
3. The public interest in the procedure of real distribution of joint property takes precedence over the rights of individuals, which leads to crucial narrowing of content of property right;
4. The state should be responsible for interference with property right, where because of the governmental restrictions the economic value of property is reduced.

In the rights of co-owners to actually divide a jointly owned real estate, the governmental intervention is inadequate for the legitimate aim pursued. The real estate division does not in itself undermine the public interest and does not violate the rights of other persons.

4. Recommendations

For co-owners to ensure reasonable and adequate implementation of their property rights, it is necessary:

1. Not to refer automatically the rules relating to land use planning to the real distribution of joint property;
2. When interpreting laws, the real distribution of joint property is to be considered as a way of termination of co-ownership and the purpose of use of the established property (parcel) should be decided after their establishment;
3. To determine single requirements for the real distribution of joint property in the whole territory of Latvia.

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Intellectual Property Management and Strategy in Business

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Abstract

Nowadays the way companies are managed has changed. The business strategy of the enterprises is formulated paying attention not only to the inner environment where it operates, but also to the outer one. Enterprises are using Intellectual Property (IP) as a principal activity for their economic growth. IP management is an important set of concepts, methods and processes created to fit IP of the firm with the defined objectives and business strategy. In the absence of a management system of IP, firms do not fully take advantage of their intellectual capital. Where is IP positioned in a company? Where is it placed among other business assets? This paper aims on presenting a theoretical overview on Intellectual Property management of the firm, focusing mainly on objectives, strategies, their implementation and impact on performance.

Keywords: Intellectual property, SMEs, management, strategy

1. Introduction

The need for IP management is a consequence of globalisation and the growth of the knowledge economy. Large-scale enterprises with worldwide operations have already adapted to changed realities and now small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) feel the need to capitalize on their IP assets. We describe the meaning of IP management for SMEs, identifying the specific service needs of such companies.

Large businesses have grasped the need for IP management, but SMEs are only beginning to do so. However, we still know very little about the importance companies place on IP as a component of business and corporate strategy.

2. IP in the company amongst business assets

Intellectual property as defined by WIPO (World Intellectual Property Organization) refers to creations of the mind: inventions, literary and artistic works, and symbols, names, images, and designs used in commerce.

IP is a very important element of a business. Patents, trademarks, trade secrets etc are assets that increase the value of a business. These assets are a special category of business assets which are named intangibles.

But where do the intangible assets stand in an enterprise? How is it related to IP? The intangible assets and IP can be understood only in the enterprise context, where they are created, used and produce the most of their value.

Every enterprise small or large is compounded by three basic elements: (Smith & Parr, 2005)

1. monetary assets
2. tangible assets
3. intangible assets

Enterprising = monetary assets + tangible assets + intangible assets
3. The source of intellectual property

Davis and Harrison (2001) defined intellectual capital (IC) as “knowledge that can be converted to value”. They also determined that IC has two main components: human capital (ideas we have in our heads) and intellectual assets (ideas that have been codified in some manner). Within intellectual assets, there is a subset of ideas that can be legally protected, called intellectual property (IP). (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1. The source of intellectual property

Intellectual Property are intellectual assets which are protected by law. The aim of management is “to produce” intellectual property.

4. The Strategic objectives of intellectual property

Companies with patent portfolios, create them with the expectations about the way they will be used in short term periods and in future technology based opportunities. The strategic objectives of intellectual property are: protection from competition, complementary protection, disputes avoidance, bases for alliances.

- protection from competition; holding a patent gives the firm a monopolistic position in the market.
- complementary protection; some patents develop not aiming the direct commercialization. The complementary patent groups formed around a key patent cope with a higher protection degree.
- disputes avoidance; firms have the ability to commercialize their technologies for a long term without the threat of abuses with her IP rights.
- bases for alliances; finding business partners is easier when the firm has a competitive patent portfolio.

5. Intellectual property strategy

The IP strategy reinforces the overall business strategy and will change as the business moves through different stages of its development. Also it differs from one market to another, because the business will be at different stages of its lifecycle. Management of the company should be involved in drawing up the IP strategy and understands how it will support the business objectives. The key people to be engaged are the chief executive, finance director, tax advisor, general counsel, chief technology officer and chief operating officer.

The IP strategy should be reviewed whenever the business strategy changes and at least once a year.

5.1 Components of an IP strategy

- protection; registration of IP at the responsible institutions
- enforcement; the specific country procedures to be followed
- management of relationship and behaviour; an employment contract should contain express confidentiality clauses and provide for the ownership of IP developed by employees. Similar provisions should be in all contracts with business partners wether private or state. (SME Helpdesk, 2012)

A good IP management strategy enhances the ability of the business to raise funding by managing the issues that affect valuations of IP assets.
5.2 Basic IP strategies

There are a range of IP strategies for a company. Nevertheless, four basic IP strategies can act as a foundation for later refinements. (These correspond broadly to the levels of expectation described in the pyramid of IP management):

- **A path to minimize risk**: A key activity for those pursuing this strategy is portfolio building and cross-licensing to avoid litigation.
- **A path to cost reduction**: Virtually all companies follow a cost reduction strategy. They look to maintain the effectiveness of their IP protection program while cutting the cost of doing so.
- **A path to value**: The companies seek to profit from direct use of the IP itself, rather than only through the products and services protected by the IP.
- **A path to strategic value**: The focus is on utilizing IP to change the nature or direction of competition, relying on strategic patenting, refocusing R&D and rethinking partnerships with customers, suppliers, or any other relevant parties. (Sullivan & Harrison, 2008)

Selecting an appropriate IP strategy a company must take into account all the elements that may impact on its commercialization and balance the pros and cons before a decision is made as to what strategy to adopt to maximize the benefits for the company from IP assets. As well as considering the strengths and weaknesses of each strategy the company’s own driving forces to expand and the target country’s condition for the commercialization and timing for such an expansion, should particularly pay attention to the IP competence of the company. (Yang, 2008)

5.3 The value hierarchy of IP management

Davis and Harrison in their work (2001) have structured the **Value Hierarchy**, which is a pyramid with five levels. Each level represents a different expectation that the company has about the contribution that its IP function should be making to the corporate goals. Like building blocks, each higher level relies on the foundation of the lower levels and contributes to the shareholder value.

**Figure 2. The value hierarchy of IP management**

5.3.1 **Defensive level.**

When a corporation owns an intellectual asset, it can prevent competitors from using the asset. At this level companies use their IP for defensive purposes only and view IP as a legal asset. Their goals are to protect their own innovations, to ensure that they don’t infringe the IP of others. The costs in filing fees, enforcement and other legal expenses can be high.

5.3.2 **Cost control level**

Companies at this level still have a defensive approach, but now focus on finding ways to obtain protection while simultaneously reducing the costs of creating and maintaining their IP portfolios.

5.3.3 **Profit center level**

Companies at this level turn their attention to more proactive strategies that can generate a great amount of additional
revenues while further continuing to trim costs. Passing from the previous levels of activity to this one requires a *major change* in a company’s attitude—and even its organization. In such a company, IP may have its own function. It is at this level that companies begin to view IP as a business asset, rather than just a legal asset.

5.3.4 *Integrated level.*

In this level the IP function serves to the organization as a whole. Here the company’s business units have grasped the power of using IP for a range of business roles. IP use for business becomes integrated across all of the company’s business activity.

5.3.5 *Visionary.*

At this level of IP management sophistication, companies take a long-term view of the company’s role in business and in its industry. They seek to use the company’s IP to create more strategic value.

It should not be inferred from this pyramid that the highest level of sophistication equates to the “best” level of IP management. What matters is to determine which level best suits the needs and capacity of your particular company. Every company can improve their position in the pyramid, so increasing shareholders value by strengthening their intangible assets. Each level serves as a building block for levels above it.

6. **Intellectual property administration and intellectual property management**

IP management is an important set of concepts, methods and processes created to fit intellectual property (IP) of the firm with the defined objectives and business strategy.

**Figure 3**: The differences between IP administration and IP management

Today large-scale enterprises accept IP as an asset, in the past only the legal aspects had played an important role. IP administration and IP management are often confused but they differ from each other.

While IP administration mainly deals with the IP asset itself (the acquisition, preservation and all legal aspects), the central task of IP management is the integration of IP into innovation strategies and business models. To put it simply, IP administration strives to enable the usage of the legal and economic functions of IP:

- the protection of an invention (patents, to exclusively identify and protect the commercial source of a product or service (trade marks)
- to block competition (IP rights)
- and to enable inventory stocks, licences etc.

Those functions may have an economic effect. For example, they prevent a competitor from offering similar functionality in its products. It is the task and responsibility of IP managers to appropriate those functions and the economic consequences for the benefit of the company; in other words to make sure that the company actually can cash in on IP and its effects. As a rule, the economic benefit for the company is a *cash flow* (of some sort). Therefore, the target figures for IP management are key operational figures such as rate of return, profitability and turnover. (Wurzer &
6.1 The IP management can be divided into three activity clusters:

1. Innovation support,
2. Portfolio management and
3. IP exploitation.

6.2 The performance framework of IP system

There are three components that together fashion an IP system that fosters productivity and ensures equitable outcomes for industry and consumers:

1. the instruments of IP, namely patents, copyright, designs, trade marks and sui generis rights, ought to be balanced, coherent and flexible;
2. the operations, i.e. the award, use and enforcement of those IP rights, must be efficiently administered; and
3. the national and international organisations responsible for the governance of policy and operations must be clear and well run. (Gowers, 2006)

7. SMEs and IP management

7.1 Small and Medium Enterprises and the IP system

According to United Nations (2011), SMEs underutilize the formal IP system because of two main reasons: firstly the high costs of protection and enforcement; and, secondly, the lack of awareness by SMEs on how the IPR system works.

7.1.1 Costs

The costs related to protection and enforcement of IPRs, particularly patents, are considered by SMEs as a great barrier to the use of the formal IP system. In their budgeting, besides the costs related to the acquisition of the registered IPRs also need to be considered costs related to the preparation of the applications and possibly translation expenses.

These costs are perceived by many SMEs as by far exceeding the prospective benefits that derive from protection, especially when considering that most of these costs are incurred before the products reach the markets and thus before the realization of any income or profits.

7.1.2 Lack of awareness

SMEs do not make sufficient use of the formal IP system because they lack good quality advice. Small businesses are not aware of the benefits and the financial and strategic value of IP, and that in general, innovators and creators are not aware of most or all the categories of IP and of the benefits associated with each type of IP protection.

Wurzer and DiGiammarino (2009) identify a number of typical differences between SMEs and MNCs (multinational corporations):

- **Resources:** SMEs have limited resources
- **Market access:** SMEs have restricted distribution channels and fewer capacities for marketing and advertisement.
- **Complexity:** MNCs find easily partners for cooperation, SMEs depend on service providers.
- **Decision-making qualities:** SMEs are advantageous because they make quick decisions.

7.2 How can Intellectual property enhance the market value of SMEs?

The value of intellectual property (IP) is often not adequately appreciated and its potential for providing opportunities for future profit is widely underestimated by SMEs. IP can become a valuable business asset. (WIPO, n.d.)

- IP may generate an income for SME through the licensing, sale, or commercialization of the IP-protected products or services that may significantly improve an enterprise's market share or raise its profit margins.
- IP rights can enhance the value or worth of SME in the eyes of investors and financing institutions.
In the event of a sale, merger or acquisition, IP assets may significantly raise the value of the enterprise, and at times may be the primary or only true assets of value.

The strategic utilization of IP assets can, therefore, substantially enhance the competitiveness of SMEs, which should make sure that they are ready to face the challenge and take measures to exploit their IP and protect it wherever possible.

8. Conclusions

The enterprise to gain profits by IP should manage it well. It should build the IP strategy as part of its business strategy, it should have an IP portfolio and build a functional IP management system in the enterprise.

There is always demand for legally protected products or services in the business arena and enterprises should always take care of protection, management and enforcement of products/services, than IP becomes a valuable asset. Intellectual Property may generate incomes and improve market’s share, enhances the value in the eyes of financing institutions and investors for SMEs.

The strategic utilization of IP assets can, therefore, substantially enhance the competitiveness of SMEs. IP Offices and SME support institutions, should consider, awareness raising and training in IP, as one the main activities identified at the national level to facilitate a wider and more effective use of the formal IP system by SMEs.

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A Study Regarding the Attitudes that are Effective on the Price Perception of Consumers that Shop from the Retail Stores

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Abstract

In this day and time, in which we experience an intense competition, being aware of the knowledge of the desires and demands of the consumers who shop from the retail setting and discovering the reasons behind these are important steps which will carry the businesses to success. According to various criteria, the consumer, by being effected by internal (sense, attitude, learning and instincts, etc.) and external (cultural factors, social class and lifestyle, etc.) factors, shape their decisions to purchase products and services. In this context, the businesses will be successful by prevailing in the competition, considering the recognition of the behaviour of the consumers that are in their target market and by improving the related marketing combination components (product, price, promotion and place). In order for the businesses to create efficient marketing programs and to reach their goal, they need to decide on the pricing decisions, in conjunction with other marketing combination elements (product, distribution and promotion) and considering the consumers in target market. In our study, in order to recognize the consumers in the target market and to reveal their price sensibilities, the examined issue is “the Attitudes That Are Effective on Consumer Price Perception”. It is reflected that, recognizing the attitudes that are influential in consumers’ price perceptions will enable the better understanding of the consumers in the target market and the establishment of a better service. In this study which relies on this purpose, surveys has been conducted to understand the “Attitudes That Are Effective on Consumer Price Perception” and the resulting “Purchasing Behaviours” of the consumers in Turkey. For the survey, consumers who are over 18 years old and shop from the retail stores are interviewed face to face and convenience sampling method has been used. Factor analysis and regression has been applied to the results that are obtained. It is reflected that the study results will be beneficial for the national or international businesses.

Keywords: Retail Shopping, Price in Retail Stores, Consumer’s Perception of Price, Consumers’ Shopping Behaviours and Attitudes

1. Introduction

In the dynamic market environment, where the competition is intense, retail businesses will act according to the modern marketing concepts and the consumer satisfaction will be the focal point of their activities (Okumuş, 2004: 28). In order to survive and succeed in the intense competitive environment, retail businesses will have to determine how consumers decide on their purchasing decisions by being effected through internal (perception, attitude, learning and instincts, etc.) and external (cultural factors, social class and lifestyle, etc.) factors. When the businesses develop marketing strategy that will have a positive effect on the consumer behaviours of the target group, they will also position their products and services within price-quality relationship. When applying pricing strategies, prices will be determined according to the values that are presented to the consumers and thus, the price perception of the consumers will be shaped accordingly.

Price perceptions occupy an important place in the consumers’ product choices and purchasing behaviours. When talking about consumers’ price perception, rational factors (quality and value, etc.) and psychological factors (prestige, etc.) are evaluated in conjunction with each other and these factors are essential of the businesses (Kurtuluş ve Okumuş, 2006: 4). For this reason, it has started to become a widely analysed subject in academic studies.

The goal of this study is to identify the consumers that are in the target group and to reveal consumers' price sensibilities and the consumers of “Attitudes That Are Effective on their Price Perception” and “Purchasing Behaviours” in Turkey, which they expose during shopping, is analysed by conducting surveys. For the survey application, 554
consumers, who are over 18 years old and shop from the retail stores in Turkey, are interviewed face to face and convenience sampling method has been used. Factor analysis and regression has been applied to the results that are obtained.

2. Price Perceptions of Consumers

When determining the price of the products they produce and market, retail businesses consider many factors, from the cost of the product to its image, from advertisement costs to operation costs and they determine a pricing according to these factors. Rather than the price deciding factors that consumers have, the important factor that concerns the consumers is the value they gets in exchange for the price (Doyle, 2003: 462). Assessments regarding the price-value relationship effect the purchase decision of customers (http://www.isletmeportali.com/konular/satis/musterilerin-fiyat-algilamasi-3.html, 2012).

Retail businesses can also adopt different pricing purposes. Generally, it is possible to compile these purposes under three categories: “Struggle to survive, financial purposes and marketing-oriented purposes”. The businesses, who strive to exist in the intense competitive environment, keep their prices as low as possible and wish to increase their sales. Those businesses, who do not find themselves in a struggle to survive, may follow a pricing policy that can help them to reach various financial goals. These businesses choose the price that will enable maximum profit, investment return and cash flow by reviewing demand structures under various price alternatives and costs. On the other hand, some businesses may choose the path that increases the market share and sales volume and protects the position and the status quo and enables achieving marketing purposes (Altunışık vd., 2004: 194-195).

The businesses must be prepared for three topics (3p) that are closely related to each other and will enable them to act according to marketing purposes, in regards to price and services. These are; 1. Perception, 2. Placebo, 3. Positioning. Thus, the businesses can position their products and services within price-quality-value relation, on the consumers’ minds by creating a placebo effect: (Gilkey, 2010; http://www.productiveflourishing.com/the-3ps-of-pricing-perception-part-1/, 2012)

1. Perception: Perception is to obtain information of an event or an object, with the help of senses. Among the factors that affect perception are physical features of the stimulant (i.e. a colourful newspaper ad or attractiveness of a package), stimulant's relationship with the environment and the attributes of the environment in which the individual is situated (Mucuk, 2009: 78). The consumer behaviour can also occur according to the messages that are portrayed, along with the perception of these (Özer, 2009: 1). Perception, which is formed either individually or under the influence of environmental factors, affects the consumer behaviour in many respects (Eray, 2007). Under these, perception of advertisement, perception of product image and corporate image and perception of price can be listed. Price perception, which is the process of consumers commenting on the price and attributing value to the products or services, has started to be a topic that the marketing experts work and investigate on. Therefore, the existence of an absolute relationship between the price and value is referred on the conducted studies.

2. Placebo: The businesses, with the marketing strategies, have intended to create a placebo effect on the minds of the consumers and they have succeeded. The principle of Placebo is “to believe”. The consumers are mentally affected by the external factors (i.e advertisements), being oblivious of their effects. Besides, our life experiences and personal beliefs are affected, in favour of products and services, with us being totally unaware. After the occurrence of this contagion, rather than the quality of the product and the product that is presented, there will be an expectation and belief in our minds, regarding that product (http://www.productiveflourishing.com/the-3ps-of-pricing-perception-part-2/, 2012). Thus, different and superior features of the product and services will be positioned in the minds of consumers, compared to the competitors.

3. Positioning: Positioning strategy should be discussed in terms of external positioning (superior features compared to products and services of the competition) and internal positioning (ability to be produced as a more innovative, creative and remarkable product) by the businesses and price should be determined according to these conditions (http://www.productiveflourishing.com/the-3ps-of-pricing-perception-part-3/, 2012). The purpose here is to be perceived as an innovative and a creative product – along with having a product that can only compete with price - (Çelik et.al., 2012) and to be positioned by creating a placebo effect with a successful value-quality perception.

Retail businesses consider these matters below when applying pricing policies that aim to reach marketing goals
In order to establish a brand loyalty, pricing should be attributed to the values that are presented to the consumers, not to the production costs.

Since consumers ascribe different values to products and services, the price should be harmonized with the customers; so that the differences created by the value can be used as an opportunity.

Pricing should be integrated with the positioning and the goals of the business. Moreover, pricing decisions should estimate the long term strategies and the reactions of the competitors.

Among the main pricing methods that will enable the retail businesses to improve customer loyalty with their pricing policies, “pricing affiliated with quantity”, “pricing affiliated with time and customer loyalty duration”, “multiple product pricing”, multi-individual pricing (group price)”, “long term purchase and guarantee contracts” can be listed (Gülçubuk, 2008: 19). With these applicable pricing methods, they will present the customer with convenient values and opportunities, create positive perceptions on consumers’ minds and form loyal customers.

Price perception holds a significant importance in consumers’ product preferences and purchase behaviours (Dickson and Sawyer, 1990: 42). Economists and marketing researchers occasionally conducted various studies in order to estimate and to understand the effect of price on purchase behaviour. When talking about the consumers’ price perception, rational and psychological factors are evaluated together. While quality and value come into prominence in rational factors, prestige awareness shine out in psychological factors. Better the psychological process regarding the consumers’ price perception is defined; more improved the probability of making correct decisions with regards to consumers’ price perception will be (Kurtuluş and Okumuş, 2006: 4).

Consumers’ price perceptions occur in a process. According to this, consumer obtains the price information both visually and auditory, he/she interprets this information and achieves a various, meaningful results from this information (Okumuş, 2003: 50). Along with internal evaluations, the consumers decide their purchase decisions by being effected by external stimuli and form their brand decisions. While making purchase decisions, they can obtain various attitudes through purchase experience and learning or they develop new attitudes. When a consumer decides on a particular brand, he/she follows this process (Geçti and Zengin, 2012: 38-39). In a study conducted in 2008 by Meng and Nasco and in 1993 by Lichtenstein et. al., the researchers' have found out that internal factors constitute a much large impact compared to the external factors (environments like advertisement, etc., price presentations) in consumers’ price perception (Meng and Nasco, 2008).

In the studies conducted by Sternquist et. al. in 2004, price perception aspects are studied thoroughly and price perception aspects are classified as negative aspects (Price Awareness, Value Consciousness, Price Mavenism, Sale Proneness) and positive aspects (Price-Quality Schema, Prestige Sensibility). Different price perception aspects have

(Doyle, 2003: 462);

Among the main pricing methods that will enable the retail businesses to improve customer loyalty with their pricing policies, “pricing affiliated with quantity”, “pricing affiliated with time and customer loyalty duration”, “multiple product pricing”, multi-individual pricing (group price)”, “long term purchase and guarantee contracts” can be listed (Gülçubuk, 2008: 19). With these applicable pricing methods, they will present the customer with convenient values and opportunities, create positive perceptions on consumers’ minds and form loyal customers.

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In the studies where the factors, that are influential in purchase behaviours of the consumers that shop from the retail stores, are analysed, it is seen that “price perceptions” hold the first place among other factors. In the study which Nielsen company conducted in 56 countries in 2012, “the 16 different factors which influence the consumers who shop from retail businesses” have been analysed. According to the results of the study, the first five factors are “product price, health conditions, transportation costs, package and debt decisions”. First placed “price of food products” is seen to be most direct influence on purchase decisions (http://www.nielsen.com/us/en/newswire/2012/global-survey-says-rising-prices-greatest-factor-in-grocery-purchase-decisions.html, 2012).

The price perception, which is the interpretation of price and attribution of value by the consumers and the effect of price on product evaluation have also been analysed on conducted studies and initially, price has been addressed as one aspect. And in some studies has addressed that price could have more than one role in deciding the purchase. In the study conducted by Zeithaml in 1988, price perception aspects are seen as relation of “perceived price, perceived quality and perceived value” (Zeithaml, 1988: 2).

In the studies where the attitudes that are effective in consumers’ price perception are analysed, price perception aspects are grouped as follows: “Price- Quality Schema, Prestige Sensitivity, Price Consciousness, Value Consciousness, Price Mavenism, Sale Proneness, Coupon Proneness” (Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993). In the studies conducted later on, Domestic and Foreign product consciousness has been added to this aspect (Okumuş, 2004; Kurtuluş and Okumuş, 2006; Geçti and Zengin, 2012).

In the study conducted by Duman and Yağcı, the impact of five main factors which are determined with regards to customer behaviour in Turkish supermarkets, on continuous shopping intentions are tested. These factors are determined as “price perception, discount perception, product quality perception, service quality perception and value perception.” According to the results of this study, the shopping intentions of supermarket customers are substantially affected by “discount perception, product quality perception and value perception” (Duman and Yağcı, 2006).

In the study conducted by Sternquist et. al. in 2004, price perception aspects are studied thoroughly and price perception aspects are classified as negative aspects (Price Awareness, Value Consciousness, Price Mavenism, Sale Proneness) and positive aspects (Price-Quality Schema, Prestige Sensibility). Different price perception aspects have
been implemented on consumers in China and Korea and when the difference is analysed it has been seen that Chinese consumers perceive the price only in terms of negative aspects (Sternquist et. al., 2004:83). In their study conducted in 2012, Mendoza and Baines accentuated on the existence and importance of relation between price perception and willingness to pay and actual purchase behaviour. In addition, it has been suggested that after the establishment of purchase behaviour and even after the establishment of new price information, price perception is found to be a process that is dynamically regenerated (Mendoza and Baines, 2012: 287).

3. A Study of Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions of Consumers who Shop from Retail Stores

Price perceptions hold an important place in product and service preferences, purchase behaviours of consumers that shop from the retail stores. For this reason, the price perceptions of consumers matter for the businesses (Kurtuluş ve Okumuş, 2006: 4). Therefore, it has started to become a subject that is analysed in academic studies.

In this study where we intend to identify the consumers situated in target group and to reveal their price sensibilities, “Attitudes That Are Effective on Consumer Price Perception and consumers’ “Purchase Behaviours” are analysed.

3.1 Purpose, Scope of the Study

Presenting the attitudes that are influential on price perceptions of the consumers that shop from retail stores will enable a better understanding of the consumers in target group and a better service development. With this in mind, this study contains analyses that is comprised of a survey study with regards to “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions of Consumers who Shop from Retail Stores” and “Purchase Behaviours” that they present during shopping.

In the research model of the study, the relationship between consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours” that they present during shopping is analysed. In order to analyse consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions”, the studies of Lichtenstein, et. al (1993), Okumuş (2004), Kurtuluş and Okumuş (2006), Meng and Nasco (2008), Geçti and Zengin (2012) were used (Bearden and Netemeyer, 1999: 273; Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993; Okumuş, 2004; Kurtuluş and Okumuş, 2006; Meng and Nasco, 2008; Geçti and Zengin, 2012).

In order to study the “Purchase Behaviours” that the consumers present during shopping, “Planned shopping behaviour, unplanned shopping behaviour, purchase frequency (every day, once a week, once a month” can be discussed. The studies conducted for this purpose, - study of Ergin and Akbay, conducted in 2011, regarding “unplanned shopping behaviour” in food and garment retail shops; study of Altunışık and Çalli, conducted in 2004, regarding “unplanned shopping behaviours”; study by Turan, conducted in 2011, regarding “planned, shopping behaviours” and study by Akat et. al, conducted in 2006, regarding “planned, unplanned shopping behaviour and shopping frequency” - have been taken as models and set as a model (Ergin and Akbay, 2011: 275; Altunışık and Çalli, 2004: 231; Turan, 2011: 128; Akat et.al., 2006).

The survey work of the study has been performed by conducting face to face interviews with 554 individuals that are over 18 years of age and shoppers of retail stores in Turkey and convenience sampling method has been used. In the survey where “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours” that the consumers exhibit during shopping, Likert Scale has been used (1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly Agree). The relationship between the variables that are surfaced as a result of factor analysis of “Behaviours that are Effective on Consumer Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours” that are exhibited in retail stores are analysed with regression analysis as to determine whether they exist or not.

3.2 Methodology of the Study

The constrains, model and bulk sample selection of the are explained below.

3.2.1 Constraints of the Study

In this study, consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours” have been analysed through survey study. The constraint for the main mass of the study is to be comprised of individuals that are over 18 years of age and are able to decide, by their own rights, to shop from retail stores in Turkey and the application
of survey study to the shoppers in the hours in which the shops are open. Survey study has been performed by interviewing face to face with 554 individuals and convenience sampling method has been used.

3.2.2 Model of the Study

The study model, which is created in order to explain consumers’ "Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions" and "Purchase Behaviours" that they exhibit during shopping, is as follows (Figure 3.1)

![Figure 3.1. A Study Model on the Relationship Between Consumers’ "Behaviours that are Effective on Price Perceptions" and "Purchase Behaviours"

The hypotheses of the study are included below. By discussing these hypotheses, sub-hypothesis are created and analyses are made.

H₁: There is a suggestive relation between consumers’ "Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions" and "Planned Purchase Behaviours".

H₂: There is a suggestive relation between consumers’ "Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions" and "Unplanned Purchase Behaviours".

The scale for consumers’ "Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions" and "Purchase Behaviours" that they exhibit during shopping is created by referring to the sources included in the table below (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. The Scale Table of "Attitudes that are Influential in Price Perceptions" and "Purchase Behaviours"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes that are Influential on Price Perceptions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price Mavenism</td>
<td>(Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price Consciousness</td>
<td>(Okumuş, 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Consciousness</td>
<td>(Kurtuluş and Okumuş, 2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige Sensitivity</td>
<td>(Meng and Nasco, 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sale Proneness</td>
<td>(Geçti and Zengin, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price-Quality Schema</td>
<td>(Ergin and Akbay, 2011: 275)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovative Product Sensitivity</td>
<td>(Altuğer and Çalış, 2004: 231)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purchase Behaviours</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned Shopping</td>
<td>(Turan, 2011: 128)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unplanned Shopping</td>
<td>(Akat and et.al, 2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.3 Determination of Study Bulk Sample

The survey work of the study has been conducted with face to face interviews with 554 individuals who are over 18 years of age that shop from retail stores in Turkey and convenience sampling method has been used.

3.3 Findings of the Study

The analysis of the study has been examined by separating into two sections: definitional and deductional.
3.3.1 Definitional Analysis Findings

The individuals who have participated in the survey are chosen from those who shop from retail stores, make their own minds in terms of shopping and are over 18 years old. The demographic features, sex, education, income, age and marital status of 554 individuals have been analysed. The consumers consist of 554 individuals, of which 54.9% of is women and 44.9% of is men. The education status of these consumers is as follows: “19.5% elementary education, 36.6% high school education, 26.7% associate degree, 13.5% bachelor’s degree, 3.5% post graduate.” Distribution of income of the consumers is: 41.5% between, “500 - 1.000 TL, 29.2% between 2.001 - 3.000, 6.5% between 3.001 - 4.000 and above. Consumers’ age ranges are: 37% between 18-25; 24.2% between 26-35; 22% between 36-45; 13.2% between 46-55and 3.4% for 56 and above. Consumers’ marital statuses are 42.4% married, 43.7% single, 7.6% widower and 6.1% divorced.

The scale of consumers’ ‘Attitudes that are Influential in Price Perceptions’ consists of 30 questions. 30 questions are subjected to question factor analysis and this has emerged seven factor groups; these are: “Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness: VC, Prestige Sensitivity: PRS, Sale Proneness: SP, Price- Quality Schema: PQS, Innovative Product Sensitivity: IPS” (Table 3.2). As a result of credibility analysis which has been conducted in 0.05 relevance level of ‘Attitudes that are Influential in Price Perceptions’, which is comprised of 30 variables, Cronbach’s Alpha Value is found to be 0.876. Moreover, a credibility analysis has been performed to each of the seven factor groups in the study and Cronbach’s Alpha Value is examined (Table 3.2).

Alpha value carries values between 0 and 1 and it desired for the admissible value to be at least 0.7 (Altunişık et. al., 2005: 116). Therefore, it can be stated that the credibility of the scale, along with the credibility of each factor group in itself, is significantly high.

In the factor analysis, which has been performed to the ‘Attitudes that are Influential in Price Perceptions’ which consists of 30 questions; when Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sample efficiency test is applied; relevance value is to be found 0.000 and KMO value is to be found 0.782. The test of factor analysis of practicability to any data set is measured with ‘Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)’ sample efficiency test. KMO value can be admissible in values between 0.5-1.0 (Altunişık et. al., 2005: 217). Therefore KMO value of 0.782 is believed to be sufficient enough for factor analysis.

Also, it has been examined that the seven factors which has been obtained in the study has attested the 63.33% of total variance. The factor groups which are obtained as a result of factor analysis, the credibility of factor groups and factor loads of the components that constitute factor groups are given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Factor Analysis Results of "Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Group</th>
<th>Name of the Factor Group</th>
<th>Credibility of Factor Group (Cronbach’s Alfa Coefficient )</th>
<th>Attitudes that are Influential on Price Perceptions</th>
<th>Factor Loads</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Price Mavenism</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>* People consult me regarding information about different types of products.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* Regarding knowledge of product prices, I am seen as an expert.</td>
<td>0.621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* I am better than most of the people who give information to those that seek most appropriate price..</td>
<td>0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* I like to help people about price information of many product types.</td>
<td>0.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* My friends see me as a reliable price information source.</td>
<td>0.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>Price Consciousness</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>* I walk about all stores for low prices, but I look for a certain quality criteria before purchase.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* I make an effort to search for low prices.</td>
<td>0.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* In order to obtain a low price advantage, I search for different stores.</td>
<td>0.795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* In order to save money by finding a low-priced product, it generally pays off to spend time and effort.</td>
<td>0.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* The time spent on finding a low price product is a time worth spending.</td>
<td>0.7784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor 3  Value Consciousness  0.843  * I am interested in low prices, along with quality.  * In order to make sure that I get bang for my buck, I compare the prices of different brands.  * I make sure that I get maximum quality products for the money I spend.  * I’d like to be sure that my purchase justifies the value of my money.

Factor 4  Prestige Sensitivity  0.875  * Purchasing a high-priced brand makes me feel better.  * Purchasing the most expensive brand of a product makes me feel more prestigious (classy).  * I like the prestigious feeling of buying high-priced product.  * When an individual purchase a high-priced product, this enables them to convey a positive and prestigious message.

Factor 5  Sale Proneness  0.803  * Purchasing products and services that are at discount makes me feel better.  * Discount of products and services can be a reason for me to make a purchase.  * It is a high probability for me to buy products and services that are at discount.  * It makes me happy to collect discount coupons and money points and make purchases by saving money.  * I have my favourite brands, but most of the time I choose the discounted brands.

Factor 6  Price-Quality Schema  0.804  * Generally it is mentioned that higher price means higher quality.  * The saying ‘what you pay is what you get’ is generally correct.  * The price of a product is a good indication of its quality.  * We always have to pay a little bit more for the best.

Factor 7  Innovative Product Sensitivity  0.737  * When I purchase a new brand, I feel like I’ve accomplish something good.  * I have my favourite brands, but most of the time I choose the ones that are newly released and presented.  * It suits me fine to purchase newly released products.

3.3.2 Deductional Analysis Findings

The deducational analysis of the study has been examined as follows:

Abbreviations for Dependant Variables “Purchase Behaviours” are below:
- Planned Shopping: PS
- Unplanned Shopping: UPS

Abbreviations for Independent Variables Attitudes That Are Effective on Consumer Price Perception are below:
- Price Mavenism: PM
- Price Consciousness: PC
- Value Consciousness: VC
- Prestige Sensitivity: PRS
- Sale Proneness: SP
- Price-Quality Schema: PQS
- Innovative Product Sensitivity: IPS

Attitudes That Are Effective on Consumer Price Perception is comprised of 30 questions and as a result of the factor analysis, seven factor groups have emerged. Seven factor groups form the independent variables of regression analysis.

Each of the Purchase Behaviours are thought to be a dependant variable and for every purchase behaviour that has been thought to be a dependant variable, a hypothesis is created, showed as an equation and its relation with independent variables (Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions) is analysed with regression analysis.

In the regression analysis of the study; application has been made by integrating all variables with stepwise method for every hypothesis test. Due to various iterations, the model has emerged. In the testing of hypotheses in these studies, as a result of the iterations of stepwise method, final model has been presented.
The first hypothesis of the study and regression analysis result regarding this hypothesis are given below:

First Hypothesis:
H1: There is a suggestive relation between consumers’ Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Planned Purchase Behaviour”.

The regression formula, which explains the relation appearing above hypothesis, is expressed as the equation of:

\[ PS = 2.931 + 0.114 \times PM + 0.181 \times PC + 0.174 \times VC \]

Table 3.3. Regression Analysis Model Summary of the Relation Between Consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Planned Purchase Behaviours”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>Corrected ( R^2 )</th>
<th>Standard Error of Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>1.219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4. Regression Analysis ANOVA Table of the Relation Between Consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Planned Purchase Behaviours”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Average Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p - value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 Regression</td>
<td>41.896</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.965</td>
<td>9.390</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>813.484</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>1.487</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>855.379</td>
<td>550</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model which has been tested with regression analysis is statistically relevant (\( F = 9.390 \) and \( p=0.000 \)). Because, relevance level of F value is smaller than \( p<0.05 \), 0.05.

Seven factors, which have been obtained as a result of the factor analysis, constitute the independent variables of regression analysis. Our dependant variable is ‘Planned Shopping’ (PS). As a result of regression analysis, it is seen that the factors which have a relevant effect on planned shopping are independent variables that are: “Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness: VC”. Independent variable explains the \( 0.044\% \) (% change in dependant variable).

Result of the regression analysis, “Beta value (B) projection of the relation between ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and "Planned Purchase Behaviours", standard error values, t values, p values and VIF values are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. “Beta, Standard Error, t, p, VIF Value Results as consequence of Regression Analysis of Relation Between ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and ‘Planned Purchase Behaviours’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beta Value Variables</th>
<th>PM</th>
<th>PC</th>
<th>VC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beta Value</td>
<td>2.931</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Value</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T Value</td>
<td>56.418</td>
<td>2.198</td>
<td>3.476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p Value</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF value</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H1 hypothesis has been tested with the regression analysis of there is a suggestive relation between consumers’ Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Planned Purchase Behaviour”. As a result of the regression analysis, it has been examined that three (“Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness : (VC)" of the seven factor groups, which constitute the independent variables, have suggestive, statistical effect on planned purchase behaviour and H1 hypothesis could not be validated.

The second hypothesis of the study and regression analysis results regarding this hypothesis can be found below.

Second Hypothesis:
H2: There is a suggestive relation between consumers’ Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Unplanned Purchase Behaviour.

The regression formula, which explains the relation appearing above hypothesis, is expressed as the equation of;
UPS = 2.893 + 0.187 PRS - 0.140 SP

Table 3.6. Regression Analysis Model Summary of the Relation Between Consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Unplanned Purchase Behaviours”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Corrected R²</th>
<th>Standard Error of Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>1.218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.7. Regression Analysis ANOVA Table of the Relation Between Consumers’ “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Unplanned Purchase Behaviours”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Average Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p - value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.978</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.989</td>
<td>10.107</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>812.704</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>1.483</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>842.682</td>
<td>550</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model which has been tested with regression analysis is statistically relevant (F = 10.107 and p=0.000). Because, relevance level of F value is smaller than (p<0.05), 0.05.

Seven factors, which have been obtained as a result of the factor analysis, constitute the independent variables of regression analysis. Our dependant variable is ‘Unplanned Shopping (UPS). As a result of regression analysis, it is seen that the factors which have a relevant effect on planned shopping are independent variables that are: “Prestige Sensitivity: PRS and Sale Proneness: SP” Independent variable explain the 0.032% (R² value) of the change in dependant variable.

Result of the regression analysis, “Beta value (B) projection of the relation between ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and "Unplanned Purchase Behaviours", standard error values, t values, p values and VIF values are shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Beta, Standard Error, t, p, VIF Value Results as Consequence of Regression Analysis of Relation Between ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and ‘Unplanned Purchase Behaviours’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>PRS</th>
<th>SP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beta Value Values</td>
<td>2.893</td>
<td>-0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Value</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T Value</td>
<td>55.762</td>
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H2 hypothesis has been tested with the regression analysis of There is a suggestive relation between consumers' ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and “Unplanned Purchase Behaviour”. As a result of the regression analysis, it has been examined that only two (“Prestige Sensitivity: PRS, and PC, Sale Proneness: VC”) of the seven factor groups, which constitute the independent variables, have suggestive, statistical effect on unplanned purchase behaviour and H2 hypothesis could not be validated.

Deciding whether independent variables, which affect the “Purchase Behaviours”, possess multiple connections or not, was accomplished by examining VIF values (ie. Interaction of variable with each other) on the regression analysis table In the statistical analyses, VIF values between 1-10 show that there is no correlation issue. In this study, VIF values of independent variables were examined, it was observed that all of them obtained values of 1.000 and therefore, due to the fact that they obtained values between 1 and 10, it has been deduced that the variables did not affect each other.

As the result of conducted analysis;

“H1 hypothesis has been tested with the regression analysis of there is a suggestive relation between consumers' ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ and “Planned Purchase Behaviour”. As a result of the regression analysis, it has been examined that three (“Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness : (VC”) of the seven factor groups, which constitute the independent variables, have suggestive, statistical effect on
planned purchase behaviour and there is no suggestive effect for the other independent variables. H1 hypothesis could not be validated. H1 hypothesis was partly validated for only three variables. With a 0.181 unit increase, ‘Price Consciousness: PC’ is in 1st place; with a 0.174 unit increase ‘Value Consciousness: VC’ resides in 2nd place and with 0.114 unit increase ‘Price Mavenism: PM’ holds 3rd place and prompts ‘planned purchase behaviour’ in adjuvant direction.

H2 hypothesis has been tested with the regression analysis of There is a suggestive relation between consumers' Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Unplanned Purchase Behaviour”. As a result of the regression analysis, it has been examined that only two (“Prestige Sensitivity: PRS, and PC, Sale Proneness: VC”) of the seven factor groups, which constitute the independent variables, have suggestive, statistical effect on unplanned purchase behaviour and H2 hypothesis could not be validated. With a 0.187 unit increase, ‘Prestige Sensitivity: PRS' prompts ‘unplanned purchase behaviour2 in adjuvant direction. With a 0.140 unit decrease, ‘Sale Proneness: SP’, prompts the ‘unplanned purchase behaviour’ in detractive direction and affects it negatively.

4. Conclusion and Assessment

It is strategically very important to determine the truest strategies and decisions in pricing of the products and services that the retail businesses put on market (Özden and Oktay, 2099: 159). The businesses which will determine the marketing strategies for the purpose of meeting the desires and needs of the target customers by acting in accordance with the modern marketing insights, will be successful when compared to others in the intense competition environment. Retail businesses will evaluate the customers who have different price perceptions, as different market segments and will determine their target groups. Determination of customers’ attitudes regarding the price perceptions and examination of these customer perceptions with regard to effected purchase behaviours will enable the businesses to know their target groups in a better way and thus, present a better service.

Prepared for this purpose, this study has studied the “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours” of consumers’ in Turkey, with a survey study. For the survey study, 554 consumers who are over 18 years of age and shop from the retail stores in Turkey, were interviewed face to face. Factor analysis and regression analysis were applied to the data that were obtained from the survey.

In this study, where the goal is to identify the consumers who shop from the retail stores in Turkey, the scale of Consumers’ ‘Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions’ was subjected to factor analysis and seven factor groups have emerged. These seven factor groups are; “Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness: VC, Prestige Sensitivity: PRS, Sale Proneness: SP, Price - Quality Schema: PQS, Innovative Product Sensitivity: IPS. In the factor analysis result of the study, unlike the studies conducted before, “Innovative Product Sensitivity: IPS” factor group has emerged in this study. These emerged factor groups have been determined as independent variable and it has been attempted to understand how it affects the purchase behaviour (planned purchase behaviour and unplanned purchase behaviour) which is a dependant variable.

In the regression analysis result of the study; first hypothesis, the independent variables that affect “planned purchase behaviour” which is the dependent variable, are analysed. Only three of the seven factors (“Price Mavenism: PM, Price Consciousness: PC, Value Consciousness: VC”) that constitute independent variables are seen to have a statistical, suggestive effect on planned purchase behaviour and it is examined that none of the other independent variables are seen to have any other effect. It has been examined that three factor groups have presented a positive and increased effect on planned purchase behaviour.

In the regression analysis result of the study; second hypothesis, the independent variables that affect “unplanned purchase behaviour” which is the dependent variable, are analysed and effects of two factor groups are observed. Only two of the seven factors (“Prestige Sensitivity: PRS and Sale Proneness: SP”) that constitute independent variables are seen to have a statistical, suggestive effect on unplanned purchase behaviour. While “Prestige Sensitivity: PRS” is found to increase unplanned purchase behaviour positively, “Sale Proneness: SP” is found to be affected negatively, in a detractive direction.

As the result of the study, the factors that are beyond the consumers' purchase behaviours are explained. The reasons behind the planned and unplanned purchase behaviours of the consumers are explained in terms of “consumers’ attitudes regarding price perceptions”. It has been set forth which of the consumer attitudes towards price perceptions have an impact on planned purchase behaviours and which have an impact on unplanned purchase behaviours and whether they increase the purchase behaviours or not.

With the study results; it is aimed to determine the attitudes that are effective on consumers’ price perceptions in
Turkey, to determine how these attitudes affect the purchase behaviour and to get a better understanding of the consumers in the target group and to develop better services. Thus, there will be beneficial results for the retail store managers who wish to develop marketing strategies to positively affect consumers in the target groups. This will enable retail businesses to acquire competitive advantages, compared to their competitors and to improve their successes. The results of the study are believed to be beneficial for national or international retail businesses.

In the studies hereupon, attitudes are effective in price perceptions of the customers that are in different sectors, can be measured. Other than the retail sector, “Attitudes that are Effective on Price Perceptions” and “Purchase Behaviours”, “Brand Loyalties” during shopping, can be measured, with regards to wholesaler or manufacturing business customers. The study can be adapted to online environment and a scale can be developed with regards to customers’ attitude towards price perception.

References


Impression Management in the Marketing Context

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Abstract

The main idea of this paper is to analyze previous studies that have been done so far regarding impression management and its implication on marketing impressions. Since some of the studies suggest that marketing ventures involve activities that parallel those commonly found in impression management, perhaps now is time to explore impression management in the context of marketing. Design/Methodology/Approach – The research is based mainly on reviewing and analyzing previous studies in different journals from the marketing and psychology field. Findings - It was interesting to figure out that there was paid relatively little attention to marketing impression and especially in the use of impression in the integrated marketing communications area. Practical implications – The findings could have an impact on retail and service business, in guiding marketers how should they approach and impress better customers. Originality/value – Reviewing the existing literature and researches about impression management the author states that there is not much done. The previous authors have mainly focused their researches on the management level and especially in that of individual or organization stage, but not on the use of impression management in the marketing communication process.

Keywords: Impression marketing, impression management, integrated marketing communications

1. Impression Management

The general idea of impression management is based on creating desired image through specific behaviors, on individual or organizational bases. Individuals try to base their impressions on building images and on the other hand organizations are focused on a more complex structure, that of building reputations. Impression management describes efforts by an actor to create, maintain, protect, or otherwise alter an image held by a target audience (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). To accomplish this goal, actors use a variety of tactics—specific behaviors (e.g., compliment the target) designed to create a desired image (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984).

Most of the research on impression management deals with how individuals can manage the impressions they make by monitoring their own behavior, varying their dress, what they say and do in a placement interview, taking part in team projects, or the timing of their arrival at or departure from work (Grunig 1993). Impression management cannot be used only at the individual level, but also in a corporate level. Different studies suggest that organizations can use impression management tactics to create an organizational image in the eyes of a variety of constituencies (Bolino, 2008). As an area of scholarship, corporate reputation is a relative newcomer, attracting attention from scholars in advertising, marketing, psychology, organizational behavior, strategy, and communications. (S. Highhouse, M. Brooks, G. Gregarus 2009). Continuing Gregarus analyses, images that external audiences hold about companies when maintained over time and interactions develop into a general impression, reflecting the respect or admiration with which an organization is held.

Moreover, Harris and Spiro (1981) defined impression management as “an influence attempt based on the manipulation by a salesperson of the impressions he creates in order to achieve a predetermined favorable response on the part of the intended message receiver.

To be sure, there are numerous ways in which to define impression management, yet at the centre of any of these is the recognition that people’s comprehension of a phenomenon can be directed by others and their attempts to frame one’s perception. (Grunig 1993)

Impression management behavior can be both assertive and defensive in nature (Tedeschi and Norman 1985). Assertive impression management is used to form desired images in the minds of a target audience. Defensive impression management, on the other hand, seeks to repair or protect an intended image that is threatened by and undesirable outcome.
Grunig (1993) argues that image disguises the more precise concepts of perception, cognition, attitude, and schema-concepts that identify symbolic objectives for public relations. Over the long term, however, organizations must evaluate the contribution of these objectives to the behavioral relationships with publics if they are to help organizations achieve their goals and missions.

As mentioned also above, one of the most critical parts of impression management is how to build a positive image. First it has to be reviewed that image has been used as a synonym for such concepts as message, reputation, perception, cognition, attitude, credibility, belief, communication, or relationship. (Grunig 1993)

As one author said:

Of course, image is not a bad word, and practitioners should not have their mouths washed out with soap every time they use it. In the communication process, the goal of the sender-communicator is to convey a message to the receiver-audience in a form as identical as possible to what is in the mind of that sender. What the receiver gets after the message is encoded, sent, and decoded, however, is really an image or reproduction of the thoughts or feelings of the sender, not the thoughts or feelings themselves

(Haberman & Dolphin, 1988)

The concept above suggests that image refers to a number of symbolic relationships that are important complements to the building of behavioral relationships between an organization and its publics. (Grunig 1993) However, most organizational members presumably want their company to be respected and admired. Images that external audiences hold about companies (e.g., as producers of goods and services, as employers, as corporate citizens) when maintained over time and interactions develop into a general impression, reflecting the respect or admiration with which an organization is held. (S. Highhouse, M. Brooks, G. Gregaruss, 2009) From a marketing perspective, a positive image assists a channel member in establishing a favorable market position, in pre-selling potential partners to support product marketing, in redefining its identity after a merger, or in offsetting the negative consequences of a crisis situation. (Young, Gardner and Gilbert 2001)

2. Impression Marketing

Among some of the more inventive ways in which the activity of marketing, in general or in part, has been depicted in recent years are descriptions of marketing strategy as a kind of “warfare”, the marketing of services as “theater”, consumer transactions as “performances”, consumption as “experience” and a host of other such novel representations (Raymond P. Fisk, Stephen J. Grove 1996).

Based on the observations posited above, a great deal of marketing activity can be classified as impression management. The creativity and persuasion embodied by impression management are characteristics which are often found across vendors’ pursuit of the elusive customer. (Raymond P. Fisk, Stephen J. Grove, 1996)

The main idea in marketing impression is how to understand the dynamics involved in influencing consumer demand and actually there are different activities of the marketing mix that are merged with impression management. We have the case of the visual aspects of a corporation’s marketing materials, which are receiving increasing attention in marketing today and within this area the typeface design is one of the most important ones. The type face affects perceptions of advertised brands, influences the readability and memorability of advertisements and last but not least it creates strategically important impressions e.g., general positive image to more specific impressions of innovativeness, change, power, or warmth. (: P. Henderson, J. Giese, J. Cote)

Moreover, the distribution channel and personal selling are the other two instruments of marketing mix which can be described as part of impression management. In the context of personal selling, an understanding of impression management may enable sales personnel to “design their communications to impress prospects or clients” (King and Booze, 1986, p. 52). However, one of the most important aspects today in the marketing area is the recognition that consumers, in their decision making process, evaluate not only the product itself but also the intangible features of the product being offered. Service, warranty, packaging, advertising, financing, pleasantries, image, the place where product is distributed, more specifically the atmosphere of the place, are some of the indicators why customer purchase the product. (Ph. Kotler 1973) Kotler actually was one of the first researchers which studied the effects that atmospheric and architecture had on creating specific emotional impulse on the buyer.

Architecture reflects the brand in the consistency of its design and visual appearance. For retailers these distinctions are particularly important, since retail identity is communicated in and experienced through their stores, both internally and externally. (Ph. Kotler 1973) From the 1980s, fashion designers, including Armani, Comme des
Garcons and Gucci, hired architects to distinguish their brand, buildings, megastores and epicenters to extend their prestige. Such unusually and extravagantly designed stores served as three-dimensional advertisements to promote the fashion brand name. Interior design’s ability to generate impressions of personality has not yet been formally established. (A. Kirby, A, Kent 2010). Within the environment there are different tools that are being used to get awareness and capture consumer attention. Visual, aural, olfactory, and tactile dimensions of service environments have been examined to assess their abilities to convey important information (Baker, 2002) and arouse emotions (Bitner, 1992) On the other hand, Turley and Milliman (2000) established five broad categories of atmospheric cues, including: external cues (e.g. architectural style and surrounding stores); general interior cues (e.g. flooring, lighting, color schemes, music, aisle width and ceiling composition); layout and design cues (e.g. space design and allocation, grouping, traffic flow, racks and cases); point of purchase and decoration displays (e.g. signs, cards, wall decorations, price displays); and human variables (e.g. employee characteristics, uniforms, crowding and privacy). Within these broad categories, a total of 57 specific cues were identified.

Furthermore, in an interesting study done by Ballantine, Jack and Parsons (2010), on two big retail shops, regarding the cues that impressed more or had the biggest impact on consumer behavior they figured out the relative importance of product display features, which accounted of 38 % of all discussion.

3. Integrated Marketing Communications

During the past decade, the concept of IMC has received wide attention in the marketing literature (Duncan and Everett, 1993; McArthur and Griffin, 1997; Schultz and Kitchen, 2000a). There are different school of thoughts regarding the precise meaning and definition of IMC (integrated marketing communications) but one of the most well used is the one from Shimp (2010), which states that integrated marketing communications is a communications process that entails the planning, creation, integration and implementation of diverse forms of marcom (advertisement, sales, promotions, publicity releases, events, etc) with the aim of directly effecting the behavior of the target audience.

As seen from the definition of Shimp, there are many ways for a service business to communicate with customers. The location and atmosphere of a service delivery facility, corporate design features such as the consistent use of colors and graphic elements, the appearance and behavior of employees, the design of the website—all contribute to an impression to the customer’s mind. (Lovelock and Wirtz 2011)

At this point some promising research questions emerge and might be used as basic for further analyses.

A. How effective are today integrated communication strategies in building positive images?
B. Should IMC focus only on delivering information or should they focus more on building brand reputations?
C. Does experience economy merged with impression management help the IMC to deliver a better and a more successful information campaign?

Study how impression marketing shapes the experience economy, which is seen today as a new marketing communication tool, is the main goal of the author. The impression has to be associated with experience or the so called the experience economy. Carbone (1998) warns companies against the myopic view that they are exclusively in the product and service business (commodity business), rather than taking a broader one which recognizes the value they create as a total consumer experience.

Actually Pine and Gilmore (1999) were the first to formally announce the arrival of the experience economy era, which requires a new philosophy of marketing that prioritizes the consumer experience of product brands. Central to their thesis is the notion that companies now market and sell much more than just products, because consumer experience has become the core element. (Shu-pei Tsai 2005). An interesting case to be taken here is the example of Apple stores, which offer an attractive environment consisting with a pleasant design and giving the possibility consumers to learn and try electronics within the store.

On the other hand the experience interaction is seen also as an integral part of marketing strategies, as is the case of Pepsi which now engages in marketing through live-show product placements, special events with impressive atmospheric impact and brand community activities that tighten emotional bonding and continuously innovated product quality . (Shu-pei Tsai 2005).

As a conclusion, the research might be further expanded on how impression marketing employed in experience economy, influence properly the flow of information in integrated marketing communications.
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Challenges of Women Entrepreneurs in Albania

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Abstract

“Entrepreneurship is neither a science nor an art. It is a practice!”, P.Ducker. In support of this inspirational quote about entrepreneurship our framework aims to underline the women potential to enter and succeed in their own business area. The paper analyses the current situation of women entrepreneurs in Albania. On the other side this research outlines the key concepts of women entrepreneurs by showing current statistical data. The reasons why the women should be part of the entrepreneurship field are compared with the social issues of the Albanian mentality. There are many challenges that women should face in this initiative, which are worldwide known issues, in particular considered for Albanian case. In Albania, there are many women led organizations which support the development of women leaders, considering the government, international and national actors.

1. Introduction

Being a woman in business today, in Albania, is something that in the past was never possible. Even now this fact constitutes a major difficulty for the business categories they are able to commit, which shouldn’t be the only faced problem in a series of troubles. Business women are an inalienable part of the Albanian business. Flutura Xhabija, president of the Association of Professional & Business women Says: To exhibit their work and skills in this regard opens a second edition of the concept called “Female entrepreneurship Spirit”. About 62 firms have female entrepreneurs, mostly embroidery products, trading firms, etc., included in a wide geography, ranging from Shkodra, Gjirokastra, Korca, Pogradec Maminas, and many other cities. According to the state statistics 80% of the women businesses are ranged as small business because most of the large or medium-sized businesses are owned by men. Even if the women's businesses are small, they are able to provide quality and enough support for themselves. They are still at the stage of complaining the facilities and opportunities to have a business owned alone. Many women associations show that women have not yet reached a balance between business problems and family problem. Generally women get lost because of the limited time to deal with the concern. Business is difficult and has very little space to make mistakes because as many of them confirm in Albania a matter of mentality. Women innovators is a simple business-oriented set of connections that provides knowledge and inspiration for this successful business owners in Albania. There are many projects initiated by the head of the Albanian Parliament Mrs. Jozefina Topalli. In these movements she aims to raise the ambition and support the women businesses because Albania must increase the number of companies established by women. These programs offer mentoring by the local legal partners, training and offer short workshops. These leaders must strive to provide useful tips and information on the organization. The manufacturing sectors need inspired entrepreneurs not only actual and potential, but also offering practical tools that can be incorporated into business entrepreneurs. Women are a huge asset that contributes to the economy but also in family income. Our research wishes to reach out to as many women and contribute to them in order for them to see the opportunities that are offered to create their business. There are 65 per cent informal employment in Albania consists of women, while men are less employed in black market, with only 35 percent, according to the World Bank report. About 20 per cent fewer women than men are paid on average in the Western Balkans. In Albania there are very few women or businesswoman who owned a private business. The World Bank report states that in Europe finds significant disparities in this spectrum. According to EU the countries with the lowest levels of female ownership in business are Albania, Azerbaijan and Kosovo (11 percent). According to INSTAT, the number of active businesses in 2010 amounted to 100,600 businesses where 26.4% are owed or managed by women. During 2010 the number of active businesses was 106,477, of which 25.7%
were led by women. According to the Bank of Albania, of the total crediting for 2010 shows that: 31.4% was obtained from businesses that are owner or managed by women. Albanian government decided to implement the Business and Investment Strategy for 2007-2013, approved by the regulation Nr.795, dated 11.07.2007. The strategic program for the development of SMEs for the period 2007-2009 aims to promote the competitiveness of SMEs focused on female labor. The strategy has a meeting point on supporting entrepreneurship culture in improving the business climate, increase competitiveness and improve SME financing programs to promote women's participation in business.

2. Concept of women entrepreneurs

Women Entrepreneurs may be individualized as the women or a group of women who start, arrange and activates a business enterprise. The Government of Albania has defined women entrepreneurs as an important and main chain for having an increase firstly in the labor force. The women in Albania show that accepts the things that she doesn't know because nobody knows all the required information to run a business. It is important to understand what you already know, what you don't know and how to fill the latter. Many investigations showed that females usually talk to the same gender about business if they need help to expand a company plan. They are opened to ask frequently for the steps they need to provide and particularly their simplicity makes an advantage. Their softness will save a lot of time in plan techniques and avoid some wrong steps commonly. On the other side for the design of the plans women showed to be more understandable than mans as for example in consumer marketing, because “they cannot put hand in the fire for nothing”. After they create the plan they are more intelligent to communicate with others in order to get a feedback of their thoughts. Usually they seem to be prepared to change their minds. When they get feedback, women leader never hesitates to change the original plan. Women entrepreneurs engaged in business due to push and pull factors which encourage women to have an independent occupation enable them to stand on their own legs. There is an intellect sovereign in decision-making on their life and career is a motivating factor behind any recommendation. Under the many pressure of factors the women entrepreneurs choose to be profession and do something new. Such a situation is described as pull factors. While in push factors women occupied in business activities due to family compulsion and the responsibility is drive upon them. Entrepreneurs can be both women and men, but there are factors that distinguish, such are:

- Technological Development - New technologies enables the development of products and creates opportunities for new business and these modern technology, information or communication decrease labor costs. But research shows that entrepreneurial women rarely choose to run the high-tech businesses.
- Economic factors - are economic development, high rate unemployment, lack the level of service sector development, economic transactions as Albanian Economic situation etc.. All these economic issues bring a lack of entrepreneurship because it reduces even the economy's largest companies. Females with underdeveloped economies falter have no opportunity to open new business.
- Demographic factor - are woman's family status, age, education, ethnicity, etc.. Family status matters because women are more likely to own double businesses difficulties.
- Other factors - are considered the experience of women, unequal status of women in relation to men that are a question of opportunities. On the other side credit gain from banks in order to start personal company usually female leader have lack of knowledge for bank issues and business management areas.

3. Reason for women becoming entrepreneurs

The main obstacle that women may have to enter in business sector is exactly the confidence they have in themselves and which seems to take them one stepped back. The problem is not always the laws or policies of the country towards business, but that women should have the self-confidence to do so. On the other side the knowledge and the skills are an important issue that a woman doesn't lead in innovation. Women showed that her character is full of challenging to gather personal needs. They are more careful in business issues and the sense of sincerity it's more common. In Albania the women entrepreneurs started business due to the contribution of social and healthier family situations. Women entrepreneurs have to face a hard competition with the men entrepreneurs who are easily involve in the development areas to carry out their products. Such a competition ultimately results in the bankruptcy of women entrepreneurs. As in many situations, the choice to work has its advantages and disadvantages, especially when it comes to the female subject, which is a specific stages of life is more difficult to give up some family priority because of the profession work and the possibility to make a career out of the walls of the house. The growth of children and family commitments are the
priority for the woman who decides to create a family, but it is only a matter of time, and on this logic women should support the professional commitment. Women entrepreneurs are providing professional contributions for all potential and internal possibilities. Staying at home and see how others work on a day filled with commitments, makes these women feel empty and without value. Economic independence is another issue that stimulates females to open businesses. By working they provide economic independence and personal income which of course is a direct contribution to the family, but first of themselves. Economics independence is what marks the first equality between partners and gives more meaning to the relationship.

Other reasons are:

- They can make decisions most of the time without taking permission
- They contribute financially to the family, society and economy
- They encourage children to be educated with work

The business or the new organization aims to develop the sense of accomplishment. Besides the role of wives and mothers, even when there are sufficient economic opportunities, a woman who owns a business feels fulfilled and completed in all the roles that she carries, as a wife, mother, woman, wife and friend. Work is a very important aspect of to empower human relations. On the other hand business mothers are model for children. An important element for the mothers who exercise a professional career is and role of model that they provide for their children. When they grow up in the pace of the work of the parents, there are many opportunities to develop a personal ethic for work. Thus, children learn the value of the work, money and household consumption. In this way, when both parents work, the children see the division of duties and responsibilities equally between each other. Men appreciate women who own business. This concept came out from many slogans of female rights that state gender equality. Relationship in pairs becomes even more stimulating when partner drew its independence, independence which enables them to be stronger. The role of women in the business is becoming in a wide social network. Dynamics of life outside the walls of the house without a doubt makes women feel more fulfilled and social life. Business gives them the opportunity to expand the friendship, knowledge and presence in various activities outside the work environment. Innovation world offers us endless opportunities to be updated with the latest news in many areas of life.

4. Challenges of Women Entrepreneurs in Albania

"An entrepreneur tends to bite off a little more than he can chew hoping he'll quickly learn how to chew it!" What if we are talking about a woman entrepreneur?!

Entrepreneurship isn't about having a walk, but it goes too much further if you are part of the women persuasion. Even with the advance made on the support of the women and the hand given to their initiatives, the situation differ form man entrepreneurs to women entrepreneurs. The difficulties women do face on their business way are much more than the man’s. The history, past facts and studies but also real surveys made on the Albanian market and the entrepreneur field, have introduced a list of challenges and difficulties that an Albanian women should face and pass out in order not to turn back, but to succeed in the entrepreneurship.

According to studies made in the world women entrepreneurship situation the conclusion goes to five most important challenges. The fist deals with "Not being taken seriously", the women’s opinion and advices are not taken as expert compare to the man’s. In every forward step taken from the women the first support does not go to the initiative, but each step is considered as a hobby or support activity and in no way as a productive and beneficial business or enterprise.

Second challenge deals with the “Letting fear aside”. This challenge is part of the character of the women, it is difficult for them to let the fear of each step, of failure, fear of success etc, to stand out in the way and get into the real work. Confidence is a great way to combat these fears and the best way to feel confident in what you are doing is to make sure that you are as prepared as possible before you start your business endeavor. Also, believe in what you bring to the table and value your time, efforts and capabilities.

Third challenge is the women’s “desire to please everyone”. The fragile character and the politeness that women possess put them in difficult situations when it comes to lead, to ask and to please. They are educated to be polite and this come to waste of time and energy to achieve what they want on what has to be done in the pleasing way. The answer “No” is very difficult for women to be said too, so this typically comes at the expense of their own needs, business or otherwise.

“Wearing to many hats” is the fourth challenge. Women are used to be each person and hand to each person. So they are used to be what other wants to each of them. Wearing to many hats is called, and in the moment that
“enterprise” or “own business” is added to the mix, this makes a harder time to them and adds the difficulties. “Women can feel like they have to “do it for themselves” or are the best person for every job and have a tougher time delegating responsibilities to others. This causes more time to be spent working in their business, rather than on their business. This is a major hurdle to overcome in order to have a successful business.”

“Being proud of success” and speaking out loud the achievements are part of a business and successful one. But women are not used to do this and they feel uncomfortable talking about their achievements and promoting them to the others. But your achievements and accomplishments are some of the biggest selling points your business has, so don’t be afraid to put them out there!

These were five of the most important challenges, but if we talk about a small country as Albania is, and with an economy in transition, the difficulties rises and the challenges are not any more this general but they goes more indeed. Many surveys are made and many statistics are analyzed, there can be seen that there is a small percentage of women being hard working and successful on enterprises, highly educated, married and with children and very capable on their way.

The basic difficulties start with the “Financial Assistance”. One of the main obstacles encountered is the lack of financial support both from State and private banks, and from institutions and funding foundations as a whole. It is noted that about 50 per cent of women entrepreneurs wish to receive financial backing to expand their firms.

The legal background is the other next difficulty. The policies of the Albanian economy, mostly the tax policies do not stimulate the new businesses, and most of the women entrepreneurs complain for the non sense responses they get from the duty offices and not understandable proceedings they should follow to be in accordance with the law and regulations.

Information, one of basic obstacles not just in the business are but in many other. There are no public institutions to which one can turn for current information on business development.

The social environment is part of the difficulties. Women entrepreneurs tend to be discouraged by a hostile and distrustful environment. Several factors of a social, cultural and psychological nature have led many people to believe that women are devoid of the managerial capabilities required for the successful management of a business. This attitude is hardly likely to change in the short term.

Managerial Capabilities, is a difficult named as this just because of the lack of the self confidence the Albanian women do have compare to the men. Running an enterprise needs to take risks, that is none of women nature. Many are unfamiliar with marketing techniques, or do not possess the experience and ability needed to expand their businesses, or sell other products, or to diversify. They often find it hard to draw up, prepare and present a business plan. Here great assistance has been provided by other NGOs, such as the “Promotion and development of small and medium-sized enterprises” project of the German GTZ in Tirana, the regional development agencies operating in several towns, and the UNDP-backed “Promotion of small and medium-sized enterprises and the possibilities of creating new jobs” project at Fier and Berat.

Mobility, which goes parallel to the Albanian culture and mentality, is another difficulty of women entrepreneurs in Albania. A considerable percentage of women have difficulty in travelling alone, even though situation is in change, mainly due to the chaos during the economic and political crisis. Moreover it can be said that Albanian women are “not supposed” to travel alone. If they dare to do so, they may the subject of adverse reactions, molestation or robbery, and they have greater fears than men who travel alone. The problem of getting around is of greater consequence for women who live outside Tirana and have to come into the capital for supplies.

Instability, said for the general situation, highlights a great pressure of women difficulties. Civil disorder has resulted in the closure of many businesses run by women and discouraged the others to commence businesses. According to the survey made from the International Labor Organizations for Albania, examination of the reasons why businesses close down throws light on the difficulties that face women as entrepreneurs in Albania. Lack of funds was responsible for 36.4 per cent of shutdowns, whereas 29.6 per cent of women gave up due to external non-business (gender-related) factors such as marriage or divorce. In other cases, women entrepreneurs have been compelled to close because the land on which their enterprise was situated was repossessed by the former owner. Other closures have been rendered necessary by a lack of customers (13.6 per cent) or arising from management problems (12.7 per cent).

5. Supporting Organizations

Women entrepreneur as there is figured out above, have many difficulties and through success in the own business area.
The democratic governments and developed ones have started too early to support women in their initiatives and have reached to get productive results. Many international organizations are the right hand of women now a day. In Albania too, after 1990, many national and international organizations are helping in the women entrepreneurs’ area, among the bodies that support women in business is; The government through the Women Department established in 1992, currently named “Women and Family Committee” under the supervision of Council of Ministers. It aims to foster women participation in all spheres of life via the development of social policies, improvement of legislation, co-operation with local governments. The range of issues that it is dealing with is broader than women and business. In the framework of assistance and promotion of women participation in business it has conducted three training courses, sponsored by the government and international organizations like UNDP, EU, ILO. Beneficiaries have been businesswomen and NGO-s. Main foreign institutions and agencies that have provided support to women businesses:

   USAID, through project has been one of the main donors for business the strategy and plans for development of women via the Committee "Women and Family”.
   SNV (The Netherlands Development Organization), EC through the PHARE program has financed several projects of women NGO-s, GTZ, the German project for support of SME-s has offered assistance for the support, training and promotion of 192 women entrepreneurs. SOROS Foundation (OSFA) supports the women NGO-s activities through the Women Programs.

   There is a considerable number of NGO’s in Albania that operates with the aim of helping, training and supporting, most of them with direct intent with women support.

   Nevertheless, as a matter of fact, the women movement in support to women entrepreneurs is becoming more massive and consolidated. The positive trend for increasing the number of branches in other districts has to be followed by the increase of the membership. The NGO-s are becoming more and more as representatives of specific interest of women entrepreneurs of those that aim to start a women business and of women that want to improve the managerial skills, before being engaged into a real business.

6. Conclusion

Women are strong and their character may handle a lot more than is usually thought. Women may be successful and sometimes more than men do. There are a lot of challenges that women entrepreneurs have to face and all the above listed do have a part in the Albanian women entrepreneurs. From year to year things have changed and been better. Much more will be done and without the proper support women are too fragile to be alone, at least let them know that in any situation the support is near.

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Organic Food Consumers Purchase Patterns – Insights from Croatian Market

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Abstract

Organic agriculture is a holistic production system, which sustains the natural soil activity, ecosystem and people. The new system is a reaction of producers of organic food to unsustainability of capital intensive agriculture. Organic food market develops progressively because of consumers’ increased interest in nutrition, health and environment protection, with the European market for organic food being the biggest market for organic food worldwide. Organic food market in Croatia is in the phase of rapid development with characteristics of mature markets. Taking into account the offer of organic food in Croatian big box retailers, the market is definitely between the growing and the developed market. Theoretical part of the paper will sum up findings about characteristics of organic food consumers and address their buying behaviour, motives for organic food purchase and perception about organic food compared to conventional food. Research results show existence of significant relationship between organic food purchase according to the region, education level, place of residence, financial status, personal monthly income and monthly household income. Further on, insights from organic food purchase patterns from Croatian market show that frequent organic food consumers consider organic food tastier and healthier than conventional, and consider that organic food with the eco-label is safer for consumption than the food without the eco-label.

Keywords: organic food, purchase patterns, empirical research, Croatia.

1. Introduction

The organically produced goods market grows continuously, in both food (fruits, dairy, cereals) and non-food (cosmetics, cotton) product categories. As a reaction to unsustainability of capital intensive agriculture, the producers switch to organic agriculture, the holistic production system, which sustains the natural soil activity, ecosystem and people. At the end of 2011, the organic agriculture was present in 162 countries world-wide and there were 37.2 million hectares of organic agricultural land (including in-conversion areas) (Willer, Lernoud, Home, 2013). Simultaneously, the demand side of the market is encouraged by consumers’ increased, and continuously growing, interest in nutrition, health and environment protection (Gil, Gracia, Sánchez, 2000). It is estimated that organic food and drink sales reached almost 63 billion US dollars in 2011 (Willer, Lernoud, Home, 2013).

The leading organic product categories come from the food categories, and although definitions differ, many authors consider organic food as raised, grown, stored and/or processed without the use of synthetically produced chemicals or fertilisers, herbicides, pesticides, fungicides, growth hormones, regulators or genetically modified components (Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011; Ngobo, 2011). In legal terms, a food product can only be labelled and called organic if 95% of its agricultural raw materials has been produced or grown organically. Also, it is important to
note that all food sold as organic must come from growers, producers, processors or importers who are registered and subject to inspection.

The retail market for organic food is the biggest in Europe (Janssen, Heid, Hamm, 2009). The absolute leaders in organic food sales are Germany, United Kingdom, France and Italy, with highest market shares of organic food in the total food market in Austria (5%), Germany, Denmark and Luxembourg (3.7 – 3.8%) (European Commission, Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010), and biggest surfaces for organic production located in Italy and Spain (de Magistris, Gracia, 2008; Mesias Diaz et al., 2012). In 2011 the total European organic market reached 21 billion Euros, which is 6% growth annually, while the organic food market was expected to grow more than the total food market (Wessanen, 2012). The organic food market was a specialist niche market, with direct selling and specialised stores as the dominant sales channels (Padel, Midmore, 2005; Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011). However, as the demand increased, organic food market moved from the niche market towards the mainstream position. Croatian food market is one of the markets that develop rapidly. Based on the structure of organic food sales channels, Vaclavik (2009) classified Croatian organic food market as a mature market, while taking into account development and the contemporary assortment of organic food in big box retailers, it is between the growing and the developed market (Guszak, Tokić, 2012).

Whether that development will continue, depends also on the understanding of consumers’ perception of organic food, their decision making process, shopping behaviour, consumers’ profiles and the factors that influence the purchase of organic food. A number of studies have examined various aspects of consumers and organic food, but results are often inconsistent and generalization is still difficult. Chinnici, D’Amico, Pecorino (2002) established that diversified types of consumers exist, each of which requires specific marketing mix policies. Several authors researched the specifics of Croatian organic food consumers (Štefanić, Štefanić, Hass, 2001; Radman, 2005; First, Brozina, 2009; Cerjak et al., 2010; Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011). Still, the existing literature does not provide sufficient information and knowledge about consumers, necessary for development of marketing strategies on this growing market.

The literature void this paper aims to fill in is identification of purchase patterns of the Croatian organic food consumers. In the literature review authors summarised previous research findings of consumers’ organic food perception, consumers’ characteristics, buying behaviour and motivation to buy organic food, focusing on the evidence from the Mediterranean region. Empirical part of the paper will give insights and new findings about organic food consumers in Croatia. Special emphasis is put on the exploration of purchase patterns of organic food consumers with regard to demographic and psychographic characteristics connected with organic food buying behaviour. The remainder of the paper is organised as follows. We begin with the overview of relevant literature, which is followed by the empirical research methodology. Then, we present the data analysis results. Finally, the paper ends with explanation of implications and suggestions for future research.

2. Literature review

One of the rare conclusions found in almost every study of organic food consumption is the overall positive attitude of consumers towards organic food. However, some consumer groups are more positive and willing to pay more for organic food, so they are the customers the marketing strategies should target (Radman, 2005). The most prominent characteristic consumers perceive of organic food is that it is healthier than conventional food (Chinnici, D’Amico, Pecorino, 2002). Although its superior taste is not widely proven, taste of organic food is rated high in Germany and United Kingdom (Fotopoulos, Krystallis, 2002). Greek consumers find organic food healthier and of higher quality than conventional food, but the higher prices are noticed too (Tsakiridou et al., 2008). Štefanić et al. (2001) reported that Croatian consumers perceived organic food as healthier, tastier and better looking than the conventional food. Based on Radman’s study (2005), good quality could be added to the list, as well as the perception of organic food as rather expensive and of questionable appearance. Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak and Guszak (2011) found that for Croatian consumers three the most important organic food features are more expensive and healthier than conventional food, and organic food labelled with the organic food sign are safer than organic food without a certificate.

Consumers’ motivation to buy an item highly relates to their perception, hence most consumers rank organic food’s positive effects on health as their prime purchase motive. Chinnici, D’Amico, Pecorino (2002) found that in southern Italy consumers’ intentions to purchase organic food are driven by health concerns (54%) and curiosity (23%), while de Magistris and Gracia (2008) added attitude towards environment and First and Brozina (2009) repeated health-safety and taste as dominant organic food purchase motives in Italy. The French consumers are more concerned about environment, as Broun et al. (2009) found that their motivation for organic food box scheme lies in quality of products,
ecological commitment and natural organic production of foods (Cerjak et al., 2010). Similarly, First and Brozina (2009) identified healthy nutrition, taste and respect for living world as dominating motives for organic food purchases in France. Care for environment and health are encouraging organic food consumption of Greek consumers (Tsakiridou et al., 2008) and same motives only in opposite order drive organic purchases on markets in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia (Cerjak et al., 2010). According to First and Brozina (2009), Croatian consumers buy organic food because they aim to avoid harmful ingredients in food, care for own health and look for quality products, which confirm health to be a prime organic food consumption motive in Croatia.

Researchers found conflicting results on who the organic food consumers are. The particularly unclear is the role of consumers' socio-demographic characteristics. Żakowska-Biemans (2011), and Dimitri and Dettmann (2012) state that socio-demographics are not good predictors of organic purchases, or the findings are at least conflicting, but the level of education could be used to predict the likelihood to buy organic food. Higher education is an organic food consumer characteristic also found in Greece (Fotopoulos, Krystallis, 2002; Tsakiridou et al., 2008), Croatia (Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011) and France (Ngobo, 2011). Another organic food consumer characteristic common to all markets is high income (Tsakiridou et al., 2008; Aertsens, Mondelaers, Van Huylenbroeck, 2009; Cerjak et al., 2010; Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011; Ngobo, 2011). Overall, characteristics of major organic food consumers in France are high income, college education, older families and high-level occupations (Ngobo, 2011). Fotopulous and Krystallis (2002) found that Greek organic food consumers are young to middle aged, mainly women, who buy larger quantities and more frequently than men. They also found that the presence of children in family positively influences organic food purchases, while children’s age is even more important (Fotopulous, Krystallis, 2002). Croatian organic food consumers are younger to middle aged, with high education and high income (Brčić-Stipčević, Petljak, Guszak, 2011), live in urban areas and women buy organic food more often than men (Radman, 2005).

Findings reported on the consumer buying behaviour are also diverse. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia most consumers buy organic food occasionally and mostly fresh fruit and vegetable (Cerjak et al., 2010). On Sicily, dominating organic food categories are fresh fruit and vegetables, cereals, dairy and meat (Chinnici, D’Amico, Pecorino, 2002). More available information about organic food positively influences attitudes towards organic food in southern Italy (de Magistris, Gracia, 2008). The most important sources of information about organic food are TV, newspapers and magazines (Chinnici, D’Amico, Pecorino, 2002; Renko, Bošnjak, 2009; Ranilović et al., 2008). Consumers also find important that labels guaranteeing organic production are trustworthy (Wier, Calverley, 2002). For Spanish consumers, even more than the information itself, how the information is provided influences the willingness to pay for organic food (Soler, Gil, Sánchez, 2002). The premiums consumers are willing to pay for organic food vary (Krystallis, Chryssohoidis, 2005), but the actual premium they pay often is up to 300% (Fotopoulos, Krystallis, 2002). Ngobo (2011) found that French organic food consumers do not purchase organic food from concentrated categories, on average households tend to buy organic food private labels more than national brands, sales promotions negatively influence choice of organic product and quantity bought, and organic food should not be popular like any conventional brand.

Other barriers to buying organic food consumers mention include in Croatia and Greece high prices and deficiencies in distribution (Radman, 2005; Tsakiridou et al., 2008), in Spain insufficient knowledge about organic food, high price premiums and difficulty to develop new trading channels (Mesias Diaz et al., 2012), in Poland issue of trust in organic food and credibility of certification system (Żakowska-Biemans, 2011) and in Italy high cost of organic food certification, which hinder organic farms to sell their products with certificates (de Magistris, Gracia, 2008).

3. Empirical research

3.1 Research sample and research instrument

Empirical research on the organic food purchase patterns from the Croatian market was carried out in March 2009, through face-to-face interviews in households, on a sample of Croatian citizens older than 15 years. Sources of the data for defining the framework for a sample selection were the results of the census conducted in 2001 by the Croatian Bureau of Statistics. The stratification was two-dimensional and was conducted according to 6 traditional regions defined as a set of existing counties and according to 4 settlement sizes. For survey dissemination, professional market...
research agency’s network of field operatives was used. The research instrument was a highly structured questionnaire.

3.2 The respondents’ characteristics

The research was conducted on a representative sample of 1,000 respondents (study included 471 men and 529 females). The age range of respondents was from 15 to 86 years and they were equally represented in all age categories (18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64 and older than 65), except in the youngest age category (15-17), in which there were at least respondents.

Research covered the territory of the Republic of Croatia, majority of respondents were from Zagreb and surroundings (24.9%), followed by Dalmatia (19.0%), Northern Croatia (18.0%), Slavonia (17.4%), Istra, Primorje and Gorski kotar (11.9%) and Lika, Kordun and Banovina (8.8%).

According to the settlement size, most of the respondents were from settlement up to 2,000 inhabitants (40.1%), least from a settlement between 2,001 and 10,000 inhabitants (15.3%), while the settlement between 10,001 and 100,000 inhabitants and over 100,000 inhabitants were evenly represented (21.2% and 23.5%).

Regarding the marital status of research participants, most (53.1%) were married. There was 29.7% unmarried or singles, and a small proportion (17.2%) of widowers, widows and divorced respondents.

The most sample respondents had a high school diploma (63.8%), 16.3% finished elementary education, while college or higher education finished 13.6% respondents. The smallest proportion of participants (6.3%) was without completed elementary school.

One half of participants (51.3%) were unemployed, 38.4% were employed and proportions of other employment categories (fixed-term contracts, part-time, self-employed, not registered) were only minor.

Most research respondents were retired (27.4%), 16.7% were qualified workers, 15.2% clerks, and 10.0% pupils. Other occupation categories (housewives, entrepreneurs, low and middle management) were only minor in the sample structure.

Most respondents were individuals in charge of the household (44.2%), 34.9% of respondents were the 'head of the family', while 20.9% were other family/household members. Further on, most households had two members (27.8%), 3-member households were represented with 22.4%, and 4-members and single households were equally represented, with 19.5% and 19.2% respectively. The smallest number of households in the sample was with five and more members (11.1%).

In 69.1% of households, there was no children under 18 years of age in, kids younger than six years were found in 12.7% of households, kids between seven and fourteen lived in 15.6% of households and 10.2% of households had teenagers between 15 and 18 years.

Vast majority of respondents (65.0%) live in houses, while others live in apartment buildings.

Regarding financial status, 67.3% research respondents found their financial status as the average one, followed by respondents who found their financial status to be somewhat below average (14.9%) and those who found it much below average (9.0%), 8.0% of respondents found it somewhat better than average and only 0.8% said it was much better than average.

For most participants (90.7%) income comes from the non-agricultural activities, while 8.3% respondents combines agriculture and other activities as their income sources and only 1.1% lives of agriculture.

Across research sample, personal monthly income varies greatly. Research results indicate that 17.3% of research respondents had no source of income, while 11.9% did not answer. From the remaining respondents, the most frequent income category was 2.001 – 3.500 HRK (30.4%), then the 3.501 – 5.500 HRK range (27.8%), 1.201- 2.000 HRK (20.1%), under 1.200 HRK (10.3%), 5.501 – 7.000 HRK (7.2%) and the least frequent categories were 7.001 – 9.000 HRK (2.2%) and over 9.000 HRK (2.1%).

Monthly household income was not stated by 22.2% respondents. Among others, answers were equally distributed in 5.501 – 8.000 HRK (22%) and 1.801 – 3.500 HRK (21.8%) categories. They are followed by categories 3.501 – 5.500 HRK (17.6%) and 8.001 – 11.000 HRK (17.3%), up to 1.800 HRK (10%), and finally, category over 11.000 HRK (11.4%).
3.3 Organic food purchase patterns according to socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The following segments are dedicated to the organic food purchase patterns, controlled for the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) region, 4) settlement size, 5) marital status, 6) educational level, 7) employment status, 8) household status, 9) number of household members, 10) place of residence, 11) financial status, 12) belonging to financial class, 13) source of income, 14) personal monthly income and 15) monthly household income. After conducting statistical data analysis, research results will be elaborated and explained hereafter.

According to the research conducted on Croatian market, no statistically significant difference by gender in the organic food purchase was found ($\chi^2=2.006$, $p>0.05$). Further on, although literature suggests possible differences in organic food purchase according to the age, research results showed that no statistically significant difference by age in the organic food purchase was found ($\chi^2=17.594$, $p>0.05$).

Table 1. Organic food purchase by region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>Zagreb and surroundings</th>
<th>Northern Croatia</th>
<th>Slavonia</th>
<th>Lika, Kordun and Banovina</th>
<th>Istra, Primorje and Gorski kotar</th>
<th>Dalmatia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>65.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2$, $p$ $\chi^2=36.506; p<0.01$

There is a statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food according to the region ($\chi^2=36.506; p<0.01$). Organic food is often bought by the highest percentage of respondents in Lika, Kordun and Banovina (21.1%), and lowest percentage of respondents in the Slavonia (5.6%). Organic food is rarely bought by the highest percentage of respondents in the Zagreb and surroundings (44.9%), and lowest percentage of respondents in Slavonia (29.4%). Organic food is never bought by the highest percentage of respondents from Slavonia (65.1%), and the smallest percentage of respondents in Lika, Kordun and Banovina (39.4%).

Statistical analysis was also done according to the organic food purchase by settlement size and marital status, where no statistically significant difference was found for the purchase of organic food by settlement size ($\chi^2=8.674$, $p>0.05$) nor by marital status ($\chi^2=2.693$, $p>0.05$).

Table 2. Organic food purchase by education level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>education level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no elementary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f %</td>
<td>f %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>20 55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>10 27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>6 16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2$, $p$ $\chi^2=38.615; p<0.01$

Research results analysis found statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food by education level of respondent ($\chi^2=38.615$, $p<0.01$). Organic food is often in the largest percentage bought by respondents who completed college or university (19.5%), what is in alignment with literature and in the lowest percentage by respondents who have completed three years high school (8.9%). Organic food is rarely in the largest percentage bought by respondents who completed college or university (49.6%), and in the smallest percentage by respondents with no educational qualifications (27.8%). Organic food is never bought by the largest percentage of respondents with no educational qualifications (55.6%), and by the smallest percentage of respondents who have completed college or university (30.9%).

Further on, no statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food by employment status ($\chi^2=17.053$, $p>0.05$), household status ($\chi^2=5.018$, $p>0.05$) and number of household members ($\chi^2=10.775$, $p>0.05$) was found.
Table 3. Organic food purchase by place of residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>place of residence</th>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>house</th>
<th>apartment in the building</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2, p \quad \chi^2 = 13.365; \quad p < 0.01$

Statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food by the place of residence was found ($\chi^2 = 13.365, \quad p < 0.01$). Organic food is in a higher percentage often bought by respondents who live in apartments in the building (15.9%), compared to those who live in houses (10.5%). Organic food is in a higher percentage rarely bought by respondents who live in apartments in the building (42.8%) compared to those who live in houses (34.7%). Organic food is in a higher percentage never bought by respondents who live in houses (54.8%), compared to respondents who live in apartments in the building (41.3%).

Table 4. Organic food purchase by financial status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>financial status</th>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>much worse than average</th>
<th>slightly below average</th>
<th>average, like majority</th>
<th>slightly better than average</th>
<th>much better than average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>77.4</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2, p \quad \chi^2 = 36.634; \quad p < 0.01$

Statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food according to the perceived financial status of respondent was found ($\chi^2 = 36.634, \quad p < 0.01$). Organic food is often bought by the largest percentage of respondents who perceive that their financial status is much better than average (42.9%), and by the smallest percentage of respondents who perceive their financial status is much worse than the average (9.7%). Organic food is rarely bought by the largest percentage of respondents who perceive their financial status is slightly better than average (49.3%), and by the smallest percentage of respondents who perceive their financial status is much worse than the average (12.9%). Organic food is never bought by the largest percentage of those respondents who consider their financial status is much worse than the average (77.4%) and it is in the least extent bought by respondents whose financial status is slightly better than average (31.9%).

Surprisingly, no statistically significant difference by source of income in the purchase of organic food was found ($\chi^2 = 2.558, \quad p > 0.05$).

Table 5. Organic food purchase by personal monthly income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>personal monthly income</th>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>up to 1.200 HRK</th>
<th>1.201-2.000 HRK</th>
<th>2.001-3.500 HRK</th>
<th>3.501-5.500 HRK</th>
<th>5.501-7.000 HRK</th>
<th>7.001-9.000 HRK</th>
<th>over 9.000 HRK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>49.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2, p \quad \chi^2 = 33.947; \quad p < 0.01$

By conducting research results analysis we found a statistically significant difference in the purchase of organic food according to the personal monthly income ($\chi^2 = 33.947, \quad p < 0.01$). Organic food is often bought by the largest percentage of
respondents with personal monthly income over 9.000 HRK (35.7%), and smallest percentage of respondents with a personal monthly income up to 1.200 HRK (6.1%). Organic food is rarely bought by the largest percentage of respondents with personal monthly income between 7.001 and 9.000 HRK (56.3%), and by the smallest percentage of respondents with personal monthly income between 1.201 and 2.000 HRK (33.0%). Organic food is in the highest percentage never bought by respondents with personal monthly income up to 1.200 HRK (57.1%), what is expected and by lowest percentage of respondents with a personal monthly income between 5.501 and 7.000 HRK (24.4%).

Table 6. Organic food purchase by monthly household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>monthly household income</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>up to 1.800 HRK</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>over 11.000 HRK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>never</td>
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<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>often</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2, p = 22.123; p < 0.05 \]

Statistically significant difference was found in the purchase of organic food according to the level of monthly household income \( (\chi^2=22.123, p<0.05) \). Organic food is often purchased by the largest percentage of respondents whose monthly household income is between 8.001 and 11.000 HRK (13.1%) and respondents with monthly household income over 11.000 HRK (13.0%), whereas it is often purchased by the smallest percentage of respondents with a household income between 5.501 and 8.000 HRK (8.5%). Organic food is rarely bought by the largest percentage of respondents whose household monthly income is between 8.001 and 11.000 HRK (53.3%), and it is rarely bought by the smallest percentage of respondents with a household income up to 1.800 HRK per month (30.6%). Organic food is never bought by the highest percentage of respondents with a household income up to 1.800 HRK (59.2%), and lowest percentage of respondents whose monthly household income is between 8.001 and 11.000 HRK (33.6%).

3.4 Organic food purchase patterns according to the perception of organic food compared to conventional food

Further on, empirical research investigated respondents' organic food purchase patterns according to the perception of organic food in relation to conventional food. Respondents' perception of organic food compared to conventional food was examined using the five-point Likert scale, where 1 represented complete disagreement and 5 complete agreement with the statement. In order to determine whether there are differences in the comparison of organic food and conventional food according to the organic food purchase, analysis of variance was carried out. Further on, among differences that proved to be statistically significant, Scheffe post-hoc test was conducted.

Table 7. Organic food purchase according to the perception of organic food compared to conventional food

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>statement</th>
<th>organic food purchase</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>never</td>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional food is the food without the 'organic origin' label.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organic food is tastier than conventional food.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.139</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organic food is more expensive than conventional food.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.937</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organic food is healthier for me and my family than conventional food.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organic food with the eco-label is safer for consumption than the food without it.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.038</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

M - mean, SD – standard deviation
Research analysis found no statistically significant difference in the response to the statement 'Conventional food is the food without the 'organic origin' label.' \((F=0.72, p>0.05)\). However, we found statistically significant difference in the response to the statement 'Organic food is tastier than conventional food.' \((F = 25.79, p<0.01)\). Respondents who state that they never buy organic food to a lesser extent believe that organic food is tastier than conventional food with regard to respondents who rarely buy organic food and respondents who often buy organic food. Also, respondents who rarely buy organic food to a lesser extent believe that organic food is tastier than conventional food, when compared to respondents who often buy organic food.

No statistically significant difference in the response to the statement 'Organic food is more expensive than conventional food.' considering organic food purchase was found \((F=0.04, p > 0.05)\).

Statistically significant difference in the response to the statement 'Organic food is healthier for me and my family than conventional food.' according to organic food purchase was found \((F=42.80, p<0.01)\). Respondents who never buy organic food to a lesser extent believe that organic food is healthier for them and their families from the conventional food than respondents that rarely and often buy organic food.

Statistically significant difference in the response to the statement 'Organic food with the eco-label is safer for consumption than the food without it.' according to the organic food purchase was found \((F=7.90, p<0.01)\). Respondents who never buy organic food to a lesser extent believe that organic food marked with eco-label is safer for consumption than organic food without eco-label, than respondents who buy organic food rarely and often.

4. Conclusion

The paper gives the insight into organic food consumers purchase patterns based on literature review and empirical research conducted on the Croatian market. Research results indicate significant connections in organic food purchase according to the region, education level, place of residence, financial status, personal monthly income and monthly household income. Research results indicate that Croatian consumers find organic food tastier and healthier than conventional. Also, they consider that organic food with the eco-label is safer for consumption than the food without the eco-label. Future research should aim at more detailed identification of a profile of Croatian organic food consumers. The original contribution of this research is in the detailed insight into organic food purchase patterns from Croatian market, from the perspective of frequent, rare and non-buyers of organic food. Research results yield new knowledge about organic food consumers and their purchase patterns, and can be useful for further stimulation of organic food consumption and organic food market development in Croatia.

References


Ethnic Variety in South Caucasus: Conflicts and Perspectives

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Abstract

Caucasus as one of the most historical human living places of the world has been homeland for a lot of very different civilizations and cultures. Because of geopolitical and geostrategical importance, region has always been intersection point of interest and area for wars between great powers. As a result of struggle for region, since the beginning of 19th century Caucasus passed under control of Russian Empire and today’s ethnic and political conflicts of region are fruit of “divide and rule” policy implemented by Russia since that time. During the period of USSR with the impact of very strict policy by Moscow, ethnic conflicts of region were frozen and kept for future till when there will be need for them. First conflict started between Azerbaidjanian and Armenian people living in the Nagorno Karabakh region of Azerbaidjan and soon after turned into a regional war between Azerbaijan and Armenia. Separation demands of the Abkhaz and the Ossettians living in Georgian territory caused Georgian-Abkhaz and Georgian-Ossetian conflicts. On the other hand, geopolitical and geostrategical position of the South Caucasus Region increased its importance in new world order. After the collapse of the USSR, regional powers such as Russian Federation, Turkey and Iran started to compete in order to bridge the authority gap in the region. In this context, regional powers’ relations with the South Caucasus States determined the course of the ethnic conflicts. So, there is absolutely complicated situation about conflicts in the region and all these problems are waiting for their solution.

Fig. 1. The South Caucasus

1. The stakeholders in ethnic conflicts in the South Caucasus

Modern conflicts have become the key factor behind the instability in the world. Ethnic and intra-national conflicts are the most distinctive ones that vary based on the origin and nature. They tend to be more complex, intricate, demanding and hard to solve. History demonstrates that ethnic and international collisions prevail over other conflict types in polyethnic regions, by scale, duration and intensity. Regrettably, ethnic conflicts coupled with separatism are also the greatest impediments to the integration and comprehensive development of the region where Azerbaijan belongs. Thus, separatism poses particularly grave threat in such a multinational and polyethnic region as the Caucasus. Russian political scientist Sergey Markedonov correctly underscores that end of the soviet era is associated with definitions of
“Caucasus” and "conflict" in the post soviet space. Caucasus has emerged as a corner of Eurasia with fierce ethnic-political conflicts and wars after the late 80’s of the XX century. Six out of eight ethnic-political and civil conflicts of the post soviet space indeed erupted in the Caucasus. Those are Armenia-Azerbaijan conflict over the Nagorno Karabakh, Georgia-Osetiya and Georgia-Abkhazia conflicts, civil war in Georgia, Osetiya-Ingushetia war within Russia and Russian-Chechen conflict. Eventually, Caucasus has turned into a purveyor of separatist entities on the post soviet space. Although realization of separatist initiatives do not make political integration of various ethnic groups totally impossible it nevertheless complicates the matter. It is commonly known that breach of stability and increase of intra-national tensions in the South Caucasus emanate from Armenia’s territorial claims against Azerbaijan. Aggressive ethnic-separatist movement initiated by Armenia in Nagorno Karabakh has spurred perilous trends in the region, making the problem a global one. Ethnic extremism accompanied by separatism has turned into a curse for the South Caucasus. Interestingly, Armenian side attempts to justify the territorial claims against Azerbaijani lands (Nagorno Karabakh) with the slogan of self-determination (secession from Azerbaijan) for the Armenians of the Nagorno Karabakh. However, right for self-determination does not imply "right to secede" and must not be held equal to separatism. Unfortunately, international organizations and large countries that have assumed a mediation mission for the resolution of Nagorno Karabakh conflict fail to exert pressure upon Armenia, to coerce constructive position of this country, and to urge inadmissibility of manipulation of the notion of "self-determination". Problem is that due to their intra-national and ethnic nature unresolved conflict of Nagorno Karabakh negatively impacts similar regional conflicts. Prevention of those conflicts requires a better understanding and consideration of the peculiarities, history, ethnic composition and geopolitical situation of the region on the part of the Western states and international organizations interested in speedy resolution of the problem. Without due consideration of regional peculiarities and situation on the ground, any endeavor for resolution of the conflict is doomed to failure. First and foremost Caucasus has to be acknowledged as a unique region, an ethnic mosaic. It has distinctive ethnic, lingual, confessional and cultural diversity. Caucasus is often described as Babylon or the museum of nations. Representatives of 50 various ethnicities live each with indigenous culture and language live here. Thus, the very countries and organizations that condone Armenia’s defiance with regards to the issue of self-determination must ask themselves a question: What would be the consequences for the Caucasus, should every nation and ethnicity demand this right in the form of separatism? Such resolution would undoubtedly serve as a precedent for other ethnic conflicts in the multinational region. This development would clearly contradict the interests of the region and the West. Some assert that since this region rests within traditional Russian sphere of interest this country aims to preserve the current situation for retaining the South Caucasus in its realm of influence. Accordingly, Russia is interested in maintaining "manageable instability" in the region. However, they seem to forget that "manageable instability" or other theories of conflict resemble the dangerous game of "playing with fire" because similar to fire any instability or conflict may get out of control and become difficult to tame. It would be sufficed to revert to Russia's recent history to show that this country is not insured from intra-ethnic conflicts either. Apart from Chechen uprising, Northern Caucasus had experienced other ethnic-national movements committed to the idea of "self-determination" or even "secession" in the 1990's. At the time, the Caucasian ethnicities forwarded initiatives to secede not only from Russia but also from republics with diverse ethnic population. Notably, in 1991 five entities were declared in just one Republic of Karachay-cherkeziya, namely Karachay Republic, Cherkez Republic, Abaza Republic, Batalpashin Kazac Republic, Zelenchuk Urup Republic. Dire consequences of separatism are quite plausible in Russia, bearing in mind that this enormous and multinational country is not comprised of only the Northern Caucasus, aggravated by current geopolitical transformation in the Middle East and neighboring regions. In the meantime, the West has to be interested in the accelerated settlement of Nagorno Karabakh conflict as well as other regional conflicts, considering the critical role of the Caucasus in ensuring transit of energy, transportation and trade. Protraction of conflicts may obstruct implementation of large scale projects to be initiated by the West. The South Caucasus is one of strategically vital locations of the global geopolitics. Its prominence is solidified by the fact that direct access to Central Asia, beyond Russia and Iran, rests through the South Caucasus. Thus, in the environment of globalization and integration the West would hardly seek relations with tiny states in relatively small and volatile region. It is not just the economic and political interests that jeopardize the security of the Western states; unresolved regional conflicts may develop into a full scale war in the vicinity of Europe that already suffers from the financial crisis and uncertainty. Finally, regional states also ought to be interested in the resolution of conflicts they are involved in. Armed conflicts entailed human casualties, financial losses, economic hardship, expulsion of thousands of refugees and internally displaced persons and other tragedies. Unresolved conflicts negatively affect economic prospects as well as global and regional outreach of the concerned countries and hampers comprehensive realization of their potential.
2. Legal aspects of the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict

2.1 Based on the laws and Constitution of the former USSR.

On February 20, 1988, a session of the Supreme Soviet of the Mountainous Karabakh Autonomous Region (Mountainous Karabakh region) appealed to the Supreme Soviet of Armenia, Azerbaijan and the USSR to allow it to be joined to Armenia. The Azerbaijani government quickly rejected this request on the basis of the USSR Constitution of 1977, Article 78 which provides that «The territory of Union Republics may be altered by mutual agreement of the Republics concerned, subject to ratification by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics». This constitutional act of Azerbaijan was received in Mountainous Karabakh and in Armenia with hostilities against Azeris. Strikes and mass demonstrations were organized in order to exert pressure on the central government.

However, on July 18, 1988, a special session of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR discussed the resolution of the Supreme Soviet of the Mountainous Karabakh region on secession from Azerbaijan and incorporation into Armenia and adopted a decision confirming that Mountainous Karabakh remains an Autonomous Region within Azerbaijan. The response to this decision in Mountainous Karabakh was again strikes and mass protests.

All attempts of Azeri authorities to discuss possible solutions to existing problems in the Region with local Armenian authorities of Mountainous Karabakh were rejected. Representatives of the Azeri government visiting Stepanakert (Khankendi) to hold negotiations were attacked and beaten.

On December 1, 1989, the Supreme Soviet of Armenia adopted a resolution on unification of Mountainous Karabakh with Armenia. Such a resolution violates Azerbaijani territorial integrity and makes the territorial claims official.

The Autonomous Regions in the former USSR did not have constitutions as did Autonomous Republics, neither did the Autonomous Republics have the right of secession as did the Union Republics. The principles of granting autonomous status (Region or Republic) to the national minorities in the former USSR did not have any logical basis and their creation had more political aims rooted in imperialistic rule, than desire for protection of minorities rights.

2.2 Based on the Treaty of the Commonwealth of Independent States.

After the coup d'etat failure and the USSR's collapse, Armenia and Azerbaijan as independent states entered the Commonwealth of Independent States. One of the major principles of the Commonwealth Treaty is inviolability of the borders of the constituent sovereign states, that is, territorial integrity. However, the Armenian population in Mountainous Karabakh held a referendum, declared the establishment of the «Mountainous Karabakh Republic» as an «independent» state and appealed to the Commonwealth for membership. This separatist action contradicts to the principles of the Treaty, signed by 11 sovereign republics, the Helsinki Final Act and International Law, and was not recognized by the Commonwealth or any other states of the world.

2.3 Based on International Law, OSCE and U.N. principles

At the present time Armenia has changed its policy towards the Mountainous Karabakh problem. Former Armenian president Ter-Petrosyan and other officials stated that Armenia had no territorial claims to Azerbaijan and Mountainous Karabakh was the internal matter of Azerbaijan and the problem of self-determination of the Armenian population there. Even the official approach of the Armenian government changed, but the resolution on incorporation of Mountainous Karabakh still exists. Armenian officials say that it is not valid, but it was not annulled and officially still on the book. The deputies elected in Mountainous-Karabakh are still members of the Armenian Parliament and the Armenian soldiers are fighting on the territory of Azerbaijan and killing its citizens. Though Armenia’s authorities changed their strategy and stance on the problem, the facts show the volume of political and military interference of Armenia into internal affairs of the Republic of Azerbaijan.

Armenians of Mountainous-Karabakh also changed their position at present stage of the conflict. At present time they do not voice their desire to join Armenia, but declare their goal to establish an independent state based on the principle of the peoples right to self-determination. In that case, it is very important to differ between the rights of «people» and the rights of «minorities». Armenians living in Azerbaijan are national minority, which has a mother-nation in Armenia. Karabakh Armenians have the right to internal self-determination, meaning the right to determine their status for effective participation in political, social, economic, cultural, religious and public life in Azerbaijan in a manner, which is not threatening the territorial integrity of Azerbaijan and its sovereignty. After the collapse of Russian Empire the
Armenian people exercised their right to self-determination on the territory of present Armenia plus Zangesur, given to it by the Bolshevik government after the occupation of the two republics in 1920-21. The Armenian people achieved independence and their right to self-determination on the territory of the present Armenia again after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991.

Strictly legal arguments against secession were summarized by Lee C. Burchett and include the following:

- International Law is the law of states and not of peoples or individuals. States are the subject of international law and peoples are the objects of that law;
- The so-called principle of mutuality; as states cannot oust a part of them, equally a part of a State cannot forcibly secede.

How many times will the Armenian people exercise its right to self-determination by building independent states? Today they plan to do it on the territory of Azerbaijan; by this logic in the future it can took place in Georgia, Russia, even California as well. Armenian scholars emphasize that Mountainous Karabakh is a special case and Karabakh Armenians differ from the other Armenian communities outside of Armenia, as they had autonomous status, which is the starting point for self-determination and as a result of it, for secession. But the Autonomous Region of Mountainous Karabakh did not have the right of secession on the basis of the Constitutions of the former USSR and Azerbaijan. So, there is no legitimate difference in terms of secession, between Armenians of Mountainous Karabakh and Armenians living in compact communities in other countries. No doubt that Armenians living in Mountainous Karabakh in Azerbaijan or in the territory of other states are national minority and have the right to determine their status inside the states they inhabit, but should not take measures for its dismemberment.

3. The current status-quo in the Nagorno Karabakh conflict can lead to the war.

The international community is trying to assure Azerbaijan to avoid the war for solution of the Nagorno Karabakh problem. But Azerbaijani President I. Aliyev stated many times that Azerbaijani people’s patience has its limits. He said Azerbaijan couldn’t wait for endless continuation of the status-quo and would use all its rights and ways to restore its territorial integrity. “Therefore the international community, OSCE Minsk Group co-chairs insistently demand to change the status-quo, consider it unacceptable to save the status-quo and try to assure Azerbaijan to avoid other ways until the status-quo is changed. Azerbaijan is not a militarist state and has no views on somebody’s lands. Our main goal is to protect and ensure our state sovereignty, to restore territorial integrity and violated rights of the citizens and to establish peace in the region. Therefore Azerbaijan is trying to use the negotiation process and to reach the peacemaking process without using the military way. Otherwise Azerbaijan has the right to liberate its territories from the occupation by other means”. Azerbaijan is not going to compromise these rights. Because one of the two major principles of the fundamental law was depicted in the UN Charter after the World War II. This is the principle of territorial integrity and inviolability of the territorial integrity. Only with the permission of the state the territorial integrity can be changed, annexed to the territory of another state or independence can be given to the people living there. This principle is one of the major norms of the international law. The second principle was added to the international law later, especially after OSCE was established. This is the people’s right to self-determination. It is not written here that the people’s right to self-determination will result in the violation of the states’ territorial integrity.

The rights of various peoples can be ensured within the framework of the states’ territorial integrity. There are examples. Peoples and nations get national autonomy within the framework of the determination of their rights. Within this autonomy they form their right to life, including their life style. The state as a geopolitical author, subject of the international law is a model having no alternative yet. Basing on this model we unambiguously put forward and support the principle of the inviolability of Azerbaijan’s territorial integrity. Armenia-Azerbaijan conflict will be solved basing on this right.

4. Azerbaijan has identified steps to develop post-conflict Karabakh

Azerbaijan has reiterated that it is ready to grant the highest status available to Nagorno-Karabakh. But the essence and details of this status are not always disclosed. These details can be interesting and attractive for the Armenian community of Nagorno-Karabakh.

As you know, one of the provisions of the Madrid Principles addresses the status of Karabakh. But it will be possible to grant a status only after Azerbaijani community returns to this territory and the surrounding districts are de-occupied. Azerbaijan can consider the issue of high status only after this takes place. Similar status is available in
different parts of the world. For example, South Tyrol. It is a cultural autonomy and cultural status within the territorial integrity of the country. This is about both vertical and horizontal status. This status preserves subordination to the state in social, political and economic fields. There are also principles of independence. In this context, the principles of the entity that will be established in Karabakh should be discussed. True, as MPs, we don’t have a deep awareness of this matter. However, it is known that Azerbaijan already has great proposals and plans on post-conflict development of this territory. This territory belongs to Azerbaijan and it is responsible for socioeconomic development here. Azerbaijan has already identified financial and other matters that need to be settled to develop post-conflict Karabakh. All Armenians living there are citizens of Azerbaijan. The issue of their rights is a matter which will be settled under the laws of Azerbaijan. The concept of a status implies co-existence of both Azerbaijani and Armenian community in Karabakh. No one will be inferior or superior to one-another here. The preservation of national and cultural identity is very important here. The principles of existence of everyone within the country’s laws regardless of language, religion and national identity are paramount in Azerbaijan. This is not tolerance. Tolerance means endurance. We are people who stand above tolerance. We preserve identity and respect rights of people who co-exist together with us and try to help promote their national and moral values. This is the greatest principle that the Azerbaijani state is committed to. In this respect, the rapprochement between Azerbaijani and Armenian communities should move into mainstream.

5. Regional Cooperation of South Caucasus States: Illusions, Reality, Perspectives

The South Caucasus is a region where a number of unresolved conflicts still exist in the absence of regional security arrangements. Indeed, three unresolved (Nagorno-Karabakh, South Ossetia and Abkhazia) conflicts of the South Caucasus can be considered as one of the most serious obstacles for establishing a regional security system. The article gives brief information about security problems of the region and analyzes the perspectives of the realization of regional co-operation. The South Caucasus region represents the most problematic region within the post-Soviet area in terms of regional security concerns. The regional security situation in the South Caucasus is best described as “security deficit,” a term used by authors of the Central Asia-Caucasus Institute at Johns Hopkins University(1). The security deficit stemming from the interrelated and unregulated security threats described above have plagued the region for a considerable time. The increasing importance of the South Caucasus in the aftermath of the anti-terrorist operation in Afghanistan and the war in Iraq have now made the security deficit a threat not only to regional security but to that of Euro-Atlantic interests as well. The need for institutionalized security arrangements to manage, reduce and if possible resolve the security threats in the region has become palpable. In fact, it is increasingly apparent that failure to provide security is impeding the building of viable sovereignty in the region. One may agree or disagree with these assumptions. However, it is hard to deny that the political situation in the Caucasus is unique, unstable and even hazardous in terms of the perspectives of the regional security. This fact has been highlighted in August 2008 during Russia-Georgia war which resulted Russia’s recognition of Abkhazia and South Ossetia as independent states. Today, security threats in the South Caucasus will remain serious, complex and urgent. At the center of these concerns are three protracted unresolved conflicts in Nagorno-Karabakh, Abkhazia and South Ossetia. These conflicts pose major risk to regional states, population and regional security as a whole. Clearly, conflicts fuel those new dangers that threaten the nations in the entire Euro – Atlantic space. Namely, these are ethnic and religious extremism, international organized crime, human trafficking, illegal trade in drugs, and what is particularly perilous, the existence of uncontrolled territories, or the so-called “white spots”, which provide shelter to international terrorists and allow them to develop relevant infrastructure. Therefore, as a solution to the problems, it is extremely important to create hostility among the region states and others, which follow its interests in the region and aspire to keep the balance between their interests. How this cooperation can be achieved? If we get answers to this question, it will be possible for us to find a permanent solve to the problems in the region.

6. Regional Cooperation: Two approach

However, despite the integration of the Caucasus supported by the world union, because of the objective and subjective reasons it remained as an abstract model. Despite several studies of the political and economic problems in the Caucasus, it is controversial to say Russia or the West will determine the future of the Caucasus. To be more accurate, it is an issue of correlation between the settlement of the conflicts and establishment of the cooperation based on the factor of time. The question is: should the cooperation be established before or after the settlement of the conflicts? There are two concepts for resolving the said dilemma. According to the first concept, the economic or any other type of
cooperation should be embarked only once the problems are resolved. It will be right to start integration with Georgia and Azerbaijan, which have many common opportunities and facilities in the South Caucasus. In this point, the West farthest extending point of Turkey will directly be able to contribute to this integration. Armenia is the latest country to join integration process. Because Armenia has Nagorno-Karabakh problem with Azerbaijan, with the Armenians in Cavakheti region, it has a problem with Georgia.

Therefore, without solving these problems, its entrance to the integration with other countries without obstacles is almost impossible. Although, they made rapprochement with Turkey, especially, on this issue, themselves are approaching reluctant because of the domestic political factors and pressure of the Diaspora. The position of Baku is mostly negative and fair towards trilateral regional cooperation. Azerbaijan has expressed its reluctance to collaborate with Armenia until the Karabakh conflict is resolved and all the occupied territories are returned to the Azerbaijan jurisdiction. The core idea of the second concept adopted by Armenia is that the paramount importance of settling the existing problems is accepted. Moreover, according to the concept, the addressing of the problems is the key issue for ensuring the regional security. The supporters of the second concept (Armenia) believe that the establishment and advancement of the cooperation between the conflicting sides would change the situation and create more favorable political conditions, reinforce the mutual confidence, change the mentality of the people and, hence, open new horizons for the peaceful and civilized settlement of the conflicts.

As a being a party to blame for lack of economic and security cooperation intra-regionally, Yerevan has proposed that regional cooperation should start from the formulation and accomplishment of concrete doable tasks. Karapetian, formulated the position of Yerevan as follows: ‘Armenia believes that close cooperation in the region, whether political, economic or security-based, will help to bring lasting stability and prosperity based on a sense of solid and shared emergent values’. Today when Russia is rethinking its role in world affairs, given the weakening of its economic and military capacities, Armenia has not got leeway in making its choices.

7. The Best Example of Regional Cooperation: Azerbaijan and Georgia

The contemporary example of strong regional partnership between Azerbaijan and Georgia, two nations with very different dominant ethnic and religious groups, shows that not only a cooperative arrangement within the South Caucasus is possible, but also that it is, clearly, in the interest of its participants. Moreover, the Azerbaijani-Georgian cooperation has had a strong impact on the wider region, among other things, the largest infrastructure project, the Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan, or BTC, pipeline, and by having served as the core for the GUAM, the Organization for Democracy and Economic Development. Such cooperation is not based on history, but rather on the ability of both Baku and Tbilisi to overcome existing obstacles for a vision of a common future of the Caucasus. For the South Caucasus’ common future to be fully realized, however, Armenia must be a part. Presently, Armenia stands largely separate from its two Caucasian neighbors and, unable to develop relations with Turkey, generally, acts more as an observer rather than a participant in the emerging partnerships in the region. It seems that if Azerbaijan and Georgia are fixed on the regional future, the Armenian thinking is still preoccupied by its past. Thus, not much room is left for thinking about the present; perhaps, a common trend for transitional periods. As the regional projects expand and develop further, Armenian non-participation increasingly turns into a limitation for integration in the South Caucasus as a whole and destructive isolation for Armenia itself. Should the current tendency of entrenching positions both in Baku and Yerevan continue, with time it might be even more difficult to bridge the differences and help Armenia to become a fully integrated member of the South Caucasus region. Comprehensive integration in the South Caucasus, thus, can be achieved through the formulation and acceptance of a common political identity based on the interests of the Caucasian states and their citizens. However imperfect, Azerbaijani-Georgian relations provide evidence for the feasibility of such integration and a model of recognition through the accommodation of both the interests of the individual states and of the entire region. Another important element of the partnership between Baku and Tbilisi is the ability to overcome mutual historic and more recent emotional grievances as well as an understanding that all unresolved issues could be addressed through bilateral negotiations. Arguably, only such accommodation can serve as the basis for sustainable regional identity. One psychological factor that seems to underpin any such identity is the appreciation of the Caucasus being a common neighborhood for all of its citizens. Without an appreciation of this commonality, a regional cooperative arrangement is not likely to be effective. As it seen, the integration process in the Caucasus will be realized gradually, with extremely difficult and slow steps. Some differences in the process of integration of the Caucasus may occur, that is to say, the targets for the previous stages may be realized in the latest stages or the opposite.
8. Conclusion

The relatively South Caucasus has become a zone of widely spread confrontations and conflicts. Very often many countries, including the powerful states, pursue their own political, strategic and economic goals at the expense of the interests of the other countries; it became evident that the idea of establishing cooperation between the countries of the South Caucasus region is a more unrealistic but need to consider some ideas. Below some ideas on ensuring security and cooperation in the South Caucasus region are given in light of the current political situation and balance of forces:

First: The regional security and realization of cooperation should base on the two “No”:s:
   a) “No” to engagement of quasi states to the cooperation process between interstates;
   b) “No” to the apply the Kosovo case as a solution mechanism for the exciting conflicts in the South Caucasus region;

Second: The realization of cooperation should base on the two “Yes”:s:
   a) “Yes” to more effective Western engagement to the peace negotiation process of Nagorno-Karabakh, Abkhazia and South Ossetian conflicts;
   b) “Yes” to restoration of territorial integrity of Azerbaijan and Georgia.

Third: While the old conflicts occupy the minds of policy-makers in South Caucasus and in the international organizations, more efforts should be made to prevent new potential inter-ethnic conflict from erupting.

Four: This should be taken into account that the region faces potential threats as spill over of insecurity from neighboring regions, particularly the Russian North Caucasus and a prospect of future conflict in Iran over its nuclear programmer would have a detrimental affect on the South Caucasus region.

Five: Support for an immediate and effective cease-fire including an active commitment by responsible local commanders to its implementation.

Six: In the long run development of regional cooperation initiative between all regional states – along the lines of Turkish initiative for Regional Stability and Cooperation Platform which includes 3 South Caucasus state plus Russia and Turkey – should be encouraged. In the short term it is important to support integration of regional states in wider initiatives and organizations such as Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC) and OSCE.

Seven: Convening of the international conference on security problems of South Caucasus under the auspices of OSCE (or EU) with the participation of the three South Caucasus republics and regional players (Turkey, Iran, Russia). The purpose of the conference would be the determination of the fundamental solutions to the aforementioned problems which would be mandatory and universal for everyone.

Eight: Full support initiatives within the framework of the EU “Eastern Partnership” new program consultations on regional cooperation perspectives contribute to the pursuit of optimal regional security architecture in the South Caucasus. But, after analyzing current situation it will be easy to discuss EU’s attempt’s efficiency. To sum up cooperation and effective regional security system, the Southern Caucasus has come to the crossroad. Either region will begin to integrate into Europe, anchor into the Euro-Atlantic security system and develop into an effective barrier to the proliferation of terrorism, extremism, drug trafficking and organized crime or there will be a wholesale deterioration of security and a new gateway to Europe will open for ethnic conflict, terror and insecurity.

References


The Transformation of Narrative in Mass Media

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Abstract

The following article addresses the problem of modification of media texts, seeking to borrow main external techniques of literary narrative, which lead to the emasculation of the verbal nature of information to the dominance of fragmentariness, mosaic fragmentation.

Keywords: Narrative, mediatext, media reality, transformation of media

In the era of the modern anthropological crisis, at the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century we can particularly evidently observe an epistemological break, in the faults of which there have appeared completely underground and different guidelines, policies, and together with them methods, techniques of representations of man and the world, that are most clearly manifested in the media environment of people’s everyday life.

J. Habermas in his book “Shattered West” indicates, above all, the loss of the principles of “proper living”, which a long time before determined the basis of Western culture.

The vital-cultural break-up, most clearly embodied in the mass media space, today allows us to observe the emergence of new media communication models - diary journalism, the blog-sphere, reality shows, an attempt to combine the radio and social networks, mixture of almost all genres of media in the Internet portals (the use of the popular technique of developability of genre forms from simple to complex), the so-called “mobile” journalism, “popular” journalism. But still the basis for new genres is verbal. However, there are new ways and methods of structuring the material associated with new features of interaction of art culture and mass media. “Capturing the reality” by the modern media, that is television, the Internet, social networks, is followed by an even more profound process of “creating a media reality”. Modern mass media every year and decade win back more and more space and sphere of influence as a special type of culture and communication of the information society. Thus they become a significant mediator between society and the state, society and government. The modern media space is a complex phenomenon, and an ambiguous one. The transformation of mass media and informational challenges of post-modernistic civilization expose mankind to a dilemma searching for keys to the new reality and man’s place in it.

The transformation of mass media and informational challenges of post-modernistic civilization expose mankind to a dilemma searching for keys to the new reality and man’s place in it. Modern society is a society of continuous signs without content, flashy signs of the urban landscape, pointing to
the image, post-modernistic fuss of media space, but in all this we cannot find the main thing – sense. Neo-modern
school, modern society, neo-feudalism, where, to which society is the world moving? Currently, researchers in the
humanities insist on the relevance of such approaches to the study of culture as “openness-closedness”, from these
positions Kazakhstani culture in general discourse of public policy is rather moving to openness. The new anthropological
turn, claimed as the dominant trend in the world of academic experience, is linked to fundamental changes in the
principles of research of historical practices of knowledge and culture. Many scientists are attracted by the possibility of
displacement of vector and focus of research from traditional inclusive patterns of social development toward a specific
individual, which will contribute to a better understanding of the complex mechanisms of the functioning of society as a
whole and a radical revision of the concepts of historical development. The rapid distribution of anthropological
approaches in the post-Soviet space indicates to the extraordinary availability of this multidisciplinary direction in order to
reconsider its dramatic past in the broader context of modernist culture. “The new anthropology of culture” is a dominant
principle of the focus of studies of famous Russian scientists, in particular, of the magazine “New Literary Review”.

With the development of the modern culture of Kazakhstan, all these new approaches are also relevant, but even in
the era of overall globalizing media space there appear extremely important islands of originality and difference of
cultural codes of perception and interpretation of texts, an abundance of modern media culture available today.

The current reality is that the space of media culture is gradually absorbing everything, including literature, cinema
and many other kinds of art, all of which have traditionally been formed in particular and original ways.

Let us try to trace only a few trends of post-Soviet (Russian and Kazakhstani) mass media in terms of the poetics of
narrative, principles of the formation of a media text, its effects and interpretations of the author and the reader-
spectator.

Literature, which had been occupying the dominant position in world culture in the previous century, now is
somewhat pushed back by visual arts that are increasingly expanding their mass media space. Moreover, imperceptibly
but surely, media culture increasingly claims to become a substitute for literature.

The entire human life is a continuous narrative, where the existence of the ancestors, parents, children,
descendants is interwoven in the form of the most complex tangle with the history of the people, nation, civilization and
the state. The story and the history of a kin, an individual in literature have always attracted people by the possibility of
knowing the world and reality.

Modern traditional and new media in XXI century have started using the potentials of the narrative, especially not
adhering to the classical canons of the genre of nature. On television, there are now numerous “female and male”
stories. Stories about the mysterious and the unknown form the media basis of big television channels (TV-3, REN TV,
and Russia), biographic series and stories about life and love of movie stars, judicial proceedings are shown as
entertaining narratives. It would seem that there is nothing wrong in that, but even the shows, and sometimes the news
now resemble a story or a series of stories. Namely in this way the program “Let them talk” by A. Malakhov (NTV,
Russia) is arranged.

However, the narrative in the media sector is somewhat neutered, there is no core, commentary or final in it, and
hence neither meaning no depth. This leads to the fact that media teaches the viewer to perceive virtual reality as the
scene of a routine murder, violence, gratuitous cruelty. (You may recall one of the programs of “Let them talk” about a
young mother who murdered her own newborn baby).

Thus, media-narrative using an external form of literary narrative, in fact destroys its internal structure and
functional significance. Saturated the screen with different stories, the media-narrative seeks in some way to replace the
elite movie industry, literature and other kinds of art which are very poorly represented on the Kazakhstan TV channels.

There is an especially clear manifestation of the superficial use of certain narrative techniques in programs
dedicated to the Russian cinema stars departed from the life (L. Gurchenko, N. Mordyukova and other idols of millions of
viewers). A too straightforward scheme of the story, narrowing or even a complete lack of psychological canvas of
history, internal lamination of life impoverish or, perhaps, even distorts the line of the existential narrative, bringing it to
the scheme, inscribed by the author-journalist. Although, by the way, it should be noted that the Kazakhstan television
channels do not even attempt to pay their respects to many well known departed workers of culture and literature at least
in such manner. There are two trends in the TV programs of this kind. Some of them build their plots on sensation,
secrecy, and mystery, for example, there are numerous similar stories about the causes of death of the actor
Porohovschikov and his wife, whose deaths are associated with mystical secrets of the ancient mansion they lived in.
Other stories are mono-planned, biographical; their narrative is based on a simplified linear scheme, as the stories about
famous people on the Kazakhstan TV channels.

Literary and media narratives differ in terms of fiction and verisimilitude. Many medianarratives claim to credibility
while a literary narrative is based more on fiction.

Today, no one denies that the literary narrative is useful in many ways: we get “surrogate experience” with it, expand our “emotional horizons”, get to know ourselves, and borrow pleasure. But still there is a viewpoint that literature is unable to make us more moral. Such a categorical proposition could appear only in the epoch of predominance of mass media culture.

Today the poetics of medianarrative is determined by post-modernistic hybridity, a mixture of styles, virtuality, irrationality, mosaic fragmentation, where the viewer is constantly taught neither to analyze not to critically reflect, but to thoughtlessly “consume” a media story-event.

particularly noteworthy are the programs that are built on the following principle: “The more blood, the better”. If previously the largest media forum energetically discussed the possibility and need to broadcast scenes of violence and blood, now media writers have moved from words to deeds. TV screens are literally inundated with stories about rapists, maniacs, murderers, in detail. There is a detailed demonstration of ways and forms of violence. Owners of television channels are trying to keep audience at the screen as longer as possible, and this audience gradually gets used to everything. In such programs the narrative is altogether replaced by visually shocking photographs, outright theater and game productions. There is a particular success in the development of this television format achieved by the Kazakhstani TV channel “Commercial Television Channel” (CTCh) with its program “Raider” which is popular among numerous domestic audiences.

The general trend in many television programs was to aim at the laconic verbal commentary; an allusion to the story is sometimes replaced by simplicity and primitiveness, the funny and the ironic border on vulgar tabloid. Television announcers let themselves pose smiley faces and play vulgar jokes on each other, using incoherent phrases (about a dirty sweater, a desire to get big salaries, etc.).

Many television programs dominate over fragmentation. If the entire narrative consists of short clips, the narration is constantly broken into smaller parts, connected by joints of editing. A large fragmentation refers to both the organization of the picture (and the audience sight) and the arrangement of plots. In general, in the program you find resistance to “words”, to the verbal nature of information. The choice is made either in favor of rhythm, which subjugates the content, or for the benefit of visibility, objectivity.

Initially, the classical literary narrative strove to seek the truth, the modern medianarrative which is in pursuit of sensationalism and entertainment, is defiantly far from it. There arises the question: How long you can use the external frame of the narrative without any damage to the plot, which is closely linked with the narrative? Perhaps this break in the chain of links of structures is hiding the failure of many modern native TV series?

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The Aesthetics of Arbëresh Poetry with Religious Character

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Abstract

Arbëresh poets, an Albanian ethnic minority group that has lived in Italy since the XV century, have written literature of great aesthetic value. From the beginning of written Albanian literature, names of Arbëresh poets have appeared. Their creations have played an important role in the transmission of the national Albanian identity. A part of this identity is also religious, which appears frequently in their works. The character of this poetry is artistic mastery overlapping the themes of the religious and human experience, the eternal and the temporary. Through their works, Arbëresh poets aim to encourage and strengthen national self-awareness. To begin with, the artists who are presented also functioned as priests, namely; Lekë Matrënga, Jul Variboba, Nikolla Keta. Afterwards, the artists Jeronim De Rada and Zef Serembe will be considered, who though they did not have a direct connection with the Christian faith, would use terms, symbols and Christian metaphors to enrich their works. The works of these creators is a live testimony that the religious element does not impoverish a literary work, but on the contrary, in most cases, it enriches it.

Keywords: poet, religious, human, nation, mission

“Et la poésie est comme un privilège tel que la Prophétie,
Elle ne se fait pas par la seule volonté de l’homme.
La vision de l’acte divin dans le changement des destins
des humains est un don des Prophètes, la préparation pour la vie
des altitudes n’appartient qu’aux hommes nés Poètes.”
– Jeronim De Rada, Scanderbeccu i pa faan (1870).

1. Introduction

Dès la fin du XVe siècle, des Albanais qui voulaient fuir devant les envahisseurs turcs émigrèrent en Calabre et en Sicile. Là, ils ont créé leur propre vie, connaissant des difficultés diverses, mais cherchant toujours à conserver les valeurs de leur pays, les traditions et les coutumes albanaises. Loin de leur pays, ils ont toujours cherché à ne pas oublier la langue maternelle et à transmettre à leurs descendants l’albanais et les valeurs culturelles dont ils ont toujours été fiers. D’ailleurs, ils sont à l’origine d’une littérature encore bien vivante aujourd’hui. Leurs créations ressemblent à des perles rangées dans le collier de toute la littérature albanaise. Ils se sont inspirés par la poésie populaire, orale et ils ont voulu éveiller l’amour pour la patrie, pour la langue albanaise. La poésie est la forme littéraire la plus développée chez les Arbëresh. Ces poètes ont trouvé dans la poésie un moyen sûr pour transmettre leurs idées et pour convaincre les lecteurs. Si on étudie la motivation qui les pousse à écrire, c’est qu’elle provient de deux côtés : d’une part, c’est la motivation intérieure, ils sont poètes, ils ont le don de créer et ils ne peuvent pas faire autrement, c’est comme un ordre, ils sont ‘obligés’ d’écrire, de communiquer avec le monde et leurs semblables. Mais cette vocation agrandit et devient une obsession quand il y a l’autre motivation qui intervient, la motivation extérieure : des facteurs qui poussent le poète à écrire pour des causes différentes. La plupart du temps, les poètes arbëresh ne peuvent pas supporter leurs conditions de vie et ils connaissent déjà les difficultés que s’affrontent leurs compatriotes en Albanie. On croit qu’en général, les poètes arbëresh ont joui de ces deux motivations dans la création de leurs œuvres littéraires. Ils ont utilisé leurs plumes pour exprimer leur don naturel, mais aussi pour venir à l’aide à leur nation par le moyen privilégié, la poésie.
2. Le poète et sa mission – la fonction morale de la poésie

Ecrire sur les valeurs esthétiques d’une poésie qui a l’empreinte religieuse est devenu un peu difficile dans nos jours. Le rapport entre la littérature et la religion, la foi en général, est un thème qui est connu avoir une grande complexité. On peut avouer qu’il existe toujours une notion de complémentarité, même si à l’époque où nous vivons, on fait des efforts à effacer tout lien qui existe entre les deux. Il faut avouer que la poésie et le mystique en général ont un rapport intrinsèque, complexe à exprimer théoriquement. La foi ne s’explique pas, la poésie non plus; les deux ont des ressemblances, ont un même champ de prédilection, elles s’adressent à l’âme humaine. La preuve en est le commencement de plusieurs littératures par des poèmes religieux, des prières. La poésie a toujours été liée au mystique, surtout à la prière. Le poète aussi ressemble un peu au mystique. Il a une mission qui le distingue du reste des humains. D’après Hugo1, le poète est le guide du peuple, celui qui apporte la lumière dans la nuit obscure. Il privilégiait le rôle particulier du poète qui s’identifie aux problèmes et aux souffrances des autres humains. Le poète a une mission divine, celle d’éclaircir le chemin des gens simples, puisqu’il connait plus de choses, il est lui-même éclairé. Les poètes arbëresh partagent la même idée quant à la mission du poète. Selon eux, le poète avec son art doit être un guide spirituel pour ses compatriotes, il doit cultiver le bien, la vertu, l’esprit chrétien qui dans leur opinion était l’incarnation de toute bonté. Le poète devait influer dans la transmission des valeurs et des traditions de la patrie. Il devait lutter contre les préjugés, contre l’obscurité et répandre partout la lumière, la culture et la sagesse. D’après le poète arbëresh De Rada, il existe un rapport très fort entre l’art et la vie. Entre la beauté de l’art et la beauté de la vie, il n’y a pas de différence essentielle. Pour ce poète, « l’art doit aider à l’éducation du lecteur, à cultiver des vertus chez lui. » 2 L’art et la poésie en particulier, joue un rôle très important dans la formation de la morale des gens. Pour ce poète, la poésie est l’art du sentiment et de l’esprit. La poésie décrit l’âme humaine comme aucun autre art. Elle nous révèle l’être humain en complet, dans sa plénitude. Aucun autre art ne peut présenter les vertus, les caractères humains comme la poésie. A travers la parole, la poésie a le pouvoir de présenter comme dans un miroir les sentiments de l’être humain. La musique, à travers l’harmonie des sons peut envahir l’âme de l’homme, tandis que la poésie, à travers les paroles et les sons, à travers l’harmonie de ces deux éléments, envahit le monde spirituel et émotionnel de l’homme. L’art est considéré comme divin, ayant la capacité de diriger le monde. La poésie peut apporter des changements dans l’esprit humain, elle peut le transformer en lui attribuant de vertus et des valeurs importantes. Elle nous apporte un changement essentiel dans notre vie. De Rada écrivait que la poésie est un privilège. Le désir ne suffit pas pour créer de la poésie. Il faut avoir le don du poète, semblable à celui du prophète. C’est pour cela que dans l’Antiquité, le poète et le prophète sont indivisibles et ne font qu’un. 3 De Rada accentue la fonction morale de l’art. D’après lui la beauté trouvée dans la nature et dans l’art peut changer l’être humain, peut lui apporter des valeurs et des vertus qu’il ne peut trouver ailleurs. La poésie transforme l’être humain à travers la grâce. Lorsqu’on lit une poésie, on connaît l’état d’âme d’un personnage, on sent de la sympathie pour le héro, pour le personnage positif et ainsi on souffre avec ceux qui souffrent. Il y a ici le principe de catharsis, d’après l’esthétique d’Aristote. Le lecteur qui lit la poésie se reconnait en se comparant avec le héro, il cherche à devenir meilleur. Les poètes arbëresh avaient l’intention de contribuer pour l’enrichissement spirituel et de renforcer la conscience ethnique, l’amour pour l’héritage culturel, pour la Patrie qui dans leurs œuvres reçoit une dimension mythique.

3. La conception religieuse chez les Arbëresh

La conception religieuse dans la poésie des Arbëresh passe à travers quelques étapes. Dans la littérature ancienne des Arbëresh, comme d’ailleurs dans toute la littérature ancienne albanaise, on a la prédominance du thème religieux qui d’après plusieurs critiques, enlevait ses valeurs. 4 La religion a joué un rôle très important dans la vie des Albanais. Elle a été un moyen de conservation contre l’assimilation5. Dès les premiers documents écrits en albanais, on trouve des traces importantes de leur croyance. La religion a été le ciment social, comme d’ailleurs dans d’autres littératures européennes. La foi est un marqueur vraiment efficace des groupes humains, elle nous aide à mieux comprendre l’histoire, à éclairer l’identité, on peut aussi oser dire, qu’elle constitue l’identité d’une population. Les rapports entre la religion et la littérature des Arbëresh sont vraiment perceptibles dans chaque vers qu’on étudie. Nos poètes arbëresh ont

1 Hugo V., La fonction du poète, 1840
2 Xhiku A. Romantizmi arbëresh, p.38
3 Xhiku A. Romantizmi arbëresh, p. 34
4 Xhiku A. Romantizmi arbëresh, p. 134
5 Ibid. : 139

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eu la conviction qu’à travers le retour au christianisme, religion niée a cause des envahisseurs turcs, le pays allait s’unir et sa situation allait se redresser. Le critique albanais Dh. Shuteriqi, dans son œuvre *Ecritures Albanaises dans les années 1332-1850* (*Shkrimë Shqipe në vitet 1332-1850*), écrit sous une certaine critique par rapport aux écrits à caractère religieux de cette période. Il s’exprime : “Au cours de ces siècles le didactisme religieux a prédominé même dans les œuvres artistiques et ce sont ces types d’écrits qui composent le plus grand nombre de documents écrits en albanais avant la Renaissance nationale”.

La littérature des Arbëresh commence avec des œuvres complètement religieuses sans grande valeur artistique, mais quand même qui témoignent d’une certaine culture des Arbëresh. Le premier document écrit par les Arbëresh appartient au XVIe siècle. C’est le catéchisme de Lekë Matrënga, publié à Rome en 1592, intitulé *La doctrine chrétienne (E mbsuame e krishterë)*. Après le Missel de Buzuku, en 1555, le poème de Matrënga est le premier poème albanais connu. Le contenu est principalement religieux. C’est un poème de 8 vers, dans lequel il invite les fidèles à venir toujours à l’Eglise. Il a écrit cette œuvre pour venir à l’aide aux Albanais immigrants d’Italie qui se trouvaient là depuis la mort de Scanderbeg, et puisqu’ils ne comprenaient pas l’italien, ni le latin, ils avaient besoin de trouver des textes albanais pour continuer à pratiquer la foi. La prédominance des œuvres poétiques religieuses dans cette littérature peut avoir plusieurs raisons. Pour mieux comprendre leur conception quant à la religion il est important de tenir en compte le fait que la plupart des Arbëresh ont fait des études dans des séminaires religieux. Premièrement, les Arbëresh se trouvaient dans un pays étranger, avec la nostalgie pour la patrie ; ils voulaient garder tout ce qui appartenait à leur pays natal, tout ce qu’ils croyaient et le christianisme était considéré comme la religion de valeurs, surtout comparée à la religion de l’envahisseur turc qui obligeait les Albanais à devenir musulmans. La défense du christianisme était un moyen de lutter contre cet envahisseur haï tellement par les Arbëresh comme la cause principale de leur immigration. Ils voulaient garder et ne pas oublier la religion chrétienne à tout prix. C’était la religion qui les présentait d’une certaine façon, en tant qu’Albanais. Au XVIIe et XVIIIe siècle la poésie cultivée par les prêtres, se colore souvent de motifs folkloriques.

La production littéraire du XVIIe siècle émane intégralement des prêtres catholiques du Nord de l’Albanie, très influencés par la culture italienne et occidentale ou d’Albanais d’Italie.

Dans l’œuvre de Jul Variboba on rencontre l’originalité de la première œuvre albanaise. Le critique albanais Eqrem Çabej insiste sur le fait qu’il est “le plus ancien vrai poète de la littérature albanaise”. Il est le premier qui a écrit une œuvre qui semble avoir plus d’objectifs artistiques et qui constitue un pont dans le passage de la littérature des poèmes courts à la littérature des poèmes plus longs. C’est une œuvre au sujet biblique, mais l’auteur sait bien dépasser et transformer la dimension de ce sujet théologique, créant des thèmes, des motifs et des personnages littéraires. Il y a dans cette œuvre un entrelacement très intéressant de la lyrique biblique, chrétienne et populaire. Il s’adresse à Sainte Marie comme la Reine. Le poète décrit la sainte comme une personne qui a mené une vie douce et lui demande de lui apprendre à prier, à servir et l’invite à chanter avec lui. Il il s’adresse à la sainte avec des paroles ou il exprime le sentiment d’honneur qu’il éprouve envers elle. Il prie à Dieu de l’aider à lui écrire un chant qui va se réjouis

La vie de la Vierge Sainte Marie

Il est important de tenir en compte le fait que la plupart des Arbëresh ont fait des études dans des séminaires religieux. Premièrement, les Arbëresh se trouvaient dans un pays étranger, avec la nostalgie pour la patrie ; ils voulaient garder tout ce qui appartenait à leur pays natal, tout ce qu’ils croyaient et le christianisme était considéré comme la religion de valeurs, surtout comparée à la religion de l’envahisseur turc qui obligeait les Albanais à devenir musulmans. La défense du christianisme était un moyen de lutter contre cet envahisseur haï tellement par les Arbëresh comme la cause principale de leur immigration. Ils voulaient garder et ne pas oublier la religion chrétienne à tout prix. C’était la religion qui les présentait d’une certaine façon, en tant qu’Albanais. Au XVIIe et XVIIIe siècle la poésie cultivée par les prêtres, se colore souvent de motifs folkloriques.

La production littéraire du XVIIe siècle émane intégralement des prêtres catholiques du Nord de l’Albanie, très influencés par la culture italienne et occidentale ou d’Albanais d’Italie.

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C’est pour cela qu’il demande au Seigneur de lui donner le don d’adorer la sainte. L’objectif de son œuvre principale *La vie de la Vierge Sainte Marie (Gjella e Shën Mërisë së virgjër)* était la propagation religieuse. Les qualités artistiques on les trouve surtout dans l’humanisme des personnages et dans le lyrisme du poète, dans l’humour qui traverse les vers. Il nous donne une image religieuse traditionnelle de la Sainte Marie, mais souvent il la décrit de façon très humaine.

Elle apparaît comme une mere qui ne peut pas supporter la douleur de la mort de son Fils.

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6 Çabej (1936 : 35)
7 Shuteriqi (1964 : 35)
8 Nous avons fait la traduction de vers et des titres en français. Nous l’avons jugé juste d’écrire aussi les vers et les titres en albanais.
C’est de cette façon que la mère pleure pour le fils qui a été crucifié et va être enterré. L’atmosphère dans l’œuvre est profondément mystique. Le poète a senti le besoin de donner aux lecteurs une œuvre très proche en présentant des paysages campagnards semblables à ceux des Arbëresh. Les éléments de la vie des Arbëresh (la description des coutumes, l’utilisation des prénoms de paysans albanais, des toponymes) les différents éléments de la langue et des images, tout cela donne aux poésies de Variboba la couleur du temps et du pays natal ce qui accentue les traits humains et originaux de son œuvre. On peut nommer d’autres auteurs religieux comme Nikollë Brankati, Nikollë Filja, Nikollë Keta, Gavril Dara Plaku. Nikollë Filja a écrit son œuvre Le chrétien arbëresh, qui a appris les mystères de la sainte église ("I Krishteu i arbresh mbësuarë në misteret kishësë shenjtë"). Il a créé 1736 chants religieux et aussi il est le créateur d’une autre œuvre intitulée Chants de vieillesse (Këngë pleqërishte) en 1769.

La littérature romantique des Arbëresh, du point de vue religieux n’a pas marché sur les empreintes de l’ancienne littérature, elle la dépasse la plupart du temps, mais elle ne nie pas le religieux. Dans l’œuvre de De Rada ou de Serembe la religion est laissée un peu à côté en tant que doctrine, les apôtres, les saints et Dieu même se présentent détachés du dogme. Dieu se trouve plutôt dans la nature que dans les objets de culte, ou près des saints, de l’église. La loi pour Serembe est un abri, un refuge, il cherche à s’y refugier pour s’échapper de l’angoisse et des souffrances du quotidien. La seule voie pour s’échapper de la déception du monde, reste la foi en Dieu. Dans sa poésie, le mythique s’exprime surtout dans le penchant du poète qui veut communiquer directement avec Dieu, sans l’intermédiaire de personne, ni du culte, une tendance vers l’accentuation d’une relation intime avec Dieu. Pour De Rada et Serembe le mythique était l’objet de leur poésie, il ne pouvait pas rester en dehors de cette poésie puisque dans leur conception du monde, il était un pont qui les amenait vers “la vérité éternelle” et “universelle”.

Dans l’œuvre de De Rada et de Santori, on trouve des personnages qui appartiennent à l’église. Ils apprécient les clercs. Le clerc, dans “Serafina Topia” n’apparaît pas seulement comme un conseiller, mais comme quelqu’un qui se soucie du destin de son pays. De Rada n’était pas d’accord avec les mesures du gouvernement italien contre l’église catholique. “D’après lui, la lutte contre les clercs déclencherait une crise dangereuse pour la société italienne, car, la religion, était à la base de toutes les familles.” La solution qu’apporte le poète contre l’inégalité dans le peuple était l’exemple de la famille de l’Eglise, l’harmonie qu’on pouvait trouver dans cette institution, une harmonie, qui d’après lui provenait des Evangiles. Une société peut changer et devenir meilleure seulement si elle est fondée sur les paroles de l’Evangile. Le poète est à la recherche d’une justice abstraite, éternelle, basée sur la bonne volonté des gens. A partir du XVIIIe siècle la poésie des Arbëresh commence à rompre avec la thématique religieuse, étant remplacée par le thème de la Patrie. La nouvelle création a laissé à part le cadre étroit religieux dans lequel avait été développée la littérature arbëresh des XVIe et XVIIe siècles. Traitant une nouvelle thématique, elle devient l’expression d’une nouvelle perception idéologique, des idéaux patriotiques albanais et a gagné ainsi des valeurs artistiques importantes. Même si pendant la première étape on trouve la religion comme un dogme, la poésie de cette époque a des valeurs si on la situe à l’époque où elle a été écrite, aux intentions et à l’influence qu’elle a eue. Mais pendant la deuxième étape on ne nie pas le dieu, non plus, au contraire, on a un Dieu qui se trouve partout, dans la nature, dans le visage des personnages, dans la morale de l’œuvre. Ainsi, on ne peut pas dire que les poètes arbëresh ont quitté le théme religieux, mais ils l’ont raffiné, en le rendant plus poétique et plus émouvant que jamais. Dans la poésie des romantiques arbëresh du XIXe siècle la religion n’est plus présentée en tant que doctrine, mais elle se présente plutôt comme un état spirituel personnel, comme un point de vue, comme une morale qui va aider les gens dans l’organisation de leur propre vie. C’est l’exemple de Jeronim De Rada avec son œuvre intitulée Les Chants de Milosao (Këngët e Milosaos). Dans le troisième chant, on trouve le poème :

C’était le soir de la Sainte Marie/Ishte mbrëmje e Shën Mërisë
Les filles avaient quitté les jouets/Vajzat kishin lënë lodrat
Et sur les portes discutaient/E te dyert kuvendonin,
Car dans leurs maisons manquaient/Se nuk qenë në shtëpi
Les pères assombris/Êtërit e mvrenjtur.

On utilise le nom de la sainte, dans le poème en général a une autre direction qui n’est plus celle religieuse, au centre nous avons l’amour des jeunes et non pas des figures de saints.

9 Xhiku A. p. 137-138
10 Ibid. p. 139
11 Ibid. : 6
12 Historia e letërsisë shqiptare, p. 233
La littérature des Arbëresh du XIXe siècle sera une littérature principalement romantique, expression de la condition des Arbëresh. Elle fait partie de la littérature albanaise de la Renaissance, c'était une littérature du mouvement national. Souvent les thèmes sociaux s'enchevêtrent avec le thème patriotique. De Rada, dans ses poèmes, à part la problématique patriotique, traite aussi des préjugés sociaux et du sentiment amoureux chez les jeunes, les droits du peuple simple. Zef Serembe traite les problèmes sociaux illicitement à travers sa réaction individuelle. Il y a eu d'autres poètes qui traitent des problèmes de la société de l’époque. Santorini ne parle pas dans ses poésies des relations d’exploitation caractéristiques pour le pays et le temps, mais des conséquences de ces relations, comme c’était la vie difficile des paysans, l’anarchie, les coutumes arriérées, et il les a traités sous l’esprit humaniste chrétien. Stratigoi révélera ces relations de façon directe : il met face à face les classes antagonistes en faisant appel pour une société sans exploitation. Cette période est devenue plus célèbre grâce à la création littéraire de Jeronim de Rada. Il est un personnage polyédrique, l'image d’un poète, du folkloriste, de l’enseignant, du philologue et de l’esthète. Le poète français, Lamartine écrivait à propos de ses vers : “des paroles qui rendraient fier tout homme”. De Rada avoue sa foi dans la beauté de la vie, le renouvellement perpétuel de la vie. Milosao est le héros romantique avec un monde spirituel riche de sentiments : dans son esprit il y a un amalgame de patriotisme et d’humanisme. L’humanisme apparait dans l’amour que le héro sent pour une jeune fille simple du peuple. Dans le personnage de Serafina Topia, le poète nous donne son idéal romantique et humaniste pour la personnalité développée pleinement, dans tous les côtés, tous les sens, une beauté physique et morale, intellectuellement riche.

La conception de la vie par le poète est très contradictoire : d’un côté, il voit la vie comme une guerre et source de bonheur, de l’autre côté, comme une soumission fataliste à la volonté d’une force supernaturelle. Sa création se caractérise par la dualité romantique. Sur le plan patriotique il a un idéal bien précis, la libération de l’Albanie, sur le plan social c’est un monde d’égalité et de fraternité, où la personnalité de l’individu pourra se développer dans toute son entité. Il a la passion pour l’extraordinaire et le solennel, le majestueux. Il a l’idéal de la beauté parfaite. C’est le fondateur de la nouvelle poésie des Arbëresh. Francesk Anton Santori c’est un autre poète arbëresh qui se soucie dans ses vers du destin de son pays. De temps en temps apparaissent aussi des notes de la pitié chrétienne et il idéalisé les prêtres, mais il accentue les souffrances du peuple. Il exprime son admiration envers les vertus des gens simples, mais aussi sa colère pour leur mauvais destin injuste. L’œuvre de Santorini, la plus volumineuse après l’œuvre de De Rada dans la littérature des Arbëresh, n’est pas suffisamment connue, on espère qu’elle attirera plus d’attention dans l’avenir.

Les conditions politiques de la première moitié du XX e siècle n’étaient pas favorables aux littératures non italiennes. C’est pourquoi les années 1900-1945 représentent la phase la plus pauvre de la littérature arbëresh et il ne faut pas s’étonner que les œuvres ne soient pas très connues malheureusement.

4. La nature – refuge du poète

Dans leurs œuvres, les poètes arbëresh consacrent une grande partie de leurs vers à la nature. Il y a une grande affinité entre la nature et l’esprit poétique des Arbëresh. Ils découvrent dans la nature une harmonie qui ne peut être trouvée ailleurs. Cette harmonie les pousse à adorer le Créateur de cette nature merveilleuse. A travers les vers où ils chantent à la beauté de la nature, ils renouent des contacts avec le Créateur même, directement, en Le louant pour cette beauté extraordinaire qui ne peut pas être refaite par la main de l’être humain. Le poète Zef Serembe n’accepte aucun intermédiaire dans sa relation avec le créateur de ce monde auquel il chante. Il adore le Dieu Créateur à travers ses vers :

Maintenant tout est clair et beau. /Tash gjithçka është e kthjelltë dhe e bukur.
Les nuages ont quitté la montagne/Nga mali ikën disa re,
... et la lumière se répand et demeure/Dhe drita përhapet dhe rri
Sur tout ce que notre dieu a créé. /Mbi gjithçka që krijoi zoti ynë.
Une lumière comme une onde est entrée dans mon esprit/Një dritë dallgë në mendje m’u fut,
Car avec une harmonie claire et heureuse, /Se me harmoni të kthjelltë dhe fatmirë,
La nature s’est bercée et elle pria à dieu. /Natyrë u tund dhe perëndisë ë u lut.

Pour ces auteurs la nature était la création de Dieu, elle était la représentation de la grandeur de Dieu créateur. Ils retrouvent dans la nature le paradis perdu, un endroit où ils peuvent redécouvrir la paix, se réfugier face aux déceptions.
qu’ils expérimentent dans les relations sociales en général. Ils pensent à une nature intacte, telle que Dieu l’a créée, sans les changements que la main de l’homme y a apportés. Souvent, la nature est le lieu secret où les poètes vont se confesser. La nostalgie pour la patrie les pousse à trouver un abri dans la nature, au milieu des oiseaux et des autres animaux, parmi les fleurs, l’orage et la pluie, sous le soleil ou le froid.

Dans la nature, le poète se sent libre d’exprimer ses propres pensées, ses idées, ses sentiments sans la crainte d’être mal jugé. D’après De Rada, il ne peut pas avoir de relations d’indifférence entre l’homme et la nature. La beauté que De Rada retrouve dans la nature, il la lie toujours avec celle qu’on retrouve chez l’homme, sans la distinguer de la beauté de l’art en général. A travers nos sentiments on retrouve la beauté, elle influence dans l’âme contemplateur, elle nous fait sentir quelque chose très rare, l’harmonie, elle transforme notre âme. Comme dans la philosophie de Platon, la beauté se sent et elle nous apporte une joie particulière. Dans son œuvre *Les principes de l’esthétique (Parimet e estetikës)*, De Rada écrit : “La beauté se trouve dans la nature, c’est à dire “elle est infinie”.

5. Le sentiment de l’amour toujours en conflit

Chez les poètes arbëresh, il y a une prédominance des sentiments, l’amour y occupe une place très importante. La pensée est appréciée lorsqu’elle est liée au sentiment. L’amour a été considéré par les poètes de tous les temps comme le sentiment le plus humain, le plus haut et le plus important dans la vie de tout homme. L’amour pour la femme était d’une certaine façon, la muse inspiratrice des poètes, le sens de la vie. Dans la poésie des Arbëresh le thème de l’amour apparait souvent et surtout dans l’œuvre de Zef Serembe. Il apparaît comme un sentiment pur, puissant, noble et vertueux. Il n’est pas vu comme divin, mais comme un sentiment terrestre, naturel. Dans l’amour il retrouvait le sens de la vie. Ses poésies d’amour sont pleines de douleur et de déception, on peut dire qu’il y a exprimé plus la douleur et le chagrin d’amour que sa réalisation. La déception du poète est très grande car il a mis toutes ses espérances dans l’amour pour la fille et sa perte, ou son refus apportent un grand malheur chez lui. Le pessimisme l’accable et la seule consolation qui lui reste c’est la mort.

De grands sentiments d’amour apparaissent dans la poésie de De Rada. L’image de la femme est une image très noble, c’est la personne qui embellit la vie du poète, de l’amoureux en général. Pour De Rada, la beauté est toujours morale. L’art doit présenter la perfection morale, pour influer la vie du lecteur. Dans les vers des Arbëresh, l’amour n’est pas un péché, au contraire, c’est le plus beau et le plus noble des sentiments humains, bénis par Dieu, une des plus grandes valeurs de l’esprit humain. Le héros de De Rada, Milosao, est prêt à tout faire, il suffit d’avoir l’amour de la fille qu’il aime, Rine. Son amour est plus grand que les préjugés et plus fort que tout. Il peut tout quitter pour se marier avec la fille qu’il aime, il suffit de garder les traditions, les coutumes du mariage à l’église :

*Derrière la montagne, il y a des prêtres, /Përtej malit priftër ka,*
*Qui puissent nous marier/Që të na martojnë.*
*Je prendrai la flèche et la charrue/Un’ me shigjet’ e parmendë,*
*Toi, tu resteras dans la cabane/Ti kasollen të më ruash,*
*Et tu feras la lessive/Edhe rrobet të më lash,*
*Seulement pour moi, pour moi seul/ Vetëm për mu, të vetmin. (Milosao)*

Dans Le XXIII e chant de Milosao, le poète compare sa bien aimée avec la *pigeonne*, dans le XXIVe il l’appelle *trône de la vie*. Il l’adore pour sa beauté physique et spirituelle. Pour Milosao, la jeune fille est l’incarnation de la beauté, du bonheur et de la vertu. A cause de l’amour qu’il sent pour la fille, il oublie aussi le devoir envers sa patrie.

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13 Qosja (2000 : 162)
14 Shuteriqi (1964 : 89)
Mais ce sentiment doit être en harmonie avec les devoirs, il doit être lié à la condition sociale, éthique et psychologique du héro. La femme est toujours considérée et évaluée comme un ange, parfaite et sincère, digne d'être aimée avec toute la force de l'âme. Mais l’amour termine presque toujours mal dans la poésie de ces poètes. Ils donnent cette fin au sentiment de l’amour peut-être à leur conception liée à la vie. La plupart des poètes arbëresh étaient influénés par la philosophie chrétienne, d’après laquelle, l’homme peut purifier son âme à travers les souffrances et les malheurs. Puisque l’amour est pur et sacré, il ne peut pas réjouir de l’acceptation dans la réalité terrestre. Même si les amoureux souffrent beaucoup à cause de leur sentiment, ils sont vainqueurs. Le sentiment amoureux leur purifie l’âme. L’amour ne peut pas prédominer sur le sentiment du devoir pour la libération de la patrie. Face à la condition générale du pays, les héros ne peuvent pas vivre et expérimenter leur propre joie personnelle, pendant que la patrie se trouve dans une situation vraiment difficile à cause de l’ennemi.

6. **Le rapport des poètes arbëresh avec la tradition – le culte du passé**

Dans la psychologie des Arbëresh, le culte de la tradition était gardé comme sacré. La langue, les coutumes, les chants jouaient un rôle très important dans la vie spirituelle de ces poètes. Chez les intellectuels arbëresh, existait la conviction que le peuple a hérité de grandes valeurs et il est le créateur et l’élaborateur d’une sagesse ancienne, qui a été fondée dans la création littéraire. Les Arbëresh étaient pour une poésie qui refléterait les problèmes de la vie humaine, une poésie liée intrinsèquement avec le destin du peuple. Elle ne devait pas être un simple miroir de la réalité mais au contraire, une activité complexe, dans laquelle le monde spirituel du créateur, ses sentiments et ses points de vue philosophiques, esthétiques et éthiques jouent un rôle essentiel.

À travers la poésie, les poètes visent à changer la vie et apporter du nouveau, changer l’existence pour la rendre meilleure. Pour eux, la poésie doit toucher les cœurs des hommes, avoir une force mobilisatrice très puissante. Ils sont à la recherche d’une poésie qui va toucher le cœur de tout Albanais, qui va les présenter du point de vue spirituel, psychologique en tant que nation. On trouve souvent dans leurs poésies des notes de douleur et de tristesse. L’influence de la poésie populaire est très large dans la poésie des Arbëresh. Pour cette minorité, la poésie populaire était une affirmation, une conservation des valeurs spirituelles de leur nation, par lesquelles devait s’inspirer la littérature artistique. 15 Le folklore est devenu inévitablement une source vitale quant au message et à la forme de cette poésie. Les Arbëresh d’Italie ont gardé intouchable le sentiment de l’amour pour la patrie, la langue, pour les coutumes et les traditions de leurs ancêtres. Pendant le XIXe siècle, la conscience albanaise a été fortement représentée dans le mouvement patriotique, culturel et littéraire. La nouvelle direction que la littérature des Arbëresh a prise après les années ‘30, fait partie du très grand tournant de toute la littérature albanaise. Pendant cette époque, le procès littéraire embrassait le mouvement pour la libération de l’Albanie. L’un des traits principaux de la littérature des Arbëresh était la tendance de s’adresser au passé. Le passé historique était pour eux un symbole qui les liait avec la patrie des ancêtres. Ils ont trouvé dans le passé l’exemple pour le présent et l’espoir pour l’avenir. Au centre de la littérature des Arbëresh est l’idée patriotique, l’évocation des traditions glorieuses de la nation albanaise. La littérature des Arbëresh du XIXe siècle avait un trait caractéristique et principal : le patriotisme.

7. **Conclusions et perspectives d’étude dans l’avenir**

On espère bien avoir éveillé l’intérêt sur la littérature des Arbëresh et surtout sur l’aspect religieux de cette littérature. C’est un sujet vraiment très large qui pourrait bien être l’objet d’études littéraires plus profondes dans l’avenir. Nous croyons que le thème religieux mérite être traité sur plusieurs aspects, puisqu’il accompagne une très grande partie de la littérature en général. Le religieux semble être une source vivante et intarissable pour les poètes de tous les temps et de tous les pays. Dans cette source, l’âme et l’esprit du lecteur peuvent trouver la satisfaction et le plaisir intellectuel, grâce aux valeurs esthétiques et spirituelles qu’elle inspire. Ce travail est un bout de chemin par rapport au long ‘voyage’ qu’on doit effectuer pour mieux connaître la poésie des Arbëresh. Lorsqu’on lit les œuvres anciennes, on dit souvent qu’elles témoignent d’une modernité de la pensée et du point de vue. Leur modernité demeure dans l’originalité de leurs idées et des problèmes essentiels du monde entier qu’elles traitent. Dans les œuvres des Arbëresh, apparait la modernité de la conception et de la compréhension car ces poètes ont traité des problèmes existentiels de la philosophie et de la pensée en général. Leurs œuvres sont un trésor de la littérature albanaise, elles constituent un témoignage vivant de l’esprit artistique des Albanais. Elles méritent être étudiées pour qu’on puisse tirer leur miel et leur parfum subtil.

15 Kodra (2011 : 40)
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Xhiku A. --- Romantizmi arbëresh. Tiranë: Naim Frashëri
How to Motivate the Students through the Communication

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Abstract

The primary objective of this paper is to identify how much is the influence of the communication in the results of school teacher. Considering the communication as a part and parcel of not only the personal lives of people, but also of the professional, formative, and educational processes, etc... It is necessary to stress that the study and the observation of communication is an important element of the educational process. Not only in its use of different techniques, but also as an important means to encourage and motivate the students to achieve the best results not only cognitive, but also affective ones. But is it possible to motivate someone to do something or to achieve the highest possible results? And everyone who is and feels responsible for the good of others has surely asked that question to himself. Although the motivation is an inner pressure that each one must find inside himself or herself, however, it is possible to help a student to find the right stimulation (pressure) to attain the highest possible results. But words alone cannot be enough to stimulate encouraging, ways of organizing in a more motivational or communication way. We must first recognize and analyze types (styles) of thinking and learning at each of the students to motivate each of them in the most optimal way possible. The motivational communication should serve to find a vision, and also to give that vision stimulating and encouraging the students to achieve the appropriate objectives.

Keywords: communication, motivation, students, objectives, etc.

1. Introduction

We should consider communication not merely as part and parcel of the human life either the personal or the professional one but also as an important and essential element of the process of education. We have three types of communications: the verbal, the non verbal and especially the preverbal one. They constitute an union of phenomena leading into the transmission of the information. At the same time the pupils must be well motivated to aim at achieving high value targets not only cognitive but also affective ones during the learning process. As Mr. Dornyei¹ puts it; Without a sufficient motivation even able individuals can not achieve long term goals or the appropriate curricula and even an appropriate teaching is not enough to bring about the success of the pupils. On the other hand a strong motivation can serve as compensation for a considerable lack of the language skills or the learning conditions.

2. The realisation of the pre conditions to the motivation of the pupils.

In order to fulfi the aim of learning, it is a must the collaboration, the intercourse and especially the communication between both parties (the teacher and the pupils). We should consider the importance of the communication between both parties not just as a bridge of physically coming closer, but also psychologically and even more emotionally in order to better understand their needs and interests. The teacher should be efficient but he or she also should establish fruitful reciprocal relations with all his pupils. To the teacher it is not important only the communication but also the way this communication is realised. The teacher uses his voice as a vehicle of communication. He also uses his body language, his thoughts, his cognition, his knowledge, his emotional stance etc.

The communication and the motivation of the class by the teacher should be a sustainable one regarding the pupil not only during the school hours but also beyond them. First of all the teacher should bulldoze his pupils into quitting such bad habits regarding learning as learning is not important or useful to us (the pupils), or to spend as less time as possible learning the school subjects, or to pay less attention to their psycho-fisical wellbeing etc. it is also advisable not to study

while being exposed to influences harmful to the concentration of the pupil. It should stimulate in the pupils:

- Emotional control
- Their self consciousness of their abilities
- They should be self conscious
- They should be prone to learning
- They should be able to process information

3. Communication, a means in increasing motivation based on the needs of the pupils.

The pupil during the class should not only listen to what his teacher is saying, but he also should be motivated to be an active part of the learning process. What the pupils learn should remain with them for their whole life. Thus it is of primary importance to set up the conditions to the pupils especially primary education ones to incite motivation, love and joy for learning, for acquiring new knowledge. As Bruner put it: The will of learning is expressed as curiosity, a love for competences, a need for self identification, a need for reciprocity. Curiosity is one of the traits of being human, and especially of the children, who are born with the desire to be curious, with the eagerness to cognize, as their exploratory activities of the reality witness, the things they are interested about, the questions they ask continuously etc. etc. The teacher does not merely answers to the questions of the pupils but also he motivates his pupils through his communication not just to accumulate information. No they should also be able to draw conclusions from the facts they are aware of, and he should also be able to properly use his information in order to resolve the problems he come across. The pupil should be able to search for sound sources of information for his own use. The teacher through his communication should not make use only of the curiosity of the pupil, he should also exert pressure on the desire of the pupils for more competences i.e. in the inborn need to be able to execute activities. Well, it is a common knowledge that the pupils are most interested in the things they accomplish well and they easily give up those activities where the desired success is not achieved.

It is the duty of the teacher to use his or her communication in order to set up favorable situations for the pupils so that all of them or at least the majority of them achieve the success. Precisely this achievement of the success influences the increase in the motivation of the pupils to continue their involvement in this learning process. Thus the achieved success strengthens the motivation and paves the way for more successes down the road of learning. The positive image of himself induces the pupil to commit himself more and more in the learning process. The lack of success simply demotivates the pupil. Bruner also stresses the need for self identification i.e. the strong tendency of the people to identify themselves and their aims with models offered by another individual, especially offered by the parents or the teachers as those are quite substantial figures (characters) to the pupils. That’s why the teacher should always beam positive qualities and values resulting from his knowledge and know how, which are passed over to and imprinted to the other individuals, so that they can self-analyze and self-esteem their situation aiming at the improvement of such a situation. Anyway at school we can rely also on what Bruner calls reciprocal need i.e. To duly meet the expectations of the others towards us.

4. Which are the best ways to motivate the pupils through the motivating communication of the teacher?

The teacher in order to motivate the pupils of his class can decide to communicate and to transfer the knowledge and know how in a group manner (collectively), provided that there are no great differences in the intellectual and emotional capacities of the pupils of this class. Thus it is possible to meet the assigned targets by the class as a whole. Normally this would be quite an achievement for everybody in the class. This becomes quite impossible, when there are social, psychological emotional and intellectual differences among the pupils of the class. The pupils who are less bright, more timid, who need more time to process and assimilate the knowledge imparted to them, feel themselves uneasy. Such a thing surely would have a negative impact on the results of this group of pupils. In order to avoid such difficult situations, the teacher should create a more flexible environment focusing on smaller groups sharing similar characteristics and demands, which might feel themselves marginalized, thus enabling them to acquire positive knowledge and emotions during the learning process. In order to achieve such a target it is indispensable that these groups members should shed

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2 Bruner J.S., Verso una teoria dell'istruzione, Armando, Roma, 1967
3 Bruner J.S., Verso una teoria dell'istruzione, Armando, Roma, 1967
the feeling of difficulties as they are members of a smaller group, i.e. It is easier for them to face a smaller number of other pupils sharing almost the same level of abilities and capabilities, the same pace of processing and assimilating of knowledge of the learning process. This does not necessary mean that these groups would leg behind the rest of the class. Simply it would be easier for the teacher to deal with such restricted groups consisting of pupils more or less of the same level of knowledge and abilities. Ity would be easier for the teacher to select and adopt the needed means of communication in order to motivate these pupils on the bases of their specific characteristics and needs.

5. Conclusions

We can conclude that it is the teacher the one who selects the appropriate form of communication and motivation of his or her pupils, as it is him the one who knows best the specific needs of his pupils. In case that the classes of the primary education will consist of pupils or big groups of pupils sharing the same characteristics and needs, it would be easier for the teacher to find the appropriate motivating communication and to establish a common stimulating vision. Unfortunately, generally we come accross a variety of pupils of different levels of knowledge and abilities in the class. In this case it is of paramount importance the motivating communication of the teacher and his or her style of teaching not only for the fact that the teacher imparts new indispensable knowledge to the pupils, but also the teacher communicates and talks to the pupils in order to get informed about their specific needs. The teacher also should consider the emotions of the pupils as one of the main pillars of sustinace for his adaption of the needed motivating communication taking in consideration their respective time needed for the processing and assimilating of the knowledge. Thus we can conclude that the communication is not only the essence of the learning process but it is also a powerful means for the motivation and the direction of an individual or a group of pupils.

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It is a Wild Wild World: (Political) Satire in Fielding’s Jonathan Wild

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Abstract

Henry Fielding, deemed one of the fathers of the English novel, had a strong affinity for satire in his works, unlike his prominent novelist peers like Defoe and Richardson. Fielding’s literary stance was heavily oriented towards the dominant genre of the poetry of the time, namely, that of the Age of Reason – which criticized and at times lampooned the follies of the age as well as the prominent figures of the time. In this regard, Fielding’s adoption of this satiric style – which he used for satirizing the politics of his age – was quite innovative for, and at the same time incompatible with the idea of novel at the time which necessitated the creation of an illusion of reality. Instead, Fielding’s highly caricaturized characters for the sake of satire were a far cry from the rigorous attempts of the 18th century realist novelists to delineate their characters as true to life as possible. Moreover, his light-hearted parodic prose constituted attacks on the major political figures of his age – which was unheard of in the newly emerging novel genre at the time and, as Claude Rawson (2008) aptly remarks, “turned Fielding into the principal inventor of the English comic novel” (Introduction, p. xi). Hence, this paper aims at exploring Fielding’s impressive political satire on Robert Walpole, the first prime minister of Britain, in his novel Jonathan Wild, and at examining how Fielding, with an extremely satiric purpose, turns topsy-turvy the ideas of high and low, respectable and disrespectful as well as good and bad.

Keywords: Henry Fielding, Jonathan Wild, political satire, parody, 18th century English novel

Henry Fielding, one of the key figures in the development of the early English fiction, had a keen eye for affectation, hypocrisy, falsity and insincerity prevailing in any stratum of the society from top to bottom, and herewith definitely a sharp pen to delineate and lampoon such abuses conducted by the members of the society in his works ranging from the pieces published in the magazines and journals of the time to his plays and novels. At times, Fielding was in financial crises which forced him to write for money, as was the case with Daniel Defoe 20 years earlier. As William Irwin (1946) notes, “[a]lthough not impoverished, Fielding was in some ways a hack, working under the pressure of popularity” (p.180). When combined with the fact that “his observation was active and his learning extensive” (Irwin, 1946, p.180), this pressure of popularity and the need of money, in effect, can rightly be taken as the impetus behind Fielding’s rigorous attempts to employ in his work what he knew best: satire. The eighteenth century literary scene was saliently characterized by the predominant forms of satire which culminated in the works of Pope (Dunciad), Dryden (Mac Flecknoe) and Swift (Gulliver’s Travels), and Henry Fielding had an affinity for the works of these writers. As Claude Rawson (2008) states, “[Fielding’s] tastes and his cultural outlook were extensions of theirs” and “[h]is praise of Swift’s writings, and his sense of Swift as one of his own great literary masters, along with (and perhaps surpassing) Aristophanes, Lucian, Rabelais, and Cervantes, was strong” (Introduction, p. x). Fielding’s adoption of their stylistic manner was to develop to its limits in his novels in which he came up with a new genre that he called in the Preface to Joseph Andrews (1742) “comic epic poem in prose” and defined it as “differing from comedy, as the serious epic from tragedy: its action being more extended and comprehensive; containing a much larger circle of incidents, and introducing a great variety of characters” (p. xxxii). He continues to assert that it introduces light and ridiculous action, persons of inferior rank and inferior manners, and ludicrous sentiments and diction although at times, especially in the depiction of battles, it might naturally parody the high diction of epic and romance (p. xxxii). In this regard, Fielding brought a manner totally incompatible with the idea of novel at the time which necessitated the creation of an illusion of reality. This “urbanely interventionist rather than self-effacing manner” that Fielding employed, as Rawson (2008) argues, “contributed to the establishment of a rival narrative mode, more dedicated to displaying a controlling authorial personality than that of Fielding’s two main predecessors, Daniel Defoe and Samuel Richardson” and consequently “turn[ed] Fielding into the principal inventor of the English comic novel [. . .]” (Introduction, p. xi). Indeed, what Fielding suggests for his new kind of writing fulfilled its objectives in that he aptly appropriated the characteristics of satire into the novel genre which helped develop his own distinct style. In this paper, Fielding’s Jonathan Wild the Great will be examined and discussed in detail.
with regards to the use of parody and satire, especially political satire, by providing many examples from the text.

Henry Fielding was born in Somerset in 1707. He spent most of his childhood in Dorset in a farm under the care of his mother since his father was more frequently than not away “on active service, or on pleasure trips in Ireland and London” (Bree, 1996, p.3). After his mother died in 1718, Fielding along with his numerous siblings suffered abuses and maltreatment at the hands of a step-mother. Fielding’s maternal grandmother managed to take the custody of the children to bring such maltreatment to a halt. Later, “sent to Eton against his will,” as Howard M. Jones (1950) states, “Fielding nevertheless there laid solid foundation of classical reading which was to play an important part in his theory of the novel” (pp. vii-viii). In 1725, Fielding left Eton and went to the University of Leiden for a short period of time in 1728-29. In the 1730s, he managed to build a career as a prominent playwright of the decade which came to an end in 1737 with the Licensing Act “which his own antigovernment plays helped to precipitate” (Rawson, 1996, “Henry Fielding,” p. 120). Indeed, these plays contained overt and assertive attacks on Robert Walpole and his ministry. He signed these plays under the name of “Scriblerius Secundus,” “thus allying himself with the ‘Scriblerian satirists, Swift, Pope and Gay” (Bree, 1996, p. 8) which also proves his affinity for their style. After the Licensing Act which banned political satire on the stage, Fielding ventured into prose and started to write for a living. He produced many novels including Shamela (1741), rather a novella, Joseph Andrews (1742), Jonathan Wild (1743) included in Miscellanies, Tom Jones (1749) and Amelia (1951).

The History of the Life of the late Mr. Jonathan Wild the Great, or rather simply Jonathan Wild, takes its subject matter from the life of a real-life figure Jonathan Wild (1682-1725), who was a very infamous gangster of the 1720s London or, in Martin Battestin’s (2000) words, “the most notorious criminal of his day” (p. 162). Jonathan Wild was often referred to as the thief-taker, whose job, in general, “involved capturing everyone from housebreakers to highwaymen and testifying against them in court; a zeal for returning goods to their owners often proved compatible [. . .] with fencing stolen goods, organizing gangs of criminals, and turning over one’s own close associates to the law, no matter that they were likely to be hanged for their offences” (Davidson, 2007, pp. 65-66). Such was his notoriety in his own lifetime as well as the period following his death that Wild achieved, as Davidson (2007) puts it, “almost mythic status (first as enf orcer of the law, then as its abuser, and at last as its victim)” (p. 66). He was brought to trial and hanged in 1725; however, his infamous reputation was further strengthened in the works of the time including Daniel Defoe’s The True and Genuine Account of The Life and Actions of the Late Jonathan Wild and John Gay’s The Beggar’s Opera (1728). His job, or rather business, as a thief-taker ran smoothly with his control of a body of thieves until his illegal dealings were revealed and brought to an end. Thus, as Claude Rawson (2008) notes, “[i]n satirical and polemical writings of the time, it was a well-established convention to use Wild’s name when referring to Sir Robert Walpole, the Prime Minister. ‘Great Man’ [as also seen in the full title of Jonathan Wild], though capable of being applied to others, was also familiar sobriquet for Walpole [. . .]” (Introduction, p. xvi). Likewise, in a more assertive and direct way, John Edwin Wells (1913) notes that “[t]hroughout nearly twenty years preceding the appearance of Jonathan Wild, at least from 1725 to 1742, the Great Man in England was Robert Walpole” (p. 14). Wells continues to state with more certainty that “[e]ven the casual reader of the minor writings of the period knows that hundreds of pamphlets and thousands of periodical writings had habituated the public to the association of the term ‘Great Man’ [with Robert Walpole]” (p. 14). Indeed, since George I, the first Hanoverian king, heavily depended upon his ministers in the domestic affairs of the country, Robert Walpole came to the fore as the Prime Minister. In a sense, he became a surrogate for the king and dealt with the public and domestic affairs in his own corrupt way, to the displeasure of many. The corruption that pervaded his ministry and government came to be associated with that of Jonathan Wild, thereby resulting in the use of the name as well as the story of Wild as a pretext for lampooning Walpole. In this regard, Fielding’s Jonathan Wild can be seen as a satire, as will be dealt with presently, mainly on the politics of Walpole, much as Fielding tries to make the reader believe in the Preface to Miscellanies that the intended satire in the novel was not on Walpole.

In the Preface of Miscellanies, Fielding reveals explicitly that he has no claim to the authenticity of the narrative of Jonathan Wild and simply states that he fictionalized what the real-life figure Wild could have done or performed but definitely did not do: “To confess the truth, my Narrative is rather of such Actions which he might have performed, or would, or should have performed, than what he really did; and may, in Reality, as well suit any other such great Man, as the Person himself whose Name it bears” (1979, p. 9). However, immediately after this, Fielding cautions the reader against not applying the satire to a specific individual, and, instead, recommends to take it as a general satire on the follies and vices prevailing in the society:

A second Caution I would give my Reader is, that as it is not a very faithful Portrait of Jonathan Wild himself, so neither is it intended to represent the Features of any other Person. Roguery, and not a Rogue, is my Subject; and as I have been so far from endeavoring to particularize any Individual, that I have with my utmost Art avoided it; so will any such
Indeed, we do not know for sure why Fielding was that much worried lest his work should be taken as a direct satire on Walpole, because, ironically, it was none other than Fielding himself who ridiculed and satirized Walpole and his ministry in his plays only a few years before. The only possible explanation of Fielding’s attempts to prevent any association between Wild and Walpole is, as James A. Downie (2009) asserts, that “Walpole subsequently subscribed to ten sets of Fielding’s Miscellanies on royal paper at a cost of twenty guineas. In the circumstances, it would have been ungrateful at the very least had Fielding attempted to represent the Life of Mr. Jonathan Wild the Great as a political satire at his most recent patron’s expense” (p. 138). Taking into consideration the fact that, as previously mentioned, Fielding turned to prose to make a living after his career as a dramatist ended, it is only in this way comprehensible that Fielding avoided any particularization “with [his] utmost Art.” Furthermore, quite ironically, Walpole subscribed to Miscellanies without knowing the content of it since the book was published by subscription which meant that the readers would pay the money in advance to have the book when it came out. No matter how hard Fielding tried to annul such associations between Walpole and the fictionalized Jonathan Wild, it was to no avail. As Martin Battestin (2000) suggests, “[s]uch disclaimers [in the Preface] notwithstanding, the identification of Walpole with Wild had been a commonplace of political writing for more than a decade. [Therefore,] [v]ery few of Henry Fielding’s first readers could have failed to make the connection” (pp. 162-163).

The ironical and satirical tone of Fielding’s Jonathan Wild (1893) is set by the narrator from the very outset with the narrator’s emphasis on the difference between “greatness” and “goodness:”

no two things can possibly be more distinct from each other, for Greatness consists in bringing all Manner of Mischief on Mankind, and Goodness in removing it from them. It seems therefore very unlikely that the same person should possess them both; and yet nothing is more usual with writers, who find many instances of greatness in their favorite hero, than to make him a compliment of goodness into the bargain; and this, without considering that by such means they destroy the great perfection called uniformity of the character [. . .]. (p. 3)

With this passage, Fielding insinuates that he will “adopt a favorite narrative strategy of Jonathan Swift, [that is] prais[ing] of the vice he means to excoriate: Jonathan Wild, the supreme villain, is meant to seem admirable, while his victim, Heartfree, the good man, is sneered at as a simpleton and weakening” (Battestin, 2000, p. 235). The narrator describes the greatness of Wild as a hero as follows:

In our hero there was nothing not truly great: he could, without the least abashment, drink a bottle with the man who knew he had the moment before picked his pocket; and, when he had stripped him of everything he had, never desired to do him any further mischief; for he carried good-nature to that wonderful and uncommon height that he never did a single injury to man or woman by which he himself did not expect to reap some advantage. (p. 37)

Each and every action Wild performs is satirized by way of contrasting what he does and does not. Wild shows his greatness not in pickpocketing the man with whom he drinks a bottle, but rather in “never desir[ing] to do any further mischief” or in never intending to do injury to a man or woman from whom he cannot extract a profit. The greatness of Wild’s deeds is illustrated with many examples ranging across pickpocketing, whoring, drinking, deceiving, robbing, etc. A monologue of Wild’s, as case in point, shows his fondness of “great” and “greatness” and gives a hint to the reader what he understands from it: “The art of policy is the art of multiplication, the degrees of greatness being constituted by those two little words more or less” (p. 51). And he continues to reason as such: “Mankind are first properly to be considered under two grand divisions, those that use their own hands, and those who employ the hands of others. The former are the base and rabbles; the latter, the genteel part of the creation” (p. 51). In his categorization of humankind, Wild places himself apparently under the category of those who use not their hands but others’ hands to achieve their “greatness.” Indeed, throughout the first book of the novel, we witness Wild connive a plan and make one of his fellow thieves, named Bagshot, rob the Count La Ruse. Upon Bagshot’s bringing back the booty, Wild indulges in an argument with Bagshot and tries to persuade him that he should waive his share and let Wild have the full possession of it since the plan belongs to Wild, not Bagshot. This metaphor of employing the hands of others is extended and fashioned later in the novel with underlying political innuendoes, as will be discussed later.

Another example in relation to Wild’s “greatness” is Wild’s persuading a Miss Straddle (a prostitute) to give a false testimony against a Thomas Fierce who is arrested and immediately put into Newgate prison. What is ironic here, after arranging this plan with Miss Straddle, Wild goes to see Fierce in the prison pretending to know nothing of the matter.
Therefore, his “greatness” is in his dexterity to connive plans and deceive people to his own advantage, as the cynical narrator puts it:

> With such infinite Address, did this truly greatman know to play with the Passions of Men, and to set them at Variance with each other, and to work his own Purposes out of those Jealousies and Apprehensions, which he was wonderfully ready at creating, by Means of those great Arts, which the Vulgar call Treachery, Dissembling, Promising, Lying, Falsehood, &c. but which are by great men summed up in the collective Name of Policy, or Politicks, or rather Politricks; an Art of which, as it is the highest Excellence of Human Nature, so perhaps, was our great man the most eminent Master. (p. 79)

The narrator, as Jenny Davidson (2007) argues, “sounds rather like one of Jonathan Swift’s mad projectors, exposing (by celebrating qualities generally found odious) a genuinely sinister aspect of greatness and its philosophical underpinnings” (p. 68). The association of the figure of “Great Man” with vices and falsity continues throughout the narrative, with the dyscratic character of Jonathan Wild.

Wild haphazardly encounters his friend Heartfree on the street and immediately makes endearing advances showing a great regard for him – which Heartfree, as the good and naïve character of the narrative, readily believes in his sincerity since Wild is an old friend from school days. However, Wild seems to have some sincerely calculated insincerities near at hand for Heartfree. After robbing Heartfree, Wild arranges the arrest and imprisonment of Heartfree for his debts. Though he assures Heartfree that he will find the required bail for his release, Wild never shows up – because, in the meantime, he managed to persuade Mrs Heartfree that she should go to Holland with him to protect the jewels and money of her husband and that his husband will come to Holland after he [Wild] procures the necessary money for the bail. Therefore, with the disappearance of Wild, Heartfree assures himself that Wild is the villain.

However, after many unfortunate incidents at sea, Wild eventually comes back to England and visits Heartfree in prison, and recounts falsely how he protected Heartfree’s wife at sea from the French captain of the ship. Immediately after this, Heartfree’s rage against Wild calms down and he starts once again to believe Wild’s sincerity and friendship. Thus, the extremity of good-heartedness and frankness of Heartfree as opposed to the villainy of Wild is exalted, as previously mentioned, by praising Wild. However, Heartfree’s pardoning Wild and reaffirming their friendship, as Aaron Charles Schneider (2011) emphasizes, “make [him] appear gullible to the point of foolishness [. . .] [since] Heartfree is in jail, his jewels have been stolen, and his wife has disappeared, all, the reader knows, at Wild’s doing” (p. 96). Even though Heartfree is meant to appear as a foil to Wild, at times he seems to be rather a fool than a foil. In this regard, “it is virtually impossible that the reader not enjoy a critical laugh at Heartfree’s expense when he quickly believes Wild’s spurious explanation of events and then embraces him, attempting to comfort him in his feigned concern for the difficulties in which Heartfree finds himself” (Schneider, 2011, p. 96). Wild’s taking good advantage of Heartfree’s gullibility and naivety as opposed to Heartfree’s good intentions for him lays bare the operation of the satire and, more significantly, the aim of Fielding, in Davidson’s (2007) words, “to expose the general tendencies of human nature” (p. 67).

There is this continual struggle throughout the narrative between “greatness” associated with any vice one can imagine and “goodness” affiliated with silliness and weakness, which demonstrates the important function of the Heartfrees in satirizing Wild. In a similar vein, William Irwin argues that “with the introduction of the Heartfrees, a dramatic pattern is superimposed upon the [narrative]. To be sure, little conflict ensues. For the most part, Wild, the embodiment of “greatness,” acts against the Heartfrees (“goodness”), who receive his depredations not with repulsive efforts but with the uncomprehending passivity of innocence which eventually proves stronger than Wild’s calculated villainy” (p. 177). What Irwin implies by “little conflict ensues” simply is that “greatness” slaps “goodness” hard in the face, and it just turns the other cheek. This passivity on Heartfree’s part, on macrocosmic level, is extended to the general public who suffered passively at the hands of the corrupted politics of Robert Walpole.

In Wild’s surreptitious doings, Fielding satirizes Robert Walpole, the first prime minister of Britain, who was in office from 1721 and 1742. The mischievous deeds Wild performs show parallelism to those of Walpole’s ministry. The narrator, at the end of the novel, sums up Wild’s character and actions which bear conspicuous resemblance to those of Walpole’s ministry:

> [. . .] when we see our hero, without the least assistance or pretence, setting himself at the head of a gang, which he had not any shadow of right to govern; if we view him maintaining absolute power, and exercising tyranny over a lawless crew, contrary to all law but that of his own will; if we consider him setting up an open trade publicly in defiance not only of the laws of his country but of the common sense of his countrymen; if we see him first contriving the robber of others, and again the defrauding the very robbers of that booty, which they had ventured their necks to acquire [. . .]. (p. 223)
If we are to check the correlations between this passage and Walpole’s ministry, we can easily state that just as Wild positions himself at the head of a gang that he has no right to govern, Walpole came to the fore as the prime minister, which “was not an official title but rather a nasty epithet” (Davidson, 2007, p. 66) at that time, and exerted his power to control all the affairs related to the state affairs along with the utmost corruption ranging across bribery, patronage, and selling of offices. As Isaac Kramnick (1968) asserts, “Walpole solidified his power by using the Crown’s tremendous power of patronage; both Georges usually followed his advice in their appointments. From recipients of places and their relatives Walpole exacted allegiance to his leadership in the Commons [. . .]” (p. 111). Additionally, Walpole “used the patronage of the Crown to help secure election victories” and, therefore, “[a]fter an election, offices, large or small, would be hawked to relatives, friends, and dependents of relatives and friends of successful candidates on the understanding that the beneficiary’s political influence would be at Walpole’s disposal” (Kramnick, 1968, pp. 111-112).

Previously, fencing stolen goods, organizing gangs and turning in one’s own associate were numbered among what Wild’s job as a thief-taker required. By the same token, we can say that fencing stolen goods corresponds to Walpole’s selling government jobs and offices. Also, “[j]ust as the victims of Wild’s thievery must pay for what is rightfully theirs,” as Schneider (2011) notes, “prospective government employees, after granting Walpole and his henchmen the right to run the government, must pay for the privilege of participating in it” (p. 116). The similarities between the two are carried to another level in the chapter six of Book II, entitled “Of Hats” which is fraught with political undertones. The beginning of this chapter reads as follows:

Wild had now got together a very considerable gang, composed of undone gamesters, ruined bailiffs, broken tradesmen, idle apprentices, attorneys’ clerks, and loose and disorderly youth, who [. . .] were willing to live luxuriously without labour. As these persons wore different principles, i.e. hats, frequent dissensions grew among them. There were particularly two parties, viz., those who wore hats fiercely cocked, and those who preferred the nab or trencher hat [. . .]. (p. 80)

These two parties, according to the narrator, went by the names of “cavaliers and tory roary ranter boys” and “wags, roundheads, shakebags, old-nolls” respectively (p. 80). These name tags simply refer to the two extant parties of the time: the Tories (Royalists) and the Whigs (Parliamentarians). Though the contention between the two parties was at its highest point in the latter half of the 17th century, it subsided in the 18th century insomuch as “[t]he Tories [. . .] sulked in their country houses or sat independently in the back benches of the Commons, aloof from the game of politics” (Kramnick, 1968, p. 111). However, the following passage from the novel suggests that the conflict between the two parties was still high, and thereby leading Wild to assert:

**Gentlemen, I am ashamed to see men embarked in so great and glorious an undertaking, as that of robbing the public, so foolishly and weakly dissenting among themselves. (p. 81)**

You do wisely, therefore, when in a crowd, to amuse the mob by quarrels on such accounts, that while they are listening to your jargon you may with the greater ease and safety pick their pockets: but surely to be in earnest, and privately to keep up such a ridiculous contention among yourselves, must argue the highest folly and absurdity. When you know you are all prigs, what difference can a broad or a narrow brim create? (p. 81)

Indeed, Fielding rightly suggests that both parties are representative of the general public in the parliament under the leadership of Robert Walpole. Hence, it does not matter whether the parties differ in their principles as long as they are “prigs” and rob the public.

On the other hand, if we remember the passivity of Heartfree against Wild, we can also state that the public participates in their own oppression, or rather being robbed, by electing Walpole. This is greatly exemplified in the Newgate Electioneering scene. In this scene, Roger Johnson, an actual criminal just like Wild, appears as the head of the thieves in Newgate and is challenged by Wild who wants to be the head. They go for an election and the debtors (the ones imprisoned for their debts) also participate in the election campaigns as the representative of the general public to choose ironically which prig, or thief, should be the leader. What they do not understand is that they are supplanting one prig with another which, consequently, will result in their being robbed once more. After Wild is chosen as the leader, he strips Johnson of all his money but refuses to share it among his supporters who are enraged greatly since they helped Wild win the election. This was the case with Walpole himself who had the support of many and won the British general election of 1727 but distributed the government offices and jobs not to his supporters but his friends and relatives. Then a grave man among the prisoners, as the narrator says, rightfully summed up the whole situation, addressing them as follows:
Nothing sure can be more justly ridiculous than the conduct of those who should lay the lamb in the wolf’s way, and then should lament his being devoured. What a wolf is in a sheep-fold, how little would it avail the simple flock to expel him and place another in his stead! Of the same benefit to us is the overthrowing one prig [Johnson] in favour of another [Wild]. Perhaps some would say, is it then our duty tamely to submit to the rapine of the prig who now plunders us for fear of an exchange? Surely no: but I answer, it is better to shake the plunder off than to exchange the plunderer. (p. 169)

Indeed, along with the satirical treatment of Walpole’s politics, the general public in the embodiment of Heartfree suffers from his passivity at the hands of a cruel and ruthless treatment in the embodiment of Wild. As can be clearly understood from the passages quoted and explored above, Fielding “attacked Walpole as exemplifying that against which his whole nature revolted as the exemplar of the unjust glorification of perversion of political activity and of baseness and selfishness of personal life and ideal” (Wells, 1913, p. 55). In this regard, Fielding’s rigorous disclaimers to the contrary notwithstanding, it is impossible to bypass the political innuendoes and undertones available in the text.

In conclusion, though Fielding was regarded as one of the eminent playwrights of his time, ironically, he is today considered one of the masters of English fiction. His turn from playwriting to prose, as we have seen, did not prevent him from employing his satire on the politics of his day which was the driving motive behind his plays and which eventually banned him from the stages with the Licensing Act. Rather, this enforced change from drama to prose fiction “gave him the needed freedom and allowed him to express effectively ideas and attitudes which in earlier works had come forth either unnaturally or formlessly” (Irwin, 1946, p. 180). Indeed, upon combining his sharp eye for the follies of his age with his satirical attitude, Fielding managed to produce the best examples of satirical prose fiction which are still widely read today.

References

Learner’s Perceptions of Assessment and Testing in EFL Classrooms in Albania

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Abstract

This paper presents the results of a study concerning learner perceptions of assessment and testing, the effects they have on them, the pros and cons of using tests and assessment in teaching EFL. Responding to both closed questions and open-response written questions as well as to individual interviews, learners at seven Albanian 9-year schools believed that assessment was an activity done by the teacher to the students and they could not and did not play any role in it. Although general assessments and examinations assess only a moment of the learning process and can be demotivating, they considered them as necessary and mandatory. The students expressed that assessment was the teacher’s task and that they did not have a say in it. They were able to critically think about tests and assessment and gave their respective recommendations.

Keywords: assessment, testing, learning processes, learner autonomy

1. Introduction and Research Background

Assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning. (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000) Every teacher knows this well. But what do their students think about assessment? What are their views regarding the advantages and disadvantages of using assessment techniques in EFL classrooms? Recently, in Albania, assessment has become a buzz word and teachers are on their first steps of using alternative means of assessment rather than the traditional testing methods. The current pilot study examines students’ perceptions of assessment in an EFL setting, at the secondary level education in Albania. For this pilot study, questionnaires were collected from 80 students of the sixth grade, in seven separate 9-year schools in Elbasan, Albania.

2. What Exactly is "Assessment" and How Does it Differ from “Testing”? 

The term assessment has been widely used in education circles around the world as well as in Albania, but it is often found that the terms “testing” and “assessment” are used synonymously, which is not right. “A test is a method of measuring a person’s ability or knowledge in a given domain, with an emphasis on the concepts of method and measuring. Tests are instruments that are (usually) carefully designed and that have identifiable scoring rubrics. Tests are prepared administrative procedures that occupy identifiable time periods in a curriculum when learners muster all their faculties to offer peak performance, knowing that their responses are being measured and evaluated” (Brown, 2007). On the other hand, assessment is an ongoing process which lies in a much wider domain. Every time a student answers a question, gives a comment, or tries to pronounce a new word, phrase or concept the teacher unconsciously makes an assessment of the student’s performance. According to Brown, a good teacher never ceases to assess students, whether those assessments are incidental or intentional.

After this analysis, it becomes obvious that tests are only subsets of assessment, but they certainly are not the only forms of student assessment. Tests are used by teachers as very useful and effective tools to measure students' knowledge, but they constitute only a part of many other procedures and tools that teachers can use to assess their...
students. Therefore, throughout the following paper, the use of the term assessment will include testing in itself as an assessment tool while the latter will be considered more comprehensive and more global than testing.

3. Research questions and methodology

Three research questions (RQ's) were devised for this pilot study:

- What effects does assessment have on the students?
- When, what and how are students assessed and tested?
- Are students given the possibility to self-assess or peer-assess?

The questionnaire consists of two sections, where the first section seeks to collect general bio data on students more specifically on school name, grade, and their age group. While the second section seeks to estimate the impact assessment has on them, the frequency of its performance by teachers, types of activities included, where they focus more, the most common mistakes students make when being tested and assessed, etc.

Of the 15 items on the self-report questionnaire, four items were bio-data questions. Four items consisted of Yes/No questions combined with six multiple choice questions and an open response follow-up question at the end. All items were followed by comment spaces where students had the chance to better elaborate their thoughts and ideas. The items used in the questionnaire were based on Shimo (2003) and adapted to measure learner responses from an assessment point of view. The questionnaire was written originally in Albanian and it was given to students during the final December class of the winter 2012 semester. All student responses to open-ended were written first in Albanian and then translated into English by the researcher.

4. Student perceptions of assessment and traditional tests

Let’s see and analyze the data collected from the questionnaire:

First question: “What effects do tests have on your learning of the English language?”:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tests motivate you into learning more.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You become so nervous that you forget what you have learned.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are so worried about your exam that you cannot concentrate on your studies.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the comments given by the students were:

- Tests make me feel stressed and I always receive lower grades that when the teacher interrogates me during the lesson.
- Whenever I have an English exam I always try to take notes of the teacher’s instructions about the exam and I try to learn even harder.
- I love English tests! It is my most favorite subject at school.
- The exams our teacher prepares are too easy and most of the time we take good grades.
- Tests are very important because they show to our teacher and to our parents our progress in English.

As it can be seen from the above answers and comments, the students are divided into two nearly equal major groups. While one group is composed of students that are stimulated to learn more because the need to prepare for their exams, the other one includes students that feel extremely nervous and anxious before the English tests and consequently receive low grades in the end. Despite these diverse answers, it should be noted that students of this fairly young age have the tendency to consider tests and examinations as a necessary and obligatory tool for the assessment of their knowledge. They are generally positive towards any type of activity proposed by their teachers, even testing.

The second question: “What are the problems you encounter whenever you sit for an exam?”:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The exercise is not clear.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are words you do not understand in the test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Twice per semester</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times per semester</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times per semester</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test is very difficult for you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the collected responses that the students encounter difficulties adapting to the level of the exercises in the test or in various words they are not familiar with. In spite of this, the comments received resulted very helpful into creating a better picture of the typology of the problems that students generally have to face whenever they sit for an exam. Hence, below are listed some of the most typical notes written by the students:

- Many of the exam exercises are new to us. We have never dealt with similar exercises in class but nevertheless the teacher is willing to explain these exercises to us before the test begins.
- The teacher tries to explain the words which are unknown to us but she doesn’t translate each and every word.
- I sometimes do not understand what I need to do in a particular exercise. Our teacher talks in English all the time, even when she explains the exam.

Third question: “How many times a year are you assessed (through tests or even through other assessment tools that the teacher has chosen to you for your assessment).”
The responses were these:

Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Twice per semester</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times per semester</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four times per semester</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the responses given, it is easy to notice an odd distribution of the respective percentages. Maybe, this happens due to the fact that not all the students are assessed with the same frequency and rhythm compared to other students. Another reason is that different teachers apply a different number of assessment tools in their classrooms. This logic is also mirrored in the below comments that the students gave:

- My teacher assesses me only during/after exams and tests, because I am not active during classes.
- I receive a lot of grades throughout the school year because she interrogates me a lot.
- Our teacher prepares many 20-minute long tests for only 5 or 6 students and this is how we receive most of the grades throughout the school year.
- Formal tests are scheduled twice per term and the teacher hands back the marked tests for us to show our parents.

The fourth question: “How often does the teacher explain the test articles in the test?:

Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be noted, the majority of the students receive the necessary explanations for the exam questions from their teachers and for 69% of the students, this phenomenon happened frequently. This is a very positive indicator and it needs to be appreciated because the guidelines and explanations received prior and during the exam are very important and closely related to the test results. Taking into consideration the young age of the students and their respective language competence, it is mandatory for them to be given the adequate explanations by their teachers regarding the content of the exam.

The fifth question: “What do you notice about your mistakes in the test after it has been graded and marked by your teacher?”
The respective responses and percentages were as follows:
Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nr</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have made numerous grammar mistakes.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have made word order mistakes.</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have made spelling mistakes.</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the many comments received by the students, we are listing some of them:
- I make more mistakes in the correct spell of the words rather than in grammar, but our teacher is very interested in the grammar aspect of the exam.
- To me, grammar is very difficult and it is in grammar that I make the most mistakes.
- In English words are pronounced differently and written differently and this is why I make numerous mistakes in writing, I keep forgetting the right spelling of the words. In Albanian I find it easier because words are written as they are spoken!!!
- The word order in the English language is different from the Albanian word order and my problem is that I don’t think in English but I still think in Albanian and then translate the sentence into English. This is why I make a lot of mistakes in correctly ordering the words in a sentence.

It is interesting to notice that it is the lexical errors and mistakes in word order that prevail compared to the problems that the students encounter with grammar issues. This phenomenon can be explained with the fact that the teachers pay a lot of attention during class hours to the grammar elements of the language rather than the lexical ones. What is more, the huge difference between the two respective languages, impede the students from correctly ordering the words in the sentences and even from correctly writing them.

The sixth question: “In what type of exercises do your teachers focus more when they test or assess you?

Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nr</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises on grammar</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises on writing</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises on word order</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even in this question it can be noted that the grammar exercises take up most of the time and space in tests and assessment. Teachers put a lot more emphasis on the application of these types of exercises compared to others. Let’s look more closely at how this phenomenon is reflected in some of the comments offered by the students:
- Grammar is more important than anything else in the case of the English language and our teacher keeps reminding this to us.
- Without grammar we can not create sentences!
- I do not spend a lot of time learning new words, but I always try to learn grammar rules. Our teacher always asks us to deal with grammar exercises.

It is quite interesting to see that this focus on grammar is a direct consequence of the teachers’ statements about the superior importance of this linguistic element among others. Consequently, students spend much of their time and energy just focusing on grammar exercises. It is widely accepted that grammatical issues and problems should be highlighted and analyzed carefully by teachers but this does not mean that they should prevail against other linguistic issues. A thorough orientation to the Grammar-Translation method is proved to have brought deep problems in the real future communication of the students in a foreign environment and setting. It is necessary that teachers start by reflecting to the students the change of this course and direct them to other linguistic exercises and equate the role and importance of each of them in the EFL classroom.

While the seventh question was focused more on the skill elements: “In what skills in the use of English do your teachers focus more when they test or assess you?
Once again we see a disproportionate share of the weight that the students’ language skills have in the assessment process. On one hand, there is an overload on the assessment of the writing ability as this is a skill which can not be overlooked during classes. On the other hand, the speaking skill is less stressed and even less importance is given to the reading skill. It is interesting to notice that no student responded positively about the listening skill. This clearly shows a total lack of the application of listening activities, at least in terms of assessment.

It is worth mentioning that the term “listening” in the questionnaire refers to the listening exercises and activities that are part of the student’s textbook the students used which is accompanied by audio material that would offer students a variety of voices, pronunciation, dialects and intonations. Naturally, students practice listening skills by listening to the teacher and to each other but these listening activities are not always correct and this is the reason why in this study we take into analysis the intensive listening skill through audio materials. This aspect was made known to the students and teachers together at the very beginning of the research so that they were as clear as possible when analyzing and giving their answers.

The eighth question: “When do your teachers give you feedback on your assessment?” The responses were as follows:

Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only after exams and tests</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>79 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whenever you prepare homework, essays, presentations etc.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whenever you are unprepared</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen from the results, it seems clear that the exams are the key elements that students believe that teachers use to assess. Perhaps it is also because this is a tangible and visible assessment, which is declared and made known to the students in writing whenever they are given back their marked exams. Accordingly, these are the assessments that students recognize as such. This mode of thinking is found reflected even in their comments:

- My English teacher puts me a grade only when we do exams.
- Whenever we prepare homework or class work, we discuss them in the classroom but we are not given a grade for this.
- We receive grades when we do an exam but we also receive a low grade when we are unprepared.

The ninth and the tenth questions:

Question 9 “Does your teacher give you the possibility to assess yourself?”
Question 10 “Have you ever assessed your classmates?”

These were the responses:

Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does your teacher give you the possibility to assess yourself?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever assessed your classmates?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students generally responded negatively on the provision of an opportunity to assess each other. Furthermore, these data shows that the 80 students participating in this study admitted that they were never given the opportunity to assess themselves. Both these figures tell us a lot about the role of teachers and students in the assessment process in particular, and perhaps even on that of teaching in general. This is a problematic element especially if we take into
consideration the role that self-esteem plays in today's pedagogy of teaching foreign languages. The mentality of teachers who view assessment as a right that belongs only to them and that can not be exercised though informally by students is deeply rooted and it will naturally take time, will and hard work to get changed. Comments of students, some of which are presented below, materialized our assumptions on these issues:

Comments on question 9.

- We cannot assess ourselves; the teacher can do this because she knows more than we do.
- We are still too young to assess ourselves.
- I still do not enough English to correct myself or my mistakes
- It is the teacher’s task to assess us. Our task is to learn.

For question number 10 the comments received were:

- I am very curious to see what evaluation my friend has received by the teacher, but I am not able to assess him or her.
- Once, the teacher told us to take our friend’s homework and correct it. After we finished with our corrections, together with the teacher we went through all the exercises so as to see if we had made any mistakes in our correction. I really liked this experience because I felt as a teacher.
- We are not capable of assessing one another, because some students are good at English and some others are not.
- We tried this once in class, but my friend’s handwriting was so bad that I couldn’t understand it.

From these comments and from many other similar ones, it is clear that peer assessment and self-assessment are two skills that have not received due attention in the teaching process. Still today, the teacher plays a central role in class and students are those who follow the guidelines and assessment given by the teacher only.

The last question of our questionnaire required from the students to think critically about assessment in general and the followed procedures in particular. Through this questionnaire, we offered to the students the opportunity that for just a brief moment they could be put in the role of their assessors and think about possible improvements to the process. Responses have been varied and sometimes surprising. Let us see some of them as follows:

- There should be more exams during the school terms.
- We need to be assessed more and this assessment should be shown to us.
- There are many cases when our teachers do not tell us what grades we have received, and such a phenomenon worries our parents who are confronted with a lower grade than expected at the end of the school year.
- It would be great if our teachers explained to us the particular grade we might have received in an exam and after that give to us the right solutions to the problems.
- Our teacher does not usually correct our homework and I spend a lot of time at home preparing them. I would like to be given a grade even about my homework.
- I would love to be given the opportunity to assess myself and my friends because I believe that in this way we will be able to better understand our mistakes in English.

It is evident from these responses that students are generally capable of critically viewing the learning process and they draw their own conclusions about possible improvements in this area.

5. Conclusion

Learners in this pilot study agreed that tests and assessments made them learn more as they needed to achieve good results and thus they were encouraged to review previously acquired knowledge in order to be ready for the next assessment. However, there were some of them for whom the aspect of testing and assessment constituted a difficult moment. Before, during and after the process, they felt under psychological pressure.

The study clearly showed that grammar and writing exercises prevailed in comparison with other types of testing articles. Few were those students who mentioned exercises in reading and speaking while students did not mention any of the listening exercises. Most of the respondents had full confidence that grammar exercises were the most important ones and therefore these should be best learned as the teachers put a lot of emphasis on these types of exercises. The message from teachers to students was: without grammar one can not learn a foreign language.

Many of the respondents replied that many of the mistakes they made related to grammar elements. Many of the students stated that they often failed to correctly write many words in the English language in their writing. They expressed that it was difficult to memorize the exact spelling of English words, because it required that they not only
learn the correct pronunciation and meaning of the word, but also the way it was correctly written.

Learners in this pilot study agreed that self and peer assessment offer an assessment not available through traditional testing: learners can have their learning processes assessed and are provided with the chance to reflect about their own work. Self and peer assessment also can provide learners with ample feedback from peer and teachers, increasing cooperative learning and motivation.

It is quite interesting to note that there are many students who require more tests and more assessment activities by their teachers before they could set them a grade. It is the learners themselves that require to be evaluated not only through tests, but also through exercises in reading, writing and speaking. We regret to see that the students’ responses in relation to listening activities were completely missing.

References


Lacks and Problems Encountered in a Military English Communication Course

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Abstract

The paper focuses on the lacks and problems encountered by teachers and learners of a military English course on communication and gives recommendations on how to overcome them. After these problems have been identified, it relies on all parties involved in the teaching process to contribute in reducing them, i.e. the syllabus design board, the teachers and the military students. One of the most apparent issues is related with the lack of a specific syllabus design for military English communication. Thus the teacher’s job becomes quite a challenge. What is more, some teachers are not well-trained in teaching military English communication, so they are not familiar with the subject matter and do not master the content. Moreover, the officers who attend a communicative military course have different English competence, starting from low levels to advanced ones, so the teacher has to select and use appropriate communicative tasks according to the students’ language knowledge. Besides that, there are not many military course books on communication available, so it is teacher’s responsibility to find the right materials and to make use of all available English resources. In fact, another fundamental aspect concerning a military English communicative course has to do with students’ eagerness to learn English. In conclusion, knowing all the weaknesses and difficulties that a teacher may face while teaching English communication in a military group helps the teacher to focus, be committed and accomplish his teaching mission by providing a class of competent communicators.

1. Introduction

Nowadays the importance of English language in the Albanian Armed Forces is a crucial, immediate and fundamental issue. Teaching English to military personnel is set as a major priority in the academic curricula of the Academy of the Albanian Armed Forces. With the collapse of the Communist regime in Albania in 1990 a sudden interest emerged in English language, as a globally spoken language, part of which was also military English. Albanian Army was open to cooperate and pool resources with its international partners worldwide, especially with The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO). New missions and strategies meant re-examining Albanian military structure and goals, among which military English had a significant role.

After Albania joined NATO in 2009, new objectives were set and new standards had to be met. Mastery of English, as the first NATO language, became one of the top priorities in Albanian Armed Forces. Speaking English effectively is vital to a professional officer who intends to enhance his professional and academic development and who wants to pursue a career path in the Albanian Army. At present, Albanian military troops operate in accordance with the Alliance needs. Only through effective communication will they be able to perform a successful duty. Speaking English is essential to the military personnel who participate in international organisations, in peacekeeping operations and partake in various trainings abroad. Therefore, it is quite necessary to provide communicative courses in military English according to the officers’ needs. Only through such courses will the military personnel be able to accomplish their missions successfully and represent our country proudly.

Teaching English to military personnel has always been a major factor in the academic curricula of the Academy of the Armed Forces in Albania. Above all language skills, speaking is the one which dominates widely. The introduction of Communicative Language Teaching Approach changed the way we teach speaking to our students dramatically. Specific English courses are provided by the Foreign Languages Centre according to the officers’ needs.

2. Literature Review

Teaching English communicative competence to officers requires high professionalism as a teacher and mastery of language content, thus a teacher of a military English communicative course is dual-hated. He or she should be open-minded to new ways of teaching, he should set clear and achievable goals in his course, he should consider himself a
co-learner and part of the class, and finally he or she should develop a specific communicative curriculum according to students’ needs and time-constraints. Since the focus of the English communication course is on the process of military English acquisition, achievement and success in the major goals are measured in terms of ‘the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes’ (Wilkins, 1976).

Teaching communicative competence to adult learners, especially to military students, is not easy. First of all, the teacher who is responsible for teaching English communication should have a clear idea of what communicative competence is. According to Richards (2006), communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge:

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions;
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication);
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations);
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one’s language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies).

The above aspects of communicative competence are applied in military communication as well. The first aspect requires our students to be aware of military English language use according to specific purposes and functions. For instance, they are asked to be involved in real-life situations in which they inquire logistic support in a civilian emergency. In this case, they practice the right terminology in order to fulfil their purpose. The second aspect deals with use of military language in accordance with the communicative situation and the participants i.e. they will speak friendly to a colleague when they meet in a mess hall, and formally to the same person when they meet in an office. The third one deals with understanding different types of text and military language offers quite a large range of texts starting with memos, different kinds of reports, orders, directives, presentations, briefings etc. The last aspect consists of exchanging and maintaining communication despite the deficiencies they have in English language knowledge. In such a situation conveying the message is the most important issue, which means being able to give and get the message from the sender, despite all the grammatical and structural mistakes. Thus the communication is meaningful, interacting and engaging. In this kind of communication the students use gestures and non-verbal language for the unknown words. To sum up, all these components comprise what is known as communicative competence in general English and the same components are part of the communicative competence in the military English as well.

Furthermore, after identification of communicative competence components, the teacher should develop a communicative syllabus and an effective curriculum. Designing a military English communicative curriculum is quite a challenge due to the scope of subject content and work-related goals to be met during the course. In the Foreign Language Centre of the Academy of the Armed Forces military English curricula are designed, but not specifically communicative ones. This is considered a major problem faced by communicative course teachers. So, it relies on the teacher to find the right materials and to plan their use properly. These curricula should be tailored to military student needs, such as those who are deployed in peacekeeping missions, those who are assigned to represent Albania in NATO organization, to others are prepared to be part of an international team of nurses who serve in Afghanistan as well as some others who perform their duty as mentors in Operational Mentor Liaison Team (OMLT) in the same country. Therefore, we should design a communicative curriculum with speaking tasks that meet learners’ needs. Learners’ communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals with regard to functional competence. (Savignon, 2002).

According to Littlewood (2002), the following issue should be taken into consideration: “a communicative view of language can help the teacher to make the linguistic content of a course more relevant to learners’ needs; and how “a communicative view of language can provide the teacher with alternative ways of organizing this content into teaching units (e.g. lessons or sequences of lessons). First of all, we should specify the goals and the objective that we want to achieve in the communicative course (Nunan, 2001). A military communication course should provide practice in effective speaking skills in a military environment. Thus, the content is categorized and organized according to the deadline of the course. Finally, the teacher should reflect on the specification of terminology, functions, grammatical items, military topics, notions etc. So, as Littlewood (2002) states, the teacher should have a checklist for predicting communicative needs. The mentioned checklist helps the teacher to answer certain questions about the situations that a learner might encounter, language activities in which he is going to be engaged, the most useful functions of language
and the most essential topics and notions.

Additionally, finding the right materials from all available English resources is undoubtedly essential when it comes to curricula design. They can make use of general English methods, authentic materials taken from English books, newspapers, magazines, academic journals, internet etc. All these speaking materials should be relevant to the military environment, i.e. army manuals, real-life situations from the battlefield or exercise, military expression and acronyms from NATO documents etc. These materials, authentic or tailored by the teacher, will provide the students the proper language content. All too often, teachers of a communicative course have to evaluate, design and develop the military English communicative tasks themselves due to the lack of military language materials. The teacher should be very selective with the wide range of teaching materials that he or she practices in the classroom. Consequently, he or she should carefully take into account the communicative tasks consistent with the language knowledge of the students, involving role-plays, dialogues, debates, puzzles, jigsaw etc. He or she evaluates if the task is appropriate for his or her class and if it works properly for his teaching goals. As Hyland (2006) stated ‘from rights and needs assessments a systematic course plan has to be developed by selecting and sequencing the content and tasks that will lead to desired learning outcomes’.

3. Methodology

The methodology of the research article deals with the way this study is conducted. The paper is concerned with the difficulty faced by teachers in finding, designing and using communicative class in a military English communication course, students’ interest in doing these speaking tasks and problems encountered by both teachers and students in practicing them.

In this part of the article the research design will be described, the participants, data collection methods, the procedure that was applied during this mini-research and finally data analyses technique used by the researcher.

3.1 Type of research

This research employs observation and survey methods. The observation method makes use of the researcher’ experience as a military English teacher, whereas the use of questionnaires provides the information given by the participants of the study. All data is collected to find out the difficulties and problems that military English teachers face in finding, designing and using communicative tasks and to give recommendations on how to overcome this problem. The research is conducted to collect information on the following aspect:

- The difficulties of finding and designing communicative military tasks in teaching speaking to military students.
- The difficulties of practicing communicative activities faced by teachers and students of a military communication course.
- The military students’ attitude toward communicative tasks.

3.2 The participants

The research was carried out in the Foreign Languages Centre (FLC), at the Academy of the Armed Forces, in Tirana, Albania. Currently, the FLC runs five English language proficiency courses according to specific Standardized Agreement (STANAG 6001) levels, which is a NATO agreement among member countries for an acceptable linguistic competence that enables cooperation. They consist of 70 military students. The study was organized only in three groups, in a level 3 group, which refers to an advanced level, and in two other groups, equal to upper-intermediate level in English. Most of the students are military, who work in the Albanian Armed Forces, and only a few are civilians who work at the Ministry of Defence. The total number of students who participated in this study was 31 respondents, who came from the three respective groups mentioned above. The table below presents the relevant information gathered by the student respondents regarding the number of students involved, their gender and the number of years they have studied English:

Table 1. Students’ demographic information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Name</th>
<th>Group Size</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Average years in English learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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Besides the military students, the focus of this study was on the military English teachers too. The questionnaire was given to 14 military English teachers who teach the respondents of the questionnaires. They are from the age of 24 to 59, most of them have more than 10 years in teaching military English, and the youngest one has at least two years in this profession. The following table will give the necessary data on the teaching experience of military English teachers and their gender.

Table 2. Teachers’ demographic information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Name</th>
<th>Group Size</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Average years in teaching English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military English</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Data collection method

The first method used in this study was the observation. The researcher as a military English teacher observed carefully every detail that is related with the topic of this paper. So, the researcher took into consideration the selection of the communicative tasks, their evaluation, design and finally their practice in a military English class. She wrote down the problems, difficulties and lacks she dealt with during her study.

The second method employed was the survey questionnaire. Two kinds of questionnaires were used, one for the military students and the other one for the military English teachers. Both questionnaires were written in Albanian and they were composed of 2 sections:

- Section 1: The respondents were asked about their gender, education and how long they had been learning/teaching military English
- Section 2: Each questionnaire had 8 military communicative tasks which were the same for both teachers and students. Three specific questions were asked to each group of respondents (teachers, students) regarding these 8 speaking tasks:
  1. The frequency of use of the military communicative tasks (both to military students and teachers);
  2. The difficulty they face in using these military communicative tasks (both to military students and teachers);
  3. Teachers’ difficulty in finding and designing communicative tasks;
  4. Students’ interest in doing such communicative tasks.

3.4 Data analysis:

First of all, the collected data from the respondents were analysed and classified according to three specific question of the study. Therefore, the answers given to these three questions helped us to find out the answer of the main research question that has to do with difficulties in finding, designing and using communicative tasks in teaching military communicative competence.

Secondly, the descriptive statistic method was used to process the information taken from the questionnaires. After that, the researcher analysed the data and rendered them in statistics according to each question made in the survey. Then, the received statistics were put in charts to illustrate and explain better the results of the study.

4. Results taken from the questionnaires

This part of the study gives the results and facts received from the research. After the data collection by military teachers and students the researcher found the following results:
4.1 The frequency of using military communicative tasks

Figure 1: Students’ answers about the frequency of use of the communicative tasks

At it can be seen from the above chart most of the military students, 33 % of them, say that they rarely use communicative tasks. About 20 % of them say that they sometimes use such tasks in their English course, whereas 17 % of them say that they never apply such military communicative tasks. Approximately 15 % of them say that they often deal with such communicative tasks and finally about 13 % of them state that they use these tasks very often.

Figure 2. Teachers’ answers about the frequency of use of the communicative tasks

According to Figure 2, most of the teachers, 40 %, sometimes use communicative tasks in their military English classes. 25 % of them say that they rarely use them and about 22 % of the teachers often apply these tasks. Only 10 % of them use them very often and finally about 1 % says that they never use them. So, military English communicative tasks are not employed very often in the courses provided by our centre.

4.2 The difficulty in using military communicative tasks

Figure 3. Students ‘difficulty in using military communicative tasks.

It can be figured out in chart 3, that 30 % of the students sometimes face difficulty in using these communicative tasks, 28 % often find them difficult, whereas 26 % rarely encounter difficulty in doing them.16 % of the students very often face difficulty in carrying out such tasks and finally only 2 % of the students never find it difficult in using CT.

Figure 4. Teachers’ difficulty in using military communicative tasks

It can be seen from the Figure 4, that most of the military English teachers, 38 %, sometimes encounter difficulty in applying communicative tasks in their classes. 26 % of the teachers often find them difficult in using them in class,
whereas 17% of them rarely face difficulty. 13.4% of the teachers say that they very often find it difficult to use them and only 4% of them never have problems in employing such tasks. As a result, military teachers and students consider the use of speaking tasks not very difficult and they are able to deal with them productively.

4.3 The difficulty faced by military English teachers in finding and designing communicative tasks

![Figure 5](image)

**Figure 5.** Military English teachers’ difficulty in finding and designing communicative tasks

According to Figure 5, 35% of the teachers say that they often encounter difficulty in finding and designing military communicative tasks. 33% of them state that they very often have problems in finding these tasks and 15% sometimes find it difficult to find and to prepare them. 12% of the teachers rarely have problems with such communicative materials and only 2% of them never find these tasks difficulty. Therefore, designing a communicative curriculum is considered a milestone in the teaching process.

4.4 The interest of military students in using communicative tasks

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6.** Students’ interest in using military communicative tasks

Figure 6, shows the interest of military students in doing communicative tasks. Most of them, 38% state that they would like to do these tasks more often. 37% of the students would like to use them often and 18% of them sometimes. Only 4% would like to use them rarely and 1% never likes doing such tasks. To sum up, military students are in favour of practicing and using speaking tasks. Through practice of such tasks they are able to interact and acquire the target language easily.

5. Recommendations and Conclusions

Teaching English speaking to military students, cadets and officers is quite challenging to military English teachers. The teachers of military speaking courses deal with many problems and difficulties and it is their responsibility to overcome these obstacles in order to reach their major goal i.e. to enhance students’ speaking skills. Communicative competence remains one of the most prominent skills of our students nowadays. Therefore, communicative tasks are really effective and indispensable in improving speaking skills of military students. As it was viewed in this paper, such communicative tasks are practiced in current English speaking courses in the Foreign Languages Centre, but their frequency of use is not at the required level. Most of the teachers sometimes use the communicative tasks in their classes, whereas from the students’ point of view they state that they rarely practice them. According to the research results, the military students are very interested in using speaking tasks, which means they are highly motivated and willing to improve their speaking skills.

Regarding the difficulty encountered by teachers and students in using military English speaking tasks there are different views. Teachers prefer practicing such communicative activities but they often find it difficult to organize them properly. Preparing them is time consuming; managing teaching time and students in the class is quite a challenge; whereas for a part of the students these tasks are ineffective. However, all the teachers agree that the use of military
speaking tasks in their courses improves English speaking among our military students.

Based on the facts of this study, it results that the military English teachers encounter lots of problems when it comes to speaking materials. So, it is suggested that a syllabus board be responsible for finding, evaluating and finally designing a curriculum on military English speaking course. At our FLC, different courses are organized according to the officers’ needs, so specific curricula should be complied in accordance with the purpose of the course and time restrictions. Regarding speaking materials, the curricula design teachers should take into considerations certain resources and aspects:

- Most of the speaking materials should be authentic;
- They should make use of several resources, such as military academic books, military journals, newspapers, magazines, army manuals, military websites on internet etc.;
- A part of the materials need to be tailored according to the students’ needs and language knowledge;
- Piloting is suggested before implementing out the new curricula. The design team can pilot the new curricula in different groups in order to find out in this way if the communicative tasks are effective or not, to see students interests in these tasks and teachers opinions as well;
- The speaking curricula should be flexible to the teachers, allowing them to arrange it in accordance with the specific language knowledge of their students;
- It should be possible for the teacher to update the speaking curriculum with any kind of speaking tasks they find useful and effective.

In conclusion, teaching speaking through communicative tasks is not unknown to our teachers; it is not a teaching technique that they are unaware of. In fact it is a matter of teaching perception, learning environment and nonconventional way of teaching. In addition, one of the most fundamental purposes of a military speaking course is to produce competent English communicators in the military field. If a military student is able to communicate in English fluently, accurately and in a comprehensive way in his working environment, then you as a teacher, have met the major objective of your speaking course. So, the teachers should have clear, realistic and achievable goals ahead of starting teaching speaking. Once these objectives are set, the teacher is able to design a productive and useful curriculum on the speaking course.

References

Evaluation of Effectiveness of Education of Mathematics in High Schools on the Example of Schools in the City of Wroclaw

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Abstract

This work is a continuation of the article by Biernacki, [Biernacki (2012)] which evaluated the educational system in Poland in four areas:
1. Economic, in which service performance of a school is assessed (expressed by comparing the production contribution and the economic effect, i.e. graduates).
2. Professional, which assesses the effectiveness of teaching, which is measured by the ability to improve knowledge and skills of the student.
3. Personal, related to student's, pupil's and parent's satisfaction understood as the quality (subjective) of teaching.
4. Social, which assesses increase of social welfare resulting from the activities of the school.
In this work a synthetic measure is proposed to evaluate a school in the distinguished aspects, but also taking into consideration the fact that assessment of schools was based on three of them (based on available data).

Keywords: effectiveness, education system.

1. Introduction

Effective functioning of public institutions, especially in the area of education is included in the basic problem of justice of the entire the socio-economic system, in which the starting point is the human being - their value and dignity. Another important factor maintaining effective education is human capital, which according to many concepts is a factor of economic growth of the whole country [Mankiw, N., Romer, D., Weil, D. (1992)]. In this time of economic crisis and high public debt in Poland there is no real chance to increase spending on education. Consequently, what should be improved is managing of education system's entities. Better management forces greater effectiveness of the organization. To achieve the above one needs to evaluate and control activities.

The aim of this article is to present a multidimensional evaluation of public institutions in the education sector for the purpose of optimizing costs and improving quality of service.

2. Economic aspect

Performance level of the education system at the secondary level in Poland, measured by the ratio of the average result of PISA exam to expenditure per pupil is among the highest in the analyzed countries [see Biernacki (2012)].

According to Barro and Lee [Barro, Lee (2001)] educational performance in science subjects is the most significant for economic growth. Therefore, the area of analysis will be the results of education of mathematics in secondary schools. Effectiveness of mathematics education at the secondary level in Poland is in the years 2003 - 2009 as compared to the international PISA exam is at a constant rate equal to the average result of assessed students from OECD countries. Whereas the proportion of the weakest Polish students (in OECD – PISA research who do not exceed 1st and 2nd level of difficulty of tasks) is fixed at 20%, and the percentage of best students, those who solve tasks at 5th and 6th levels of difficulty is at a constant low level of 10%.

Rating of a school's economic area was carried out using a non-parametric method - DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis) [Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes (CCR), 1978]. From a statistical approach, based on central tendency observed in the sample, this rating is different in that it assesses the effectiveness of each object not on the grounds of average objects but taking into consideration the best ones – the most effective ones. The set of points in a sample is surrounded by area connecting the best objects, hence the name of the method: data envelopment analysis. DEA method identifies...
efficient objects, the ones which produce in the most economical way under given circumstances. Thus, it is a measure of effectiveness of the relative dependable on the analyzed data set. The analysis can be focused on maximizing effects or minimizing consumption of resources. A measure of (in)efficiency of an object reflects its distance from the boundary area. The effectiveness of the school is obtained by maximizing the ratio of weighted services to weighted inputs, provided that the same indicators for each school are less than or equal 1. That is:

$$\max h_0 = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{s} u_{rj0} y_{j0}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{ij0} x_{j0}}$$

provided that

$$\frac{\sum_{r=1}^{s} u_{rj0} y_{j0}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{ij0} x_{j0}} \leq 1; \quad j = 1, \ldots, n$$

where: $y_{ij}$ - r-th service produced by j-th school,
$x_{ij}$ - investment i used by the school j,
$u_{rj}, v_{ij} \geq 0$ – weights which are determined by solving the above formula
$j_0$ - estimated school

3. Professional aspect (perspective)

From a praxeological point of view (purpose of the action) to the state and society should aim at not only maintaining the average level of education, or to adapt to the level of the OECD and the EU, but also appreciate gifted students who in the future will build an economy that is based on knowledge, and minimize the proportion of the weakest students. Sparkers J., [1999] showed that there is a strong correlation between poor academic performance and poverty. Increase in the level of knowledge of poor children gives them a chance to escape poverty. On the one hand, the lower the population's poverty, the lower the inequality of income distribution. On the other hand, the lower the number of the poor, the lower the value of social benefits, and a smaller number of thefts, robberies, i.e. greater social well-being.

Assessment of professional dimension was carried out with the use of the method of Educational Value Added (EVA), which like the DEA is a relative evaluation method. The simplest example in a class of linear statistical models is the model of "education production function" expressed by the formula (Goldstein and Spiegelhalter):

$$y_{ij} = \beta x_{ij} + \gamma z_j + u_i + e_{ij}$$

where: $y_{ij}$ is a quantitative result of i-th student in j-th university (on j-th faculty)
$x_{ij}$ - corresponding characteristics of the student,
$z_j$ - resources (measures) of the j-th university (faculty),
$u_i$ - measures the relative efficiency of j-th university (faculty),
e_{ij} - is the random error assigned to i-th student in j-th university,
$\beta$ and $\gamma$ are vectors of constant coefficients associated with $x_{ij}$ and $z_j$ respectively.

By estimating the vectors, and we can estimate the effectiveness of j-th school.

Figure 1. shows average EVA results in mathematics for secondary schools in Wroclaw during 2010-2012. From the data one can observe the impact of competition on the outcome of education. Most of the 'weakest' schools in 2010 have improved over time their education score (EVA) in mathematics "escaping" from the end of the rankings. Observation of the outcomes of education may allow the management and staff of the school to find optimal conditions for such an allocation of resources, that will provide the best educational results, and help students and their parents...
choose the right school.

In order for the score of this aspect to be in the interval \([0, 1]\) a standardization is made:

\[
    u_j = \frac{u_j - \min_j u_j}{\max_j u_j - \min_j u_j}
\]

**Figure 1.** EVA results in mathematics for secondary schools in Wroclaw in the years 2010 to 2012.


4. Social aspect (perspective)

In order to assess the level of social welfare the so-called abbreviated Sen's welfare functions were used, they are expressed as: 

\[
    V = \mu (1-G), \quad \text{where} \quad \mu \text{ is the average income, and } G \text{ is the Gini's coefficient.}
\]

At the outset and completion of the education process there are presented vectors of students' characteristics. When evaluating secondary schools they are the number of points gained at the lower secondary school final exam and points gained at the matriculation examination – respectively, 

\[
    \bar{x}_0 = [x_1^0, x_2^0, \ldots, x_n^0], \quad \bar{x}_1 = [x_1^1, x_2^1, \ldots, x_n^1].
\]

Then, using a abbreviated Sen's welfare function one calculates the change in social welfare \(SWF\) which is the result of the activity of the assessed school. After modifications, an index was obtained as:

\[
    SWF = \frac{\bar{x}_1^1 (1 - G_1) - \bar{x}_0^0 (1 - G_0) + 1}{2}
\]

where \(G_0, G_1\) are the values of the Gini's indices of these distributions.

5. Synthetic measure

Each school can be assigned a point of the cube \(I^3\) (vector of three coordinates in the range \([0, 1]\). Simplest synthetic measure that can evaluate a school is weighed average. In the proposed assessment of schools in Wroclaw an arithmetic mean was included into the synthetic evaluation.

Table 1. presents the results of synthetic index of Wroclaw secondary schools assessment, which is the arithmetic mean of the indices: economic area (DEA), the area of the praxeological internal (EVA) and the external praxeological area, i.e. social dimension (Social Measure.)

**Table 1.** Comprehensive rating of high schools in Wroclaw in 2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Number of graduates</th>
<th>Average G-MP</th>
<th>Cost of employment</th>
<th>Students / Teachers</th>
<th>Average M-M</th>
<th>EVA</th>
<th>DEA</th>
<th>Social Measure</th>
<th>Synthetic average</th>
<th>Ran-king</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOI</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>68,12</td>
<td>4 854,96</td>
<td>44,36</td>
<td>59,25</td>
<td>0,47</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>0,564</td>
<td>0,677</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOII</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>77,27</td>
<td>5 240,81</td>
<td>44,29</td>
<td>63,29</td>
<td>0,20</td>
<td>0,93</td>
<td>0,556</td>
<td>0,561</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wherein: Average G-MP is the average number of lower secondary school points from mathematics and natural sciences, and the average M-M is the average number of points obtained in the high school final exam (matura) in mathematics in 2010 by the students of the analyzed high school.

6. Ending

The applied synthetic measure allows to evaluate and organize analyzed institutions - in this case secondary schools in Wroclaw in terms of the three highlighted aspects. To measure the other two aspects of the analyzed schools, i.e. the process and personal one, there is necessity to access data which can be obtained from electronic registers of relevant classes. Furthermore, assuming that the assessment has characteristics of monitoring, which is to be carried out regularly, one can set the historical trajectory of the assessment and thus analyze the temporal changes in performance of teachers and schools (institutions).

References


International Baccalaureate Programme in Perm Region (Russia) as a Government Initiative: First Results

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Abstract

International Baccalaureate Diploma Program is an academically challenging self-funded high school program which is recognized by the world’s leading universities. It was introduced in one of the regions of Russia (Perm region) by the local government with the aim to ensure access to high quality education and to improve regional educational system overall. High school students get international IB diploma while this process is largely financed by the regional government. The aim of this paper is to examine how effective this scheme is and to give recommendations for its improvement. In order to answer the research question different major stakeholder groups were surveyed: students, school-leavers, and teachers. Official documents, underlying the implementation of this program, were analyzed. Analysis of the findings was made with the help of institutional approach. The results of this paper represent benefits and shortcomings for each stakeholder group of the project. The recommendations given in the paper deal with the increase of efficiency of this scheme: additional incentives should be created and introduced to increase benefits for the regional part of the contract.

Keywords: International Baccalaureate Diploma Program, educational initiative, government funding, risks and benefits

1. Introduction

In the latest decade people have become aware of the fact that knowledge is one of the main components of economic and social development. It can play a key role in the development of countries and regions as well as influence their competitiveness. Furthermore, this component is to a great extent defined by the quality and the level of the educational system development on the chosen territory.

The problem of the human resources development that have all necessary competences and are able to meet global challenges of constantly changing competitive environment is traditionally formulated and discussed with reference to the higher educational system (Salmi et al., 2011). The importance of this problem is recognized all over the world, moreover, it is further proved by the growing number of studies in the area of management and economics of higher education. It is clear that the level of human capital in the country or in the region is defined not only by the quality of the higher education but by the school education as well. Basic competences such as ability to collect and analyze information, critical thinking, creative approach to the question posed, foreign-language skills are introduced in the secondary and high school.

During last two decades Russian educational system has been under the process of constant restructuring. The present-day situation on the level of secondary and high school can be described as controversial, requiring further careful analysis and can not be characterized within the framework of this study. At the same time it should be noted that some restructuring processes and their results are questionable. And while some reforms definitely result in the higher quality of education, overall effectiveness of secondary and high school education can be regarded as insufficient (Kuzminov et al., 2011).

Secondary and high school education in Perm Region (a large industrial region in the middle of Russia with the population of about 2,5 million, with about 1 million people living in Perm) is not an exception from the situation described above. The main problems are unevenness of education quality provided in different parts of the region (urban and rural,
for example), insufficient adaptiveness of educational system, low attractiveness of school-teacher position for university graduates (The long-term program..., 2013). However, the increase in the education quality is defined as a necessary requirement for the development of the regional investment potential and rising in the standards of living.

A number of projects with the aim to improve the situation is described in the public report of the Ministry of Education in Perm region for 2010 – 2011 (Public report..., 2011). Some of these projects can be classified as system-wide measures aimed to raise attractiveness of school teacher profession or, for example, to develop the system for monitoring quality of education as a service. At the same time there is another rifle approach aimed to develop individual educational establishments or to introduce new educational initiatives.

One of the ways to create a more effective secondary and high school national educational system is to rely on the best international experience. The idea is that the introduction of established educational systems and individual methodical approaches can result in the development of highly successful educational centers in the future. The introduction of International Baccalaureate Programme in Perm Region can be classified as the latter type of reforms. Educational initiative with the aim to open International Baccalaureate schools started in 2007.

This project has been carried on for 5 years that is why it is perfectly possible to analyze it, to estimate its successes and downfalls, to suggest ways to improve this project in the future. Our conclusions are based on the combination of two sources of information: firstly, official documents stating aims and objectives of introducing International Baccalaureate Programme in Perm Region and official reports on the way this project was realized, secondly, surveys of the main beneficiary groups in this project. The following groups can be regarded as main beneficiaries of this project: 1) students and their families, 2) teachers, 3) administration of school where this project was realized, 4) administration of Perm region (represented by civil servants and project leaders in Perm). This scheme of analysis implies the comparison of main beneficiaries’ opinions on the key aspects of the project (described in its aims), defining its risks and expected benefits. In the next part of this paper we will give overall description of this educational initiative in Perm region. in the third part we will describe main survey results, in the fourth - analyze them and formulate main benefits and risks of the project. At the end of the paper we will give main conclusions and recommendations on the ways to develop this project with the aim to increase its efficiency.

2. International Baccalaureate Programme in Perm Region: overall description of the educational initiative

International Baccalaureate (IB) is a high quality international education programme. Founded in 1968, this non-profit organization currently works with 3,630 schools in 145 countries to develop and offer challenging educational programmes to over 1,121,000 students aged 3 to 19 years (http://www.ibo.org/general/who.cfm). This system not only gives high quality school education but also develops unique personal qualities which are defined as competencies of future leaders (Shneider M., 2005). The IB offers three programmes of international education from early childhood to pre-university age: The Primary Years Programme (the PYP) for students aged 3 to 12, the Middle Years Programme (the MYP) for students aged 11 to 16 and the Diploma Programme (the DP) for students aged 16 to 18. If at the end of the DP students pass external exams successfully they get high school diplomas that are recognized by 2800 world’s leading universities.

Nowadays in Russia 18 schools are authorized as IB World Schools (http://www.ibsa.su/?partition=2). Education in the IB DP is substantially different from traditional national Russian educational system. Firstly, the IB DP provides students with the opportunity to choose their own educational trajectory while in the Russian national school system students do not have the choice of subjects. IB Diploma Programme students must choose one subject from each of five subject groups: languages, sciences, mathematics, individuals and societies, literature. These subjects can be taken either at higher level or at standard level. Some of the subjects offered by the IB Programme (Business&Management, Psychology) can not be studied within the traditional national Russian school framework. Secondly, the IB DP includes one unique subject – “Theory of knowledge”. This course develops critical thinking, gives students an opportunity to inquire into the nature of knowing and deepens their understanding of knowledge as a human construction. (http://www.ibo.org/diploma/index.cfm). Thirdly, students are involved in a variety of research projects in different subjects. Moreover, they have to choose the research question and plan their project themselves. One example of these research projects is the extended essay which is about 4000 words and asks students to engage in independent research through an in-depth study of a question relating to one of the DP subjects. Fourthly, 150 hours should be devoted to “Creativity, action, service” which involves students in a range of extra-curricular activities. This aspect of the programme enhances students’ personal and interpersonal development through helping the society. Thus, the main aim of the IB DP is balanced personal development, forming critical and creative thinking skills and a positive attitude toward
learning.

In Perm region an attempt was made to incorporate three IB programmes in the system of school education. For the purpose of our analysis we will describe two characteristics of this educational initiative: 1) funding model and 2) network character of the project. Firstly, this project is almost completely funded by the local government. Regional authorities allocate on average about $9000 per one child in this programme while families pay about $1000, which is about one tenth of the whole amount. Thus, regional authorities are responsible for financing the education while in other countries and even in other Russian regions such education is privately funded by students' families. If in our case this project had been funded by the families themselves it would not have been implemented, because it would have faced the following difficulties:

1) insufficient demand: families would not be ready to pay for this education because the minimal cost of education within this programme is about $10000 per year.
2) longer period of launching the project: in order to be authorized by the IB to offer these programmes schools need substantial human and financial resources.

The second characteristic is what was called “the network character of the project” in the official documents. Here it means that the success of one school in implementing new educational standards and practices required by the IB will lead to the wide-spread expansion of acquired knowledge in the regional educational system and in its turn, will improve the work of teachers in other schools (Schleicher, 2011).

3. Results

Having analyzed official government documents on this educational initiative we can state that its primary aim is “to create organizational and pedagogical conditions for international educational programmes implementation in Perm region” which in its turn will lead to:

- “creating conditions for attracting highly-skilled specialists from other countries (there is shortage of such specialists in Perm region which lowers the pace of economic development and decreases its investment potential)
- the fact that school-leavers will get an internationally recognized diploma which gives them an opportunity to enter foreign universities
- high quality of education on sciences and humanities, better English-language skills as well as personal development which is a key feature of the IB programme” (Decree of the Perm Krai Government..., 2007).

Furthermore, it was expected that this project will “be a starting point for improving skills of a great number of teaching employees... by spreading the ideas and educational technologies of the IB in Perm region” (Decree of the Perm Krai Government..., 2007). It was decided that this project would be state-funded due to the following reasons: shorter period of school authorization and the fact that access to this program should be open not only for people aiming to work abroad but also for talented children in Perm region. This document describes the following points as possible risks 1) low demand due to high price of the service; 2) the fact that students can be overloaded due to the necessity to combine Russian national school programme and the IB programme; 3) outflow of trained human resources from this programme in the medium-term due to emotional, psychological and professional burnout. The following points were defined as indicators of successful performance 1) budget disbursement, 2) the number of authorized schools, 3) the number of students enrolled in the IB programme.

Within the period of three years three schools in Perm region were authorized by the IB and got the status of IB schools: one school provides The Primary Years Programme, the second - the Middle Years Programme and the third - the Diploma Programme. In this paper we will analyze the DP only because two other programmes are combined with the Russian national curriculum and are free of charge for families, while only the DP puts special emphasis on getting an international diploma.

From our point of view, in order to identify and analyze benefits and risks of this project it might be useful to compare the opinions of key project beneficiaries. To achieve this aim the survey of three key beneficiary groups was conducted: students, graduates and teachers. The authors made an attempt to conduct a survey for families of the DP students but no questionnaires were filled out and returned.

3.1 Students: survey results

In 2012 – 2013 academic year 21 students were enrolled in the DP in Perm, the sample was continuous in this case. The
survey results showed that 30% of students took independent decision to be educated in this programme, 60% made this decision together with their parents and in 10% cases this decision was taken by the parents.

Students gave diverse answers when asked about the reasons for choosing the DP. The most frequent answers were the following: “the experience of studying in English”, “the possibility to improve English-language skills”, “appealingness of the unusual educational system”, “novelty of the curriculum”, “preparation for further education abroad”, “support in self-development”.

Two thirds of the respondents are of the opinion that studies in the DP fully meet their expectations, the others consider that there is some gap between their expectations and the real studying process. When asked to describe this gap students noted rigid assessment system, difficulty in combining national and international curriculums, high level of formality in the educational process, lack of necessary infrastructure, provided in some IB schools abroad.

The most frequent answers about positive aspects of education in DP were the possibility to improve English-language skills (100%) and learn new subjects which are not offered within the national educational curriculum (100%). 80% of the respondents mentioned the fact that education is provided in small groups, 60% - state funding, 50% - research projects and 45% - good preparation for further university studies.

When asked about the drawbacks of this program respondents gave the following answers: the necessity to combine national and international curriculum (85%), dramatic increase in the study load (65%).

The next question was about key differences between IB DP and Russian national curriculum. 50% of respondents mentioned the development of analytical thinking skills and skills to support arguments and judgments, 20% named personal development. Some respondents mentioned more responsible attitude to the educational process, opportunity to choose necessary and interesting subjects.

3.2 School-leavers: survey results

In 2011 6 school-leavers received IB Diplomas in Perm region, in 2012 there were 14 of them. Out of these 20 people 50% get higher education in Perm, 30% - in Moscow or St Petersburg, 20% chose foreign universities in such countries as Germany, the UK, the USA.

15 respondents took part in our survey which is 75% of continuous sample; all of them were first or second year students in different universities at the time of our survey. The answers about the influence of the IB DP on the choice of the university were highly controversial: 50% of respondents think that the IB DP influenced their choice of the higher educational establishment to a great extent while the other 50% consider that there was no influence at all.

The vast majority of the respondents (80%) are of the opinion that their experience of studying in the IB DP results in the successful university performance. They supported their opinion with the arguments about certain skills development (from the most frequent to the least frequent): critical thinking skills, skills to find relevant information, skills to plan and conduct scientific research, skills involved in the studying process. Some graduates expressed the opinion that their positive results at university depend on their knowledge of individual subjects studied in the IB DP.

The most frequent answers about positive aspects of education in the DP were possibility to choose different subjects (80%), possibility to improve English-language skills (60%), small groups of students (50%), possibility to learn new subjects (50%), conducting research projects (40%), good preparation for university (50%), state funding (40%). Individual answers mentioned high motivation to study.

When asked about the drawbacks of this program, respondents gave the following answers: the most frequent was the necessity to combine national and international curriculum (70%), dramatic increase in the study load (20%), the lack of some subjects offered in the national curriculum (20%).

We also asked the graduates to mention key differences between the IB DP and Russian national curriculum. The most frequent answers were development of thinking skills (50%), development of skills to conduct scientific research (50%), raising interest to the studying process (20%), quality of education (20%).

3.3 Teachers: survey results

There are 11 teachers in the IB Diploma Programme provided in Perm region, 9 of them (82%) took part in our survey. Among the most frequent teachers’ answers about the advantages of the DP were “teaching skills development” (78%), “improvement of English-language skills” (78%), “introduction to the international pedagogical experience” (78%), “opportunity to become a part of the international teaching community” (67%). Some teachers also mentioned personal development, in particular such qualities as self-discipline and commitment. When asked about the disadvantages, the
teachers mentioned a big amount of paperwork and reports (67%), difficulties in delivering the curriculum and ambiguity of assessment criteria.

While answering the question "Are you ready to share your knowledge and skills, developed in this programme, with other teachers?", the opinions were divided equally. 50% of the DP teachers were ready to share, however, the others were reluctant to do so.

On the whole, since this programme was launched in 2009 in Perm region, the teaching team has become bigger, new specialists joined the group. Even more, English-language native speakers take part in delivering this programme: a history teacher and an English-language teacher.

4. Discussion

4.1 Limitation of research

The assessment of educational reforms or individual initiatives faces a number of difficulties and here we will name some limitations of our research. To begin with, all major effects and consequences of any educational project can be seen only in the long term. That is why attempts to estimate the project within the framework of 5 years will give limited results. The second difficulty is connected with the nature of the educational system which is a complex social and economic phenomenon which means that it would be irrelevant to analyze educational initiatives only from the economic or financial perspective (in this case - budget disbursement). Nevertheless, economic perspective should be taken into account as there is a well-developed theory of education as a public good which proves the need in government funding for educational system because future workforce productivity depends on the education quality (Hanushek et al., 2007; Heckman et al., 2003). Moreover, the issue of proportion in which the government and private sector (families, households) should finance education can be analyzed from the economic perspective as well. The private-public issue in education 1) does not have a universal answer and countries with high quality educational systems can have different approaches to it 2) is not static which means that approaches to this issue can vary even within the framework of one country 3) is not always acknowledged by economists and administrators in the sphere of education (Marginson, 2007) 4) a topical issue in Russia because it is central to the present-day restructuring process of education.

4.2 Criteria for assessment

Taking into account existing limitations every researcher has to describe their own criteria to assess educational reforms or rely on authoritative opinion. I. Froumin and P.Polyarush (2008) offer the following criteria to assess educational reforms (initiatives): increase in the quality of education, widening educational opportunities for everybody and a greater choice of educational innovations (Frumin et al., 2008). If we apply these criteria to the educational initiative analyzed in our paper we will have to describe this project as highly successful because it perfectly meets the first and the third criteria. As for the second criteria - widening educational opportunities for everybody – it can be partly applied as well, because there are these opportunities, however, access to them can be limited by the need for families to co-finance this educational initiative. However, these criteria do not allow us to elicit all important effects, that is why we will analyze risks and benefits for key beneficiary project groups.

4.3 Risks and benefits for key beneficiary project groups

Main beneficiaries of IB educational initiative in Perm region are the following:

In the private sector

1) students (and their families), school-leavers. One of the main advantages for this group is the fact that they get high quality international education which can result in the internationally recognized diploma of high school education and opportunity to enter high-profile universities abroad. In some cases university education can be shorter for students with IB diploma because they have already covered part of the subjects. Such qualities as personal development, critical thinking skills and ability to study which are stated in the official documents and described in the surveys can be regarded as the long-term results of the project. As for the risks, we can mention that all students get two diplomas simultaneously – Russian national diploma and international IB diploma.

2) teachers. The participation in this project gives them an opportunity to develop unique competences and
advance their professional development. This can be obtained due to regular participation in local and international conferences and workshops, constant training in skills improvement (for example, English-language skills), taking advantage of granted access to advanced educational resources including text-books, exam papers, teaching materials. As for the risks for this group it can be investments in human capital which teachers have to make as well as high workload as a result of the need to combine work and constant training.

In the public sector:
1) regional educational system in the face of schools and local Ministry of Education. Three schools where this initiative is based got massive investments in their infrastructure. In order to become an authorized IB school and offer one of the IB programmes these school had either to build or to improve their science laboratories, language centers, gyms, school halls, as well as purchase a great number of books, encyclopedias, reference books, access to on-line resources. However, there are some risks involved, for example, reputational risk because if this programme is not implemented successfully school reputation can be undermined both for the local government and wider local community.

2) local Ministry of Education with its primary aim to improve regional educational system. Apart from this primary aim we can name some side-effects such as advanced career development and improved professional status of the project leaders in case this unique educational initiative is successfully implemented as well as ability to control larger amounts of state finances. At the same time the following risks can be mentioned. Firstly, excess demand for this service form families and students in the short term. If the governments funds 90% of the service, the demand for it will naturally increase. On the one hand, it seems to be a good thing because the most capable students can be selected, however, under institutional conditions in Russia we can not be sure that this selection will be organized correctly. At the same time, if families had to self-finance education of their children in the IB programme, they would have fewer incentives to pay for the children who are not able to comply with the requirements or pass external exams successfully. Secondly, adverse selection for teachers should be mentioned here. It is a well-known situation when an employee gets training in one organization and then finds a better paid job elsewhere. Thirdly, it is stated in the official project documents that innovative educational approaches should be spread in the regional educational system. However, it requires additional efforts and finances otherwise it will never be realized.

4.4 Unattained goals

First of all, it is not clear (and it is difficult to analyze) whether the introduction of the IB programme increased investment potential of Perm region, attracted foreign highly-skilled specialists or contributed to the preparation of local professional managers as stated in the government reports (Public report..., 2011). In addition, “Human Recourses Center” was organized as a part if the IB initiative with the aim to implement IB methodology in the working practice of all teachers in the region who might be interested in it. However, its capacity is limited and the demand is low.

5. Conclusions and recommendations

This paper is an attempt to summarize first results of the government educational initiative launched in April 2007. The authors analyzed its positive and negative effects for key beneficiaries of the project. Based on the obtained results the following recommendations can be given. First of all, incentives should be found for selecting more motivated students (and their families) to be enrolled in the project. For example, personal letter of motivation must be an obligatory requirement for admission to this programme. This could increase project effectiveness because survey results show that students’ choice of this programme can not be described as conscious or informed. Secondly, it is necessary to develop “the networking character of the project” described in the official documents and to improve performance of the “Human Recourses Center”. For example, practicing DP teachers can be employed as teacher trainers to accelerate the wide-spread expansion of acquired knowledge in the regional educational system.

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Social Protection System In Macedonia: Centralized Governance versus Decentralization

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Abstract

In the last twenty years the Republic of Macedonia experienced significant changes of its political, economic and social system. The shift from mono-party to plural political system and transition from planned to market economy was followed by escalation of serious social tensions. The society was faced with intensification of the existing and emergence of new social problems, including those with most severe consequences, such as an increase of the unemployment rate, poverty of the households and decrease of the living standard. This imposed the need for changes of the social protection system with the goal to make it more responsive to the newly created conditions. The more intensive reforms of the social protection system started in the early 2000s and were based on the guiding principles of decentralisation, pluralisation and deinstitutionalisation. The reforming processes were at large initiated and driven by the international financial and donor organisations. Even though the goals of the transformation were well defined, the reforming processes were not thoughtfully designed, facing weaknesses in the practical implementation. The conducted researches in the area of decentralisation continuously point out to the low capacity of public and private local actors to undertake and advance their social protection roles. This paper is going to focus on the above and related problems and challenges entailed by the shift from centralised to decentralised governance in the domain of social protection in Macedonia.

Keywords: centralization, decentralization, governance, social protection, local self-government

1. Legal and Institutional Framework of the Social Protection System

The system of social protection in the Republic of Macedonia encompasses contributory and non contributory services and benefits. Contributory part of the system is referred to as social insurance and includes: pension and disability insurance, health insurance and unemployment insurance. The non-contributory or tax-financed part of the system referred to as social welfare encompasses: social assistance (social financial assistance (SFA); permanent financial assistance; personal care allowance; one-off financial assistance and assistance in kind), child protection, residential and non-residential care and social prevention.

The state implements the social protection of citizens in accordance with the principle of social justice. It establishes the system of social protection and enables its functioning, provides conditions and measures for social protection activities and develops self-help forms. The carriers of social protection are the Republic, local self government, the City of Skopje and the municipalities from the city of Skopje.

The social protection is determined as an activity of public interest. It is defined as a system of measures, activities and policies for prevention and overcoming the basic social risks to which the citizen is exposed throughout life, for reducing poverty and social exclusion and for strengthening citizen’s capacity for self protection. The system is
accomplished through professional work in social protection institutions, implementation of developmental programs, professional development of employee that is in accordance with beneficiary's needs and international standards, monitoring the phenomena and planning the work, record-keeping as well as monitoring and activities for research in the field. Besides the measures for social protection of the citizens, the state care for prevention of social risk is accomplished through taking measures in tax policy, employment, scholarship policy, housing, family protection, health care, education and other areas that are in accordance with law.

Central institution for policy-making, strategic planning, management, and monitoring of legality, especially through monitoring inspection over the implementation and enforcement of laws and other regulations in the field of social protection, is the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. The Institution that studies social phenomena and promotes social activities is Public Institution for Social Affairs. The Institute for Social Affairs has its jurisdiction and monitoring over professional work in social protection institutions as well as over other legal and personal entities that perform certain activities in social protection. In order to accomplish the tasks within the social protection system a set up social protection institutions have been established (Centers for social work- CSW and social institutions for non-residential and institutional care). CSW are established as public institutions with public authorities for conducting activities in the field of social protection. They are responsible for administration of cash benefits and provision of social services.

The Government of the Republic of Macedonia adopted a National Programme for development of social protection that underlines the objectives, priorities and directions for the development of social protection of citizens, with medium and long term measures of active social policy. In accordance with this program, the municipality, the City of Skopje and its municipalities should adopt programs for the citizens need in the area of social protection. They may, by its own decision, in according to their financial capabilities determine other rights in the area of social protection, rights with greater extent than the scope of the rights determined with the Law on social protection and with better conditions for their implementation as well as other forms of social protection. The Citizens Association that is registered by the MLSP and individuals that have work permits issued by the Minister of Labour and Social Policy, may perform activities of social protection, under conditions and in a manner determined by the Law for Social Protection. Faith-based and religious groups and their associations that are registered in the Republic of Macedonia can assist people who are in need of certain types of social protection. In addition to public, the realization of the system of social protection is accomplished through establishment of public and private institutions for social protection.

The current structure of the social security system is a result of the reform processes that have taken place in the Republic of Macedonia over the past twenty years, primarily as a result of the new created conditions caused by the change in the political and economic system in the early nineties of the last century.

2. Development path of the social protection model in Republic of Macedonia

Republic of Macedonia functioned for 45 years as one of the constituent republics of the Yugoslav federation. It was declared an independent and sovereign state on September 8th, 1991, by referendum that led to the independence of Macedonia from the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The new Constitution passed on November 17, 1991, determined the Republic not only as independent and sovereign but also as a civil, democratic and social state.

The transition from a state with monopartic political system and planed economy to a one that is governed by democratic principles and the rules of the market, pluralistic in its party system with a fundamental declaration for respecting the human rights, доведе до значајни социјални тензи. During this period there was an overflow of social problems, among which the most drastic consequences were due to the increase of unemployment, households poverty and the decrease of citizens living standard.

The system of social protection was created with the expectation to respond to the newly created conditions. This required major shifts in the values and principles upon which the social protection system in Macedonia prior to the transition was based. Within the Former Yugoslavia, Macedonia had a universal, though low quality, social protection. Social policy's aim was to achieve social balance in a society in which equality and solidarity were highly valued and the gap between the have’s and have not’s almost inexistent. There was high living standard and employment rate, generous housing subsidies, free and universal health care and education. The role of the state was dominant in regulating every aspect of the societal life, including social protection. Due to the lack of tradition in market economy, the private sector was weak, which entailed subsequent lack of cooperation practices, trust and even antagonism between the state and private institutions, which had to be gradually prevailed after independence. The non-governmental sector was also powerless, or under strong influence of the socialist government. Namely, the existent Women’s and Pensioners' Organisations were politicized, quazi non-governmental organisations, rather than independent and influential factor in
policy making. In addition, there was no social partnership in policy making, as the trade unions and chambers of
commerce were also deeply politicized, resulting into lack of experience in organised and strong employers' orga
nisations and trade unions' movements. A huge disadvantage at the entry into the new post-communist system was
also the lack of policy-making experiences, as policy-making within Former Yugoslavia was by and large responsi
bility of the capital city - Belgrade institutions. Given this, Macedonia had to create the conditions for social prov
tection development in which the state policy making capacities will be strengthened, all relevant actors will be rec
ognised and will have a role to play in policy-making.

In the beginning, the social welfare was used as an instrument to preserve the social peace in the country, to
guard against the new poor (i.e. redundant workers) and had to absorb the huge mass of people that fell into poverty due
to the transition process. However, as benefits and subsidies have been scaled down by a market and cost dominated
system, and as pressures from the international community to downsize social expenditures have intensified, many
entitlements, services and institutions have been threatened. Some of the initial policy responses of this post-communist
welfare state were: ad hoc development of services and benefits; appeals to philanthropy and voluntary effort to fill gaps
left by withdrawal of state services; rapid removal of subsidies on many goods and services often with limited anticipa
tion of social consequences; limited initial privatisation of some health and social care services; encouragement of
independent social initiatives in the sphere of social protection but with evident differential capacity of citizens to initiate
and participate in these; deconstruction of the state social security system in favor of fully funded social insurance funds
often differentiated by categories of worker; ending of privileged access by virtue of nomenklatura status of old party-
state apparatus to special clinics and services; increase of local community control over local social provision but in an
impoorished context where the state does not provide enough resources and the local authority has not yet established
its own tax base; shift in the nature of social inequalities in use of and access to social provision from those based on
bureaucratic/political privilege to those based on market relations (Deacon, et al., 1992: 170).

Consequently, as typical for most of the post-socialist countries, Macedonia too has developed a model of social
protection that kept many of the characteristics typical for the Yugoslav model and amended those with others required in
the process of transformation of the social protection system in the new, democratic society. It developed into a hybrid
model of protection that in most part has similarities with the social democratic model typical for the Nordic countries, but
is also increasingly marked with the residual elements typical for the liberal model of welfare. In addition, it shares
similarities with the South European model of family care, in that it still heavily relies on the family informal care. Namely,
universality and wide coverage that were preserved from the former system, currently coexist with the policies aimed at
increased targeting of social benefits, activation of social welfare beneficiaries, gradual reduce of social expenditures,
entry of the private sector along with the preservation of traditional non-formal family care for those in social risk.
However, within this hybrid social protection model, although reforms encourage an increased involvement of private and
non-governmental institutions, the social protection sector is so far still the domain of the Government (Bornarova, 2010).

3. Reforms of the social protection system in Republic of Macedonia

In the years after the country declared independence, the emphasis was put on the political affirmation of the state,
building democratic capacity of the society and macro-economical stabilization of the economy. In that environment the
state confronted a range of challenges and the necessity of reforms in every field of life. The challenge in the social
sphere regarded creating a stabile normative frame and professional administrative structure through implementation of
international standards in this area, as well as obeying the local specifics and tradition (Bogoevska, Jovanovska, 2010).

The reforms of the social welfare system may be grouped in three chronological phases (1) the foundation phase;
(2) the institutional development phase; and 3) the reform process phase, and as such are going to be further discussed
(Government of the Republic of Macedonia, 2010).

1. **The foundation phase (1992-1996).** Reform initiatives during this period of political distrust and instability had
to cope with the economic social and political constraints that shaped the early nineties institutional driving
forces: rising unemployment and poverty, market imperfections, incomplete regulatory structures and limited
administrative capacities. Enabling full social rights coverage through legal and financial means and gradually
developing anti-poverty policy instruments provided the pathway to a sound Macedonian welfare state.

The adoption of the Law on family in 1992 set up the family-legal ground where systematically were regulated
issues concerning marriage and family. Social protection allowances for the vulnerable families whose overall
income reaches bellow the level for decent life, were introduced with the Program for socially endangered
population passed in the 1992. Heavy financial constraints due to the economic decline and the rise in
unemployment were the serious factors to open a debate on the effectiveness and efficiency of welfare coverage. This debate shifted policy focus from traditional care policies to the poverty-line question. Thus, the establishment of a national poverty line in 1996 was the outcome of a continuous World Bank technical assistance programme which set the conditions to regulate social policies from a macro-economic point of view. This development was supplemented by the increase of capacity building in the sector of social services, where infrastructure and skills upgrading projects for the Centres for Social Work (CSWs) were implemented. Contemporary financial allowances provided urban and rural households with an ad hoc minimum income guarantee approximating 50% of the official poverty line. Level and type of benefits were amended according to the results of a World Bank Assessment Project that took place in 1997 (World Bank, 1999: 60).

In addition to the above coverage through the Family Law and the Programme for Socially Endangered Population, until 1997 the social sector in Macedonia functioned according to the Law for Social Protection passed in 1978 during the period of socialism. Changes and amendments of this law were made in 1985, 1991 and 1995, all referring to information and administrative aspects of the provision. In 1997 a new Law on Social Protection was passed which established new approaches in dealing with social problems and marked the entry into the next, institutional development phase.

2. The institutional development phase (1997-2002). The Law on Social Protection passed before the Parliament in September 1997 was the cornerstone for the establishment of a modern social welfare system that took into account both the European principles on social protection and national peculiarities or needs. The Law established general and categorical minimum income schemes for persons in need without sufficient subsistence means, and brought national attitudes to welfare closer to the European minimum income guarantee machinery (MLSP, 2004: 23). The 1997 Law on Social Welfare contained a stipulation giving right to the Government to regulate the conditions for the social financial assistance (SFA) by a Governmental Decree. Although this meant interference of the executive over the legislative power, the first such Decree was still enacted in 1998.

In addition to the 1997 Law on Social Welfare, welfare measures were extended to children through the adoption of the Law on Child Protection in 2000. In the domain of protection of children, in this phase UNICEF extensively promoted and supported the deinstitutionalisation process for children with disabilities. Apart from rights-based strategies, the period 1997-2002 was also characterised by policy responses to the Kosovo crisis (March-June 1999) that shifted the focus away from the social welfare reforms. Macedonia received more than 350.000 Kosovo refugees (more than 18% of the population), camps were set up to accommodate the refugees, while welfare institutions provided support in kind or services (MLSP, 2004: 24-25). Maintaining political, security, economic and monetary stability in such circumstances entailed unprecedented challenges. The security threats as well as the hosting of half of the refugee population in homes of the citizens of Macedonia, mostly from Albanian ethnic origin, led to mounting pressures on public infrastructure and services and translated to considerable economic costs. Having weathered the Kosovo crisis in 1999, Macedonia maintained relative political and economic stability throughout 2000. However, in late February 2001, long-simmering ethnic tensions escalated and resulted in the lacre-up of violence in Albanian-inhabited villages in the north of the Country close to the border with Kosovo. The conflict between ethnic Albanian armed groups and Macedonian security forces erupted in February 2001 and intensified during the summer months, leading to displacement of some 170.000 persons both within the country and into neighboring territories. The six months long conflict ended up with the signing of the Framework Agreement on 13 August 2001 by four largest political parties and witnessed by representatives of the EU and USA. The cease-fire, progress on implementation of the Framework Agreement and deployment of NATO troops have encouraged some displaced people to return to their homes (UNDP, 2001: 5).

3. The reform process phase (2002-). The most significant reforms in the area of social welfare commenced in 2004 with the changes and amendments effectuated to the existing Law on Social Protection. In this period there was a broader re-orientation towards social inclusion, wider range of services and services based on individual needs for care. It was recognised that social services should safeguard the interests of those who are not able to satisfy their needs, such as the older people, the disabled, and other categories of people in social need (Spasovska, 2008: 170). The 2004 Law was passed with no considerable critics by the opposition.

1 Previously, Macedonia also offered protection to 1180 persons from Albania in 1991 and around 35.000 refugees from Bosnia in 1992, in shelters and collective centres (MLSP, 2008b: 8).
4. Decentralization of social protection system

The processes of decentralization of the competences and the reform of the local self-government have become the key priority of the political reforms in the Republic of Macedonia.

The constitutional amendments from 2001 determined that the majority of the administrative functions of the state apparatus that were concentrated at the central level will be directly given under the competence of municipalities. Therefore, the citizens through their representatives will participate in decision-making processes in the area of: health care, culture, sports, education, social and child protection, urban planning, public services, rural planning, and local economic development. After the constitutional changes, the need for a new Law on local self-government was imposed. This Law operationalised the constitutional norms and created grounds for initiating the process of decentralization. The new Law, adopted in 2002, represents a qualitative change compared to the former, with number of functions that are now the responsibility of local self-government. The idea of increasing the powers of local self-government aimed to reduce the power of the central government and to create capacities of local self-government that will be a counterweight to the central government. On the other hand, the central government is released from the load imposed by common local issues and problems that with the process of decentralization will be a daily commitment of the local self-government. In other words, the purpose of the Law is to increase efficiency and to provide faster, better and cheaper services to citizens. According to this Law, Macedonian municipalities are autonomous in their work and in performance of its functions, of local and of public interest, which are in compliance to Law. These competencies are complete and exquisite and cannot be taken away from municipalities or limited, except in cases specified by law. The principle of subsidiarity is largely present in the Law for Local Self-Government through the right of the municipalities within their jurisdiction to carryout activities of public interest and local importance that are not excluded from their jurisdiction and not fall under the jurisdiction of the central government. Municipalities exercise their jurisdiction through bodies that have been directly elected by citizens or by the municipal council and the mayor (Spasov, 2009).

The adoption of the Law on Local Self-Government, The Law on Territorial Organization, the Law on Financing of
Local Self-Government and the Law on the City of Skopje created all necessary legal prerequisites for initiating of the functional, administrative and fiscal decentralization. Passing the package of Laws on decentralization precisely determined the responsibilities of the municipalities; it contributed in increasing of the direct participation of citizens in the public life; new method of legal and financial control of the local authorities; redefining of the financial and other relations between the central and the local government. In the list of responsibilities decentralized on the local level are also situated certain issues from the sphere of social and children protection. This issue was regulated in detail by the Law on social protection under which the state (the central government) remains responsible for the social protection of the citizens according to the principle of social justice. The state is founding the social protection system and provides its functioning, provides conditions and measures for performing social-protective activity and develops forms of self-help. The novelty is consisted in the fact that as social protection carriers are also introduced the municipality, the city of Skopje and the municipalities in the city of Skopje. The local self-government units provide social protection to different categories of persons in risk through the institutional and non-institutional forms of social protection, housing and raising awareness of the population for the necessity of ensuring social protection. They can, with their own decision and in accordance with material possibilities, determine other rights in the field of social protection, rights in wider range than the rights stipulated by the central government and more favorable conditions for their realization, as well as other forms of social protection.

4.1 Implementation of the principle of decentralization

Despite the legislative and political declaration, the local governments still remain ill-prepared for their new roles, social functions of municipalities are not developed and local social services networks as a result are very scarce.

The studies show that there has not been a more significant improvement in the development of social protection activities at local level. The activities of local self-government in the area of social protection mainly are connected to administration of cash benefits and are based on the discretion right in decision making by the major of the municipality. Basically, the budget for social protection has been used for one term material assistance to persons and families in need of hospitalization or in cases of harm reduction from elementary damages or alike. The municipality is not a direct distributor of social services for the vulnerable groups of citizens, but in some cases supports pre-established social services through covering the expenses for food, transportation, utilities, etc. Most of the municipalities within their budgets provide means for social protection that are in the range between 0.3% and 1% from the basic budget (not counting the supplements from the central budget).

The designation on the amount of the administered social protection from the budget of the municipality is on voluntary bases and is not based on the identified needs. Smaller municipalities have limited budgetary planning and expenses for social protection, in part of them that is due to the freezing of their accounts with the court decision.

The municipalities do not possess satisfactory administrative capacities for distribution of social services for their citizens. They do not have the capacity for identification of the specific needs for social protection on their territory, knowledge for strategic planning in the field of social protection. In accordance to the Law on social protection and the National program for the development of social protection 2011-2021, the municipalities should prepare annual programs for social protection needs of citizens and they should submit them for an opinion to the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. The programs are not prepared in accordance to standard methodological criteria that should be regarded in the process of development of such programs. Mainly, they have not been based on inclusive and profound analysis and research of the conditions of the vulnerable groups in the municipality nor through a wider consultative process between the local actors. Consequently, the programs are conceptually and contextually poor, formal, not comprehensive and do not reflect the real needs of its citizens. In all of the municipalities the lack of financial means is pointed out as a basic obstacle for implementation of these programs.

In the current constellation of relationship, the Centres for social work remain the basic carriers of social protection and social services of the municipalities. Yet, due to the fact that they are centrally organized and are subjected to social inspection and monitoring over their work and implementation of acts, their acting is based on implementation of centrally created policies and their implementation on local level that are not always in compliances with the specifics of the vulnerable groups from the local communities. Also, the Centres for social work are financed by the State budget and their planning in the area of budgeting is in the framework of the available means provided on central level and within the central policies of the MLSP.

Other actors (NGOs, private sector, and religious organizations) are not sufficiently involved in the delivery of social services at the local level primarily due to: lack of political will to develop pluralistic social protection, lack of
knowledge on the advantages from applying multi-sector cooperation, undeveloped NGO sector, lack of a sense of social responsibility and lack of sustainability of implemented projects (Bornarova, Bogoevska, 2012).

5. Conclusion

The system of social protection is crucial of crucial meaning for provision of social security and the welfare of citizens in every social state. After its independence, the Republic of Macedonia inherited highly centralized social security system with the dominant role of the state as provider of protection and insignificant participation of non-governmental, private and religious sectors in social protection activities. Within this system, the social protection was at large accomplished through cash transfers and benefits to citizens in social risk. Social services as nonfinancial measures aimed at improving the social functioning of individuals and groups at social risk, were underdeveloped and reduced primarily to institutional forms of care.

Since its independence in 1991, the Republic of Macedonia has been undertaking activities to create a modern, stable and functional system of social protection that will respond to the newly emerging needs of its beneficiaries. The system of social protection inherited from the former Yugoslavia had to adapt to the new social context and the new social problems imposed by the transition period. Namely, over this period there was an increase in unemployment, a drop in the standard of living, a reduction in the gross domestic product and an increase in the social vulnerability of many citizens that were directly affected by the transformation of the socio-economic system in the process of privatization of state-owned capital and other social events. This situation entailed a need for implementation of a series of reform processes in the area of social protection, as well as adoption of new principles and methods of work.

In the Republic of Macedonia, the past two decades and more intensively after 2000, continuous changes have been made with the attempt to reform the system of social protection, especially in the area of social services. The key changes are based on the principle of pluralism that was implemented in the direction of reducing the state's role as a direct provider of services and strengthening of the state role in providing social services through involvement of other sectors (private, NGO, religious) as partners of the state. Also, great attention is paid to developing alternative forms of protection for reduction the former dominant dependence from institutional care and to the process of deinstitutionalization. One of the biggest challenges in the reform process is the decentralization of social services which includes building local networks of social services tailored to the specific needs of the citizens in all municipalities.

The implementation of the decentralization process inevitably requires municipalities to take the lead role in developing a local system of social services through multi-sector collaboration. However, due to the lack of experiences and practices, the undeveloped social-protection functions of municipalities, lack of capacities, incomplete fiscal decentralization as well as insufficient inter-institutional cooperation at the local level in the area of social services, points out on a slow implementation of the decentralization process. Only public homes for older people (3 out of 4) and kindergartens (44) have been decentralized to municipalities. The 2004 changes and amendments of the Law on Social Welfare also encouraged municipalities to prepare Development Programmes and to initiate decentralization of the existing day-care centers currently operating as units of the local CSWs. Municipalities have not yet taken over the daycare centers due to several reasons: first, the law does not require that municipalities "must" but it is provided that they "may" take over when they will be ready for such a venture. Secondly, due to the lack of financial funds the local self-government units and due to the fact that the day-care centers (DC) are currently organizational units of the Centers for Social Work (CSW), and not independent legal entities that can be transferred to municipalities (although this constraint can be resolved with their re-registration).

Belated process of financial decentralization, which has been implemented from July 2007, is another obstacle to effective decentralization of social protection. It is expected that existing day-care centers will be decentralize and their financial operations will be transformed in 10 municipalities that have financial capacity to do so by the end of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia. Within the current decentralization, decentralized are only kindergartens, nursing homes and the educational institutions (Dimitrievska 2011).

It can be concluded that even though the decentralization is de jure proclaimed as a guiding principle in the system of social protection, de facto, the Republic of Macedonia in the area of social protection remains centralized welfare state in which a key role plays the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy.

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Law on Child Protection (Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia No 23/2013)


Development of Web-Based Instruction with Collaborative Learning Model Technique
STAD is Applied for Computer Educational Program in Master Degree.
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Abstract

The primary purpose of this study was aimed 1) to examine the application of Collaborative Learning STAD techniques in the Applied Computer Programming for Education course and 2) to investigate the efficiency and achievement of the Collaborative Learning STAD. The samples included fifty-seven (26 female and 31 male) Master students in Computer Education Program, enrolled in the semester 1/2011. Methodologically, ADDIE Model was employed. The results showed that Collaborative Learning STAD with teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction appeared statistically significant at 0.05 and the efficiency of teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction was of 90.16 and 92.76, respectively and student’s opinion was many levels of satisfaction.

Keyword: WBI Web based Instruction, CL Collaborative Learning, STAD techniques, media and activity on internet.

1. Issues and Significance

The outcomes of the pedagogical arrangement for the Applied Computer Programming for Education course in the semester 1/2010 [1] indicated the vast differences among the students in the classroom, especially learning and practicing on programming which the extent of the student’s interest varied greatly. The results also showed that students with higher scores on computer-related courses were more likely interested in learning and practicing, resulted that classroom arrangement didn’t meet the expectation of the instructor and student’s academic results didn’t meet the target goal.

Methodologically, in pursuit to the cooperative learning STAD techniques, the student learning was assigned in team and was characterized of peer assistance where individual student showed his/her performance. The students were required to take the exam so that scores obtained would be further employed to determine the individual group’s progress. In doing so, following steps were administrated. [2][3][4][5]

- **Steps 1 Class Presentation** – initially, content and teaching materials is introduced to students by which an instructor presents the WBI content through appropriate lessons.
- **Step 2 Team Study** – following the step 1, group activity is carried out by which students are assigned to investigate the event card, activity card, or individual content. Team members consult each other to tackle the problems and correct the mistakes committed by team members. To achieve this, the cooperation of all team members is quite needed.
- **Step 3 Test** – All individual learners themselves take the exam with no peer assistance intervention. They all are expected to do it best.
- **Step 4 Individual Improvement/Progress** is reported and determined on the basis of the calculation of the individual member’s scores. Basically, the individuals are different in scores on basic knowledge.
- **Step 5 Team Recognition** is given to any team whose scores are higher than criteria scores.

Internet technology brings forth a convenience and is widely used as a powerful presentation tool that produces learning activities, particularly communication activity. As Passkorn stated the internet technology and Web-Based Instruction below, [6][7][8][9]
2. Web-based Instruction (WBI)

Web Text involves presenting a content that primarily emphasizes messages or texts. Presentation is manipulated rapidly just little bit time on data transferring. Web text is ideal for presentation of the teaching plan, explaining the objectives, sequence of learning, content and evaluation. The descriptive content presentation covers the cognitive and affective learning objectives.

Web Graphic is a format of a presentation that focuses graphics and pictures. Presentation is somewhat slow because it takes longer time in transferring data. It’s however ideal for content presentation where processes are illustrated explicitly, for example, surgical or swimming procedure. The content presentation covers the psychomotor domain learning objectives.

Flash Animation is a format of a presentation that focuses the graphic animation and graphic moving pictures. Presentation is somewhat slow because it takes longer time in transferring data until completed. However, once downloading is finished, the animated graphic presentation work rapidly. It is idea for content presentation where processes are illustrated explicitly, for example, surgical or swimming procedure. Like web graphic, content presentation covers the psychomotor domain learning objectives.

Streaming Video is a format of a presentation that focuses the animated graphics. Like flash animation, the streaming video is ideal for presentation where processes are illustrated explicitly and the content covers psychomotor domain learning objectives like flash animation and web graphic.

3. Communication Activity

Chat is a 2-way interactive interface in messaging format. This kind of communication is ideal for those instructors and learners who are synchronous in time, provided that the parties shall make an appointed time in advance for chatting. It is proper for giving consultation, giving answer to the doubted questions, giving additional explanation for unclear content.

Video Conference/Web Cam is a computer-mediated communication like chatting. More specifically, the parties can see each other. It is ideal for those instructors and learners, who are synchronous in time, provided that the parties shall make an appointed time for chatting through video conference or web cam. Advantageously, it is proper for giving consultation, giving answer to the doubted questions, giving additional explanation for unclear content in more efficiently way as it allows the parties to view each other as if they are at same place or classroom.

E-mail is another computer-mediated communication in which instructor and learner can e-mail the document each other asynchronously. In addition, the instructor can email all learners simultaneously and the learners can access to email at any time and respond it instantly. E-mail application is ideal for giving the answers to the doubted questions occurred in the traditional classroom, informing about teaching and learning news, handling homework assignment. However, this kind of communication remains privacy between instructor and learner.

Webboard is a computer-mediated communication where the instructor and learner interacts each other by leaving the messages on the webboard. In addition, the instructor can pose the topics as student homework and the students can reply for their assignment. Like e-mail, webboard is an asynchronous communication activity.

As mentioned above, the teaching materials and communication activity can be effectively applied with the learning and teaching theories in the different formats, especially Cooperative Learning STAD technique. Hence, to solve the learning and teaching problems mentioned above, this study examined the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD to the lessons in the Applied Computer Programming for Education course.

4. Research Objective

1. To examine the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD technique to the lessons in the Applied Computer Programming for Education course.

2. To explore the student’s opinion toward the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD technique to the Web-Based Instruction in the Applied Computer Programming for Education course.

5. Population

In this study, the samples included fifty-seven (26 female and 31 male) Master students in Computer Education Program,
enrolled in the semester 1/2011.

6. **Scope**

This study examined the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD technique to the Web-Based Instruction in Applied Computer Programming for Education course. The topics and methods to be examined including:

1. **Methods** – based on Cooperative Learning STAD technique [2][3][4][5]
   - Step 1    Class Presentation
   - Step 2    Team Study
   - Step 3    Test
   - Step 4    Individual Improvement
   - Step 5    Team Recognition

2. Application of Fundamental Computer Program was a topic to be examined.


7.1 **Analyze**

1) Analyze condition and issues of learning and teaching for the Applied Computer Programming for Education
2) Explore theories related to the Cooperative Learning STAD technique
3) Examine type of teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction

7.2 **Design**

4) Instructional design by applying the Cooperative Learning STAD to teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction.

7.3 **Develop**

5) Develop lesson and web-based activities

7.4 **Implement**

6) Carry out learning and teaching activities through the application of the collaborative learning technique and Group Investigation (GI), and teaching materials and web-base learning activities

7.5 **Evaluate**

7) Evaluation – pre and post test
   Testing was performed before learning, conducting web-based activities, report, and classroom discussion, and then post-test was performed.
8) Analyze data and summarize
9) Presentation was made to the Faculty of Education, and revision was made as advised by the Commissions.
10) Publicize in journals or academic meeting

8. **Result**

1. General information - participants included fifty-seven (26 female and 31 male) Master students in Computer Education Program, enrolled in the semester 1/2011.
2. Achievement on the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD to teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction for the Applied Computer Programming for Education course.
**Table 1:** Comparison on Learning Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$x^*$</th>
<th>$\sum D$</th>
<th>$\sum D^2$</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Learning</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.961538</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>3654</td>
<td>54.8170**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Learning</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9.192308</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**T-value shows statistically significant at 0.05 (critical value of t at .05, df = 1.6883)**

3. Effectiveness of teaching materials for the Applied Computer Programming for Education

**Table 2:** Effectiveness of Web-based Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effectiveness of Teaching Materials</th>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90.24</td>
<td>89.51</td>
<td>90.73</td>
<td>92.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Students’ Opinion

**Table 3:** Students’ Opinion toward the Application of Cooperative Learning STAD To Web-Based Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>$x^*$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Prior knowledge before studying the Applied Computer Programming for Education</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acquired knowledge after studying the Applied Computer Programming for Education</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperative Learning STAD Technique</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Satisfaction with pedagogical arrangement on Cooperative Learning STAD Technique</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Procedural clarity in Cooperative Learning STAD Technique</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cooperative Learning STAD procedures give the students an opportunity to interexchange knowledge</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cooperative Learning STAD procedures give the students an opportunity to assist each other</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Materials and WBI Facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Satisfaction with application of Web-Based Instruction</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sufficiency of Web-Based Instruction data</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Accuracy and clearness of Web-Based Instruction</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Convenience in access to the internet and Web-based Instruction, for examples, Webboard, Mail, Search Engine Facebook</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Adequateness of computers for WBI schooling arrangement</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Conclusion

9.1 General - fifty-seven participants (26 female and 31 male)

9.2 Effectiveness of Web-Based Instruction

As shown in Table 2, the effectiveness of teaching materials and Web-Based Instruction, $E_1$ and $E_2 = 90.16/ 92.76$, indicating that Web-Based Instruction was more efficient than criteria 85/85.

9.3 Students’ opinion toward the application of the Cooperative Learning STAD technique to the Web-Based Instruction could be recognized in three areas, including knowledge, Cooperative Learning STAD, and materials teaching and
Knowledge - the students reported that they possessed a slight knowledge on Application of Fundamental Computer Program pre-learning ($x_1^* = 1.34$) and possessed most knowledge pre-learning ($x_2^* = 4.80$).

Cooperative Learning STAD – the students’ opinion was averaged highest ($x_3^* = 4.59$) for opportunity of interexchange of knowledge, procedural clarity in Cooperative Learning STAD, Cooperative Learning STAD procedures give the students an opportunity to assist each other, and students reported utmost satisfaction with Cooperative Learning STAD techniques ($x_4^* = 4.66, 4.61, 4.54, 4.54$, respectively).

Teaching Materials and WBI Facilities - students’ opinion was averaged highest ($x_5^* = 4.59$) for accuracy and clearness of the Web-based Instruction, satisfaction with application of Web-Based Instruction, sufficiency of Web-Based Instruction data, Convenience in access to the internet and Web-based Instruction for examples, Webboard, Mail, Search Engine Facebook ($x_6^* = 4.71, 4.68, 4.56, 4.54$, respectively).

10. Discussion

The procedures in the Cooperative Learning STAD could be discussed as follows.

- **Steps 1 Class Presentation** – the classroom instructor’s personality appeared consistent with the requirement of those Thai students who desire to learn with the actual instructor for the first meeting at the initial learning and teaching process.

- **Step 2 Team Study** – At this stage, the Web-based Instruction is carried out by the researcher and allows the peer assistance that gives the opportunity for those higher performance students to transfer their knowledge to peers. In addition, it found that peer assistance enhances more learning performance than self-learning.

- **Step 3 Test** – At this stage, the student are more eager to take the test so that they can know what the extent of their group performance will be as compared to other groups. The students in this stage put the significance on themselves in the way that they may lower the group scores, so they are more likely to be diligent.

- **Step 4 Individual Improvement/Progress** – the students give more attention to hear the group improvement scores. The students are interested to know which level of scores they obtain. If individual’s score is low, it results in the low group scores.

- **Step 5 Team Recognition** – the students are so happy being told of their highest individual improvement scores. The students with low improvement scores will make an effort to make a correction to improve the group scores, especially those students with frequent absenteeism; they try to attend the class regularly and on-time so that they can join the cooperative learning activities.

11. Suggestions

1. The Cooperative Learning should be applied with the Web-based Instruction for Application of Fundamental Computer Program course in other different techniques, for examples, Jigsaw, TGT, etc.

2. The Cooperative Learning should be applied with the Web-based Instruction for other courses, particularly workshop-focusing courses.

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Syntactic Structures in the Albanian Translation of Dreiser

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Abstract

Social sciences are increasingly oriented towards interdisciplinary studies. Intercultural communication, an interdisciplinary field of research, examines the way people communicate and understand each other across boundaries and various types of discourse systems, and the extent to which they affect the use of language (Richards & Schmidt, 1983:265). In the context of intercultural communication, the current paper explores the effect of linguistic structures on the communication, mainly the written language. Literary translation is probably the most debated form of translation, which constitutes 60% of the literary publication in Albania. Literary translators tend to uncover what lies under the surface which often requires going beyond the boundaries of the language. The focus of this paper is on the grammatical structure and the possibility of the Albanian language to express Dreiser’s works fluently and accurately. The paper compares and contrasts the syntactic construction of complex sentences in both languages. The paper concludes with the idea that literary translators have to adopt sentences and their clauses from the source language to make reference to the original context. Furthermore, an attempt has been made to introduce some suggestions for a better translation.

Keywords: intercultural communication, syntactic structures, translation, equivalence, literary works.

1. Introduzione

La parola “traduzione” viene dal latino translation che significa condurre, portare o trasferire una cosa da una parte ad un’altra. In altre parole tradurre vuol dire di esprimere lo stesso significato con una forma equivalente ad un altra. La prosa rappresenta la scrittura usuale senza una struttura metrica o come si suol dire “le parole nel loro miglior ordine” (Webster, 1913). In conseguenza la traduzione della prosa si può considerare un genere di attività creativa che riscrive l’opera scritta in una lingua in un altra lingua. Secondo Peter Newmark la traduzione è “dare di un testo in lingua straniera il significato corrispondente nella nostra lingua come l’autore del testo originale lo aveva inteso” (Newmark, 1988:5). Da questo si evince che è compito del traduttore di considerare il testo nella sua interezza in quanto la traduzione non si riduce nel semplice tentativo di riportare nel testo tradotto il significato ma di riportare altrettanto elementi del sottotesto. La traduzione ha come punto di partenza il testo originale, ma il traduttore per riscriverlo deve saper usare i mezzi espressivi e linguistici che offre la lingua di arrivo. Il traduttore letterario deve essere in grado non solo di tradurre il significato del testo ma di trasmettere i sentimenti, le sfumature culturali, lo spirito del testo originale.

Nel processo di assaggio e comprensione del testo originale, Nida (1964) distingue tra l’equivalenza formale e l’equivalenza dinamica. Se l’equivalenza formale concentra l’attenzione sia sulla forma che sul significato del messaggio, l’equivalenza dinamica si basa sul principio del effetto equivalente. Secondo Nida l’equivalenza dinamica non comporta solo la comunicazione del messaggio ma “è la riproduzione nella lingua di arrivo dell’equivalente naturale più prossimo al messaggio comunicato nella lingua di partenza” (Nida & Taber, 1982:200). Su questa definizione discussa a lungo sono presenti tre parole chiave: equivalenza, la quale si riferisce al messaggio nella lingua di partenza, b) naturale, la quale si riferisce alla lingua, alla cultura, al contesto e al destinatario del messaggio nella lingua di arrivo e c) più prossimo la quale mette in relazione entrambe le lingue.

Fig.1 Il rapporto tra l’autore e il traduttore rispetto al testo e al lettore

Autore/Libro/Lettore/=Traduttore/Libro/Lettore

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Nel caso in cui la lingua di partenza e la lingua d'arrivo non appartengono allo stesso gruppo culturale (il caso della lingua albanese e quella inglese) il traduttore deve tenere conto dei *translation shifts*, che J.C. Catford (1965:73) descrive come "deviazione dalla corrispondenza formale nel procedere da una lingua di partenza ad una lingua d'arrivo". Catford distingue due tipi di *translation shifts*: (1) level shifts (quando ciò che è espresso da mezzi grammaticali in una lingua viene trasposto con mezzi lessicali in un'altra) e (2) category shifts suddivisi in quattro tipi: (a) structure-shift (i cambiamenti più comuni che investono generalmente le strutture grammaticali), (b) unit shifts (una espressione puo essere tradotta con una parola), (c) class shifts (un aggettivo puo essere tradotto con un nome) e (d) intra-system shifts (il nome al singolare nella lingua di partenza puo essere tradotto con un nome al plural nella lingua d'arrivo). In questo contesto, gli aspetti grammaticali, diversi per ambedue le lingue, sono un oggetto interessante su cui indagare. In conseguenza le domande alle quali cercheremo di rispondere sono: quali sono i tipi di equivalenza e e quali sono i shifts usati nella traduzione, dall’inglese in albanese, del periodo semplice e del periodo complesso nell’opera di Dreiser?

2. **La frase complessa**

Nel processo di selezione delle strutture sintattiche in un opera letteraria hanno un ruolo determinante una serie di fattori, come: "il carattere dell'oggetto descritto, il tono emotionale che l'autore intende dare al suo racconto, la tradizione dalla quale lui parte, le caratteristiche del tipo di prosa che scrive ecc" (Bulo, 1984:160). Tra di essi rivestono particolare importanza quelli collegati con il contenuto. La concezione ideologica dell’autore, il suo modo di pensare e di percezione della realtà così come la problematica esposta sono i fattori che definiscono l’orientamento e i principi dell’autore nella costruzione stilistica del discorso artistico. In questo modo nelle opere ad esempio in cui "domina il tono epico, è caratteristico lo stile analitico dell’esposizione accompagnato da configurazioni complesse e strutture elaborate" (Bulo, 1984:161). Secondo Bulo, all’intenzione dell’autore di rappresentare la vita attraverso le relazioni causali degli eventi, la penetrazione in ogni suo nodo e l’elaborazione degli eventi complessi dello sviluppo sociale e storico corrisponde l’uso di "strutture sintattiche caratterizzate da periodi composti e complessi costruite con congiunzioni coordinate e subordinati e con una posizione generalmente libera delle parole nelle frasi" (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1987).

Le opere di Dreiser si distinguono per l’uso delle frasi complesse che dimostrano la maturità nel suo pensiero. In inglese le frasi complesse si suddividono in diverse categorie a secondo il tipo della frase subordinata. La frase complessa è l’unione di almeno una frase semplicia principale con una subordinata. Le frasi subordinate possono essere finite e non-finite (Hadaj, 1984). Le frasi subordinate finite si suddividono in: frasi subordinate avverbiali, frasi subordinate sostantive, frasi subordinate Wh e frasi subordinate relative. Le frasi subordinate non-finite sono quelle ottenute con l’uso dei modi indefiniti come infinitive o participle. In albanese le frasi si suddividono in due categorie principali: (1) *frasi semplici* e (2) *frasi complesse*. La frase complessa coordinata è formato da due frasi indipendenti coordinate tra loro. La frase subordinata è formato da due o più frasi di cui una è la principale e le altre sono subordinate ad essa. Secondo il tipo della frase subordinata, le frasi complesse possono essere: temporale, locutiva, causale, condizionale ecc.

3. **L’ equivalenza dinamica e formale**

Ogni lingua segmenta in maniera diversa la realtà utilizzando strutture grammaticali, regole grammaticali e diverse variazioni sintattiche, motivo per cui la traduzione rappresenta una sfida. Per esprimere l’insieme dell’informazione estetica e semantica del testo originale, il traduttore cerca di utilizzare con maestria non solo i lessico ma anche la sintassi della lingua d’arrivo (Belloc, 1931), perché la scarsa familiarità con esse puo dare origine a costruzioni linguistiche in contraddizione con la natura stessa della lingua d’arrivo.

La difficoltà sta nel fatto che il significato così come lo stile trova ormai la massima espressione nel testo originale che il traduttore debba dare il meglio di sé a tradurlo in una lingua completamente diversa. Belloc (1931) suggerisce che il traduttore debba percepire il testo come unità strutturata. Nel caso il traduttore pensasse in questo modo, allora sarebbe molto più semplice a tradurre il testo. In più il traduttore non deve dimenticare le esigenze stilistiche e sintattiche del testo d’arrivo. In realtà il traduttore dispone della libertà di modificare il testo durante la traduzione, conservando però le norme stilistiche e idiomatiche della lingua d’arrivo. La traduzione così sarebbe meglio accettata dal lettore nella lingua d’arrivo. I dati tratti dall’opera di Dreiser tradotta in albanese, sono classificate in due categorie: equivalenza e shift.
3.1 L'equivalenza formale

Il soggetto, il predicato e i complementi vengono tradotti rispettivamente con soggetto, predicato e complementi nella lingua d'arrivo.

1. Stela was gone. - Stela kishte ikur.
2. A doctor had told him to drink hot water in the morning. - Një doktor i kishte thënë të pinte në mëngjes ujë të ngrohtë.
5. Suzane Dale was young and beautiful. - Suzana Deili ishte e re dhe e bukur.
6. 'Oh, Angela,' he pleaded - 'Oh Anxhela,' iu lut ai.
7. We dont want anyone else, do we Peter? - Ne nuk duam njeri tjetër, apo jo Piter?
8. Could he really get Suzanne, if he went to Canada, to find her? - A do të mund ta merrte. Suzanën, po të shkonte në Kanada?
9. Sondra loves her Clyde so much. - Sondra e do fort Klajdin e saj.
10. She will come to me. - Ajo do të vijë vetë tek unë.

3.2 L'equivalenza dinamica

1. I was afraind you had stropped growing. - Kisha patur frikë se s'do të zgjateshe më.
2. This thing’s getting the best of me. - Kjo po më ha kokën.
3. You are as cute as a doll. - Ju jeni per tu adhuruar.
4. That’s a lie and it’s out of the whole cloth. - Kjo është gënjeshtër, këmbë e krye gënjeshtër!
5. G’wan? - A ke gië më për të gënjyer?
6. Have your bath and we’ll talk about it afterwards. - Bëj një banjë dhe pastaj flasim.
7. You will not get a chance to do it again. - Një herë më gënjeve, por s’do të kesh mundësi ta bësh një herë tjetër.
8. Have you had supper? - she asked – A keni ngrënë darkë- e pyeti ajo.
9. And Arturo Scalchero-hullo, Skalger, you old frost! - Sa mirë që erdhët Arturo Skallxher, mik i dashur!
10. How are you, Mr.Witla? he inquired. – Si shkoni, mister Uitlla- e pyeti.

Analizzando le frasi si comprende che esse sono state tradotte attraverso l’equivalenza dinamica. Negli esempi 1-5 l’equivalente albanese per gli idiomi tipici della cultura e della lingua inglese non poteva essere tradotto attraverso l’equivalenza formale. L’equivalente dinamico che è stato utilizzato nella lingua d’arrivo ha il significato più vicino possibile a quello della parola o dell’espressione della lingua di partenza.

4. Category Shifts

Le frasi sono selezionate casualmente. In seguito sono analizzati shifts secondo le categorie a cui appartengono. Alla fine, sono tratte delle conclusioni in relazione alle zone di shifts utilizzate nella traduzione di Dreiser dall’inglese all’albanese. La realizzazione di structure shifts è analizzata in relazione ai componenti della frase: soggetto, complemento e predicato. L’attenzione in intra-system shift è focalizzata nella realizzazione attraverso la comparsa delle forme del singolare e del plurale in ambedue le lingue.

4.1 Esempio 1

*If you love me, come and get me.*
4.1.1 Structure shifts

Cambiamento nella struttura della frase

Frase subordinata - SVO (in inglese) - OV (in albanese)

If you love me, come and get me.

4.2 Esempio.2

It never occurred to him that it was accidental, as indeed it was not, but only that it was a trick sharp, cunning, ill-timed for him, just the thing calculated to blast his career and tie for him down to the old regime when he wanted most to be free.

Për asnjë çast nuk i shkonte në mendje se kjo kish qenë gjë e rastit dhe në të vërtetë nuk gabohej, por se ishte një manover e ulët, e llogaritur, dinake, e përdorur me qëllim në çastin e duhur, për të prishur planet e së ardhmes dhe për ta mbajtur të lidhur në jetën e vjetër, pikërisht në çastin, kur donte të çlirohej më shumë se kurdoherë tjetër.

4.2.1 Structure shifts

L’aggiunta della congiunzione ‘dhe’ nella traduzione in albanese

It never occurred to him that it was accidental, as indeed it was not.

Për asnjë çast nuk i shkonte në mendje se kjo kish qenë gjë e rastit dhe në të vërtetë nuk gabohej.

Frase finite in originale = Frase non-finite in albanese

(finite) just the thing calculated to blast his career
(non-finite) për të prishur planet e së ardhmes

4.2.2 Unit shifts

Espressione = Parola o Parola = Espressione

it was not - gabohej accidental - gjë e rastit
never - për asnjë cast when - pikërisht në çastin
occur - i shkonte në mendje indeed - në të vërtetë
career - planet e së ardhmes ill-timed - e përdorur me qëllim në çastin e duhur

4.3 Esempio.3

The introduction of this astounding fact in connection with Angela was so unexpected, so morally diverting and peculiar that though Eugene denied it, half believed she was lying, he was harassed by the thought that she might be telling the truth.

Fjalët tronditëse që i kishte thënë mënjanë Anxhela, qenë kaq të papritura dhe të rëndësishme, saqë Juxhini nuk deshi t’i besonte dhe, mëgjithëse që gati i bindur se nuk ishin të vërteta, prapëseprapë e brente dyshimi se ajo mund të kish thënë të vërtetën.

4.3.1 Structure shifts

- La frase nominale in originale = Frase subordinata relativa in albanese

The introduction of this astounding fact in connection with Angela

Fjalët tronditëse që i kishte thënë mënjanë Anxhela
Frase complessa in originale= Frase semplice in albanese

Half believed she was lying.
Ajo mund të kish thënë të vërtetën.

L’aggiunta della congiunzione ‘dhe’, ‘megjithëse’ e ‘prapseprapë’ nella traduzione in albanese

...denied it, half believed she was lying, he was harassed by the thought that she might be telling the truth.
..dhe, mëgjithëse qe gati i bindur se nuk ishin të vërteta, prapëseprapë e brente dyshimi se ajo mund të kish thënë të vërtetën.

4.3.2 Unit shifts
La traduzione di una parola con un’ espressione

dinied- nuk deshi ta besonte

4.3.3 Intra-sytem
La traduzione di un nome al singolare con un nome al plurale

the introduction- fjalët

4.4 Esempio.4

It was so unfair, though, was all he could think, so unkind!
I dukej se sjellja e saj kish qenë shumë e padrejtë, tepër mizore.

4.4.1 Structure shifts

- Shift nella posizione della frase principale e di quella subordinata

It was so unfair, though, was all he could think, so unkind!
I dukej se sjellja e saj kish qenë shumë e padrejtë, tepër mizore.

4.4.2 Unit shifts
La traduzione di una parola con un’ espressione o espressione con una parola

unkind – tepër mizore
all he could think- i dukej

4.5 Esempio. 5

Beyond the reach of our intelligence as are the mysteries of the objects known by our senses, those presented in this universal matrix are, if we may say so, still further beyond the reach of our intelligence, for whereas, those of the one kind may be, and are, thought of by many as explicable on the hypothesis of creation, and by the rest on the hypothesis of the evolution, those of the other kind cannot by either be regarded as thus explicable.

Përtej caqeve që arrin mendja jonë, njohjes së sendeve që kapin shoqisat tonë, të fshehtat që kanë të bëjnë me regullimin e gjithësisë janë të paarrtshme për mendjen tonë, sepse, ndërsa të parat mund të konsiderohen-dhe, në të vërtetë, konsiderohen-të shpqyeshmërie me anë të hipotezës së krijimit të botës ose me hipotezën e evolucionit, të tjerat nuk e gjiejnë një shpjegim të tillë.

4.5.1 Structure shifts

- Cambiamento nella posizione della proposizione principale, di quelle subordinate e nella tipologia delle
proposizioni
- are the mysteries of the objects... (frase principale coordinata)
- known by ourselves... (frase implicite, modifica il nome 'objects')
- those presented in this universal matrix are still further beyond the reach of our intelligence... (frase principale coordinata)
- if we may say so... (frase condizionale dipendente dalla frase principale)
- for whereas, those of one kind may be... (frase causale dipendente dalla frase principale)
- and are thought of by many as explicable... (frase causale coordinata con la prima frase)
- those of the other kind cannot by either regarded as... (una frase causale dipendente dalla frase principale)

La frase nella traduzione albanese ha una struttura diversa:

- Përtej caqeve të njohjes së sendeve (non e collegata ad altre parti)
- që arrin mendja jonë (frase subordinate relative)
- që kapin qëpërcaktojnë me njëse përfshirët (frase subordinate relative)
- të fshehtat janë të paarrritshme për mendjen tonë... (frase principale)
- që kanë të bëjnë me rregullimin e gjithësisë (frase subordinate relative)
- ndërsa të parat mund të koniderohen me anë të hipotezës së krijimit të botës ose me anë të hipotezës së evolucionit (frase subordinate causale)
- dhe në të vërtetë koniderohen... (frase coordinate)
- sepse, të tjera nuk e gjejnë një shpjegjëm të tillë (subordinate causale)

La ripetizione delle frasi subordinate le quali si riferiscono allo stesso oggetto, l'uso frequente del pronome dimostrativo those: the objects known by our senses; those presented in this universal matrix; those of one kind, those of the other kind, così come la ripetizione della stessa locuzione avverbiale beyond the reach of our intelligence, pongono dei problemi nel ricostruire le stesse strutture dell'originale. Per questa ragione il traduttore ha scelto la traduzione sinonimica delle locuzioni avverbiale beyond the reach of our intelligence, sostituendole in albanese con la frase subordinata relativa 'përtej caqeve që arrin mendja jonë' che è l'equivalente semantico della frase principale 'janë të paarrritshme për mendjen tonë', e hanno in qualche modo danneggiato la fluidità nella lingua albanese (mendja jonë- mendjen tonë) comportando delle difficoltà nella comprensione del periodo nella sua interezza specie nella sua scomposizione semantica (è difficile capire quali sono 'të parat' e quali sono 'të tjera').

La scelta della perifrasi per evitare l'uso frequente delle congiunzioni così come la scelta accurata delle congiunzioni indispensabili hanno attenuato il problema consentendo la conservazione del nucleo semantico – logico delle parti nella traduzione. Applicando la modulazione (are further beyond our reach- 'janë të pakapshme për mendjen tonë') e la trasposizione (the reach (n)- 'që arrin' (frase subordinate relative) prezentet (v)- 'që kanë të bëjnë' (frase subordinate relative); explicable (adj)- 'shpjegim' (n), ecc) il traduttore ha riportato le frasi senza alterare il loro significato semantico. Purtroppo, il contrasto tra by many e by the rest viene perso nella traduzione. Si può dire altresì che l'uso nella lingua d'arrivo della congiunzione disgiuntiva 'ose' anziché della congiunzione copulativa 'dhe' ha alterato il significato dell'originale: thought of by many as explicable on the hypothesis of creation, and by the rest on the hypothesis of the evolution – 'të shpjegueshme me anë të hipotezës së krijimit të botës ose me hipotezën e evolucionit'.

Inoltre la frase subordinata causale those of one kind may be... insieme alla frase incompleta con essa coordinata attraverso la congiunzione 'dhe', sono riportate in albanese con la frase causale 'sepse ndërsa të parat mund të koniderohen dhe në të vërtetë, koniderohen...', nella struttura della quale si nota la presenza di una frase incidentale 'në të vërtetë konsiderohet, che poteva anche essere evitata perché, nonostante il cambiamento dell'ordine delle frasi all' interno del periodo abbia messo ancor più in evidenza la veridicità dell'affermazione dichiarata, in qualche modo ha causato delle difficoltà nella comprensione e presentazione dell'informazione in conformità con la natura della lingua albanese. Diventiamo ancora più insistenti, su questo punto, dato che la sintassi della lingua albanese permette un ordine sintattico flessibile. La traduzione sinonimica del pronome dimostrativo those con il pronome indefinito 'të tjera,' il pronome relativo 'që,' il numerale 'të parat,' è un chiaro esempio di traduzione funzionale o contestualizzata.

4.5.2 Unit shifts

Espressione = Parola o Parola = Espressione

those of the other kind- të tjera creation- krijimit të botës
those of the one kind- të parat those- të fshehtat
4.5.3 Class shifts

Aggettivo = Sostantivo
explicable- një shpjegim

4.5.4 Intra-system shifts

Nome al plurale= Nome al singolare

mysteries- njohja

Il nostro suggerimento sarebbe quello di iniziare il periodo con la frase principale per essere poi completato con le frasi subordinate, cosa che semplicherebbe la lettura e la comprensione da parte del lettore. Vorremmo suggerire questa traduzione:

‘Njohja e sendeve të perceptueshme prej shqisave tona, si dhe e fshehtave që kanë të bëjnë me rregullimin e gjithësisë, janë të paarritshme për mendjen tonë, pasi, ndërsa, të parat mund - dhe shpjegohen nga pjesa më e madhe me anë të hipotezës së krijimit dhe nga disa të tjera të hipotezën e evolucionit, të fshëhtat e tjera nuk e kanë një shpjegim të tillë.’

4.6 Esempio.6

She could not have understood if she could have seen into Eugene’s mind at this time how her home town, her father’s single farm, the blue waters of the little lake near her door, the shadows of the tall trees on her lawn were somehow compounded for him not only with classic beauty itself, but with her own charm.

Ajo nuk do ta kish kuptuar në atë kohë, po të kish pasur mundësi të shihte brenda mendjes së Juxhinit, i cili mendonte se qyteti i saj i vogël i lindjes, ferma e veçuar e të jatit, ujët e kaltër të liqenit të vogël pranë shëtipisë, hijet e pemëve te lëndina, përmblidhnin në sytë e tij jo vetëm bukurinë e tyre dhe, në këtë mënyrë, bëhej dhe më tërheqëse.

4.6.1 Structure shifts

- La traduzione delle frasi semplici in inglese con frasi complesse in albanese

were somehow compounded for him not only with classic beauty itself, but with her own charm
përmblidhnin në sytë e tij jo vetëm bukurinë e tyre dhe, në këtë mënyrë, bëhej dhe më tërheqëse

4.6.2 Unit shifts

Congiunzione = Frase subordinata relativa

how - i cili mendonte se

4.6.3 Class shifts

Congiunzione coordinativa avversativa = Congiunzione coordinativa copulativa

but- dhe

4.6.4 Intra-system shifts

Nome al plurale= nome al singolare

the blue waters- ujët e kaltër

Analizzando in modo più dettagliato la costruzione e la traduzione di questo periodo complesso possiamo notare
come la traduzione in albanese contiene delle spiegazioni che mancano nel originale. Da una parte il traduttore ha introdotto le parole ‘i lindjes’, ‘i vogël’; le espressioni: ‘në sytë e tij,’ ‘dhe në këtë mënyrë,’ ‘bëhej dhe më,’ e la frase subordinata:’i cili mendonte se’ per dare delle spiegazioni in più per il lettore e per aiutarlo a comprendere meglio la situazione. Dall'altra parte, sono escluse dalla traduzione gli aggettivi: tall e classic i quali non incidono sul significato nella sua interezza.

5. Conclusioni

Nella traduzione letteraria, il traduttore non deve dimenticare che i significanti stilistici nella lingua di partenza possono essere completamente diversi da quelli nella lingua d’arrivo. Per questa ragione il traduttore letterario non solo deve essere attento di trasmettere correttamente la forma (il lessico, la grammatica e la fonologia) ma anche di rimanere fedele alle caratteristiche letterarie del testo. “Per quanto riguarda il testo nella sua interezza risulta impossibile di trasferire tutto il contenuto del testo originale nel testo d’arrivo”(Yinhua, 2011). In questo contesto è un obbligo per il traduttore che il significato non cambi ma sia lo stesso in entrambe le lingue.

L'analisi delle frasi in inglese tratte dalle opere di Dreiser e dei loro equivalenti albanesi dimostra che l'equivalenza formale è usata raramente e solo per la traduzione di frasi semplici, mentre nella maggior parte dei casi viene utilizzata l’equivalenza dinamica. Eugene A. Nida e C. Taber (1982) sottolineano che spesso la forma del testo originale viene cambiata, ma finché i cambiamenti seguono la regola di back transformation nella lingua originale, della continuità contestuale e della trasformazione nella lingua d’arrivo, il messaggio viene considerato fedelmente riportato. In questo studio si sottolinea che l’equivalenza dinamica viene utilizzata in casi di idiomi, saluti, espressioni fisse, o frasi che richiedono l’uso di tecniche come la modulazione, la trasposizione, l’espansione ecc, mantenendo nel testo d’arrivo lo stesso effetto del testo originale.

D'altra parte, l’analisi della traduzione delle frasi dall’inglese in albanese dimostra che i structure shifts sono presenti in quasi tutti i casi. Tuttavia ci sono stati dei casi eccezionali, come gli esempi 1.3.5. Secondo i dati dell’analisi, si puo dire che structure shifts e unit shifts possono essere considerati come due shifts necessari nel processo di traduzione dall’inglese in albanese dei periodi di Dreiser frasi composte perché al traduttore non viene lasciata molta scelta ed ogni altro cambiamento porterà a cambiare il suo stile. Unit e class shifts possono essere considerate come libere scelte. In altre parole, la scelta di unit e class shifts dipende dal fatto se il traduttore ha scelto la traduzione libera (free) o diretta (letterale), covert o overt, semantico o comunicativo.

In conclusione, sulla base dei dati di questo studio, possiamo dire che nella traduzione dei periodi complessi dall’inglese all’albanese, shifts e l’equivalenza risulta che vengono utilizzati in uguale modo. Nell’uso dell’equivalenza dinamica, la forma cambia mentre il significato rimane lo stesso, e nel caso dell’uso di shifts si avverte il tentativo del traduttore di realizzare una traduzione di qualità, tra queste due lingue. In questo contesto, la traduzione in albanese delle opere di Dreiser potrebbe considerarsi una buona traduzione, perché le opere sono riportate al lettore con un linguaggio fluente attraverso i mezzi linguistici che fornisce la lingua albanese.

References

The Constitutional Rights of the Foreigners in Switzerland

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to examine the rights of foreigners and immigrants in Switzerland. It is focused on analyzing the division of the immigration law into three basic legal levels: constitutional, international law level and the simple level. Another division is that of the fundamental rights into political, economic and rights concerning the social field (in this sense: "social rights"). The economic and social field rights, are acknowledged both to the native and the immigration population alike. On the contrary, the political rights are principally acknowledged to Swiss citizens. According to citizenship, they are divided into nationals and aliens. Those in possession of Swiss citizenship are referred to as nationals. Those in possession of more than one citizenship, one of which is Swiss, are deemed nationals and bear the rights and obligations of Swiss citizens. It will be seen all the constitutional rights with details giving an answer to the question: Is every constitutional right acknowledged for a foreigner or not?. For example the mother constitutional right of human value is protected both in support of nationals as well as aliens. Also equality which is a basic constitutional right applied to all Swiss citizens. It is also valid for the exercise of the rights of foreigners alike. Freedom in the sense of "non-slavery" is safeguarded for everyone, therefore foreigners as well. There are certain issues, which are particularly pressing in relation to aliens, whereas do not pose a problem at all for Swiss citizens. These are issues referring to the freedom of travelling in general. The stay of aliens in the Swiss territory is allowed only for the time period determined by their permit and it is directly linked to the fulfillment of certain obligations. All aliens in the Swiss territory are owners of human rights, which are acknowledged to every human being and the exercise of these rights, such as the right to life, honour and religion, does not depend on the legality of entry and stay in the country. Legal aliens enjoy a much more favourable juridical status. Exit from the Swiss territory is distinguished into voluntary and involuntary (compulsory). Freedom of exit from the country is safeguarded for all Swiss as well as aliens. In principle, no one can be prevented from departing the country. The case of compulsory exit differs. Compulsory exit for Swiss citizens is not provided. Another important issue which will be analyzed in this article is the voting process and the participation of the foreigners in Switzerland. This country has some innovative ideas concerning the rights of the foreigners to vote, especially in some Cantons.

Keywords: foreigners, Cantons, freedom, citizenship, political rights.

1. Introduction

1.1 Historical background of the constitutional rights of the foreigners

The legal regime of aliens in Switzerland has become a pressing issue of growing importance in the recent years. Switzerland with the passing of the years turned into a country of receiving immigrants\(^1\). As a result, it is greatly affected by the powerful immigration flow, which, in turn, results in population changes. The problems resulting from such a reversal are notable. The situation is further exacerbated by other factors, namely, the small number of native population, the country’s geographical position, the extensive length of its borders and the large number of immigrants who flooded Switzerland. The causes of this immigration flow as well as the problems resulting from this legal and mainly illegal

\(^{1}\)Gerald A&Dorfman, Peter J. Duignan, (1991).Politics in west Europe(2nd Ed), pg. 309.During the economic boom of the 1960s, Switzerland admitted so many foreigners workers that they came to number more than 1 million in a total population of 6 million. This foreign presence was felt in many sector of Swiss society.
immigration are numerous. The great challenge we are presented with is the following: Are the immigrants incorporated into the Swiss society or not? Do they need more recognized constitutional rights?

The admission of immigrants is directly related to a series of polymorphic problems. What is of special importance is the issue of balanced reception of immigrants (far as the countries of origin is concerned) and the issue of proportional reception (as far as the native population is concerned). The consolidation and protection of all kinds of immigrant rights is a condition sine qua non that has always been and always will be respected in Switzerland. However, the issue of immigrant protection does not contradict the need for taking the necessary measures with a view to retaining a balance, the subversion of which can only inflict serious problems. It is evident that the whole situation cannot be dealt with simply by means of legislative provisions. It is essential that appropriate legislative measures should be taken as well.

Switzerland is one of the oldest democracies with the oldest constitution in Europe and has four official languages: German, French, Italian and Raetoromansch. Basic freedoms are guaranteed in its constitution dating back to the 14th century. All have the right to call for a vote to amend the constitution, provided there is enough support from the populace. The conservative Swiss People's Party recently attempted to limit the rights of minorities in Switzerland with an amendment. In May 2007 it launched an initiative to ban construction of minarets which failed, claiming not opposition to Muslims, but that minarets suggest a claim to political power. A UN Special Rapporteur given the mandate to investigate contemporary forms of racism was critical of the government's lack of policy and action against growing xenophobia.

Federal elections in October 2007 included election posters for the Swiss People's Party of white sheep kicking a black sheep off the Swiss flag. The Federal Council expressed the importance of freedom of expression, particularly in political debate, and let the courts determine if a law had been infringed. Another contested decision by the Federal Council was authorization of taser weapons and police dogs during the expulsion of foreign nationals, condemned by human rights organizations.

The migrants' legal position in Switzerland is readable by a whole of rules of laws, ordinances and directives. The corpus of the rights concerning foreigners is founded on the Law regulating the stay and the establishment of abroad people (LSEE of March 26, 1931). But the legislator also emitted other legal norms, like the 6th October, 1986 ordinance limiting the number of foreigners (OLE), as well as the Agreement of the June 1st, 2002, on the Free Circulation and Movement of people (ALCP) valid only for citizens whose the States are European Union (EU) members and, people whose the countries aligned the Economic Free Trade Agreement (EFTA). Indeed, public policy makers in Switzerland initiated new extremely restrictive legislations against immigrants, as the Federal Law on Foreigners (LEtr) and the Law on Asylum (LAsi) dated in 16th December, 2005. These two recent legislations entered into force since January 2008.

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5 The Federal Commission for Foreigners (FCF), composed of municipalities, communities, cantons, foreigners’ organizations, employers and employees, and churches, was set up in 1970 to promote the coexistence of the foreign and native populations. The 1999 Integration Article paved the way for a more proactive federal integration policy and strengthened the FCF’s role. Federal funding is provided for language and integration courses. Immigration is on the basis of quotas for short- or medium-term permits, some of which can be renewed or transformed into permanent residency. No seasonal work permits have been issued since 2002, when the Bilateral Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons between Switzerland and the EU member states came into force. This sets quotas for EU nationals with work contracts to obtain residency permits. Immigration from non-EU countries is restricted to highly skilled workers. Foreign citizens wanting to change job or profession, or move to another canton, must obtain approval from the cantonal labour market authority. It is difficult for a foreigner to set up a business in Switzerland or to be self-employed.
7 Switzerland’s has 1.5 million foreign residents and represent over 20% of the nation’s entire population of 7.4 million. In particular since the 1990s, the question of political rights of immigrants has been and continues to be a highly debated issue in Swiss politics. Because Switzerland is a federal state with three different levels – the Confederation, the 26 cantons and their local communes non-citizen voting rights vary greatly depending on the individual entity. Foreigners may not cast ballots on the national level, but they may be entitled to vote and, in some cases, to run for office on the cantonal or communal level.
2. Legal Regime

2.1 Division of the immigration law

Immigration law is divided into three basic legal levels: constitutional level, international law level and the simple (non-
constitutional) law level. Immigration law can be further subdivided, like any law branch, into constitutional and simple
law\(^9\). The fundamental provisions comprising the legal status of immigrants are constitutional and the legal treatment of
immigrants through simple law are based on these. The main provisions of the Swiss Constitution referring to immigrants
can be found in the chapter of fundamental rights.\(^{10}\) The provisions referring to the constitutional rights constitute a great
basis for immigration.

2.2 Constitutional, international law and the simple level

Certain fundamental rights are safeguarded by the present Constitution supporting all human beings irrespective of
nationality, age or other discrimination. In this sense, the carrier, the subject of these constitutional rights is the human
being\(^{11}\). What is being referred to here is literally the human rights, which are safeguarded not only in support of the
Swiss citizens but also in support of the aliens as well as of the stateless. Whether these rights refer to legal or illegal
immigrants coming from within or out of the E.U. is of no importance whatsoever. These rights are of universal,
ecumenical character and apply to all human beings alike. Apart from the universal human rights, there are also rights in
all Constitutions applying only to the rights of the civilians of any given country. The same holds true for the Swiss
Constitution. Consequently, the question which is raised is which constitutional rights should be acknowledged to
immigrants-foreigners and which should not.

2.3 Political, economic and social rights

At this point, it is useful to distinguish the fundamental rights into political, economic and rights concerning the social field
(Dimitropoulos, A., pg. 874.). This distinction leads to very important results concerning every constitutional right. The
economic and social field rights, are acknowledged both to the native and the immigration population alike. On the
contrary, the political rights are principally acknowledged to Swiss citizens (Switzerland is often at the head in
international civil liberties and political rights rankings. See Freedom House ranking, 2005). Immigration law applies to
immigrants. According to citizenship, they are divided into nationals and aliens. Those in possession of Swiss citizenship
are referred to as nationals. Those in possession of more than one citizenships, one of which is Swiss, are deemed
nationals and bear the rights and obligations of Swiss citizens. Aliens are those who do not have the Swiss nationality but
are citizens of one or more countries (multi-national aliens) or have no citizenship at all (stateless). People bearing more
than one citizenships, none of which is Swiss, are obliged to choose citizenship and register their choice with the Foreign
and Immigration Bureau on condition that they are holders of a passport or other travel document of their country of
origin. Foreigners are divided according to their citizenship foreign natives (foreign citizens of foreign origin) E.U.
refugees are citizens of a country member of the E.U. Special legal status regulates refugees. Refugees are foreigners
who satisfy the 1951 Geneva Convention referring to the legal status of refugees and the related 1967 New York
protocol, and who have been officially acknowledged as immigrants by the competent authorities\(^{12}\). The term "alien" in the
wider sense (lato sensu), as defined above, includes every person who does not have the Swiss citizenship as well as
the E.U. aliens and the refugees. In the stricto sensu, alien is every person who does not bear the Greek citizenship

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\(^9\) Karagiannopoulou-Lelouda, I. The Public-Fiscus before the equality principle, 1974, p. 75
\(^10\) Title 2. Basic, Civil, and Social Rights, and Chapter 2 Citizenship and Political Rights, articles 37,38,39,40.
\(^11\) Article 7. Human dignity is to be respected and protected. Article 8 Equality (1) All humans are equal before the law. (2) Nobody may
be discriminated against, namely for his or her origin, race, sex, age, language, social position, way of life, religious, philosophical, or
political convictions, or because of a corporal or mental disability. (3) Men and women have equal rights. The law provides for legal and
factual equality, particularly in the family, during education, and at the workplace. Men and women have the right to equal pay for work
of equal value. (4) The law provides for measures to eliminate disadvantages of disabled people.
\(^12\) Switzerland is signatory to all relevant international human rights instruments. It is also the depositary state of the Geneva
Conventions and the place where several human rights-related NGOs were established or headquarters, including the Red Cross.
The United Nations Human Rights Council, of which Switzerland is a member and which it was instrumental in establishing, it has its
seat in Geneva. Respect for human rights and the promotion of democracy is also one of the five official foreign policy goals of
Switzerland.
excluding the expatriates, the E.U. foreigners and the refugees, who are subject to a different legal treatment.

3. Mother Constitutional Rights

3.1 The human value

All people have human value. The inviolability of human value is the main constitutional principle of contemporary Swiss legal order and it is safeguarded in article 7-8 of the Constitution\(^\text{13}\). The mother constitutional right of human value is protected both in support of nationals as well as aliens (Dimitropoulos, A. The human value, Juridical Review (Nomiki Epitheorisi) 1996, issue 1, pg.5.)

3.2 Equality

Equality is a basic constitutional right applying to all Swiss citizens. It is also valid for the exercise of the rights of foreigners alike. Discriminations of any kind based on nationality, race, language, religious or political beliefs are strictly forbidden. Aliens are of equal legal status to Swiss, as far as the constitutional rights acknowledged to them are concerned. On the contrary, the equality principle does not apply to the rights that are not recognized to foreigners.

3.3 Freedom

Freedom in the sense of “non-slavery” is safeguarded for everyone, therefore foreigners as well (See article 4 par.1 of the European Convention of Human Rights). As far as the exercise of the right to freedom is concerned, it is necessary to distinguish between legal and illegal aliens. Everyone has the right to develop their own personality and participate freely in the social, economic and political life of the country. The free development of personality presupposes the non-violation of Constitution and the simple laws which are in compliance with it.

4. Entry, Stay and Exit of Foreigners

There are certain issues, which are particularly pressing in relation to aliens, whereas do not pose a problem at all for Swiss citizens. These are issues referring to the freedom of travelling in general, and are dealt with this special paragraph. Entry, stay-settlement and exit from the country are issues that do not arise for nationals.

4.1 Entry

Entry to the country cannot be forbidden to any Swiss citizen, even if they are not holders of a passport or other travel document. An absolute entry right derives from the privity of nationality. Conversely, the Swiss Constitution does not acknowledge an entry right to foreigners. Such a right is acknowledged only to the E.U. citizens as a direct consequence of the original European Law, according to the Rome Convention (See Rome Convention 1957, article 47.). The same is valid for the freedom of movement, settlement - stay and exit from the country. The entry of aliens into the Greek territory is dependent on certain conditions. However, even if these conditions are valid, refusal to entry is possible. The entry and stay of foreigners is possible for certain reasons, which are stated by the law. These are study purposes, dependent work, the exercise of independent financial activities, family reunion purposes as well as other special purposes.

4.2 Stay, movement and settlement

The stay of aliens in the Swiss territory is allowed only for the time period determined by their permit and it is directly linked to the fulfillment of certain obligations. All aliens in the Swiss territory are owners of human rights, which are acknowledged to every human being and the exercise of these rights, such as the right to life, honour and religion, does not depend on the legality of entry and stay in the country. Legal aliens enjoy a much more favourable juridical status.

\(^\text{13}\) It is useful to mention that when Switzerland had applied to join with UN members states, its application had been rejected because of the discriminatory residence permit policy in the country. To be compatible with the UN system, Switzerland had modified its Constitution with a positive disposition, on 18th April 1999: “Human beings are equal in front of the law” (art.8). The cantons have also changed theirs constitutions to be in conformity with the confederalism system.
The rights of legal aliens are safeguarded from simple law (non-constitutional law). Legal aliens have the legal right of stay, entry and exit from the country. They have a legal residence. The legal foreign residents have the right of free movement and settlement anywhere within the Swiss territory, which can be restricted under special circumstances. The above-mentioned rights can be restricted due to national security reasons, public order and public health reasons. These restrictions refer mostly to the settlement, stay and travelling to certain places, the exercise of a specific occupation or the obligation to report to police authorities.

4.3 Exit

Exit from the Swiss territory is distinguished into voluntary and involuntary (compulsory). Freedom of exit from the country is safeguarded for all Swiss as well as aliens. In principle, no one can be prevented from departing the country. The case of compulsory exit differs. Compulsory exit for Swiss citizens is not provided. On the contrary, compulsory exit for foreign citizens is possible either in the form of deportation or extradition

Deportation is the order for an alien to leave the country through an act of juridical or administrative authority. Administrative deportation is allowed in cases of irrevocable conviction or violation of Law. The deportation order is issued by the police authorities and the alien has the right to appeal to the competent District General Secretary. Special conditions are valid for the deportation of European foreigners (E.U. aliens), citizens of E.U. state members. Compulsory exit from the country can also result from the extradition of an alien who is prosecuted by the courts of the seeking country. France and Netherland offer the widest protection of resident foreigners against expulsion, especially by increasing the barriers for expulsion with the length of stay and offering long-term residents and second generation foreigners complete or virtually complete protection against expulsion. Switzerland is situated at the other extreme. It stipulates a long list of conditions that may lead to expulsion and offers no improved protection for long term residents or the second generation (Koopmans, R. (2005). Contested Citizenship: Immigration And Cultural Diversity in Europe, pg. 44.).

4.4 Illegal immigration and legalization

Illegal immigration is a controlled phenomenon as opposed to illegal immigration, which can incur significant problems. Illegal immigration refers to the illegal entry and stay in the country, something which is facilitated by the geographical and geophysical position of the country, which renders the guarding of the borders especially difficult. The legislator has defined a legalisation procedure in an attempt to control illegal immigration. Legalized aliens acquire a residence permit and acquire equal status to legal aliens.

There is a number of constitutional rights referring to the physical existence of man. Within this frame, the constitutional legislator safeguards the constitutional items concerning the human entity such as life, health, social security and the environment. Life and health as defensive existential rights are protected for every person, therefore foreigners as well, legal or illegal ones. Human life constitutes the ultimate constitutional item protected without exceptions. Life is therefore protected for all aliens, legal or illegal. Also, health as a defensive right is constitutionally protected for everyone that is as a human right. It is therefore protected for all aliens, legal or illegal.

The right to social security is acknowledged from the Constitution to all employed people. Therefore, it is acknowledged to foreigners as well.

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14 Article 25. Protection Against Expulsion, Extradition, and Removal by Force(1) Swiss citizens may not be expelled from the country; they may be extradited to a foreign authority only with their consent. (2) Refugees may not be removed by force or extradited to a state in which they are persecuted. (3) Nobody may be removed by force to a state where he or she is threatened by torture or other means of cruel and inhuman treatment or punishment.

15 Article 41 [General Provisions](1) The Federation and the Cantons, in addition to personal responsibility and private initiative, furthers the achievement that. every person shares in social security; b. every person, for his or her health, receives the necessary care; c. families as communities of adults and children are protected and supported; workers can sustain their living through work under adequate conditions; e. people looking for housing can find for themselves and for their family adequate housing at acceptable conditions; f. children and youths as well as people of working age can further their education and training according to their abilities; g. children and youths are encouraged in their development to become independent and socially responsible persons and are supported in their social, cultural, and political integration. (2) The Federation and the Cantons are working towards the goal that every person is insured against the economic consequences of old age, disability, illness, accidents, unemployment, maternity, orphanhood, and widowhood. (3) They try to achieve the social goals within their constitutional competencies and with the resources available to them. (4) From social goals no direct claims to state subsidies may be derived.
5. Rights of social field

5.1 The physical existence of man

There are a number of constitutional rights referring to the physical existence of man. Within this frame, the constitutional legislator safeguards the constitutional items concerning the human entity such as life (See article 2 par. 1 of the European Convention of Human Rights), health, social security and the environment. Life and health as defensive existential rights are protected for every person, therefore foreigners as well, legal or illegal ones. Human life constitutes the ultimate constitutional item protected without exceptions. Life is therefore protected for all aliens, legal or illegal. Also, health as a defensive right is constitutionally protected for everyone, that is as a human right. It is therefore protected for all aliens, legal or illegal. The right to social security is acknowledged from the Constitution to all employed people. Therefore, it is acknowledged to foreigners as well.

5.2 The spiritual entity of man

Freedom of ideas and opinion, education and religion, belong to the spiritual dimension of man. The freedom to think and express one's opinion is a universal right and it is constitutionally safeguarded in favour both of Swiss and aliens. Every alien in the Swiss state are entitled to express themselves freely on any subject, irrespective of the particular legal status they are regulated by, as long as this is done in compliance with the Constitution and the simple laws. The place where foreigners exercise their religious rights is of primary importance, as this is directly related to the origin and the general cultural identity of the foreigner. What is more, the Swiss Constitution protects religious conscience entirely. All Swiss and foreigners alike, irrespective of the legal status they are regulated by, are bearers of religious freedom, are entitled to believe in any religion or no religion and to worship freely every known religion. Entitlement to one's rights is irrespective of one's religious beliefs.

Spiritual development, paedzia in the substantial sense of the term, in both its cognitive and artistic aspect, as well as the rights deriving from it, are safeguarded for every person. Freedom of education means the freedom to acquire and impart knowledge and it is in harmony with the general social field freedom and the freedom of thinking. Paedia in this substantial sense, as a right of cultural self-determination, is protected for all Swiss and foreigners alike. Paedia in the procedural, formal sense of the term, refers to education i.e. the educational system. In this sense paedzia is safeguarded for all Green citizens. The right to education constitutes, literally, the only social right which is entirely warranted.

5.3 Social Status

Constitutional protection refers to the social status of man as well. More specifically, it refers to the legal recognition of every man as a physical entity, subject of law and to the protection of every person's human dignity and honour. The social status and its particular aspects are of universal character and are protected for all Swiss and aliens in the Swiss territory. The acknowledgement of all people, including foreigners, as subjects of law and as owners of rights as well as obligations constitutes the basis for the protection of the social status. This minimum legal protection is directly related to the fundamental concept of freedom as non-slavery. All foreigners are bearers of constitutional rights. Subjects, bearers of constitutional rights, are firstly physical persons, human entities. The historical creation of constitutional rights aimed at the protection of human beings. This fundamental constitutional principle of the inviolation of human value leads to the conclusion that every human is the subject of rights and obligations. Every human being is recognized as a person, that is all men have legal ability. This ability is directly related to human nature and derives directly from the Constitution. As a subject of rights and obligations man is the subject of fundamental rights. Every person from birth to death is a bearer of

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16 Article 41 [General Provisions]b. Every person, for his or her health, receives the necessary care;
17 See article 16 of the Constitution and article 10 of the European Convention of Human Rights.
18 See article 19 of the Constitution. Right to Primary Education. The right to sufficient and free primary education is guaranteed.
19 See article 15 of the Constitution Freedom of Faith and Conscience (1) The freedom of faith and conscience is guaranteed. (2) Every person has the right to freely choose his or her religion or non-denominational belief and to profess them alone or in community with others. (3) Every person has the right to join or belong to a religious community and to receive religious education. (4) No person may be forced to join a religious community, to conduct a religious act or participate in religious education, and article 9 of the European Convention of Human Rights: “Every person is entitled to freedom of thought, conscience and religion. This right results in the freedom to change one’s religion or convictions, even in the freedom to manifest one’s religion or convictions freely, on an individual or collective basis, publicly or privately, regarding the worship, education and exercise of one’s religious and ceremonial duties”.

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all the rights stated by the Constitution. All physical persons, nationals and aliens, adults and minors, are entitled to fundamental rights. Interpretative problems arise in relation to the beginning and the end of the capacity to bear fundamental rights as well as the age required for self-exercise of these rights. Any law which would restrict or remove from certain groups the capacity to be a subject of some or all human rights would be unconstitutional. The constitutional protection of human dignity and honour is universal as well. The constitutional legislator strictly forbids any insult of human dignity both in relation to nationals and aliens and authorizes the simple legislator to penalize the offenders. Everybody within the Swiss territory enjoys the absolute protection of their honour irrespective of nationality, race, language, religious or political beliefs. Exceptions are allowed only in those cases provided by international law.

5.4 Private Sector

The Constitution protects both private and family life for all Swiss and aliens alike. Marriage of any type is protected for Swiss and aliens alike. The protection of childhood can be extended through simple law to foreigners as well. The protection of one's residence as a defensive right of the protection of family and of the protection of communication are irrespective of nationality.

5.5 Family reunification and early C permit Art 34, par. 4

If you would like members of your family to live in Switzerland, you should contact the residents' registration office in the commune where you live, or consult the website www.vd.ch/fr/themes/vie-privee/etrangers/integrationet-prevention-du-racisme/vivre-dans-le-canton/informations-pratiques, under ‘Autorisations de séjour’ (‘Residence permits’). Nationals from Third States holding a B permit (annual residence permit) who have integrated well into Swiss society may obtain a C permit (permanent residence permit) after a regular and uninterrupted stay in Switzerland of five instead of 10 years. To do so:

a. they must have abided by the law and values laid down in the Federal Constitution;

b. they must have acquired a working knowledge of the language of their place of domicile at least equivalent to level A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, published by the Council of Europe. (Information on formally certifying one’s language level can be found at the end of the section entitled ‘Learning French’). Knowledge of another national language may be taken into account where appropriate;

and

c. they must have shown a willingness to work and to undertake training.

5.6 Basic forms of collective human action

The Constitution safeguards in articles 22 and 23 the two basic forms of collective action, namely assemblies and associations. The right of assembling and associating is provided for Swiss subjects and for aliens. In the past, this interpretation supported the prohibition of the exercise of such rights by aliens, which resulted, for example, in the rejection of the establishment of foreign citizen associations.

5.7 The Judicial Rights

The Constitution acknowledges certain rights referring to the wider judicial protection and the relevant "judicial" rights.

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20. See article 13 of the Constitution and article 8 par. 1 of the European Convention of Human Rights: “(1) Every person has the right to respect for his or her private and family life, home, and secrecy of mail and telecommunication.(2) Every person has the right to be protected against abuse of personal data.”

21. Article 11 Protection of Children and Adolescents(1) Children and adolescents have the right to special protection of the personal integrity and to promotion of their development.(2) They exercise their rights according to their capacity to discern.

22. See article 8 par. 1 of the European Convention of Human Rights. Also article 14 of Swiss Constitution “The rights to marriage and family are guaranteed”.

23. Article 22. Freedom of Assembly(1) The freedom of assembly is guaranteed.(2) Every person has the right to organize assemblies, to participate in or to abstain from them. Article 23 Freedom of Association(1) The freedom of association is guaranteed.(2) Every person has the right to form associations, to join or to belong to them, and to participate in their activities.3) Nobody may be forced to join or to belong to an association.

The issues in question refer to the apprehension and temporary detention, the principle "nullum crimen nulla poena sine lege", the right to address the authorities, the right of providing legal protection and the right of previous hearing. This constitutional protection is of major importance for foreigners as it is directly linked to man's protection and to the judicial proceedings. All these rights are safeguarded by the Swiss Constitution not only for nationals but also for aliens. The guarantee of a fair trial in the wide sense of the term constitutes a fundamental obligation of the State of Law beyond any discrimination. The distinction between Europeans and non-Europeans aliens is of major importance when it comes to the economic rights of foreign citizens. The relevant conventions have given rise to a unified financial field and have created some partial economic rights, whose basis is the right of free circulation of people, capital and goods.

6. The economic constitutional rights

The distinction between Europeans and non-Europeans aliens is of major importance when it comes to the economic rights of foreign citizens. The relevant conventions have given rise to a unified financial field and have created some partial economic rights, whose basis is the right of free circulation of people, capital and goods. The Constitution safeguards the right to economic freedom. Swiss legislation acknowledges the right of foreigners to enter Swiss and stay in the country for dependent labour, which is allowed after the issue of a relevant permit. The right to equal pay for labour of equal value is recognized for all labourers irrespective of sex or other discrimination, whether they are nationals or aliens. Compulsory labour is also forbidden for everyone irrespective of nationality. The state is responsible for the social security of the workforce, as the law states, with no discrimination between nationals and foreigners. The foreigners who live in Switzerland legally are insured in the competent social security organizations and enjoy the same insurance rights as the nationals.

6.1 Legal Framework and Professional licenses Residence & Work Permits

The Swiss constitution splits the legislative competence between the federal government, the cantons and the local authorities. The basic laws, including the right to own property, the right to be gainfully active and freedom of trade, are directly protected by the Swiss constitution. Laws can be enacted only through parliamentary procedures; however, the "sovereign", i.e. the voters, have an important say through the popular initiative and referendum processes at the national level, the outcome of which cannot be overturned by the judiciary. The initiative and referendum are the actual guarantors of stability. The sheer possibility that voters could assert their ultimate rights promotes a balanced of opinion forming and decision-making, and discourages legislators from pushing through ill-considered legislation. The basic constitutional rights also apply to foreigners. As long as they hold residence and work permits, or have permanent residence status, the freedom to trade allows them to set up a business company in Switzerland in the same way as Swiss nationals. All business sectors are open to foreign investment. It is not necessary for Swiss nationals to hold a certain percentage of the equity. Certain restrictions still exist with respect to government monopolies. However, liberalisation is in full progress within the framework of the Bilateral Agreements between Switzerland and the EU for traditional monopolies such as railway and postal services.

For some professions and for certain businesses, the federal government or the Cantons impose rules. In such cases, a special license or permit is needed. This applies to activities for: Banks, insurance companies and investment

25 Article 27. Economic Freedom: (1) Economic freedom is guaranteed. (2) In particular, it entails the free choice of profession as well as free access to and free exercise of private economic activity.
26 Article 41. Workers can sustain their living through work under adequate conditions.
27 See article 4 par. 2 of the European Convention of Human Rights: "No one can be obliged to compulsory labour".
28 Article 41. Workers can sustain their living through work under adequate conditions.
29 Art. 26. Guarantee of ownership. 1. The right to own property is guaranteed. 2. The compulsory purchase of property and any restriction on ownership that is equivalent to compulsory purchase shall be compensated in full.
30 Art. 27. Economic freedom. 1. Economic freedom is guaranteed. 2. Economic freedom includes in particular the freedom to choose an occupation as well as the freedom to pursue a private economic activity.
brokers Hotels & restaurants (in certain Cantons) Physicians, dentists, pharmacists and attorneys, certain mercantile and services (e.g. wine merchants, private employment agencies, temporary employment services). Foreign nationals can perform these activities in Switzerland, if they have the required permits. In certain cases, approval is subject to a proven need clause. Since the entry into force of the bilateral agreements with the EU, rules are gradually eased thanks to the mutual recognition of professional qualifications. On entering and staying in Switzerland, foreign nationals must follow certain regulations in order to gain access to the labour market. Foreign nationals who wish to stay in Switzerland without seeking employment, e.g. as a tourist, may do so for up to three months without needing a permit. However, if they wish to seek employment they will require a work & residence permit. The cases in which this is necessary and the procedure that needs to be followed depend on whether the person is a citizen of one of the 27 previous EU member states or an EFTA country (i.e. Norway and Iceland), or a citizen of a non-EU/EFTA country.

7. The political constitutional rights

7.1 Historical and Political Background

The political system in Switzerland is Confederated. There are 26 cantons and each one is a Republic, with its executive, legislation and judiciary apparatuses. Since the 1980 Switzerland has experienced three major waves of immigrant mobilization. Each focused on achieving political rights, specially local voting rights, dual citizenship, and easier access to citizenship. Immigrants promoted the first two issues themselves. By the end of 1980s, immigrant social movement organizations considered themselves a stable minority in Swiss society, not transient guests. They focused their campaign on making Swiss society more aware of their cause, as well as on helping their community become less isolated. The Swiss parliament did approve the dual citizenship in 1990 (Hochschild L, J.& Mollenkopf H, J. (2009). Bringing Outsiders In: Transatlantic Perspectives on Immigrant, pg. 72). In 2000, the Helvetica Confederation became the 195th member of the United-Nations system. Since June 1, 2002, an Agreement on free circulation of people (ALCP) has been signed between Switzerland and the European Union (EU). This Agreement integrates Switzerland in the Schengen security politics in Europe. Only non EU Member States, called third countries, became recipients of the LSEE law. Nevertheless, after the free circulation agreement which opens the country to Europeans, Switzerland has completely modified the LSEE law and created new legislation restricting the right of foreigners and suppressing any right of asylum. The new measures are called LEtr and LAsi and only elaborated for individuals coming from the so-called third countries. These legislations are initiated by the leader of the Farright party-Democratic Union of Center (UDC [in French]) – and endorsed by Liberal and Bourgeois parties. LEtr and LAsi were very debatable and contestable during the consultation. The left wing parties, Socialists, Working Trade-Unions, and Civil society associations, Church counter-attacked the new legislations in launching a referendum against LEtr/LAsi. The debates were very hard and passionate. Lot of money was injected in the Medias during the campaign by the Right-wing leaders and followers. A posteriori the Right won the referendum with huge suffrages. More than 70% voted against foreigners. Even the canton of Geneva, which is known as international city and a strong immigrant based population sphere, has massively voted at 68% against foreigners. The following histogram exposes the Geneva data of immigration in the longue durée perspective. The resident population in Geneva is much diversified inhabitants in 2000 have another passport that the discrimination is not only a politically construction, but a hatred culture. The LEtr and LAsi legislations entered in force since January 1, 2008. And now some Far-Right deputies have already introduced of any person without paper in Switzerland, whereas which led to the cancellation of migrants and refugees rights. The migrations (ODM), affirmed on the Radio Swiss Romande (RSR) on 12 LAsi/LAtr laws permitted the detention of 2500sf deportation measurements. Their vote against foreigners’ rights means new dispositions to prohibit marriage it is the interpretation of same law which director of the office of ed persons in 2008 and the 7 50% marriages 12th Mai 2009 that the execution of 83%of deportation measurements. The following description about the residence permits is only the iceberg of the problems foreigners are daily confronted. Except from the EU countries, two binational cannot contract legal wedding in Switzerland. Foreigner in conjugal relation within a Swiss citizen must share common housing, whereas couple formed by two Swiss natives can live separated. This restriction also touches family gathering process. Foreigners’ kids born abroad must imperatively join their parents living in Switzerland before the 16 years old, to benefit with legal statutes. Otherwise they will be considered migrants. The Swiss legislations against foreigners have provoked the mobilization of several of the civil society organizations as: S.O.S-racism, Center of Swiss-Immigrants Contact (CCSI), Africa Commons (AC), and Forum for the integration of migrants (FIMS), Cantonal governments have taken their role in tackling rampant racism going on in the society. The Canton of Geneva has created, in 2001, its Office for the integration of migrants. But, very often,
these offices do not have explicit directives. The question of integration remains problematic, while to mark diversity, events are sometimes organized, like music festivals, day of the integration, and cultural exhibitions.

A basic precondition for achieving this is the guaranteed provision of equal political rights for every citizen based on the principle of the domicile. Swiss citizens are able according to their domicile to exercise their political rights at all three levels: municipality, canton, federation. They are equal members of the municipal assemblies with the right to elect and to be elected to any position within the municipality. Thus, in relation to political rights, membership of a language or religious group carries no special significance (Fleiner, Th.& Basta Fleiner, L.(2009). pg. 621.). The federation and most cantons and municipalities however do discriminate against foreigners, by denying political rights to all non-Swiss citizens. Only the canton of Newchatel and Jura provide limited political rights for foreigners with permanent domicile in the respective cantons. In other cantons, the Swiss citizens have refused to extend political rights to foreigners. This denial has serious implications, as non citizens account for approximately 20 per cent of the population of the Switzerland. Although foreigners residing in Switzerland are expected to pay taxes and to contribute to the economic wealth of the country, they are denied the right to participate as equal members of the Swiss civil society (Fleiner, Th.& Basta Fleiner, L.(2009). pg. 622). In general noncitizens may acquire property on an equal footing with citizens: in Canada, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, a special permit is required to buy real estates unless the person has resided in the country for a certain period of time (Yasemin Nuhoğlu Soysal (1994). pg. 129).

In the canton of Neuchâtel, non-citizen voting rights on the communal level date back to the foundation of the canton in 1849 (voting rights on the cantonal level were introduced only in 2000). Apart from this remarkable example, political rights for foreign residents are a fairly recent phenomenon in Swiss politics. Jura introduced non-citizen voting rights at the time of its foundation in 1978. All other cantons have enacted the respective legislation between 1995 and 2005. Endeavours to enhance political rights of foreigners have been pursued in many Swiss cantons since the 1990s. In many instances these efforts have failed. Thus, the question is: Why have political rights of foreigners been introduced in particular cantons and communes and not in others31? Some of the possible reasons include the following: Political forces and linguistic-political divide32. Political rights of foreigners are usually supported by the socialist party, the unions and the center-left politicians. These political forces are generally stronger in the French-speaking west of Switzerland (including about 20% of the Swiss population) and their efforts have proven more successful in this part of the country: the five cantons in which foreigners enjoy voting rights cover most of the French-speaking territory of Switzerland. In this respect, the issue of non-citizen voting rights seems to confirm the commonly alleged political divide between the German and the French-speaking part of the country. So far, three communes of Appenzell, Ausserrhoden canton and one commune of Grisons grant their foreign residents political rights in communal elections and ballots33. This is valid not only for those political rights that ensure participation in the exercise of political authority in the strict sense of the term, such as the right to elect and be elected, but also in relation to other constitutional rights exercised for political reasons, such as the right to assemble and corporate. However, the examples of Appenzell, Ausserrhoden and Grisons cantons, both covering predominantly German-speaking regions and granting (although to a lesser degree) non-

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31 The scope of political participation and the requirements to be met on the side of a foreigner vary: In the cantons of Neuchâtel and Jura the political rights of foreigners include both communal and cantonal matters. In contrast, in the cantons of Vaud, Geneva and Fribourg non-citizens may only have a voice on the lower, communal level. To a varying degree, some of these cantons also provide the right of foreigners to be a candidate in cantonal and/or communal elections. The requirements non-citizens must meet in order to be entitled to vote are fairly strict. In the cantons of Neuchâtel, Fribourg and Vaud foreigners first of all have to hold a permanent residence permit. Such a permit is granted - depending on the country of origin - after five or ten years of (legal) residence in Switzerland. In addition, all five cantons require a minimum residence period in Switzerland, the canton and/or the commune that range between one to ten years. Two further (German-speaking) cantons, the canton of Grisons and Appenzell, Ausserrhoden, have taken a distinct approach to political rights of non-citizens. These cantons do not provide for voting rights of foreigners on a cantonal level, but have authorized their communes to establish such rights on the local level based on certain requirements (residence permit, minimum residence period).

32 Foreigners have no political rights on the national level. They are therefore not entitled to vote in federal ballots concerning the federal constitution or federal legislation. However, immigrants may vote or be a candidate on the cantonal or communal level, as each canton is free to grant such rights within its political autonomy. As of October 2005, five of the 26 cantons have introduced political rights for their foreign residents.

33 Article 39 Exercise of Political Rights(1) The Federation regulates the exercise of political rights in federal matters; the Cantons regulate the exercise of these rights in cantonal and municipal matters. (2) Political rights are exercised at the domicile. The Federation and the Cantons may provide for exceptions.(3) No person may exercise political rights in more than one Canton. (4) The Cantons may provide that new residents exercise their political rights in cantonal and municipal matters only after a waiting period of up to three months following their taking of residence.
citizen voting rights, make such an explanation incomplete at best “Package deals”. In many cases non-citizen voting rights and eligibility have been introduced or further extended in connection with a broader constitutional reform. Interestingly, before these reforms were approved by the electorate, popular initiatives aiming for voting rights for foreigners had failed (e.g. popular initiatives aimed at the introduction and expansion of non-citizen voting-rights failed in the cantons of Vaud and Neuchâtel in 1993/1990; rights provided by the new cantonal constitutions in 2002/2000). One possible interpretation may be that as a part of a “package,” this reform seems to have attracted more affirmative votes than as a stand-alone project. It may also be that the idea of political rights of non-citizens has gained more acceptance among the electorate over the years of continuous debate.

7.2 Impact of political rights for foreign populations

7.2.1 Voting rights and eligibility

No European country has extended the right to vote on the national level to all foreign residents. However, in the United Kingdom this rights is available to resident citizens of countries of with Britain has a historical colonial relationship, the Commonwealth countries as well as Ireland. The Netherland have also made advances toward extending voting rights to foreign citizens. Since 1985, all foreigners who have lived at least five years in the Netherland have voting rights on the municipal level, both active and passive. In three of the Swiss cantons Neuchatel (since 1848), Jura, (since 1979), and Appenzell-Ausserhoden (since 1995), voting rights have been extended to foreigners on the local level. However, only a very small percentage of the Swiss foreign population lives in these three cantons (Koopmans, R. (2005). pg. 45).

Foreigners over the age of 18 who have held a Swiss residence permit for at least 10 years and who have lived in the Canton for the last three years or more can vote in communal elections, stand for election to, and serve on, city councils and municipalities, and sign communal initiatives and referendums. Once a foreigner has fulfilled the requirements laid down under the Constitution and the law, his or her name is entered in the electoral register of the commune in which they reside, after which they will automatically receive the relevant ballot papers and information. Political rights have a great importance in the Swiss political system which is founded on the principle of direct democracy and federalism. Although foreigners do not enjoy any voting rights on federal level, participatory rights on the cantonal and, to a lesser degree, on the communal level include a substantial part of political power. Another factor to consider is the high proportion of immigrants in the overall population (over 20% in the national average; 38% in Geneva; 56% of immigrants to Switzerland originate from EU/EFTA states, 30.9% from other European states – mainly from former Yugoslavia and Turkey – and 13.1% from other countries; these figures not only reflect a high immigration flow but also the fairly strict requirements for naturalization). Therefore, foreign populations may potentially exercise considerable political power on the cantonal and communal level. Some commentators consider this fact as one of the reasons why voting rights of non-citizens are such a “hot topic” in Swiss politics.

7.3 Participation Rates of Foreign Voters

The data regarding the participation of the foreign population entitled to vote in cantonal and/or communal ballots suggest that immigrants are not euphoric about their political rights: the figures vary greatly, but their participation rate is generally much lower than that by Swiss nationals whose average participation rate is 45%. The participation rate of foreign voters is usually half that of the Swiss electorate. Interestingly, several non-citizens have already been appointed as local officials in regions where foreigners also are eligible to run for office in popular elections. The low participation rate of foreigners in local politics is not surprising considering the following:

First, several studies of political participation reveal different patterns of participation between various categories of voters. In particular, it was found that well-educated middle and upper-class voters have strikingly higher participation rates than the less “privileged” parts of society, whether Swiss or foreign. The fact that a considerable number of immigrants have not yet reached the middle or upper social class of Switzerland may therefore partly explain why they are less inclined to cast their votes.

Second, sociologists consider the low participation rates among immigrants to be the “natural” result of the previous exclusion of this population from the political process. It may take some time for foreigners to develop a self-conception as active citizens. This explanation seems to be persuasive when drawing a parallel to the introduction of women voting rights (introduced in Switzerland as late as 1971). After centuries of exclusion from the political process, participation of women remained to be low in the first years after the adoption of the new legislation. Finally, as foreigners
are allowed to political participation only since recently, more data needs to be collected and evaluated in the coming years. Hopefully, they will provide further insights into the issue of political participation of non-citizens.

7.4 Citizenship

7.4.1 Becoming a Swiss national

The legal position of foreigners in Switzerland is ordinances and directives. In Switzerland, there is no subject, neither privileges of place, of birth, of people, nor families. The source of foreigner’s statute is the fundamental. The legislator has also produced two other (OLE) ordinances limiting the number of country. The paradigmatic model of the culture, his ethnic origin, and on his authorization till, variety of temporary permits. Law for juridical are based on natives are equal to obtain Swiss birthplace. The Foreigners are thus split up in various categories of migrants by the administration of a multitude of residence permits. The license A was allotted to Italian and Portuguese seasonal workers and, latter with Yugoslavians. There are three kinds of annual residence permit: first, the permit B for students, whose holder is authorized to work 50%, except during holidays. The second permit B is intended for the migrant who is living a contracted marriage with a Swiss native. The third permit B is allotted to statutory refugees. The foreigner who lives in couple with a Swiss person can obtain the license C at the end of 5 years. But, in the eventual case of divorce, the renewal of the concern permit is not assured. The License C is intended to family members accompanying a diplomatic. The permit G is the card for cross bordering workers, called “frontalier”. Permit S is for the protected persons or people under tutorial position. People, whose the asylum request is rejected have a permit labeled N, which means Nu/No/Negative/Nein/. In the international law, foreigners, whose the asylum request is sanctioned by a rejection decision can continue to reside in the country. The L permit is the authorization for ladies employed in dancing bars or data processing specialists employed by a university, while F granted for family-group members, the time to expect a better decision. But in case of refusal, the permit is revoked and the whole family has to move, despite schooling children. There are thus different legislations, according to people’s origins. It is useful to mention that when Switzerland had applied to join with UN members states, its application had been rejected because of the discriminatory residence permit policy in the country. To be compatible with the UN system, Switzerland had modified its Constitution with a positive disposition, on 18th April 1999: “Human beings are equal in front of the law” (art.8). The cantons have also changed their constitutions to be in conformity with the confederalism system. Swiss citizens bear the Swiss citizenship, which can not be removed, unless one has acquired voluntary foreign citizenship34. Such deprivation can only occur under the provisions and proceedings stated by the law. In any case, the provision of Swiss citizenship is in the discretion of Swiss authorities35. The legislator offers the possibility to aliens to acquire the Swiss citizenship by means of naturalization36. Political asylum is of special importance to foreigners. The Swiss Constitution acknowledges neither the right to political asylum nor the corresponding obligation on behalf of the Switzerland. To become a Swiss national, you must fulfill certain conditions:

1. Anyone over the age of 11
2. Entire families (both parents and children under 18)
3. One parent and children under 18
4. Conditions laid down under cantonal law Residence

Residency in Switzerland 12 years of residency in Switzerland of which three out of the last five immediately preceding

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34 Article 38 Acquisition and Loss of Citizenship: (1) The Federation regulates the acquisition and the loss of citizenship by descent, marriage and adoption. In addition, it regulates the loss of Swiss citizenship for other reasons, as well as the restoration of citizenship [Wiedereinbürgerung].

35 In general, the municipal parliament, administration or a naturalisation committee decides about naturalisations. However, in some towns, naturalisations are subject to a popular vote. The Supreme Court decided in 2003 that naturalisations were an administrative act and thus must obey the prohibition of arbitrariness, which rules out rejections by anonymous popular vote without an explanatory statement. There are ongoing discussions about changing the rules: one proposal consists of automatically naturalising foreigners if they fulfill the formal criteria, and citizens can propose non-naturalisation if they give a reason for the proposal. The proposal would be voted on, and if the foreigner doesn’t accept the outcome of the vote, he can order the court to verify the objectivity of the reasons. Some politicians have started an initiative to change the Swiss Constitution in order to make votes on naturalisations legal, [4] but it reached a referendum in June 2008 and was soundly rejected.

36 Article 38. 1. Acquisition and Loss of Citizenship: (2) The Federation sets minimal standards for the naturalization of foreigners by the Cantons, and grants naturalization permits. (3) The Federation facilitates the naturalization of stateless children.
the application must have been spent in Switzerland\textsuperscript{37}
- between the ages of 10 and 20, the years of residency count double;
- when a request is made by a married couple, only one of whom is eligible, the required residency period for the other may be reduced to five years provided the couple have been married and living together for over three years\textsuperscript{38};
5. Must abide by Swiss law: no police record;
6. Must have a sound moral and financial reputation;
7. Must not pose a threat to Swiss internal and external security;
8. Must be well integrated into the community (both Swiss and Vaudois), in particular through knowledge of French and integration in professional and social life;
9. Must demonstrate loyalty to Switzerland and its institutions;

8. Conclusions

The granting of the local voting rights to immigrants, dual nationality, and greater naturalization has not proceeded evenly in Switzerland, a multilevel state. The French speaking part in the West has facilitated naturalization procedures and provided local voting rights, transforming this linguistic area into a sort of transnational democracy. In contrast, the dominant German and also Italian speaking remainder of the country has moved in the opposite direction, constructing an ethnically bounded democracy. As a result, only native born citizens are entitled to universal liberal rights, whereas immigrants enjoy only a reduced form of these rights, mainly in the social civic sphere. Voters in many parts of the country maintain a deeply rooted skepticism toward newly arrived immigrants, whom they suspect are not trustworthy and whose loyalty to the society and state they cannot take for granted.

This position stands in deep contrast to the principles embedded in the Swiss constitution and may ultimately lead the country to a future conflict between the partisans of the national rule of law and supporters of local popular sovereignty, as embodied in reactions to the declaration of the Federal Supreme Court that popular balloting of naturalization was unconstitutional. The Federal Supreme Court judges signaled that, even though foreigners may find themselves outside the procedure of legitimate decision making, they are nevertheless protected by the constitution. The case of Switzerland thus shows that sovereignty can never be absolute if we are to prevent democracy from drifting toward an unbound, democratic form of totalitarian rule. Switzerland is still a long way from this situation, but the deep conflict over citizenship rights for its large immigrant population raises the possibility that the country will move toward it. The possibility of transnationalization of citizenship is confronted by the risk of renationalization through xenophobic politics. Both sides are highly mobilized, and both have strong conceptions of citizenship. It remains to be seen whether Swiss civil society will favor the enlargement of its democratic base, as has already happened in the western part of the country, or will continue to see it through the calculus of advantage by the native majority (Hochschild L, J \& Mollenkopf H, John . (2009). pg. 74-75).

References

European Convention of Human Rights.
German Constitution 1949
Greek Constitution 1975
Italian Constitution 1947
Swiss Constitution 1999

\textsuperscript{37}A facilitated naturalization is available to foreigners born in Switzerland, second generation 14 to 24 year olds who have received most of their compulsory education in Switzerland, foreign spouses of Swiss nationals and children with one Swiss parent may be able to accelerate their naturalization. It is mainly an administrative procedure which should be referred to the Commune of residency.

\textsuperscript{38}In the Canton of Vaud: three years preceding the request. \bullet In the commune of residency: between one and three years depending on the commune. In Vaud, it is possible to file an application in a commune other than the one in which you reside provided you have previously lived there for more than two years. It is compulsory to reside in Switzerland during the whole procedure. Other conditions \bullet must possess a residence permit (B and C permit; F permit if there is no decision of expulsion) \bullet must be ready to undertake certain civic duties : payment of taxes (if eligible) and performance of military and/or community service;
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Academic Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control and Academic Performance of Secondary School Students in Ondo State, Nigeria

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Abstract
In Nigeria, emphasis has been placed on secondary school students’ academic performance because of its direct positive impact on national development. Young students in secondary schools today are expected to be leaders of tomorrow and their academic performance is sine qua non for gaining admission into higher institutions and the quality of manpower the nation can boast of in the future. Unfortunately and generally, secondary school students’ academic performance in Nigeria is a serious matter for concern. Many researchers in recent time are interested in the factors affecting academic performance with a view to finding permanent solutions to the problems of poor academic performance of secondary school students. It is on this premise that the current study was conducted to examine the influence of some psychological factors on students’ academic performance. Descriptive research design of correctional type was used for the study. The sample consisted of three hundred and sixty four students randomly selected from ten secondary schools. Two standardized instruments were used to collect data from the sample while students’ scores in their previous promotion examination were used to measure their academic performance. Through multiple regression analysis, the researchers found that academic self-efficacy and locus of control jointly predicted academic performance. Further analysis revealed that academic self-efficacy significantly predicted academic performance while locus of control was not a good predictor. It is recommended that teachers, school management, school administrators and counselling psychologists should use appropriate psychological interventions to enhance academic self-efficacy of secondary school students.

Key words: Academic self-efficacy, Locus of control, academic performance, secondary school students.

1. Introduction
Academic performance is one of the top priorities in schools. It is so important that parents, teachers and society in general are much worried and apprehensive about the way to improve it. It is used to measure the extent to which a student, teacher, school or institution has achieved the stated educational goals. Academic performance which is the yardstick to measure educational outcomes is paramount to the economic, scientific and technological advancement of a nation. Parents send their children to school and teachers educate students with one aim or objective in mind, their success. Indeed academic performance has been investigated with relation to cognitive ability. Many researchers that investigated academic performance had focused on the link between intelligence Quotient (IQ) and academic achievement (Snow & Yalow, 1982; Jansen, 1998). However, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2006) reported that cognitive abilities alone are not sufficient to account for individual differences in academic success or failure. Thus, this study sought to investigate the contributions of psychological skills such as self-efficacy and locus of control to the prediction of academic performance among secondary school teachers in Ondo State of Nigeria.

Self-efficacy is the measure of one’s competences to complete tasks and reach goals (Ormrod, 2006). It influences every aspect of human endeavours. It could be referred to as a person’s belief in his or her ability to successfully accomplish a specific task. It also refers to beliefs about one’s capabilities to learn or perform behaviours at designated levels (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Much research shows that self-efficacy influences academic motivation, learning and achievement (Schunk, 1994; Pajares, 1996).
Self-efficacy is one of the concepts under social learning theory of Bandura which postulates that human achievement depends largely on interactions between one’s behaviours, personal factor (e.g. thoughts, beliefs), and environmental conditions (Bandura 1986, 1997). Learners obtain information to appraise their self-efficacy from their actual performance, their vicarious experiences, persuasions they receive from others, and their psychological reactions. Self-efficacy beliefs influence task choice, efforts persistence, resilience and achievement (Schunk, 1995; Bandura, 1997). Compared with students who doubt their learning capabilities, those who feel efficacious for learning or performing a task participate more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve at a higher level.

Another variable of interest in this study is locus of control. Locus of control is a theory in personality psychology referring to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. The understanding of this concept was developed by Julian B. Rotter in 1954 and has since become an aspect of personality studies.

The locus of control of a person is conceptualized as either internal or external. Those who believe that their own behaviours determine the positive reinforcement they receive and that they have control over their own lives are internal. Individuals with external locus of control are those who believe that the rewards they receive are the result of fate, luck, character or other external circumstances. Such individuals attribute their problems to environmental factors.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Academic Performance and Academic Self-Efficacy

Academic self-efficacy which is described as personal judgment of one’s capabilities to organize and execute course of action to attain designated types of educational outcomes-performance has been reported to promote academic achievement directly and also indirectly by increasing academic aspiration and pro-social behavior (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996). Studies have reported a significant influence of academic self-efficacy on academic performance (Vrugt, Langereis & Hoogstraten 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wolters & Pintrich, 1998; Adeyemo, 2007; Akomolafe, 2010).

The positive links between academic self-efficacy and academic achievement has been reported (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Schunk, 1994; Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001, Greene, Miller, Crowson, Duke & Akey, 2004; Sharma & Sibereisen, 2007). For example, Green et. al. (2004) tested a model explaining the impact of 220 high school students' perceptions of classroom structure on their academic self-efficacy, instrumentality and academic achievement. Self-efficacy had a direct positive relationship demonstrating the importance of self-efficacy for successful learning.

Downs (2005) conducted a study on the influence of self-efficacy on Native American high school students' academic performance. The finding revealed that self-efficacy significantly and positively correlated with academic performance. Schallert (2006) found in his study that self-efficacy significantly predicted students' academic achievement in sciences. Pajares and Kranzler (1995), Pintrich (2000), Zimmerman (2000) found in their various studies that self-efficacy significantly influenced students' academic performance. Klassen, Krawchuk, Rajani (2008) found that academic self-efficacy was a strong predictor of academic performance. However, contrary findings have been reported by a few empirical studies. For instance, Saunders, Davis, William & Williams (2004) and Loo and Choy (2013) found that self-efficacy had small positive effect on academic performance. Reynolds and Weigand (2010) examined the relationships among academic attitudes, psychological attitudes and academic achievement with a sample of 164 undergraduate first year students. The researchers found that self-efficacy was not significantly related to academic achievements. Jeffreys (1998) also reported inconsistent findings regarding the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement of University students. Self-efficacy did not predict academic achievement among the students.

2.2. Academic Achievement and of Locus Control

An extensive review of literature by Findley and ve Cooper (1983) shows that locus of control influence learning. When association is found between locus of control and academic achievement, the association is found to be stronger in adolescents compared to adults or children.

A study on locus of control among Iranian students by Barzegar(2001) using the I-E locus of control Scale by Rotter indicates that locus of control was a factor predicting students’ academic performance. Knowles and Kerman (2007) found that students with internal locus of control tend to perform better in academic courses compared to those with external locus of control. Other studies (such as Biggs, 1997; Nejati, Abedi, Agbaci & Mohammadi, 2012) have reported a strong relationship between locus of control and academic achievements.

Anakwe (2003) examined the relationship between locus of control and secondary school students' academic
performance. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between academic performance and locus of control. Shepherd, Owen, Fitch and Marsall (2006) found that students with higher GPA group reported higher score in internal locus of control. Nejati, Abedi, Agbaci and Mohammadi (2012) investigated the relationship between locus of control and the academic performance of students by considering the role of life quality and satisfaction with life. The outcome of the study revealed that locus of control significantly correlated and the academic performance of the students. Dinçyürek, Güneyli, and Çağlar (2012) found no significant relationship between locus of control and academic students.

In this paper, academic self-efficacy and locus of control have been chosen due to different conclusions reached by studies in the literature which examined the relationship between academic self-efficacy, locus of control and academic performance. Some researchers found that academic self-efficacy and locus of control are positively related to academic success (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Cassidy & ve Eachus, 2000, Derin 2006; Adeyemo, 2007; Akomolafe 2010) whereas some others displayed that they had no impact on academic performance (Jeffreys, 1998; Reynolds & Weigand, 2010; Dinçyürek et al 2012). The aim of this study is to obtain a new result about this subject and compare it with the conclusions of previous studies. Base on the review of literature the following research questions were raised for the study

1. What is the combined contributions of academic self-efficacy and locus of control to the prediction of academic performance of secondary school students?
2. What is the relative contribution of academic self-efficacy and locus of control to the prediction of academic performance of secondary school students?

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Research Design: The study employed the use of exposit facto design. This was because independent variables (academic self-efficacy and locus of control) being investigated had already occurred. Thus, no manipulation of any sort of the variables by the researchers as could have been done for experimental studies.

3.2. Population: The population of this study comprised all secondary school students in Ondo State, Nigeria.

3.3. Sample and Sampling Techniques: The sample consisted of three hundred and sixty four students randomly selected from secondary schools. Stratified random sampling technique was used for the study.

3.4. Instruments: Two adopted instruments were used in the study.

3.4.1. Self-in-School Scale: The self-in-school scale by Downs (2005) was used to measure the levels of the students’ academic self-efficacy. The scale is a 15 item likert scale with options ranging from Completely false (1) to completely true (7). The items in the scale include “I have the ability to do well in my school work, I am doing a good job in my classes”. The scale has cronbach (α) of 0.91.

3.4.2. The Locus of Control of Behaviour Scale: The Locus of Control of Behaviour Scale constructed by Craig, Franklin and Andrews (1984) was used for the study. The scale is a 17-item scale measuring the locus of control of behaviour. It was constructed with reference to Internal and External Control of Reinforcement scale by Rotter (1966). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement with each item by ticking one of the four options-Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). For the purpose of minimising the possible effect of social desirability in responding, some items reversed in terms to internality and instructions emphasised no right or wrong answers. The seventeen (17) item test was scored in the externality direction. That SA=5, A = 4, D =1 and SD = 0. The seven items relating to internality (items 1, 5, 7, 8, 13, 15 and 16) were reversed such that SA = O, A=1, D= 4 and SD= 5 respectively.

According to Nunnally (1967), the coefficient alpha for the 17 items was .79. This demonstrated that the scale has high internal reliability. A test-retest reliability of the scale was determined by Salami (1999) using Nigerian students. Salami (1999) reports a reliability coefficient of .75. This correlated with Rotter's Internal and External Control of Reinforcement Scale (r = .67 for male and r = .67 for females). This shows that the instrument is suitable for Nigerian respondents. To further affirm the reliability coefficient value of the scale, the researcher with the assistance of coresearcher, obtained 0.83 coefficients using a test-retest method.
3.5. Data collection: The researchers administered the instruments with the aid of 3 research assistants who were postgraduate students in the University. The respondents were given enough time to express their honest feelings without any bias. The scales were retrieved from the respondents immediately after completion. Scores of students in English and Mathematics were collected from their school records. They were used as the measure of their academic performance.

3.6. Data analysis: Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the research questions. Academic self-efficacy and locus of control served as independent variables while academic performance served as the dependent variable

4. Results

Table 1: Inter-correlational matrix of Academic Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control and Academic Performance (N = 364)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Academic self-efficacy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Locus of Control</td>
<td>.31*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Academic performance</td>
<td>.36*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = P < 0.05 (Significant results)

Table 1 shows the relationships between academic performance and other variables in the study. The results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between academic performance and academic self-efficacy (r = .36, p < 0.05). The table also revealed that there was no significant positive relationship between academic performance and locus of control (r = .06, p > 0.05).

Table 2: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis between Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control and Academic Performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1831.92</td>
<td>1831.92</td>
<td>32.37</td>
<td>&lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>20433.59</td>
<td>56.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>24097.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the analysis of the combined effect of academic self-efficacy and locus of control on academic performance of secondary school students. The results of the analysis yielded a coefficient of Multiple Regression of 0.49 and Multiple Regression Square (Adjusted) of 0.36. This shows that academic self-efficacy and locus of control jointly predicted about 36% of the variation in the academic performance. In determining the level of significance between the criterion measures (academic self-efficacy and locus of control) and academic performance, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed and the f-calculated value was 32.36. This is significant at 0.05 level (F(2, 361) = 32.37; p < .05). Hence, academic self-efficacy and locus of control when pulled together significantly predicted academic performance of secondary school students.

Table 3: Relative Contributions of academic self-efficacy and Locus of Control to the Prediction of Academic Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>SEB</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Self-efficacy</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>7.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = P < 0.05 (Significant results)

The results obtained in Table 3 revealed that academic self-efficacy made a significant contribution to the prediction of academic performance of secondary school students (Beta = 0.41, t = 7.95; P < 0.05) while locus of control did not (Beta = -0.14, t = 1.33; P > 0.05).
5. Discussion of Findings

This study examined the contributions of academic self-efficacy and locus of control to the prediction of academic performance of secondary school students. The result of the first research question revealed that the two independent variables jointly and significantly predicted academic performance of the subjects. The magnitude of the effectiveness of the two independent variables was shown in the value of $R = 0.49$ and $R^2$ (adjusted) = 0.36. The result also showed that 36% of the variance in the academic performance of secondary school students was accounted for by the linear combination of the two variables. The result was indeed reinforced by the value of F-ratio ($F = 32.37, P < 0.05$).

The significant contribution of academic self-efficacy to the prediction of academic performance of secondary school students is in consonance with the outcome of many previous research works (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991; Schunk, 1994; Pajares, 1996; Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001; Greene, Miller, Crowson, Duke & Akey, 2004; Chandler, 2006; Gore, 2006; Zajacova, A., Lynch, S. M., & Espenshade, T. J., 2005; Adeyemo, 2007; Bembemitty, 2007; Campbell, 2007; Hsieh, Sullivan & Guerra, 2007; Kek, Darmawan & Chen, 2007; Klomegah, 2007; Akomolafe, 2010; Akomolafe, Ogunmakin & Fasooto, 2013). However, the current findings are inconsistent with the findings of Reynolds and Weigand (2010) and Jeffrey's (1998) who found no significant relationship between academic self-efficacy and academic performance. One possible reason for the inconsistency might have been the reliability of the instruments which Jeffrey's (1998) used in her research. Witt-Rose (2003) commented on the reliability measures of the academic variables in Jeffrey's study. The reliability coefficient reported was slightly below an acceptable limit and this might have affected the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement.

The motivational influences of self-efficacy via the process of organized goals (Bandura, 1997) which lay the foundation for self-regulation of efforts by providing a standard for judging the sufficiency and effectiveness of goal relevant efforts and strategy could be a possible reason for the outcome of this study. Thus, self-efficacy influences academic motivation and learning (Pajares, 1996). Its significant positive contribution to academic performance is not surprising.

Another possible reason is that self-efficacious students participate more readily, work harder, persist longer and have fewer adverse emotional reactions when they encounter difficulties than those who doubt their capabilities (Bandura, 1997). An individual with high sense of self-efficacy believes in his or her capability to carry out a task, invests effort in the activity, persist in the face of difficulty and has an optimistic outlook (Bandura, 1997 & Pajares, 1996). Even, Schunk (1994) noted that students with a high sense of self-efficacy believes study harder and persist longer when they approach difficulties, whereas students who have low self-efficacy beliefs perform worse at learning tasks and tend to avoid difficult tasks. Therefore, a significant and positive effect of academic self-efficacy on the academic performance is justifiable.

The insignificant relationship that was found between locus of control and academic performance is consistent with Dincyyure, Guney and Caglar (2012) who found no significant relationship between locus of control and academic achievement. The outcome of this study is not consistent with the findings of some previous studies (Bazegar, 2001; Knowles and Kerman, 2007, Anakwe, 2003). One possible reason for the outcome of this study was the instruments used. The instrument used in measuring locus of control was scored in external direction while the instruments used in precious studies were scored in internal direction.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the researchers conclude that academic self-efficacy is one of the major factors influencing academic performance of secondary school students in Nigeria. Academic self-efficacy is rooted in learning by observation and direct personal experience. Therefore, education programme of secondary schools should be restructured in such a way that much emphasis would be given to developing academic self-efficacy of students.

School administrators, counselling psychologists and parents should work hard to develop and enhance students' academic self-efficacy by providing all essential conditions and instruments for students' success in schools and learning environment that is conducive and rich in high quality course curricula and offering challenges that can be met.

In addition, teachers should establish and maintain supportive and appealing pedagogical environments and employ teaching and evaluation methodologies which are focused on students' educational needs and overall development.

Finally, counselling and educational psychologists should use appropriate psychological interventions to enhance academic self-efficacy of secondary school students.
References


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Integrating Websites in Second Language Teaching (SLT)

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the nature of websites and their practical integration in a specially conceived English class - a radically new approach in the context of Albanian teaching traditions. The comparative analysis between two classes based on a broad range of data on the relative merits of traditional and innovative teaching methods leads to the conclusion that websites serve as a catalyst in the process of acquiring the various language skills. They are particularly helpful in integrating these skills as organic parts of a solid linguistic competence and contextualizing them in the ever-broader framework of intercultural communication - a distinctive feature of contemporary global society. Notwithstanding the drawbacks and difficulties that attend the application of web-based methods in SLT, the resulting advantages are so great as to constitute a paradigmatic shift in teaching practice and a qualitative leap forward in the promotion of autonomous and content-based learning.

Keywords: integration, authentic, linguistic competence, intercultural competence.

1. Introduction – Websites and Their Role in SLT

The digital age carries with it a tremendous potential for helping foreign language students and teachers by supplying them with an inexhaustible fountain of knowledge and a rich variety of methods that can be utilized during the teaching-learning process. Since we have opted for depth rather than comprehensiveness in a study of prefixed length, our analysis has focused exclusively on websites as one of the most popular tools the internet has to offer in SLT. A further stimulus for writing about websites and their potential in facilitating the acquisition of foreign languages is the fact that, though they constitute an ideal first step in trying to integrate the internet technology in the teaching process, their employment in Albanian schools remains pretty much an exceptional practice.

Among the advantages attending the use of websites in SLT, firstly, we would recognize (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007) a fundamental characteristic that the technology required for working on the net is relatively simple and the risk of being let down by technical problems is very low when compared to other technology-based procedures like video-conferences, etc. Secondly, one can work with websites even in the absence of constant internet connection by saving copies of websites in the computer or printing them for future use. Web-pages can be used in class in the form of written materials; when there is only one computer in the classroom, they can be made visually accessible by the use of a projector or interactive smart board; ideally one can work with websites in a laboratory where computers are connected in a network. It is important that both teachers and students interpret the employment of internet tools in the foreign language classroom as an integral part of the teaching/learning process rather than an adventitious activity only extrinsically related to the study programme.

Internet sources related to language learning are very numerous and varied, though not all of them can be deemed sufficiently reliable to serve as an aid in the teaching of foreign languages. This is why the ability to critically assess the sites that can be used in SLT is of paramount importance for both teachers and students. A teacher’s ability in this context entails the capacity to find valuable sources in a short time and, later, to use the researched material according to a well-organised lesson plan. The students, for their part, should respond by fulfilling their tasks on the web, showing, thus, that Internet technology serves as a catalyst, not a hindrance to the teaching/learning process.

In order to come up with a valuable final product we need to guide our search for websites by following a number of selective criteria. Some of the criteria highlighted by the literature (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007) on the subject are:
Accuracy – this is related to the authority behind the website. Is the author an expert of the subject or not? (The author’s qualifications and professional experience need to be checked up to ascertain his expertise.) Are the contents of the “page” factually accurate and reliable? (Cross-references to other authoritative websites and/or encyclopaedias are needed to find this out.)

Currency – how up-to-date the information in the website is.

Content – is the site attractive, stimulating and easily accessible? The answers to this question need to take into account the students’ own perspective.

Functionality – does the site run smoothly or is its exploration hampered by technical problems? The sound quality and the time it takes to download materials should also be checked for assessment (a short video that requires twenty minutes to download would be useless for the limited time-span of a single class).

Thus, the best way to approach the conduct of a web-based foreign language class is by careful planning and due consideration of all relevant factors and eventualities.

2. Structural Description of a Web-Based and a Traditional Foreign Language Class

In order to compare the role of websites with that of traditional teaching tools (texts, tape recorders, etc) in a foreign language class we planned and conducted an English class on Text Analysis with the first year students of English in the University of Korca. 24 students, chosen to represent the typical foreign language class, were divided into two equal groups of 12.¹ The students of group A worked primarily on websites and the worksheets created for the occasion. Those of group B followed the traditional procedure of listening to a tape recorder guided by the instructions given in the text. The basic objectives of this English class are:

• To develop the students’ listening skills by exposing them to a discussion on the topic of fame and artistic careers.
• To expand and consolidate their vocabulary on the topic of art and entertainment.
• To aid the parallel development of the students’ speaking, writing skills while expanding their cultural horizon about the target topic.
• To consolidate:
  - interviewing techniques and communicative skills involved in social interaction
  - the various structures of asking questions and giving answers in English
  - the various ways of reacting and responding to new information.

Tools for the web-based class: computers linked to the internet (1 computer for two students), blackboard, worksheets.

Tools for the traditional class: text, tape recorder, blackboard.

Time: 70 minutes

2.1 Teaching through websites – model analysis²

Topic: The Price of Fame – An Interview with a Film Star

Evocation (10 minutes): The topic is presented by asking students to express their opinions on their favourite movie stars and their famous roles. A relatively simple class discussion is sufficient for this stage; meanwhile the students are motivated to extend their thoughts on related facts and ideas like favourite films, latest productions, general tastes, etc. The main objective of this stage, besides serving to motivate the students for the foreign language class, is to evoke the use of structures commonly employed when asking questions in English and of such words and phrases that fall under the cultural concept of “fame” and “artistic career”. The brainstormed words, phrases and structures (talent acting, publicly adored, producer, addicted to fame, press conference, a high public profile, celebrities, privacy invasion, to remain in the public eye, romance, thriller, screen, scene, plot, director, ending, audition) are put down on the blackboard.

Work on the web (35 minutes): The students are asked to visit the website where interviews with famous actors can be downloaded. In pairs they listen to a favourite actor of their own choice (there is a wide range of choices for the students). None of the interviews can be transcribed in captions.

¹The students were divided in such a way as to balance the two groups in their representation of the different academic levels.
²The listening materials that were used for the web-based class can be found in the following site http://bbc.co.uk/radio4/collections/film-interviews
The students should keep notes of the key issues discussed in the interviews. They should also concentrate on the organisational structure of the interview – the beginning of the interaction and the way it proceeds till the end. The requirements for these tasks are pointed out in detail in worksheets which are handed out to the students.

Post-listening activities (25 minutes): As the interview ends, all the students fill out their worksheets. Each student is given the opportunity to report on the contents of his/her interview. They highlight the new information they learned and talk on what they would like to have found in the interview that wasn’t there. The key words and expressions of the interview are added to the concept tree on the blackboard (starring, image, Oscar Nomination, rehearsal, a volcanic role, a breakthrough, compromise, a hero...) resulting in an interrelated network of words and structures belonging to the beginning, the middle section and the ending of the interview.

Developing the skills needed to engage in a topical conversation with a native speaker of English requires time and effort. As a means to facilitate this process the students are asked to focus on the key structures used by the two interlocutors to build up the interview. The structures are written down on the blackboard and analysed with the whole class. Finally we proceed with the “follow up” stage, whereby the students in pairs improvise an interview which is then acted out. The aim is to use the students’ feedback as a means of enhancing their speaking and writing skills.

2.2 Teaching in the traditional way – model analysis

Topic: The Price of Fame – An Interview with a psychologist and a rock star manager

Evocation (10 minutes): Both the form and the contents of this stage are almost identical for the two classes. The only difference concerns the use of the textbook in the traditional class instead of the worksheets prepared by the teacher for the web-based class. The text (Acklam & Burgess, 2000) contains a number of questions which are related to some photos of famous actors. The students discuss the questions and the photos. Simultaneously the teacher uses the blackboard to write down the key words and structures that come up from the students’ free discussion.

As an introduction (pre-listening task) to the interview of a rock star manager and a psychologist on the topic of fame the students are given guidelines on the notes they should take when they listen to the interview. They are also referred to a set of statements on the contents of the interview which they are going to mark as right or wrong after the listening task.

Listening task (30 minutes): All the students of the class listen to the same material under the teacher’s guidance. The tape is played twice over to help the students catch what they missed in their first listening attempt. They keep notes, which later, in pairs, they use to formulate their answers.

Post-listening tasks (30 minutes)
  a. The students discuss about the issues raised in the interview
  b. The answers to the exercise from the text (statements that have to be marked as True or False) are examined in order to assess the degree of comprehension that has been attained by the students.
  c. The students discuss on the language structures used in the introduction, the main body and the conclusion to the interview. These structures are noted down on the blackboard.
  d. The students discuss on the key words (the vocabulary related to the topic of fame and artistic careers) of the interview, which are written down on the blackboard as an expansion of the concept tree that was first sketched out during the evocation.

Follow up: The students are asked to work in pairs in order to create their own interviews with famous persons. The interviews are then acted out in the classroom.

3. A comparative Analysis of the Web-Based and the Traditional Class

After the end of both classes a comprehensive analysis was carried out in order to assess the degree of success that was attained in the accomplishment of the objectives. More importantly, the analysis tries to account for the different factors that explain the respective advantages and drawbacks of the two classes. The facts and arguments that follow are organised in several lines of inquiry according to the different objectives that were set for the teaching class. The material used for the analysis comes from the extensive notes that I kept on all aspects of the two classes, from an evaluation of the students’ written work and from the opinions they themselves gave when asked about the two classes.

Objective 1: Enhancing listening skills in the context of an interview on the career of a film star

The level of attainment for this major objective turns out to be higher for the web-based class. This conclusion is borne out by several indicators which show the difference in the students’ feedback during the post-listening tasks. Thus,
the greater comprehensiveness of the summaries (spoken and written) made by the students of the web-based class, the higher frequency with which they made use of the key structures and vocabulary of the material and the more active participation in the post-listening discussions all attest a more successful approach in attaining our objective.

The question that these results inescapably raise is: which are the factors that explain the advantages of using websites over more traditional teaching tools in fostering the students’ listening skills? To find an answer to this query we need to pay attention to the way that students relate themselves to the new information when its source is a website. As our two classes show web-based activities contain the possibility of choice which is absent from more traditional procedures (in the web-based class every pair of students could choose its own interview; in the traditional class all the students had to listen to one and the same recorded interview). The initial act of choice is very important for the success of the listening class because by “personalizing” the interview the students feel more motivated for attentive listening and, consequently, better prepared to carry out the rest of their tasks. In fact, after the classes had ended the students were asked about their level of motivation. Their answers were in full accord with the above statements – on a scale from 1 to 4, where 1 signifies the lowest and 4 the highest level of motivation, the mean choice for the students of the web-based class was 3, for the students of the traditional class it was 2.3.

Secondly, the website provided students with authentic rather than imaginary conversations serving a didactic purpose as was the case with the material recorded in the audiotape. As the students themselves confirmed the authenticity of the communication, by stimulating their interest on the contents of the interviews served also the function of increasing their concentration on the language structures that the interlocutors used.

Thirdly, the students who listened to the interviews from the website reported that they felt in charge of the process, since every pair of students had chosen its own interview which they could speed up or replay as they saw fit without the mediation of the teacher. Furthermore, the students’ motivation and level of comprehension were markedly increased because of their cooperation in groups of two, whereby the students mutually stimulate and help each other in fulfilling the assigned tasks. The above reasons explain the difference in the degree of actual comprehension, for listening texts of the same level of difficulty, exhibited by students of the two classes: on a scale from 1 to 4, where 1 indicates the lowest and 4 the highest level of comprehensibility, the students of the web-based class chose 3 on the average, while those of the traditional class chose 2.

In the traditional class the students have no choice but to follow the teacher’s handling of the tape recorder, who, on his part, has to treat the whole class as a homogenous unit without being able to respond to the needs of individual students for replaying the material, pausing to keep notes, etc. When asked whether they would prefer to manage the listening material themselves by having a free hand in using the website or to follow the teacher’s management, 75% of the students chose the first option as the one that guarantees a high level of autonomy, while 25% chose the second, arguing that they would rather rely on the teacher’s experience than risk failing to operate the website properly. Thus, it has to be pointed out that from a technical point of view the great majority of students have no difficulty in using websites as a basis for their listening tasks.

Many students of the traditional class complained about the noise in the classroom and the clarity of sound issuing from the tape recorder. Such hindrances to the successful understanding of the listening text were absent from the web-based class. Our experience has shown, however, that despite the disadvantages mentioned above, the traditional tools used in listening classes carry an important advantage over their net-based counterparts in that the listening materials associated with them, being specially prepared to serve the teaching process, are better suited to the students’ level of English than the authentic listening materials found in websites. For this reason the teacher in the web-based class carries a high responsibility for addressing the students to the right sort of materials among the infinite variety of the web.

Objectives 2-3: Expanding the vocabulary related to the topic of artistic careers and making use of the structures and techniques involved in organising an interview, asking different types of questions and responding to new information.

The great variety of materials that a web-based listening class presents to the students makes it particularly successful in attaining the objective of increasing the corpus of their knowledge on the vocabulary and structures related to the topic under consideration. In our web-based class the students listened to six different interviews, each of which contained different special structures and made use of various techniques which the students were directed to concentrate upon (23 lexical units and 20 special structures used in the various stages of the interviews for the web-based class, as compared to 9 key lexical units and 7 such structures for the traditional class).
Furthermore, not only does the web-based class present the students with a broader range of linguistic information, but due to its special reliance on each student’s personal involvement in the teaching process, it also facilitates the assimilation of the information by all the students in the class (each student has a more personal grasp on the new words and structures that he has himself explored than in the case with the more passive attitude conditioned by more traditional tools like the tape recorder). The results of the follow up stage served to confirm the above analysis. In particular, the students of the web-based class did better in their writing tasks (the interviews composed by the students), as evidenced by the richer vocabulary and the greater accuracy in the employment of special structures learned from the interviews. Table 1 presents the results of this comparison between the two classes in quantitative terms:

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language use for each student</th>
<th>Web-based class</th>
<th>Traditional class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of key lexical units used</td>
<td>8-12</td>
<td>5-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of special structures used</td>
<td>8-11</td>
<td>5-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of mistakes in the use of key lexical items</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean number of mistakes in the use of special structures</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures in the table indicate quite clearly that, compared to the traditional class, the students in a web-based listening class are able to assimilate a richer corpus of special words and structures with an increased accuracy of usage (the number of mistakes is proportionally lower for the web-based class).

Objective 4: Fostering the development and integration of speaking and writing skills.

Even though our web-based class was mainly focused on listening activities, it proved very successful in promoting the other language skills (speaking and writing). As already mentioned, the use of websites stimulates the active participation of every student in the class. It is this heightened sense of interest and responsibility that explains the better quality of spoken and written English resulting from the accomplishment of post-listening tasks in the web-based class.

The promotion of learner’s autonomy which results when every pair of students listens to the interview of their choice makes for a broader scope in the acquisition of key special words and structures. More specifically the advantages of the web-based class in helping the development of speaking and writing skills could be described as follows.

First, almost all the students of the web-based class were given the opportunity to report (verbally) on some of the information they had listened to. Since every pair of students had chosen its own material the amount of repetition was inconsiderable. In the traditional class all the students had to listen to the same recorded interview, which means that it took only 2 or 3 reports to fully cover the whole range of the material. Needless to say, the greater number of spoken reports in the web-based class can also be described as greater opportunities for the students to improve on their speaking skills. The higher level of participation in the post-listening tasks for the students of the web-based class is also shown by the fact that all of them (100%) took an active part in creating their own interviews. This was not the case with the students of the traditional class: only 9 of them (75%) were active in creating interviews, the remaining three simply did not make any contribution.

Second, the reports of the students of the web-based class, which were based on a more student-centred approach to the listening process, were both lexically richer and grammatically more correct in their use of special words and structures. The same can be said regarding the interviews created by the students in the post-listening stage of the class. Besides making use of a greater number of special newly learned structures, the students of the web-based class made, on average, only 1 mistake for every 4-5 structures; the respective results for the students of the traditional class were 1 mistake for every 3-4 structures. 4

Third, the notes kept by the students during the listening task were more extensive and better organised for the participants in the web-based class. Even the number of students that managed to keep notes was not the same: in the web-based class all the 12 students kept notes (100%); in the traditional class only 9 did (75%).

4 The small difference in the absolute number of mistakes made by the students of the two classes is explained by the fact that the students of the traditional class were exposed to fewer new grammatical and stylistic structures than the students of the web-based class.
Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Web-based class</th>
<th>Traditional class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High quality notes 3</td>
<td>High quality notes 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium quality notes 6</td>
<td>Medium quality notes 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low quality notes 3</td>
<td>Low quality notes 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No notes at all 0</td>
<td>No notes at all 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a commentary on the above table we should point out that it is the students of a relatively low level whose performance is more influenced by the different procedures employed in the two classes. The good students are better prepared to overcome the disadvantages and drawbacks associated with particular tools and instruments.

Similarly, all the students of the web-based class took part in creating their own interviews and acting them out in pairs during the post-listening stage. In the traditional class only 9 students (75%) were able to accomplish this task (irrespective of the quality of the product), the remaining 3 simply did not get involved in the process. What these facts indicate is that web-based activities, helpful as they are for foreign language students of all academic levels, prove to be a particularly effective stimulus in promoting the language skills of students traditionally regarded as passive and aloof.

All the above facts and arguments point toward the conclusion that not only do web-based activities stimulate the progressive development of each of the basic language skills, but that they do this by integrating the various skills together in order to achieve a unified and well-rounded language product.

Objective 5: Developing students’ intercultural competence in the field of art and artistic careers.

The intercultural dimension of the teaching of foreign languages has been acquiring increasing prominence for some time now. Shu – Mei Hung (2007) has emphasized that the rapid globalization and digitalization of our societies have gradually made changes to our educational methods and goals. In terms of culture instruction, the traditional method of transmitting static target-culture knowledge to learners has been questioned and an intercultural approach is emerging, which depicts culture as a dynamic, multiple and ongoing process and emphasizes the need to equip foreign language learners with the critical attitude and proper skills to cope with the limitless possibilities they can encounter in the culturally and linguistically diversified modern society.

The well-planned integration of web-based activities into our foreign language classes could serve as a major stimulus in the development of the students’ intercultural competence. The advantages they bring in the attainment of this objective can be analysed, yet again, by a comparative analysis between our two classes.

The authenticity of the interviews downloaded from the website, the reality of the characters and the sense of immediacy created by the students’ own management of the listening process increased their interest in and concentration on the source material. As they reported later, the students came out of the classroom with an enlivened curiosity for some of the cultural issues touched upon in the interviews. They were very eager to give their impressions on the interviews. As one of the students put it, they “had not only listened but lived through an emotional and intellectual experience.” 8 of the students expressed the wish to pursue the open-ended discussions of the interviews through further exploration in other web-based classes.

What interested the students beyond the mere recounting of concrete facts and basic information was the general socio-cultural context that made itself felt in the whole tenor of the argument, the system of values which they could identify in the narratives of the stars’ successful careers. Self-reliance, the determination to follow one’s vocation regardless of difficulties, hard work, the spirit of competition, respect for the individual’s worth and sense of dignity, are some of the values, commonly associated with the culture of English-speaking peoples, that the students found reflected in the interviews. In addition to expanding the students’ factual knowledge, the sheer variety of experiences related in the interviews, readily accessible on the web at any time and place, should make the students think and reflect on the diversity of cultural traditions, life styles and modes of thought in a pluricultural modern global society.

Compared to the interviews used in the web-based class the recorded material from the traditional class, though well-adapted to serve the purposes of intercultural communication, was found less culturally exciting (the students’ comments on the recorded material exhibited a lower degree of aroused interest and personal commitment).

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

The comparative analysis between the web-based and the traditional class showed that the integrated use of web-sites brings several advantages to the teaching of foreign languages. First, it makes for a faster and more effective development of listening skills by increasing the students’ motivation and sense of active participation through the rich
diversity of choice and the authenticity of the source materials. Second, it opens up a wide domain for the successful assimilation of special words and grammatical structures. The greater availability of information, the closer intimacy of contact with the original sources and the higher level of active involvement in the whole process have a catalytic effect on the students' learning abilities. Third, the use of web-sites as a tool for teaching foreign languages enhances the development of speaking and writing skills for essentially the same reason of stimulating an increased sense of participation and cooperation. Fourth, websites open up a wide horizon for students of foreign languages, aiding in their cultivation as broad-minded citizens of the world with the intercultural competence to feel themselves decent members of a global community of peoples.

A very important related issue that has to be addressed in this context is that of the role of teachers in the two different types of classes and of their perceptions on the two alternative methodologies. The question of the cost of employing internet tools or traditional ones, on both teachers and students, is likewise both very relevant and important in our context.

As our experience indicates the type of reaction teachers make to the challenge of integrating the tools of the internet in their foreign language classes varies in accordance with some key factors. It is almost self-evident that a teacher's self-confidence is dependent on his/her degree of familiarity with the teaching context (students, methods, tools, materials, etc). Thus it is no surprise that many teachers feel more at home in a traditional class, especially when not only the technical handling of the new tools, but the contents of the materials themselves (in our case the different interviews the students can choose from the website) contain an element of novelty that is absent from the familiar procedures of the traditional class.

In addition, the time-consuming preparations that a well-planned web-based class requires (a suitable website, thinking out tasks on materials that, in themselves, are not intended for teaching purposes or creating worksheets in the absence of the text) might prove to feel too much of a burden for teachers already working hard to fulfil their regular duties.

On the other hand a teacher’s confidence is boosted when the feedback he receives from his students is evidence of a high level of motivation and a quick pace of assimilation on their part. As we argued at some length in our analysis of the web-based class, this is precisely what happens in a well-integrated web-based approach to the teaching of foreign languages. Moreover, the teacher by relying on the students’ own technical operations assumes a very convenient vantage point from which he can better supervise the work of each student.

Said the above, conducting a successful net-based foreign language class, even one based on a relatively easy-to-use tool like a website, remains a challenge not to be taken lightly. Several caveats should be called into attention, some of which have a particular relevance for Albanian teachers. We need only mention the frequency of technical problems that attend the use of the internet in Albanian schools and the relatively low level of electronic competence often found among Albanian teachers and students to emphasise the necessity for long-term plans and strategies that should be thought out and implemented by visionary master planners in order to smooth the way for individual teachers in their efforts to adapt themselves to a new educational paradigm.

References


Database Marketing Use as a Tool of Knowledge Management within Firms in Albania

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Abstract

Today knowledge is considered as the heart of business. The first step of gaining knowledge is gathering data from internal and external sources. Then these data are classified and processed to turn into information. And information is then transformed into knowledge upon which organizational strategies, decisions and actions are built. In the changing conditions of marketing today, marketers see it essential to know their customer base and plan and make marketing strategies and actions based upon this knowledge. This is called database marketing. Customer data are transformed into customer information kept in a marketing database. The aim of this paper is to investigate the application of database marketing as a tool of knowledge management within firms in Albania.

Keywords: database marketing, knowledge management, data, information.

1. Research Methodology

This paper is based on primary and secondary data. Primary data are results of a survey research about database marketing use as a tool for knowledge management by large and medium firms in the service sector in Albania. Secondary data are results of literature review and other studies in this field. The study consisted in face-to-face interviews with top management within 34 large and medium firms that operate in Albania. 17 firms were from services sector and 17 firms were from manufacturing sector. Simple random technique was used for sampling so that every firm on the list (Tirana and Vlora list) had equal probability of selection. Questionnaire method was used as survey instrument. The survey was carried out as an enterprise survey, that is data collection and reporting was focused on the enterprise rather than to the establishment. Questionnaire was directed to top management of the companies to get a more realistic view. Reason for selecting top management was that one of the aims of the study was to predict the future of database marketing use as a tool for knowledge management in Albanian’s firms. Top management is the only appropriate option to get response on that because they are the ones who know where to take the company in future, what to implement and what not.

The set of database marketing and IT indicators for which data were collected in this survey was organized in the following modules:

- Background information (basic company data, data collection)
- Acquaintance with IT
- The kind and source of customer information they collect
- Their database marketing process

2. Knowledge and knowledge management

2.1 Knowledge

Following Davenport and Prusak (2000): "Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experiences, values, contextual information and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information."
Knowledge originates and is applied in the mind of individuals, whereas in organizations it can be embedded in routines, processes, practices, and norms (Davenport and Prusak 2000). It actively enables performance, problem-solving, decision-making, learning and teaching by integrating ideas, experience, intuition, and skills, to create value for employees, the organization, its customers, and shareholders (Liebowitz 2000; Probst et al. 2000). Commonly agreed, knowledge can be split into two types: explicit and tacit (Polanyi 1997 and Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995). Tacit knowledge is held by experts, having topic specific as well as cognitive skills that contain patterns of thought or notions, beliefs, institution and mental models. Explicit knowledge can be articulated in an artifact of some type outside a human being and be transferred e.g. to non-experts. Explicit knowledge is rational and includes theoretical approaches, problem solving, manuals, and databases. The transfer of knowledge from tacit to explicit or explicit to tacit can be viewed as a continuous learning process becoming the so-called knowledge spiral (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995; Senge 1990). It enables building and conveying knowledge in need of good "Knowledge Management" to enhance the process, finally leveraging corporate performance.

In the information technology context, knowledge is very distinct from data and information (see Figure 1). Whereas data are a collection of facts, measurements, and statistics, information is organized or processed data that are timely (i.e., inferences from the data are drawn within the time frame of applicability) and accurate (i.e., with regard to the original data) (Holsapple, 2003). Knowledge is information that is contextual, relevant, and actionable.

Figure 1. Data, information and knowledge

2.2 Knowledge management

The term “knowledge management” seems to have arisen in the mid-70s. Nicholas Henry (1974) uses ‘knowledge management’ in a manner that resembles our current understanding of the expression. Defined broadly, “KM is the process through which organizations extract value from their intellectual assets” (Kaplan, 2002). By adopting this belief of KM, the following definition of KM is suitable. "Knowledge Management caters to the critical issues of organizational adaptation, survival and competence in face of increasingly discontinuous environmental change. Essentially, it embodies organizational processes that seek synergistic combination of data and information processing capacity of information technologies and the creative and innovative capacity of human beings” (Malhotra, 1997).

Knowledge management is a process that helps organizations identify, select, organize, disseminate, and transfer important information and expertise that are part of the organization’s memory and that typically reside within the organization in an unstructured manner. This structuring of knowledge enables effective and efficient problem solving, dynamic learning, strategic, planning, and decision making. Knowledge management initiatives focus on identifying knowledge, explicating it in such a way that it can be shared in a formal manner, and leveraging its value through reuse. Through a supportive organizational climate and modern information technology, an organization can bring its entire organizational memory and knowledge to bear upon any problem anywhere in the world and at any time. For organizational success, knowledge, as a form of capital, must be exchangeable among persons, and it must be able to grow. Knowledge about how problems are solved can be captured, so that knowledge management can promote organizational learning, leading to further knowledge creation.

3. Knowledge Discovery in Databases

Knowledge discovery in database (KDD) is commonly defined as “the nontrivial process of identifying valid, novel, potentially useful and ultimately understandable patterns in data” (Fayyad et al., 1996). The term “data” is understood as a set of facts or atomic pieces of information (e.g. cases in a database) while “knowledge” stands for a higher-level concept that relates to the properties of the collection of data as a whole (e.g. dependencies among sets of attributes in a database and rules for predicting attribute values). KDD has succeeded very well in marketing field with special focus on direct marketing activities (Buckinx and den Poel, 2005, Buckinx et al., 2007, den Poel and Buckinx, 2005). Indeed, this marketing research area has become an important application field for Database Marketing (e.g., companies or
organizations try to establish and maintain a direct relationship with their customers in order to target them individually for specific product offers or fund raising, throughout marketing databases exploration). According to the literature, KDD has two main goals which are oriented by users’ intentions (Han and Kamber, 2001) (Kuo et al., 2007a):

- **Prediction**: using available data to predict unknown or future values giving some variables. The main goal of the prescriptive process effort is to automate a decision making process by creating a model capable of making a prediction, assigning a label, or estimating a value. Normally, the model results will be acted upon directly, which makes accuracy the most important measure of performance when evaluating this type of models;

- **Description**: The primary goal of descriptive data mining is to gain increased understanding of the data in order to find some interesting patterns and presenting it to the user in an easily understood way. Although it often results in actions, these are not the sort of actions that can be automated directly from the results of the model. Besides that, the best model may not be the one that makes the most accurate predictions. Often the insight gained through building the model is the most important part of the process, and the actual results from the model may never be used at all. As main distinction between prediction and description is who interprets the discovered knowledge – the system (in case of prediction) or the user (in case of description) (Fayyad et al., 1996, Piatetsky-Shapiro, 2007, Piatetsky-Shapiro, 1991). However, the Background and Related Work boundary between these two goals is not distinct since some predictive models can be used for description and vice versa (Piatetsky-Shapiro, 1991). KDD has connections with many research fields, such as statistics, database theory and artificial intelligence techniques. Therefore, research themes in KDD are scattered across a range of topics including (Ankerst et al., 2003) (Piatetsky-Shapiro, 2007): data representation, large databases, model pruning and simplification, visualization and quality assessment. Other areas in KDD may include decomposition of the process, development of discretization methods, other pre-processing techniques (in order to ensure data quality) or development of parallel steps in the KDD process, among others.

4. **Database Marketing**

DBM refers to the use of database technology for supporting marketing activities (Leary et al., 2004) (Wehmeyer, 2005) (Pinto et al., 2009). Therefore, it is a marketing process driven by information (Coviello et al., 2001) (Brookes et al., 2004) (Coviello et al., 2006) and managed by database technology (Carson et al., 2004) (Drozdenko and Perry, 2002). It allows marketing professionals to develop and to implement better marketing programs and strategies (Shepard, 1998) (Ozimek, 2004).

There are different definitions of DBM with distinct perspectives or approaches denoting some evolution an evolution along the concepts (Zwick and Dholakia, 2004). From the marketing perspective, DBM is an interactive approach to marketing communication. It uses addressable communications media (Drozdenko and Perry, 2002) (Shepard, 1998), or a strategy that is based on the premise that not all customers or prospects are alike. By gathering, maintaining and analyzing detailed information about customers or prospects, marketers can modify their marketing strategies accordingly (Tao and Yeh, 2003). Then, some statistical approaches were introduced and DBM was presented as the application of statistical analysis and modeling techniques to computerized individual level data sets (Sen and Tuzhilin, 1998)(Rebelo et al., 2006) focusing some type of data. Here, DBM simply involves the collection of information about past, current and potential customers to build a database to improve the marketing effort (Brito and Hammond, 2007). The information includes: demographic profiles; consumer likes and dislikes; taste; purchase behavior and lifestyle (Seller and Gray, 1999) (Pearce et al., 2002).

As information technologies improved their capabilities such as processing speed, archiving space or, data flow in organizations that have grown exponentially similar approaches to DBM have been suggested: generally, it is the art of using data you’ve already gathered to generate new money-making ideas (Gronroos, 1994) (Pearce et al., 2002); stores this response and adds other customer information (lifestyles, transaction history, etc.) on an electronic database memory and uses it as basis for longer term customer loyalty programs, to facilitate future contacts, and to enable planning of all marketing. (Fletcher et al., 1996) (Kurtulus and Kurtulus, 2006)(Frankland, 2007); or, DBM can be defined as gathering, saving and using the maximum amount of useful knowledge about your customers and prospects...to their benefit and organizations’ profit. (McClymont and Jocumsen, 2003) (Pearce et al., 2002). Lately some authors has referred DBM as a tool database-driven marketing tool which is increasingly taking centre stage in organizations strategies (Payne and Frow, 2005)(Pinto, 2006)(Lin and Hong, 2008). In common all definition share a main idea: DBM is
a process that uses data stored in marketing databases in order to extract relevant information to support marketing
decision and activities through customer knowledge, which will allow satisfy their needs and anticipate their desires.

During the DBM process it is possible to consider three phases (De Tienne and Thompson, 1996) (Shepard, 1998)
(Drozdenko and Perry, 2002): data collection, data processing (modeling) and results evaluation.

The first, Marketing data, consists in data collection phase, which will conduct to marketing database creation with
as much customer information as possible (e.g., behavioral, psychographic or demographic information) and related
market data (e.g., share of market or competitors information’s).

During the next phase, information, the marketing database is analyzed under a marketing information perspective
throughout activities such as, information organization (e.g., according organization structure, or campaign or product
relative); information codification (e.g., techniques that associates information to a subject) or data summarization (e.g.,
cross data tabulations).

The DBM development process concludes with marketing knowledge, which is the marketer interpretation of
marketing information in actionable form. In this phase there has to be relevant information to support marketing activities
decision.

5. Database Marketing as a Tool for Knowledge Management Use within Firms in Albania.

Based on the analysis of the data collected from the survey conducted to the 34 large and medium firms (17 in the
production sector and 17 in the service sector) in Albania, the following summary of the most importance findings were
explored.

5.1 Firms’ acquaintance with IT results

Both the two group of firms told that they use IT. They all had computer which are consider as a main component of IT
tool. However there is a difference among the companies in terms of the quantity (numbers) of personal computers (PC-
s). that number depends on many factors, for example, company size in terms of employ's number and the company's
need and work nature. Further more, there is a difference between the companies in terms of advanced software level
and the extend of how to utilize them. According to the research results, in general the amount of money that is spent in
training programs, motivation and wages has grown the last three years. Only 3% of them use IT for micro office, such as
word processing, the other part use advanced IT tools for design, quality control, data base system, and so on. They all
answered that they looked positively to information and information technology and they all collected customer
information.

5.2 The kind and source of customer information they collect

The firms of both groups were asked about the type of customer information they collected. They all mentioned the
following information: name and surname, address, telephone number, gender and age, educational level of their
customers. Due to the specific nature of the product they offer, some of them collected a more specific information like:
the period that customers stayed in the same address, marital status information about their customers, number of
people lived with, number of houses owned, geo-demographic information, credit information of their customers, about
communication channels preferred, frequency and monetary value of transactions made in the company from the billing
department, reasons of shopping, shopping and buying habits of their customers, customer expectations of products,
satisfaction from products bought from store.

About the source of customer information they mention the following: eight of them used face to face interaction
with customers, twelve used book complaints, twenty used credit card applications, customer cards at the counters,
seven used questionnaires filled and knowledge and observation of salespeople. Four of them used online
questionnaires. Nine used e-mails as sources of information. Frequency of Internet site visits and time spent there were
also used as sources of information. Only five of them used information from third party sources.

5.3 Their database marketing usage

The firms of both group were asked whether they had a marketing database. The concept of marketing database was
explained as collecting customer information on a database where everyone in the company can reach with the help of a
The firms were asked how frequently they conducted database marketing and the reason for doing so. Database marketing was defined as keeping information about actual and potential customers on a marketing database by using today’s computer technology, and then having marketing applications based on analysis of these information. Only 23% of the firms involved in the research answered that they did not use database marketing. 78% of the firms were answered that they frequently had database marketing applications. They all agreed that it was hard to conduct database marketing in the full sense because of inadequacy of infrastructure and lack of personnel with adequate knowledge. The firms were asked what they thought database marketing applications would add to their activity. They were to choose among alternative ideas. All of them believed that database marketing would increase their sales, induce customer loyalty, and help find new customers and be more competitive in the market.

6. Concluding remarks and suggestions

Knowledge is seen as a driver for the definition and development of an organizational strategy and a key determinant of sustainable organizational competitiveness. The shift to knowledge as the primary source of value means that knowledge plays a key role in the organizational effectiveness. Database marketing, where everything is built upon customer knowledge, is one important tool of knowledge management.

The aim of this paper was to investigate the application of database marketing as a tool of knowledge management within firms in Albania.

The results shows that not all the firms use database marketing. This mean that they cannot be in able to transform customer information to into customer knowledge to build strategies and act upon. Within the knowledge – based economy, firms in Albania are facing both opportunities and challenges due to the information and telecommunication technologies development. They should intensify their efforts of promoting the use of database marketing. By integrating IT in their day-to-day activities they will be in able to benefit from opportunities that knowledge based economy offers avoiding the risk of been eliminated from the market due to the competition.

References


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E-legislative and Accountability: The Case of Brazil

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Abstract

This article broaches the subject of Electronic Government, with a focus on its use in the 27 state legislatures of Brazil, concerning its use as a tool for public transparency. We sought to measure the level of transparency in the web addresses of these state legislatures. The measurement of the degree of transparency of the legislative web pages was carried out through the application of an electronic transparency measuring method, duly adapted, which are used by the non-governmental organization, Legislative Monitor, to monitor the websites of the legislature in Mexico based on the determinations of Complementary Law 131/2009 and Law 12.527/2011. The model took into consideration the availability of information on: administrative function; internal control; legislative work; work of the committees; concessions, permissions and contracts; historical archive and librarians services; external controls; e communication channels with the citizens. From this measurement a general ranking transparency was presented, demonstrating that 55.5% of the state legislative websites present insufficiency and low levels of transparency. Finally, the results of the research were correlated to other variables, with the intention of verifying if there were any degree of correlation between the variables analyzed and electronic transparency.

Keywords: transparency - e-gov - e-legislature - accountability

1. Introduction

The use of new technological resources allowed society to have new forms of Information and Communication Technology (TIC) use, the government sector being one of the greatest inducers of strategic actions leading to an information society. The importance of the TIC in the modern organizations has created, especially in the last few decades, inestimable differential in the methods, processes, and in the structural-administrative concept itself of the same. Besides the initial benefits, being economy of time, resources and raw material. The TIC also represented innumerable qualitative gains in the productive activity and the rendering of services. Such technologies became, despite a certain delay, a part of public organizations’ set of administrative tools. However, the rigid bureaucratic parameters, where the rational-legal perception rules, and, sometimes, substitutes the attempts towards a more innovative strategical reasoning, had conferred upon the technological advances in the scope of public administration quite a slow rhythm in compared to private organizations. Centralization, maintenance of the statuses quo, formalism and innumerable other bureaucratic disfunções in the public machine, were belatedly perceived as incongruous to the elementary advances that
can be fostered in the governmental structures with the use of TIC. However, based on the technological advance and the rise of the Internet, that broadened the possibility of sharing of data and information and, above all, made possible and facilitated the systems integration process in a more homogeneous environment, TIC, increasingly leaves behind being merely an support instrument for bureaucratic activities, also being used as strategical tool of the public organizations, becoming a powerful ally in the implementation of governmental actions.

Thus, the Internet becomes an affable communication channel governments use as a strategy to improve the public rendering of services and to invest heavily in this instrument that can greatly facilitate the easy and equitable access to various services and governmental actions. Thenceforward, a more democratic environment can be conceived, where everyone can have access to any type of information at any time. In the State vs. Society relationship, the Internet presents itself as a very favorable channel to establish a strong trust-based relationship between the citizens and the State.

On the other hand, today the population also has been demanding greater transparency on the part of the governments and seeking ever increasing information, especially on the use of public resources. Consequently, the Internet constitutes a strategic tool where the proper citizen himself can accompany the activities of the State, therefore “the right to access information generated or withheld by the public sector became one of the cornerstones in the effort to extend the transparency of the State and to make the detainers of public offices more responsible ”, (ABRAMO apud KONDO [et al.] 2002, P. 203).

Thus we highlight the role of the Legislative Branch in this context, as a legislator, controller and inspector of the Executive branch’s actions. The Legislature currently makes use of the modern TIC tools and needs to use it to follow the governmental acts, supplying the citizen with the necessary information on the management of the public goods and treasure. To that end, this information must, at the least, be made available on the Legislative website, as well as the information on the administration of the Legislative House itself.

Considering this perspective compels this article to discuss the systems of electronic governance used by all State Legislatures of Brazil, the main target being the measurement of the degree of transparency that these websites make available to citizens. Thus, the websites of all 26 State Legislatures of Brazil and the Legislative chamber of the Federal District, will be analyzed to answer the following question: What is the degree of transparency of the State Legislatures websites in Brazil?

2. E-Gov as an Instrument of Accountability

The last decades of the 20th century presented changes in the paradigms of public administration, with the emergence of new models, such as the managerial one, that gave greater emphasis to the control of the results, instead of the means. At the same time, according to JOSE VAZ (2002), the redemocratização process, strongly stimulated by the Constitution of 1988, stimulated a significant pressure from society for transparency in the government. This same redemocratização may have led society to a firmer posture of demand for better quality public services. These transformations provided the use of new tools that greatly helped the government to meet the demands of the rules established by the managerial paradigm and the Constitution of 1988, among them, the use of TIC stands out.

The use of the TIC by the public administration to interact with society and private institutions, either in carrying out its end or means activities, and especially, in the rendering of services or in making information available came to be called e-gov.

Jose Vaz (2002, P. 16) shows this when he affirms that the TIC constitutes in an important instrument of support for the public administration, by allowing the offer of new services to the citizen, offering conditions for broadening the efficiency and the effectiveness of public services, improving the quality of these services and further allowing access to information and the formation of new standards of relationship with citizens and new spaces to promote citizenship.

However, with the introduction of the rules posed by accountability, as to the obligation of the public managers to render accounts to society. Nevertheless, one observes that the use of information tools arose to facilitate this process, in view of the apparatuses and managerial systems that assist the managers in the fulfilment of their activities. From this perspective, the Internet also presents itself as an important tool, since it makes it possible for citizens to access varied services without the necessity of leaving the house. Another important contribution of the information systems, the Internet in particular, to accountability is that it allows the citizen to follow the activities of the public servants, besides being used to render accounts, where the government, by means of its websites, can make available all types of information to be accessed by the population.
On the other hand, the simple introduction of the precepts of accountability supported by the tools of e-gov does not guarantee the full exercise of citizenship and of social control. For such, it is necessary that a cultural change of the citizens be observed. DAHL (2001) affirms that from the moment when a type of citizen is born, who is effectively able to participate in the public thing, demands for accountability as an instrument of popular sovereignty control of the acts of the elected representatives and the public servants in general will be formulated.

Akutsu & Pine (2002) argue that the social control and the formal controls are closely tied. Only with full accountability, that is, with public information and trustworthy renderings of accounts on the part of the governors, duly audited by external and internal controls of the public agencies can citizens actively participate in public decisions. On the other hand, without an organized civil society, the public managers will not feel obliged to promote accountability. The social control can, therefore, fortify the legally instituted formal control, leading society to more actively participate in public life and thus reduce the distance between government performance and the actual needs of the citizens.

For this transformation to be accomplished, strengthening of accountability on the part of the managers and the incorporation of this concept in the culture of society is primordial. Thus, in a society with full accountability, one expects that the public managers give to accounts of their actions, making the decisions and actions that interest the collectivity public, such as the of budget statements; ample advertising public tenders, indicating the selected suppliers and the prices of the winning proposals; and indication of the services and programs offered by the government. In more advanced stages of democracy, one expects that, besides the transparency of the results obtained by the administration, the main governmental decisions - such as the elaboration of the budget and the public tenders for public projects and services of greater reach - always be made only after consulting society through public audiences.

Therefore, what can be arugued is that with the full use of the precepts of accountability supported by the e-gov tools, the public administration can provide its citizens greater access to public information. For Sanchez (2003, p.29) this availability of information is a democratic conquest. The governing bodies generally close out information from droppers and, even so, they hide what they consider “strategic”. Any and all information can easily be considered “strategic” and, in most cases, concealing information becomes the rule and not exception. There is still a long way to go, but it could be shortened if society were to pressure for the opening of information contained in the new information systems.

It is worthwhile to remember that the production and regular transmission of information concerning public policies (government actions) are vital for control or participation, even of the organized segments of society, as the governmental transparency also depends on the degree of freedom of the press, allowing the discussion and freedom of opinion (Clad, 2000).

Therefore, in a democracy it is supposed that political power comes from society as a whole and that each citizen participates in making collective decisions. Therefore, it is understood that all the decisions must be public, in the double sense that the process that leads to them is open to ample participation and the content is accessible to all. The consequence of this principle is the demand for a high degree of transparency in political decision making (CLAD, 2000).

Thus, the diffusion of public information constitutes one of the basic conditions for the success of the accountability cycle, since if the citizens have very incomplete information on the actions of the public power, they will face difficulties in evaluating the governance. The tools of e-gov must be used in this perspective so that society is always armed with information on how the public thing is being managed. E in this process, makes sense to highlight the role of the Legislature in the transparency of public administration, as will be seen next.

3. E-Legislature as a Transparency Tool in the Brazilian Public Administration

The Legislative Houses, regarding the principle of separation of powers and autonomy of public entities, in constitutional terms, and comprehending their jurisdiction and scope, have as incumbencies: rendering and taking of accounts with the government; the ascertainment of crimes by politicians, through due process of law; convening secretaries of State, other political players, legal representatives of third sector entities, that perceive and manage state goods or resources and other entities who offer public services, by means of public concessions; effecting ownership and establishing subsidy for the governor and the lieutenant governor of the State; the appraisal of nominations subject to the deliberation of the Legislative Branch; e, other themes defined by law.

Consequently, one can affirm that motivated by the changes in posture imposed by new administrative paradigms and especially the emergence of TICs, that stimulated the legislative branch to act as an agent of accountability, the Brazilian legislature needed to seek new tools that could facilitate and improve the fulfilment of its tasks. Not withstanding, the legislature also had that to adopt informational tools that the executive branch had already been using, the combination of which came to be called e-gov or electronic government. In the scope of the Legislative Branch this
tool was named of e-legislature.

Currently all State Legislatures in Brazil have webpages, where information such as daily news on the parliamentary actions, members' of the house of representatives schedules, order of business, anual and bi-annual reports parliamentary and committee activity, house of representatives attendance statistics, budget performance, along with other information, is made available. However, the release of this information varies greatly among state Legislative Houses, some releasing a reasonable amount of information and others a still just beginning, and insufficiently.

A positive aspect of these websites is that they also provide a communication channel between society and the Legislative House and with the members of the house of representatives, a fact that facilitates contact with branch, still considered by many, as distant from the population, especially residents far from the states capitals, since the state Legislative House establishes its headquarters there. Due to this distance, a great part of the population can only follow the performance of the parliamentarians, through the media, among them the legislative body's websites, which present themselves as one of the most complete means of contact between the population and the legislature.

As MAIA (2002) affirms, the new information and communication technologies, including the Internet, seems to offer various advantages over the democratic medias, since its interactive and multi-functional devices offer “new possibilities for decentralized participation”. As the author affirms, these new technologies allow different partners of interlocution to be in contact, through reciprocal actions and virtual bonds, creating an unknown potential for interaction. This is not just about isolated conectividade of the web-user in contact with the government, for example, but the potential of collective connection, approaching citizens through chats and discussion groups.

Thus, these websites are an excellent information and transparency tool for the acts of the Legislative Branch, since one of the main functions of the electronic government is transparency, which uses the tool box of the TIC, especially the Internet, to inform citizens on the actions that the organ is carrying out and how many resources, be they material, human or financial, are being expended in achieving the goals of the entity.

Thus, the use of Internet also becomes a support tool to the legislature in the achievement of its role of overseeing agent of the executive branch, which, if fully explored, can allow this Branch to truly becomes an agent of accountability. The responsibility thus falls to the Legislature to not only divulge information concerning its own actions, but also those of the Executive Branch.

In this context, is important to highlight an important difference in the use of informacion systems, especially the Internet, between the Executive and the Legislative Branches, where the first may make use of these systems to render services to society, such as issuing barcodes to pay fees and taxes, school registration, payment of fines, etc. The use of the internet by the Legislature, on the ther hand, exerxes mainly informative, supervisory and control functions. Therefore, transparency is the main function of e-legislature. Thus it is essential that these state legislatures actually use e-legislature as a tool for control, oversight and disclosure of its actions and the actions of the Executive Branch. However, without the introduction of specific regulation in each Legislative House that compels its president to disclose what is considered minimum information, the decision of what it will be at the disposal of the population will still be left to the criteria of these presidents. Faced with this, the following process of regulation of the transparency in some countries of America presented itself.

4. The Law of Public Transparency and Access to Public Governmental Information

One should note the importance of passing and applying a law that guarantees the citizen greater ease of access to public information, since one of the principles of public administration is legality, that causes the acts of the public administrator to be buoyed up through laws, decrees, resolutions, ordinances, etc. Consequently, the Brazilian Constitution foresaw the publication of public information, however, it was still necessary to introduce a more specific legislation, that compelled the public servant to divulge data inherent to public administration, as well as specify which information should be divulged, this being necessary to provide greater uniformity in publishing this information among the different agencies of public administration and especially so that the citizen can know what documents and information the public manager should supply.

Thus, on the 27th of May, 2009 the Complementary Law 131/09 came into effect, which compelled all public agencies belonging to the three branches of the Federation to make available, in real time, information on its budgetary and financial executions. Added to this Law the Usual Law 12,527/2011 also came into effect on May 26th, 2012, known as the Law of Access to Information - LAI, which establishes that the public entities must divulge on the Internet, in clear language and with ease of access, data on public administration.

On the Internet one must be able to find, at least, a record of the organizacional structure and scope, addresses
and telephone numbers of the respective units and hours they are open to the public. Records must also be published of any transfer of financial resources and information on public tenders, including the proclamations and results. The law requires that general data be displayed on the Internet allowing the accompaniment of government programs, actions, projects and construction, besides answers to the questions most frequently asked by society.

A panorama of this subject is shown here, demonstrating how this process occurred in the United States and other countries of Latin America, which already possess specific legislation on the subject and were chosen because they present certain similarities to Brazil, such as the political-economic system, of government, and territorial proximity, among others.

In the United States the freedom of information and the "Sunshine” laws are the two main governmental initiatives in combating corruption. E one of the main artifacts of the American strategy was the creation of the Freedom of Information Law - Foia. Approved first in 1966. This Law determines that the government documents are, in essence, property of the people and that the population retains the right to access them. The Foia inverts the traditional burden of proof, switching from the hypothesis that the documents are confidential until the citizens establish basis to access them, to the hypothesis that the documents are public until the government establishes a basis (such as national security and personal privacy) to keep them confidential. Hence Foia elaborated an important premise, in which posterior reforms have been made: that the citizens have the right to know their government and to know what was being done.

In Latin America Colombia is a pioneer in adopting legislation on access to public information, which came into effect July 5th, 1985, with the introduction of Law 57, which granted to all persons the right to consult documents in power of State offices and to receive a copy of these documents.

On January 22nd, 2002, Law nº 6 was enacted in Panama, on transparency in the government, which states that all legal entities have the right to ask information of the government agencies and the staff member concerned has 30 days to provide this information. The noncompliance of the employee leads to fines or dismissal from employment. The law establishes nine cases of “restricted access”, among them the ones that are related to information on national security and the cases being investigated by the Solicitor-General.

On August 2nd, 2002, the Peruvian President, Alejandro Toledo, officially enacted the Law of Transparency and Access to Public information, that then was published on August 3rd, 2002 in the El Peruano official gazette. Although this law represents an important advance for the right to information, it behooves us to mention its article 15, that refers to the exceptions that the law grants to the Executive Branch to classify information as “private and strictly confidential” for reasons of national security, since this procedure would grant the ministerial cabinet, an eminently political entity, the ability to classify information as restricted. On August 6th, 2003 the regulatory decree of the Law of Transparency and Access to the Public Information came into effect. This Regulation was promoted by the committee created by law to fulfill provisions of the same.

In Mexico, suggestively named “Ley de Transparencia”, was approved on June 11th, 2002, but the Mexican Congress had the prudence to give it one year to take effect so that the public agencies could adapt to the new rules. The Law was also one of Vicente Fox Presidential campaign promises in 2000. The new law foresees that all the State organs place to the citizens' disposal information that allows them to know the functions, actions and resources of the government. Documents that can affect the national security are excluded.

In May of 2004 it was Equator's turn, with the approval of Congress. The Law of Disclosure and Access to Information grants the citizens access to information in the power of agencies of the public sector, with the exception of information of a personal nature or that has been classified as such by a competent public officer. The law further guarantees access to information in the possession of public and private entities that have public information, with the exclusion of personal data.

In Argentina, enacted in 2004, the law offers a general guarantee of access to information, allowing the Argentines access to the databases of official agencies. The law establishes administrative and legal penalties for the public officers who do not comply with the requests. It also confers public character to the laws, decrees and documents that have been kept secret by the State for over 10 years without having been classified as restricted.

In Honduras the law was approved on November 27th, 2006, after pressure from the Committee for the Liberty of speech - C-Free, which carried out a Regional Dialogue in the city of Choluteca on the subject of the “Right to the information in the national scenario”. Two similar meetings had been carried out in other regions of Honduras. In the course of this conference, the local limitations faced by the journalists, social communicators and the citizens to gain access the information of public interest were examined. E in this meantime C-Free presented a draft bill on Access to Public Information and the habeas data appeal.

According to Transparency International, Chile stands out as one of the countries with lowest levels of corruption
on an international level, and lowest in this aspect in Latin America. In this context the main measures adopted by Chile were: the formation of the National Public Ethics Committee in 1994; the establishment of the Law of Administrative Probity in 1999; the elaboration of the Pro Transparency Agenda in 2003; besides the approval of the law known as Law of Public Transparency and Access to Governmental Information in 2007.

5. Methodology and Presentation of the Results

Research on electronic transparency in the Legislatures of the Brazilian states established the report on electronic transparency from the Mexican Congress, which is made by the Non-Governmental Organization, Legislative Monitor, as a baseline model. The report analyzes a set of items required by the Law of Transparency and Access to Governmental Public Information in Mexico, instituted on June 11th, 2002, and also of the Legislative Resolution by the Mexican Congress, that detailed the requirements already made in the Complementary Law. Hence, the model used in this research underwent some adaptations, integrating items and sub-items not observed in the original model, since further items were added that are considered obligatory in the Complementary Law 131/2009 and Usual Law 12,527/2011, respectively the Law of Transparency and the Law of Access to Information. Some of these were observed in some state legislature's websites in Brazil, which were not contemplated in the Mexican model. The model built observed 8 items, which had been researched in all 27 Brazilian State Legislatures in the period between 06/29/2013 and 07/13/2013. The items analyzed are:

A. Administrative role: it seeks to observe if the state parliaments place information on its administrative structure (organic structure, abilities of the sectors, list of public servers, remuneration of the servers, objectives and goals of the administrative units) at the disposal of the society;

B. Internal control: it intends to observe the parliamentary performance and the audits carried out in the scope of the agency (information on material goods, report on fiscal management, allocation of financial resources, funding of staff and indemnity, annual report on transparency, results of audits, complaints against member of the house of representatives and disclosure of the budgetary execution in real time - as stated in Law 131/2009);

C. Legislative Work: its purpose is to analyze if there is availability of information on the legislative works (order of business, parliamentary gazette, propositions, roll call votes, information of official trips and resources, Web channel and parliamentary attendance);

D. Work of the committees: its target is to verify if information is available on the works of the legislative committees (members of the committees, results of inquiries, work reports of, committee reports);

E. Concessions, permissions and contracts: it seeks to observe if information is available on the public bidding process in the scope of the Parliaments researched (concessions and permissions; information on contracts: acquired or leased goods and the services that are being contracted; the price of contracts; the name of the contracted party and deadline for contract fulfillment);

F. Historical archive and librarian services: it seeks to analyze whether the legislatures have adopted criteria for cataloguing and classifying documents, as well as rendering librarian services, making the procedures, requirements and formats explicit for the good use of the historical archive and the virtual library;

G. External Controls: The goal here is to analyze if the legislatures State make information available on the acts of the Executive Branch of its respective State (State Master Budget, link for sites of other organs and the Official Gazette);

H. Communication channel with citizens: it seeks to observe if means of interaction with the society are made available (channel of contact with the parliamentary ombudsman, lists of the main questions and answers, a channel for complaints, information request forms as required by Law 12,527/2011).

6. System of Weights

As seen previously, the model is composed of 8 items, in which 40 are distributed sub-items. With the end goal of facilitating data tabulation, keeping in mind that the model has a considerable number of sub-items, was decided to adopt only three measurements, which are: 0 When the agency not make available what it is being verified; 1 when what is being verified possess a reasonable availability; and 2 when the agency satisfactorily makes available what is being verified.

Therefore, having 40 sub-items distributed within the 8 items, the adoption of the system of weights as described
above, would provide a total result of 40 points if the Legislative House reasonable fulfilled all the analyzed requirements and 80 points, if the analyzed parliaments fulfilled all sub-items satisfactorily. Hence, adopting as maximum 10 as the maximum score (of the whole), the model adopts a system of weights as follows: 0 = 0; 1 = 0.125 and 2 = 0.25.

Thus it is evident that the item with the greatest number of sub-items must receive a higher score, as described below:

**Picture 1. Maximum score per item**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Nº de Sub-items</th>
<th>0.125</th>
<th>0.25</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A) Administrative Role</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) Internal control</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C) Legislative work</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D) Work of the committees</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E) Concessions, permissions and contracts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F) Historical archive and librarian services</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G) External Controls:</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H) Communication channels with the citizens</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And to measure the transparency per item, it was necessary, first, to construct a transparency continuum, in which 4 levels were established, classified according to the percentage of the requirements of the analyzed item were met (ratio measurement).

By means of the transparency continuum it was possible also to fashion a transparency ranking, where the state legislatures’ websites were arranged in order of acquired points, using as a tie-breaker the websites with a higher score in item “E” - concessions, permissions and contracts, since they are the main item required by Law 131/09 and Law 12.527/2011.

**Picture 2. Transparency continuum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Transparency</th>
<th>Percentage of requirements met</th>
<th>Quartile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>75% to 100%</td>
<td>4º</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable</td>
<td>50% to 74.99%</td>
<td>3º</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>25% to 49.99%</td>
<td>2º</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient</td>
<td>0% to 24.99%</td>
<td>1º</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus based on this methodology, the set of results attained are presented.

**Table 1. Score per item and level of transparency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>State legislature</th>
<th>Administrative Role</th>
<th>Internal control</th>
<th>Legislative work</th>
<th>Work of the committees</th>
<th>Concessions, permissions and contracts</th>
<th>Historical archive and librarian services</th>
<th>External Controls: Channel to the citizens</th>
<th>Final Score</th>
<th>Level of Transparency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rio Grande Do Sul</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.625</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Rio De Janeiro</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>1.625</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Santa Catarina</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.225</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>São Paulo</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mato Grosso</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Minas Gerais</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Paraná</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>1.625</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Amazonas</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.375</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Analysis by item

7.1 Administrative Role

In this item, 18.5% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 26% a low level; 48% reasonable; and only 7.5% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislatures the Rio Grande Do Sul and Santa Catarina, which met 80% of the requirements. As to the general level, the group was classified as low.

7.2 Internal Control

In this item, 26% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 52% a low level; 18% reasonable; and only 4% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislature of Rio Grande Do Sul's website, which met 81% of the requirements. As to the general level, the group was classified as low.

7.3 Legislative Work

On this point, we found the following classification: 8% of the websites were found with an insufficient level of transparency; 37% at low level; 41% at a reasonable level; e 14% at a satisfactory level. The best score went to Rio Grande Do Sul, that met 100% of the requirements. As a whole the group was classified as having a reasonable level of transparency.

7.4 Work of the Committees

The item in question had the following classification: In this item, 22% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 36% a low level; 22% reasonable; and 19% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislature of Rio Grande Do Sul's website, which met 100% of the requirements. As a whole the group was classified as having a low level of transparency.

7.5 Concessions, Permissions and Contracts

In this item, 11% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 8% a low level; 44% reasonable;
and 37% qualified as satisfactory. Eight websites met 100% of the requirements. Three websites did not register a score. As a whole the group was classified as low.

7.6 Historical Archive and Librarian Services

On this point, we found the following classification: 30% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 8% a low level; 44% reasonable; and 18% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislatures the Rio Grande Do Sul, Santa Catarina and the Federal District, all of which met 100% of the requirements. Two websites did not score. The group as a whole was classified as low.

7.7 External Control

In this item, 37% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 15% a low level; 44% reasonable; and 8% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislatures the Rio Grande Do Sul and Amazona, which met 83% of the requirements. Three websites did not register a score. The group as a whole was classified as having a low level of transparency.

7.8 Communication Channels with the Citizens

In this item, 33.5% of the websites were classified as having insufficient transparency; 44.5% a low level; 11% reasonable; and 11% qualified as satisfactory. The best score went to the Legislature of Rio Grande Do Sul's website, which met 100% of the requirements. Five websites did not score. As a whole the group was classified as having a low level of transparency.

8. General analysis

Analyzing the data above, one can conclude that only 7.5% of the state legislative websites in Brazil, ie. only the legislative websites of Rio Grande Do Sul and of Rio De Janeiro, possess a satisfactory level of transparency, which means that the websites of the legislatures of these states, make available 75% or more of the researched items. The State Legislatures of Santa Catarina, São Paulo, Mato Grosso, Minas Gerais, Paraná, Amazonas, Ceará, Bahia and Espírito Santo, which represent 37% of the universe of the study, were classified as having a reasonable level of transparency since they make available up to 74.99% of the items researched. The legislative websites from Rondônia, Pará, Federal District, Pernambuco, Rio Grande do Norte, Mato Grosso do Sul, Sergipe, Goiás, Tocantins, Amapá and Maranhão, representing 40.7% of the total researched, were classified as having a low level of transparency, since they make available up to 49.99% of the researched items. And finally, the legislative websites from Piauí, Roraima, Acre and Alagoas that represent 14.8% of the research universe were classified at an insufficient level of transparency, since they make available less than 24.99% of the researched items. So, analyzing this general classification based on descriptive statistics, we find: that the greatest score (upper limit) was 9.25, obtained by Rio Grande Do Sul. The lowest score (inferior limit), on the other hand, was 1.88, given to the state of Roraima and Alagoas, which zeroed the researched items, due to the fact that their websites were off-line throughout the period of the research (06/29/2013 through 07/13/2013). Therefore, the group average was 4.25 points and the standard deviation was 1.95. Thus, we found the following distribution around the group average:

- Up to 2 units of standard deviation = 96.3% of the websites
- Up to 1.5 units of standard deviation = 90% of the websites
- Up to 1 unit of standard deviation = 74% of the websites
- Up to 0.5 unit of standard deviation = 48% of the websites

Through this analysis it is observed that the distribution of the values is quite symmetrical around the average, which is 4.25 points.

This means that the scores varied very little in relation to the average, that is, that a great part of the received scores very near the group average. Thus, 90% of these scores are concentrated in the (1.32; 7.17) points interval, corresponding to 1.5 units standard deviation. A ratio of values above of 7.17 points is low (7.4%), which exceeded the mark of two units of standard deviation in relation to the average, these being from the legislatures of Rio Grande Do Sul...
and Rio De Janeiro. Another important fact is that 51.8% of the websites obtained a score equal to or greater than the average and the other 48.2% received a score below it.

Thus we can conclude that in general the group score was low, explained by the considerable ratio of websites with below average scores. Making a general classification based on the observed average, we see that it also is classified as low, since it belongs to the 2nd quartile = 25% to 49.99% = low level of transparency.

However, it is necessary that relate data obtained to other variables, which will be able to better explain or to clarify the score obtained by the state legislative websites.

8.1 Relation to Other Indicators

The research also correlated the final result of the electronic transparency in legislatures with the Index of Human Development - IDH (2008) and with the percentage of people who have access to the Internet in the Brazilian states, elaborated by the IBGE (National Research of Sampling per Domicile - the PNAD/2011).

The statistics tool used for this verification was correlation, since it takes the role of measuring the force of relation or association between two variable, by means of the correlation coefficient.

Table 3. Relation with other Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Transparency</th>
<th>IDH (2008)</th>
<th>% access to the Internet (2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Rio Grande Do Sul</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Rio De Janeiro</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Santa Catarina</td>
<td>7.125</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 São Paulo</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Mato Grosso</td>
<td>6.125</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Minas Gerais</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Paraná</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Amazonas</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Ceará</td>
<td>5.375</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Bahia</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Espírito Santo</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Paraíba</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.718</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Rondônia</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Pará</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Federal District</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Pernambuco</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.718</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Rio Grande do Norte</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Mato Grosso do Sul</td>
<td>3.625</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Sergipe</td>
<td>3.625</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Goiás</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Tocantins</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Amapá</td>
<td>3.375</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Maranhão</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Piauí</td>
<td>2.375</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Roraima</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 Acre</td>
<td>1.875</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 Alagoas</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Elaborated by the authors, 2013.

8.2 Relation of electronic transparency with IDH

This analysis consists of verifying the degree of correlation of electronic transparency with the Index of Human Development (2008); that is, the intention is to see if the States that possess a good performance in IDH, also have a good performance in electronic transparency.

Thus, we present the graph of dispersion and the coefficient of correlation to verify the hypothesis formulated above.
Analyzing the graph, one can note that there is a positive correlation between the two variables, that is, the states that get high scores of X tend to get high scores of Y. This does not yet mean that the hypothesis was confirmed; to that end it is necessary to test the intensity of the correlation.

To do the intensity test it is necessary to observe the coefficient of correlation, which indicates numerically both the direction and intensity of the linear correlation. It can vary from -1 to +1. The closer to 1 it is, indicates greater correlation strength. In this sense, this correlation obtained a coefficient of 0.66. This value indicates that there is a considerable correlation between the two variables analyzed.

Thus, it can be concluded that: the hypothesis formulated above can be confirmed by the correlation analysis, since this coefficient indicates that in the majority of the Brazilian States where the performance in IDH (2008) was high, a good performance in legislative electronic transparency was also found.

8.3 Relation with the percentage of people with access to the Internet

The Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics - IBGE, periodically surveys all Brazilian States with the purpose of verifying the ratio of people who have access to the Internet. This survey is taken by means of the National Research of Sampling by Domiciles - PNAD. The last survey was made in 2011, the results of which were used here to accomplish this analysis of correlation.

And considering this work to make a study of a tool that has, essentially, the Internet as its means of operation, the formulated relation has the purpose of verifying if in the states where with a greater percentage of people who have access to the Internet also possess a good performance in electronic transparency.

Accordingly, we present the graph of dispersion and the coefficient of correlation to verify the hypothesis formulated above.

Source: Database of PNAD - 2011. Coefficient of correlation = 0.51
Analyzing the graph, one can note that there is a positive correlation between the two variables, that is, the states that get high scores of X tend to also get high scores of Y.

In the intensity test it is necessary to observe the coefficient correlation, which indicates numerically both the direction and intensity of the linear correlation. In this sense, this correlation obtained a coefficient of 0.51. This value indicates that there is a considerable positive correlation between the two variables analyzed.

Thus, it can be concluded that: the hypothesis formulated above can be confirmed by the correlation analysis, since this coefficient indicates that in the majority of the Brazilian States where there is a greater percentage of people with access to the internet, a good performance in legislative electronic transparency was also found.

9. Final Considerations

This article had the intention of contributing to the improvement of the understanding of the role of the Legislatures as controlling power of the acts of the executive branch, and that therefore it has the duty of publish the actions of this power. Reaffirming that above all, the Legislature also must be transparent in its actions. This contributes to broaden the knowledge on the diverse roles of electronic government in the current public administration, in particular its use in a branch that is still little studied.

With the implantation of the electronic government, other concepts had started to be part of the modern public administration, among them e-governance, which as shown in the article, started to use Information and Communication Technology (TIC) in public administration, in its relationship with society and private institutions, be it in the operation of its means and end activities, and especially in the rendering services or making information available. Thus, it was soon noted that e-government became an important tool of accountability, uniting the rules the latter to the information technologies of the former.

However, the Brazilian experience faced right off the digital exclusion problem, which is fruit of social exclusion experienced for years in the country. This problem, certainly, left and still leaves a great part of the population on the wayside of services offered by e-gov. However, it is evident that the Country has been circumventing this question, even with governmental actions to try to diminish the number of the digitally excluded, which reaches 55% of the Brazilian population, according to data of the National Research of Sampling by Domiciles - PNAD, by the IBGE, in 2011.

Therefore, the challenges of e-gov in Brazil are still numerous. However, this article focuses on a specific branch, which is the Legislature. This direction of the study was due to the fact that few studies have been made on the application of the concepts of the electronic government in a Branch whose main role does not include the rendering of services to society, whose main role is to control the actions of the Executive Branch, besides elaborating norms and rules that govern the actions of the public administration. Thus, the use of the Information and Communication Technology - TIC in the Legislature, at the beginning, as well as in the Executive Branch, came into use for the improvement of its internal processes. However, as this Power is not a services provider, interface with the society would have to be different. This form is the spreading information on its actions and also on the actions of the Executive.

However, what was observed is that Brazil proceeded rapidly with the implementation of the e-gov tools, and in the case of the legislatures, this process occurred a short time later. In the article it was possible to note that there is a great difference among the websites of this Branch, as to the availability of information, that is, there is no standard of how the information is made available in these websites, being left to the criteria of the president of the parliament to choose how these information should be made available to the public.

However, the Laws of Transparency and Access to information, even coming into effect after many countries of Latin America, sufficiently improved the amount and the quality of the information offered to citizens, since it took from the manager the discretionary power to decide whether to divulge or not certain information and defined which information should be available. The initiative, certainly, made the Brazilian State Legislatures’ websites offer more information more homogeneously. It is also important to consider that the Law established deadlines for offering information, which must be followed to the letter by the managers to not result in outdated information.

Through the research it was possible to see that few states presented a satisfactory or reasonable level of transparency. When the research observed the data by geographic region it was noted, by means of the average of its respective states, that it decreases in the following direction: Southeast, South, Center West, Northeast and North. This same direction is observed when it analyzes other variables, as the IDH, and the percentage of access to the Internet in the states. When one correlated scores of the electronic transparency with the ones from IDH (2008), it was possible to see that the majority of the states with high IDH are the ones that also have a greater degree of electronic transparency.
The same observation was made when electronic transparency and the percentage of people who have access to the
Internet in the Brazilian states was correlated, that is, the states with greater percentage of access are the ones that also
have the greatest degree of electronic transparency.
Therefore, in general, the legislative websites of the states Brazil, have a low level of transparency, that is, the
user of these websites find little information on the researched items, with prominence for the items that evaluate the
level of transparency in offering data in real time, which obtained the lowest levels of transparency.
In spite of this, the State legislature of Rio Grande Do Sul can be highlighted for presenting a satisfactory level of
transparency and was by far the legislature with the highest score, which registers as the website that most meets the
requirements of the Law of Transparency and Access to Information.
Therefore, the work carried out evidenced that the use of information tools in the governmental activity made
possible to create more direct, institutionalized and accessible channels of access to public information, even with the
persisting difficulty of access to this information by certain groups within society. And as observed, even the websites that
were classified as having a satisfactory level of transparency, the information is not yet fully available. However, the
opening of this information is a democratic conquest, which certainly with greater pressure and participation of society,
will tend to ascent to greater levels.

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Some Paleopathological Cases from a Medieval Necropolis of Drustar (Silistra), Bulgaria (Investigation of the Postcranial Skeletons)

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Abstract

Drustar was a medieval town in Northeastern Bulgaria. It was the most important fortress in the Lower Danube. The bone material was excavated from a necropolis situated near to the north wall of the fortress. The burials were dated in 9th – 15th century AD. The study included postcranial skeletons of 147 individuals (42 children and 105 adults). There were observed traces of pathological changes in the different bones of the postcranial skeleton, such as fractures, osteoarthritis, spina bifida, etc. The degenerative disorders of the joints were most often occurred. The results obtained suggest that living conditions were not very favourable for the medieval population of Drustar.

1. Introduction

Paleopathology is the study of disease that affected living organisms in the past (Ortner, 2011). It is a discipline that aims to trace the origin, evolution and history of disease over long periods of time through pathological changes which represent diseases suffered in life and observed in human remains buried at archaeological sites (Roberts et al., 2012). Most studies in palaeopathology are focused on the skeletal remains, because these are the human remains that are most commonly preserved and excavated from archaeological sites. The paleopathological examination gives an idea of the frequency, dissemination and seriousness of the disease. Moreover, the data collected give additional information about the way of living of the studied population.

In our study we investigated bone material from Drustar, a medieval town in Northeastern Bulgaria. It was the most important fortress in the Lower Danube. For that reason the data about the occurrence of diseases in the population of medieval Drustar are very valuable.

2. Material and Methods

The bone material was excavated from a necropolis situated near to the north wall of the fortress. The burials were dated in 9th – 15th century AD. The study included postcranial skeletons of 147 individuals – 42 children and 105 adults (Table 1). The sex and age were determined previously by metrical and morphological features of the skull and postcranial bones. The identification of paleopaleopathological conditions was performed particularly by macroscopical observation. The material was not sufficient for statistical analysis, since the most skeletons were fragmentary or incomplete.

Table 1. Sex and age distribution of the buried individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age categories</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infans I (0-7)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Results and discussion

During the paleopathological study, a large range of pathological changes were discovered in the skeletons. According to our results, we classified the paleopathological findings into four categories: joint diseases, congenital anomalies, traumatic and infection conditions.

3.1 Joint diseases

Degenerative damages of the bones and joints were established in 27 adult individuals. The pathological processes affecting joints of the spine were predominantly found. We observed them more frequently in males than in females and majority of individuals were over the age of 35 years. According to Dieppe and Lim (1998), spinal osteoarthritis occurred in almost everyone over the age of 40. Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin (1998) noticed that the Caucasians were more often affected in comparison with the Black people.

In most cases osteoarthritis is slowly progressive and bone changes are preceded by alterations of the articular cartilage. Pathological features such as subchondral bone eburnation, sclerosis and development of osteophytes in archaeological skeletal remains reflect the later stages of osteoarthritis or its more severe manifestations (Ortner, 2003). Our observation showed that the vertebral bodies were the most often affected with wide range of alterations. In most cases vertebral bodies are strongly deformed by osteophytes with different size – from small bone spurs to big beak-like exostoses (Fig. 1). There were occurred osteophytic bone bridges between adjacent vertebral bodies as well.

The degenerative changes in the investigated population were most often localized in thoracic and lumbar parts of the spine. After Duthie and Bentley (1987) the most commonly involved locations are lower cervical (C5-C6), lower thoracic (T8-T9) and lower lumbar (L4-L5). As far as the changes in the cervical vertebrae are concerned, our observation showed that the vertebral bodies were the most often affected with wide range of alterations. In most cases vertebral bodies are strongly deformed by osteophytes with different size – from small bone spurs to big beak-like exostoses (Fig. 1). There were occurred osteophytic bone bridges between adjacent vertebral bodies as well.

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Besides spinal osteoarthritis in this population, degenerative changes in the joints of the extremities were found. Our results showed that the morphological changes such as thickening around the joint margins, formation of osteophytes and polishing of the exposed bony articular surfaces were localized mainly on knee and elbows. The polished areas are absolutely diagnostic of severe osteoarthritis and are more typical in joints with a hingelike action (Ortner, 2003). In one of our cases was observed severe form of the degenerative changes in the knee (Fig. 2), which was concomitant with spondylotic changes in the spine. Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin (1998) noticed that knee is the most commonly involved joint, especially in females.
The results we obtained coincide with the data supplied for the spread and frequency of the degenerative processes during the Middle Ages in Bulgaria (Boev et al., 1980; Boev et al., 1981; Kondova et al., 1982, Goranov et al., 1983). Tcholakov (1993), who investigated the skeletal remains from the same place, but the necropolis was revealed beside the southern fortress wall and dated 12th–14th century AD, found similar pathological picture of degenerative joint diseases.

We observed a case of extensive hyperostosis in which the diagnosis of Diffuse Idiopathic Skeletal Hyperostosis (DISH) was very likely. It was found in a male of 40-50 years (Fig. 3).

Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin (1998) noticed that DISH is rarely detected before age 40 years. As a matter of fact, DISH is a metabolic disorder. The main feature of DISH is a tendency to produce excessive amounts of bone at joint margins and the entheses. This is particularly apparent in the spine, but other locations in the skeleton may also be affected (Ortner, 2003). DISH is about twice as common in males as in females and the condition increases in prevalence with age (Smythe and Littlejohn, 1998). Additional considerations include the absence of disk disease and the presence of relatively normal diatheroid joints in the affected vertebrae (Ortner, 2003).

3.2 Congenital anomalies

Congenital anomalies are produced by pathological changes in the normal development during intrauterine life (Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin, 1998). The most common malformations in our sample occurred in the sacral region of the spine. Spina bifida occulta is a congenital malformation where the osseous median line is incompletely closed. Varying degrees of spina bifida are a commonly mentioned abnormality in reports of archaeological specimens (Ortner, 2003). It appears in the majority of the cases in the lumber-sacral region of the spine, especially at the level of the sacrum bone. In our sample, spina bifida was found in three males with the death age of 20-25 years (Fig. 4). The sacrum bones of these cases present total occult sacral dysraphism - S1-S5, forming a channel between the laminas. Spina bifida was also observed in one more individual (male, 20-25 years), but it was partial and the sacrum bone had dorsal inter-laminar dehiscence only at the level of segments S3-S5. Groza et al. (2012) reported that the occult spinal sacral dysraphism in case of the medieval population of Iaşi, Romania, appeared in 6 cases (5 men with ages between 18 and 60 and one woman with the age between 18-20 years).
The sacralization of the 5th lumbar vertebra is other congenital defect in the case of which this vertebra fusions with the sacrum bone so that the lumbar spinal column loses a segment. We observed it in three individuals. The morphologic aspect of the sacrum bone is normal but it presents a supplementary sacral foramen (Groza et al., 2012). It is asymptomatic in many cases, but occasionally may cause low back pain.

3.3 Traumatic and infection conditions

Traumas are another group of pathological findings, which is one of the most prevalent conditions encountered. The causes of trauma include accidental and intentional violence, cultural cosmetic or therapeutic practices, that affect bones, and pathological conditions that can increase the vulnerability of bone to biomechanical stress (Ortner, 2003). It is important to be noticed, that trauma occurring the time of death can easily be confused with postmortem taphonomic breaks in bone (Ortner, 2003).

Fractures are a type of traumas, which represent partial or complete discontinuity of a bone. All five fractures in our sample were well healed, indicating survival after the trauma. We found fractures of the ulna in three cases. Tcholakov (1993) also found that the most common were fractures of the forearm bones, especially the ulna. In one of these cases, observed in a male over the age of 50, the trauma was healed without displacement, but with a thorn-like ossified projection arising from the place of the fracture e.g. there was a presence of traumatic myositis ossificans (Fig. 5). Myositis ossificans traumatica is usually produced by avulsion of tendinous and/or muscle attachment to bone, generating a hematoma (Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin, 1998). The periosteum may participate in the organization of the hematoma including ossification. In another individual (male, 40-50 years) with a healed fracture of the right ulna was observed a healed skull fracture as well, which suggests that both fractures were very likely to have been occurred simultaneously, while the man had tried to guard himself with his arm against the attacker.

A fracture of the left femur was observed in an adult female (Fig. 6). This fracture was healed with angulation, which must have resulted in a shortened bone and provided at least limited use of the limb. There was callus formation around the place of the fracture and few cloacae at the site of the fracture on the posterior aspect of the shaft, indicating secondary infection by osteomyelitis. Posttraumatic osteomyelitis is most commonly observed in the cranium and long bones of archaeological skeletons (Lovell, 1997).
Sometimes breaks occurred in more than one bone; as it is seen in the case of an individual where a combined tibia/fibula fracture of the right leg was observed (Fig. 7). Both bones were knitted together with displacement of the fragments and the entire lower leg must have been shortened. This fracture was concomitant with damages of the overlying muscles and subsequently developed myositis ossificans traumatica.

However, myositis ossificans traumatica may occur without obvious skeletal injury and after trivial muscle trauma (Apley, 1981; Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martín, 1998). An irregular calcified mass was observed on the posterior surface of tibia in a male at age of death in his 40s (Fig. 8). It probably represents calcified crushed muscle.

On the long bones of the right leg of an adult female was found new bone formation indicating active infection (periostitis) at the time of death (Fig. 9).
Periostitis is usually non-specific, and occurs in many diseases. It may be due to infection, as in the case of osteomyelitis, or result from trauma or even in the recovery phase of deficiency syndromes (e.g. vitamin C deficiency). In the case of syphilis the lesions are commonly found on bone surfaces close to the skin, e.g. anterior surface of the tibia (Steyn and Işcan, 2000). It is also considered, that bones are impacted when the person’s resistance is low due to poor nutrition and stress.

4. Conclusion

The paleopathological investigation of the medieval population of Drustar showed that different pathological conditions were observed in more than one third of the adult individuals. The degenerative diseases of the spine were most often occurred. The data obtained suggest that living conditions were not very favourable for this population, confirming the results of Tcholakov (1993).

5. Acknowledgments

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Brand Engagement: Insights and Learning from other Discipline

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Abstract

Current study was undertaken to explore a new and emerging term “brand engagement”. The main purpose of the research was to identify how male’s involvement in video games could be used to create brand engagement among consumers. The study employed observation, in-depth interviews and survey to collect data from a group of male gaming enthusiasts. Dominance, social interaction and masculinity are the factors that male gamers associate with gaming. The research explored that to attract the male market segment, brand managers need to incorporate attributes in their brand positioning that creates anxiety, curiosity and attraction among them, attributes that motivates the consumers and shows them the challenges and goals of life.

Keywords: Brand Engagement, Dominance, Masculinity, Social Interaction, and Video Games

1. Introduction

“Engagement has been previously examined across a range of academic disciplines, including sociology, psychology, political science, and organisational behavior” (Ilić, 2008) as cited by Hollebeek L. (2011). Engagement is not a new process. People have been engaged in many sorts of activities since ages, be it wine, company of people, sex or any other entertainment. Engagement as mentioned above has been studied in different contexts and disciplines; the concept has its theoretical foundations in psychology (Hollebeek, 2011). Personal engagement was defined as adoption of a work role during the work performance. People assume a particular role physically, emotionally and cognitively and disengage them when they uncouple themselves from the work (Kahn, 1990). The concept is only emerging in the marketing literature; it is being viewed as a useful construct to predict customer loyalty. (Bowden, 2009; & Brodie et al’s, 2010). The concept has been studied uni-dimensionally (Resnick, 2011) and multi-dimensionally (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). The engagement concepts lack a universal conceptualization. It has been studies in different disciplines with different names, such as ‘student engagement’ (Skinner & Belmont, 1999), personal engagement (Kahn, 1990), Customer engagement (Patterson, Yu, &, De Ruyter, 2006), employee engagement (Green, 2007) and customer brand engagement.

Video games and computers are a very common type of an entertainment and their sole purpose is to keep the players engaged and involved. Game designers attract and maintain curiosity towards the game through the designs of computer and video games. (Jones, M. n.d.) Jones further elaborates that games provide the fun-based learning and it is an immersive activity. The paper focused on creating engagement in computer-based learning environment.

The concept of brand engagement has been defined by Hollebeek (2011) as a tripartite construct with cognitive, behavioral, and emotional engagement elements. The current study follows the definition as it has been rigorously worked upon and its relationship with other constructs has been discussed by the author extensively. Hollebeek (2011).

Jones, M (n.d), however, provides a different definition in the context of games. The definition suggests that in the gaming-context, engagement refers to the notion that the learner (player) wants to be in the game. The paper bases the definition on Csikszentmihalyi (1990) flow theory. Flow refers to a stage where individuals feel they are in total control and it gives them a sense of exhilaration and enjoyment. The games are designed with the aim to be an immersive and fun activity. Game players become so deeply involved and engaged in the computer electronic games or video games that they lose interest in the real world around them. The game becomes their virtual world (Dickey, 2005). The main purpose of games, video or computer, is to provide entertainment but the strategies used in games intend to engage people in the game (Jones, M. n.d). The strategies and tactics used depend on the type of game but usually it includes role-playing, challenges, and interaction with others within the game. The study focuses on the factors that cause this engagement and learn it in the creation and augmentation of brand engagement.
2. **Purpose of the Research**

Giselle Abramovich (2012) proposes that Brand engagement is a new phenomenon that requires certain attention. Kazakulova Y. & Kuhn E. (2012) mention that the difference between ordinary and successful brands is the way brand engages its consumers. The purpose of the current research is to find and look for ways that can enhance the creation of brand engagement and involvement among consumers. The main objective is to find out the causes of people especially men getting engaged in games, what causes their involvement in e-games or video games and what are the reasons behind it and what gaming plans, strategies and tactics have been used by the gaming industry to create such deep involvement and how can the same strategies provide useful insights for creating brand engagement. The research seeks to learn from video gaming in the creation of brand engagement, and apply the same thing on consumers to make them engaged in brands in the same way as the game players are engaged in games.

3. **Research Problem**

People are obsessed with different things, be it sports, company of people, sex, games (electronic, video or computer). Males are especially obsessed with video games as discussed by Dickey (2005). The gaming industry has created engagement and involvement in a way that players feel being apart of the game. The current study seeks to find out why and how the gaming industry has created such an attraction for people and what useful insights brand managers can learn and applied in creating brand engagement.

4. **Research Objective**

Following are the research objectives of the current study:

1. To find out about male obsession with video games.
2. To find out the factor establishing a relationship between men and video games.
3. To find out ways to use the learning from video games in creating brand engagement.

5. **Research Questions**

In order to fulfill the research objectives, the study had the following questions.

1. Why are men so obsessed with video games?
2. What factors contribute to the creation of brand engagement?
3. How can these obsessions be applied on creating brand engagement?

6. **Significance of the Study**

The term “brand engagement” is defined as “the level of an individual customer’s motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterized by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioral activity in direct brand interactions” (Hollebeek, 2011). Jochen Wirtz et al (2013) mentions that Brand engagement is a new term or an area that needs to be worked on. Identification of the reason for emotional attachment and obsession to certain things can give smart insights to brand managers to apply the same strategies to create brand engagement. Traditional methods to study this concept may not be appropriate as Kazakulova Y. & Kuhn E. (2012) mention, “Businesses should not expect Brand Engagement to increase by utilizing only the traditional strategies.” This makes the current study more relevant to learn how to enhance engagement. People have been obsessed with video games since their inception. This engagement needs to be studied to find out how a game creates a link or connection with the games they play. This study also provides ways to brand managers to think and come up with new ideas so to create the same engagement among consumers regarding brands.

7. **Scope of the Study**

Although this research study is limited to Pakistan, but video games are played in developing and developed world as well. Therefore the scope of the study is quite wide as it gives directions to brand managers not only in in Pakistan but to
the brand managers of all multinational companies operating in Pakistan and beyond.

8. Research Methodology

The study employs exploratory research methodology, as the concept of brand engagement is an emerging one in the marketing literature. (Hollebeek L., 2011), the methodology uses observation and in-depth interviews for data collection and purposive sampling technique was used to select respondents. The data was collected in the natural settings of the players. The natural settings allow having a clear and uninfluenced picture as to why people are so deeply involved with games. The universe for this study is the population of Karachi, Pakistan. Individual males in the age bracket of 18-25 were the sampling unit. The research employs purposive sampling and a total of 50 individuals were the participants of the study. The research involved in depth interviews and observation. A semi-structured questionnaire was used that consisted of open-end and closed-end questions.

9. Theoretical Underpinnings

Michele D. dickey (2005) concluded that although video games are a form of entertainment but still their main purpose is to get the people involved in them. This research is about the engagement of men in video games and how can that obsession be used to create brand engagement. Games designers are well aware of creating scenarios that invoke the required skills from the players so they can analyze and use critical skills to play the game.

Bruckman’s (1993, 1997) and Turkle’s (1995) research exposed that the virtual setting allows the game players to play and experiment in a safe and non-threatening environment whereby they can discover different aspects such as challenge, interactivity, user control and pleasure. O’Brien, H.L. & Toms, E.G. (2008) discussed different Attributes of engagement as suggested by previous researches. They discussed that gamers are engaged because of attention, challenge, feedback, interactivity, perceived user control and pleasure. Aesthetic appeal, endurability, sensory appeal and variety/novelty did not contribute towards players’ engagement towards the game. According to Prensky (2001), environment that requires the individuals to dig out meaning of symbols and to read the visual environment is more attractive and such video games create engagement. Csikszentmihalyi and Lawson’s (1980) investigation revealed that these games give the players deep concentration, challenges and skills, contentment and control. One more very important insight drawn by Provenzo’s (1991) research revealed that there are some games which are goal oriented and with a very few consequences become appealing to the game players. So it is not just the players’ psychology that is the reason but the whole strategy that works in order to get the game players engage in games. John , M (n.d.) mentions that a game fosters high level of engagement using a total package. The package goes beyond the physical and visible elements of the game. The game establishes the engagement by creating a virtual domain that is not found in the physical world. The game makes the player in the virtual world.

Video game addiction allows people to use the virtual fantasy world to connect with real people as a substitution for real life human connection. As Bruckman (1997) investigated that males find video games a way to connect with different people. Gaming provides a forum to men to demonstrate their skills and competence by applying control and mastery. The players find playing video games masculine in nature. These factors were considered to be the main factor for their involvement in games by Dickey (2005).

Three factors were considered to be the main reason for players’ engagement in the games. First Holbrook et al (1996) mentioned that ‘feeling of dominance in a playful environment’ is an important factor for players. This factor has been studied extensively and holds good reliability and validity. It is this feeling of victory (dominance) that men have over others while they play video games because it enables them to use their skills and competence and dominate others. Second key variable is Masculinity. DiSalvo et al (2009) and Kirkland, E (2009) discussed the role of Masculinity as a cultural force in game and discuss that players construct their masculinity through the masculine activities in the games such as —fighting, collecting weaponry, exploring and dominating space. Players feel proud to tell it to others because it’s a men’s thing. The third variable under study is the Social interaction as investigated by Bruckman (1997). Men have a different way of interacting, calling over friends at home and playing video games is one of their ways of interaction. McAllister et al (2012) conducted a study using Bartle’s test of gamers’ psychology. They identified that socialization is an important aspect of game design. They identified socializer as a gamer category, these gamers do not play the game because it interests them, and their main purpose is to socialize. The gaming industry provides them an opportunity to socialize by playing with each other sitting at their homes online. Bruckman (1997) and Turkle (1996). The relationship is presented in the Diagram 1 below
10. Data Analysis and Findings

Data was collected using observation and in-depth interviews. Observations were made in the natural settings of the players. Players were not told about the purpose of the observation to make unbiased observation. The observation focused on understanding the factors of engagement during the play and players that play at least two hours a day were selected. The findings from observation areas below:

- The gamers were trying to experiment with the game. They were incorporating their physical world learning in the game. For example, a football enthusiast was trying to apply his football playing knowledge from the ground in the game. The game allowed him to play without restrictions.
- Second finding was the strong urge to win. Electronic games give unlimited number of opportunities to the players to try to win again and again. The urge was strong when two or more players were playing the game.
- Third finding was that the players did not want to be moved away from the game, not even for food or basic necessities. The game seemed so immersive and as discussed earlier, it became a virtual world.

In-depth interviews were conducted to comprehend the gamers’ understanding of their engagement. The findings are as below:

- First, the game design and features are the most important factor that captre their attention and urges them to play the game.
- Second, the game allows to play beyond the limits of the physical world.
- Third, the games allow a social platform to link with other players and enables the player to exhibit their performance.
- The gamers explained the reasons of not moving away from the game and mentioned that moving away gives advantage to the other player in better understanding the game in their absence and they could lose the game.

Observation and in-depth interviews were followed by a survey to quantify the findings. A descriptive analysis of the survey findings is given as below:

Chart 01 shows that out of 50 respondents, 46% of them say that they play games to socialize with their friends. These games allow them to have multiple players and they can play and compete with each other online. Whereas 30% of the respondents say that it gives them dominance over other players.
Chart 02

Chart 02 shows that 44% of the total respondents look for challenging tasks and goals when they are playing video games; it’s the game itself, which becomes interesting and attractive for them when they strive to achieve some target. 24% of the respondents say that they want the game to play with others so it has to be multi-players game.

Chart 03

Chart 03 shows that 44% of the respondents are engaged in video games because of the rewards and interesting game levels it has. Here the reverse psychology works where you first show the reward and then the individual is motivated to get it. 36% of the respondents are engaged because of the game’s curiosity that it creates.

11. Discussion and Conclusion

They key factors that we should consider from the above gathered data are the social interaction, challenging tasks, goals and the curiosity that the game creates. It must be well understood that engagement is a two-way street. It’s not only the psychology that is playing its part to engage men in video games but it’s also the strategies of the gaming industries that have been successful in attracting its target audience. Patterson et al. (2006) model of engagement discussed vigor, dedication and absorption. It is an appropriate model to apply on gamers as these factors contribute to their immersion in the game. Stanford, D. (2012) discussed the positioning strategy of Mountain Dew brand and considers it be a good example of how brands targeting men should be positioned. Hollebeek (2011) discuss that direct brand interaction means direct physical encounter with the focal brand; games are an engagement subject that provide this interaction to all the players.

The concept of specific types of engagement antecedents, or drivers, is limited to date (Hollebeek, 2011). The earlier theoretical discussion on engagement has focused on the traditional methods, but as discussed in the introduction that the concept of engagement is multidisciplinary with its foundations in psychology, the current study discussed a different perspective for academicians and managers in understanding how brand managers could create engagement among male consumers. Linking the gamers segment with that ‘customer based segment/loyalty nexus by segment model’ of Hollebeek, the gamers fall in the ‘activists’ quadrant. It suggests that this segment has a curvilinear engagement loyalty nexus. Lower or no level of engagement in games does not develop loyalty. Strong loyalty is developed when the gamers are an activist group. This makes the gamer type market segment a desirable segment in any company’s market base. Wright (2008), however, discussed that activists are prone to emotional fatigue. The over-excitement that this group has with the object of engagement and the direct interaction reduces the propensity of the engagement subject to re-patronize. Any brand targeting the male gamer type segment needs to keep introducing higher...
level of excitement to avoid this fatigue. The feeling of power, dominance and opportunity to socialize should be the main elements of the positioning strategy.

References


The Enforcement of Intellectual Property Rights in Digital Environment Based on ACTA

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Abstract

The most essential feature of Right in Law’s domain is the appropriate enforcement of that and prohibition of third party infringement due to applying proper actions toward the right. The appropriate enforcement of the intellectual property rights since its existence either nationally or internationally has been one of the most crucial concerns of the legislators and juristic. The intellectual property rights in physical environment did not mainly concern with its true enforcement, but by the advent of internet and the wide spread e-commerce and the simplicity of rights infringement through internet, right holders face with the new challenge has not proposed yet. Due to complexity of intellectual property in cyberspace, discussing the enforcement of it is complex too, so as TRIPS agreement has not been successful to provide an effective enforcement in this field. ACTA agreement- assigned by 8 like-minded countries in October 2011-in a particular section refers to the enforcement of the intellectual property rights in digital environment in order to provide efficient solutions against right infringement. The present article tries to study the enforcement of the intellectual property rights in cyberspace focusing on the recent agreement.

Keywords: intellectual property rights, ACTA agreement, enforcement, digital environment

1. Introduction

The most fundamental quality for a right recognized in the realm of law is its enforcement and its power to stop the third parties from violating such rights by utilizing proper mechanisms. Since intellectual property rights have been proposed, the possibility of its enforcement has always been among the greatest concerns of legislators and lawyers of the counties and even many of the politicians, statesmen and huge companies’ executives are trying to guarantee the enforcement of such rights. The issue of exercising intellectual property rights was not seriously discussed in Paris and Berne Conventions and the signees of these documents have tried to recognize intellectual property rights more than their enforcement. There is no much talk about enforcing such rights in Rome Convention which was on Related Rights and is closely related to Berne convention. One of the most important international treaties, passed in 1994, on intellectual property rights is TRIPS agreement. TRIPS involves all the issues related to copyright and industrial property rights and seeks to actualize the idea of internationalizing intellectual property rights and it set the foundation for the talks on the enforcement of intellectual property rights seriously so that those whose right have been violated can effectively prevent such violations or ask for compensations.

With the progresses made in technological and communication areas such as internet and the expansion of E-commerce and consequently the possibility of easier infringing of Intellectual Property Rights, developed countries such as Japan and the United States were not pleased with the enforcement signed in TRIPS and sought to set new regulations in the form of multilateral agreements (Free Trade Agreements) to guarantee the enforcement of intellectual property rights so that they could eliminate the shortcomings of previous conventions and TRIPS. These efforts finally led to the creation of Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement (ACTA). The Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement (ACTA) is a multinational treaty for the purpose of establishing international standards for intellectual property rights enforcement even more than enforcements which are in TRIPS and WIPO internet treaties.

The ACTA talks started in 2007 and the agreement was signed in October 2011. Participants in the negotiations included: Australia, Canada, the European Union (EU), represented by the European Commission and the EU Presidency and the EU Member States, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Morocco, New Zealand, Singapore, Switzerland and the

1 Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement.
2 Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights.
3 Reid smith, Sanya 2008. Intellectual property in free trade agreements. p.3
4 Word Intellectual Property Organization
United States of America. Eight countries out of these 11 countries signed the agreement in October 2011.

The objective set for this agreement is to utilize ACTA to effectively tackle the increasing problem of counterfeit goods trade and piracy.

In fact, ACTA mostly focuses on counterfeiting activities which greatly impact economic benefits not normal activities conducted by ordinary citizens.

This agreement includes 6 chapters and 45 articles. The most important and challenging of which is the second chapter on civil legal framework for enforcement of intellectual property rights in five sections: General Obligations with Respect to Enforcement, Civil Enforcement, Border Measures, Criminal Enforcement, and Enforcement of Intellectual Property Rights in the Digital Environment. The last section is the most technical and innovative part compared to those of other agreements since nothing like it had ever been set in the international treaties on intellectual property rights.

In this article, we aim at discussing section 5 of chapter 2 in ACTA which is the enforcement of intellectual property rights in the digital environment. It is obvious that the articles of ACTA and specially its second chapter have come under serious criticism by developing and underdeveloped countries, but this article just tries to elaborate the principles and articles of this agreement, and if we find the opportunity later, we will try to take a look at the shortcomings of the agreement and its criticisms.

1.1 Analyze of ACTA Article 27

Cyber Space, unlike its special nature, has not undergone any changes regarding the enforcement of intellectual property rights; in other words, civil and criminal enforcement are applied against infringements of intellectual property rights in Cyber Space as well. However, when we talk about the enforcement of the infringement in this area, we merely want to discuss new issues and the expansion of cases where enforcements are applied. Because of:

1. After the topic of Rights Management information (RMI) in digital environment was proposed, it became important to consider the proper enforcement against those who induce, enable, facilitate, or conceal the infringements of copyrighted works or consider the proper enforcement against those who remove or alter any information management in an unauthorized way. This topic which has been discussed above is important in physical world.

2. with the advent of Internet, on the one hand Providing Enforcement against right infringement in the Internet environment and on the other hand expand scope of liability over Internet service providers and web designers which did not exist in physical environment arise.

Article 27 of ACTA requires institutions which are in charge of enforcing intellectual property rights to deter any unlawful distribution or infringing works over digital networks. Article 27.1 has been set to ensure the same civil and criminal enforcement provided in ACTA so as to permit effective action against an act of infringement of intellectual property rights, piracy or trade mark infringement which takes place in the digital environment, including expeditious remedies to avert infringement and remedies which form a deterrent to further infringements. This paragraph states:

Each Party shall ensure that enforcement procedures, to the extent set forth in Sections 2 (Civil Enforcement) and 4 (Criminal Enforcement), are available under its law so as to permit effective action against an act of infringement of intellectual property rights which takes place in the digital environment, including expeditious remedies to prevent infringement and remedies which constitute a deterrent to further infringements.

One of the examples which can be provided for expeditious remedies is the UK 1988 Copyrights-designs-patent act which based on Britain courts can prosecute and issue a verdict against an Internet service provider that is aware of one using the service to infringe copyright. An example of deterrent remedies to avoid further infringement is that confiscation of the properties and goods whose intellectual property rights have been violated. Article 46 of TRIPS has discussed this issue:

In order to create an effective deterrent to infringement, the judicial authorities shall have the authority to order that goods that they have found to be infringing be, without compensation of any sort, disposed of outside the channels of commerce in such a manner as to avoid any harm caused to the right holder, or, unless this would be contrary to existing constitutional requirements, destroyed. The judicial authorities shall also have the authority to order that materials and implements the predominant use of which has been in the creation of the infringing goods be, without compensation of any sort, disposed of outside the channels of commerce in such a manner as to minimize the risks of further infringements. In considering such requests, the need for proportionality between the seriousness of the infringement and the remedies ordered as well as the interests of third parties shall be taken into account. In regard to counterfeit trademark goods, the simple removal of the trademark unlawfully affixed shall not be sufficient, other than in exceptional
cases, to permit release of the goods into the channels of commerce.

On the issue of deterrent remedies in digital environment, we can also refer to UK Government White Paper Digital Britain: Final Report. This report suggests that Internet service providers should first inform their clients about the claim made regarding their illegal activities and if they pay no attention and do not to stop their illegal activities; the following deterrent measures will be taken:

1. The blocking of access to websites, internet protocol (IP) addresses or to a uniform resource locator (or URL, which is the global address of individual WebPages, documents and other resources on the worldwide web);
2. Protocol blocking (preventing certain internet protocols from accessing the internet which can prevent certain internet services being used by a computer);
3. Port blocking (preventing certain ports from accessing the internet, whit the same aim as protocol blocking);
4. Bandwidth capping (which reduces the speed at which files might be downloaded);
5. Volume capping (restricting the amount of data that may be downloaded over a period of time);
6. Bandwidth shaping (limiting the speed of a subscriber’s access to selected protocols or services);
7. Content identification and filtering.

The question which should be answered here is: what is the difference between article 27.1 in ACTA and article 41.1 in TRIPS. Article 41.1 states:

1. Members shall ensure that enforcement procedures as specified in this Part are available under their law so as to permit effective action against any act of infringement of intellectual property rights covered by this Agreement, including expeditious remedies to prevent infringements and remedies which constitute a deterrent to further infringements. These procedures shall be applied in such a manner as to avoid the creation of barriers to legitimate trade and to provide for safeguards against their abuse.

In response to the question, it can be said that what has been added to article 27.1 of ACTA compared to TRIPS is the explicit talk regarding the issue of enforcement over digital environment. The infringers of intellectual property rights in the digital world fall into five categories:

a) The communications provider, which will include telecommunication and broadcasting companies
b) The internet service provider (ISP)
c) The providers of online websites which make facilities available for the downloading of proprietary material
d) Infringers of rights management information; and
e) The providers and acquires of infringing material through the digital environment.

Therefore, to carry out effective action against any infringement of intellectual property rights in digital world, there should exist the possibility of prosecuting all the above-mentioned infringers. Another issue which is also related to the application of digital technology and can be raised here is, whether the above-mentioned individuals are themselves infringers or are involved in such activities indirectly and technically are so called third parties.

Some of the enforcements which are mentioned in section 2 and 4 of ACTA have also been stated in article 27.1 which talks about the third parties. Article 8.1 in ACTA states:

Each Party shall provide that, in civil judicial proceedings concerning the enforcement of intellectual property rights, its judicial authorities have the authority to issue an order against a party to desist from an infringement, and inter alia, an order to that party or, where appropriate, to a third party over whom the relevant judicial authority exercises jurisdiction, to prevent goods that involve the infringement of an intellectual property right from entering into the channels of commerce.

Article 12 also says:

Each Party shall provide that its judicial authorities have the authority to order prompt and effective provisional measures: (a) against a third party over whom the relevant judicial authority exercises jurisdiction, to prevent an infringement of any intellectual property right from occurring, and in particular, to prevent goods that involve the infringement of an intellectual property right from entering into the channels of commerce.

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6 ibid, at 275-276.
7 ibid, at 267.
Item 4 of article 23 points out:

With respect to the offences specified in this Article for which a Party provides criminal procedures and penalties that Party shall ensure that criminal liability for aiding and abetting is available under its law.

Based on the above-mentioned items, the changes happened in the doctrine of copyright is that, the individuals mentioned in the above items of a to c (infringers of intellectual property rights in digital environment) have civil and criminal responsibility as the third parties because of:

a. Enabling copyright breach by others
b. Inducing and encouraging others to infringe a copyright and entering into a common design and effort with others to infringe a right
c. Transferring copyright works to the public

It should be noted here that enforcements has been mentioned in article 27.1 of Acta are limited by conditions set in article 27.2. These procedures shall be put into practice in a way that avoids the creation of obstacles to legitimate activity, including electronic commerce and preserves fundamental principles such as freedom of expression, fair process, and privacy. These concepts and limitations which have also been mentioned in paragraph 3 and 4 are very general and ambiguous. Three main principles have been added to these paragraphs to lessen the objections made by some of the countries like the European Union accusing ACTA of highly monitoring Internet users’ activities and making some of their free and legal activities illegal in some cases. The recent part of article 27.2 states:

2. These procedures shall be implemented in a manner that avoids the creation of barriers to legitimate activity, including electronic commerce, and, consistent with that Party's law, preserves fundamental principles such as freedom of expression, fair process, and privacy.

One of the solutions which can guarantee intellectual property rights in digital world is the increasing cooperation between Internet service providers and the right holders. This has been pointed out in article 27.3:

Each Party shall endeavor to promote cooperative efforts within the business community to effectively address trademark and copyright or related rights infringement while preserving legitimate competition and, consistent with that Party's law, preserving fundamental principles such as freedom of expression, fair process, and privacy.

Another issue which has been raised after the advent of Internet and is related to the enforcement of IP is the expansion of scope of right infringement liability and holding Internet service providers liable against such infringements. The overriding importance of this issue becomes clear when you realize some of the lawyers and legislatures consider Internet service providers as the shining examples of people who violate intellectual property rights in E-commerce. Even some of the countries such as Japan, have set a separate law for this issue.

Paragraph C of article 1 in the Convention on cyber Crimes defines Internet service providers:

i. Any public or private entity that provides to users of its service the ability to communicate by means of a computer system, and

ii. Any other entity that processes or stores computer data on behalf of such communication service or users of such service.

Section 512(k)(l)(B) of Digital millennium copyright act also defines ISPs as : “a provider of online services or network access, or the operator of facilities therefore.”

Perhaps one of the main reasons to make Internet Service Providers liable is that if infringers are insolvent or non-identified. Then, Internet service providers can be held responsible and the claimant can prosecute them for the damages done because it is the Internet service provider who helps the offender to break the law by providing him with access to copyrighted works in Internet. article 27.4 states:

A Party may provide, in accordance with its laws and regulations, its competent authorities with the authority to order an online service provider to disclose expeditiously to a right holder information sufficient to identify a subscriber whose account was alleged to infringe, where that right holder has filed a legally sufficient claim of trademark or copyright or related rights infringement, and where such information is being sought for the purpose of protecting or enforcing those rights. These procedures shall be implemented in a manner that avoids the creation of barriers to legitimate activity, including electronic commerce, and, consistent with that Party's law, preserves fundamental principles such as freedom of expression, fair process, and privacy.

Sadeghi , Mohsen. The Protection of IPR in Internet Enforcement, Institute of Trade Studies and Research. March 2007,p.90

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Another solution which can be provided against infringement of intellectual property rights in the digital environment is to prosecute those who knowingly do harm to technological measures that are used by right holders. Article 27.5 talks about this issue:

Each Party shall provide adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies against the circumvention of effective technological measures that are used by authors, performers or producers of phonograms in connection with the exercise of their rights in, and that restrict acts in respect of, their works, performances, and phonograms, which are not authorized by the authors, the performers or the producers of phonograms concerned or permitted by law.

This article is mostly adapted from WIPO Internet treaties. Article 11 of WIPO copyright treaty and article 11 of WIPO performances and phonograms Treaty states respectively:

“Contracting Parties shall provide adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies against the circumvention of effective technological measures that are used by authors in connection with the exercise of their rights under this Treaty or the Berne Convention and that restrict acts, in respect of their works, which are not authorized by the authors concerned or permitted by law.”

“Contracting Parties shall provide adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies against the circumvention of effective technological measures that are used by performers or producers of phonograms in connection with the exercise of their rights under this Treaty and that restrict acts, in respect of their performances or phonograms, which are not authorized by the performers or the producers of phonograms concerned or permitted by law.”

The question which can be raised here is: what are these technological measures? Technological measures have been defined in footnote 14 of ACTA as:

For the purposes of this Article, technological measures means any technology, device, or component that, in the normal course of its operation, is designed to prevent or restrict acts, in respect of works, performances, or phonograms, which are not authorized by authors, performers or producers of phonograms, as provided for by a Party’s law. Without prejudice to the scope of copyright or related rights contained in a Party’s law, technological measures shall be deemed effective where the use of protected works, performances, or phonograms is controlled by authors, performers or producers of phonograms through the application of a relevant access control or protection process, such as encryption or scrambling, or a copy control mechanism, which achieves the objective of protection.

Technological measures shall be deemed "effective" where the use of a protected work or other subject-matter is controlled by the right holders through application of an access control or protection process, such as encryption, scrambling or other transformation of the work or other subject-matter or a copy control mechanism, which achieves the protection objective.

Another question which should be answered is: against what actions adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies referred to in paragraph 5, should be conducted? Article 27.6 has answered this question in two parts:

In order to provide the adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies referred to in paragraph 5, each Party shall provide protection at least against:

a. To the extent provided by its law:
   i. The unauthorized circumvention of an effective technological measure carried out knowingly or with reasonable grounds to know; and
   ii. The offering to the public by marketing of a device or product, including computer programs, or a service, as a means of circumventing an effective technological measure; and
b. The manufacture, importation, or distribution of a device or product, including computer programs, or provision of a service that:
   i. Is primarily designed or produced for the purpose of circumventing an effective technological measure; or
   ii. Has only a limited commercially significant purpose other than circumventing an effective technological measure.

Article 27.7 is about the protection of electronic rights management information. this paragraph provides that:

To protect electronic rights management information, each Party shall provide adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies against any person knowingly performing without authority any of the following acts knowing, or with respect to civil remedies, having reasonable grounds to know, that it will induce, enable, facilitate, or conceal an

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infringement of any copyright or related rights:

a. to remove or alter any electronic rights management information;

b. To distribute, import for distribution, broadcast, communicate, or make available to the public copies of works, performances, or phonograms, knowing that electronic rights management information has been removed or altered without authority.

Electronic rights management tools which are sometimes referred to as digital rights management tools are usually in the form of digital records restricting unauthorized use of copyrighted materials. One of the functions of this tool is to limit access to the contents of works to prevent unlawful copying. Article 27(7) of ACTA prohibits any removal or change in electronic rights management information. WCT and WPPT also point out the same thing in articles 12 and 19 respectively. Article 12 of WCT states:

(1) Contracting Parties shall provide adequate and effective legal remedies against any person knowingly performing any of the following acts knowing, or with respect to civil remedies having reasonable grounds to know, that it will induce, enable, facilitate or conceal an infringement of any right covered by this Treaty or the Berne Convention:

(i) to remove or alter any electronic rights management information without authority;

(ii) to distribute, import for distribution, broadcast or communicate to the public, without authority, works or copies of works knowing that electronic rights management information has been removed or altered without authority.

(2) As used in this Article, “rights management information” means information which identifies the work, the author of the work, or information about the terms and conditions of use of the work, and any numbers or codes that represent such information, when any of these items of information is attached to a copy of a work or appears in connection with the communication of a work to the public.

Article 19 of WPPT also says:

(1) Contracting Parties shall provide adequate and effective legal remedies against any person knowingly performing any of the following acts knowing, or with respect to civil remedies having reasonable grounds to know, that it will induce, enable, facilitate or conceal an infringement of any right covered by this Treaty:

(i) to remove or alter any electronic rights management information without authority;

(ii) to distribute, import for distribution, broadcast, communicate or make available to the public, without authority, performances, copies of fixed performances or phonograms knowing that electronic rights management information has been removed or altered without authority.

(2) As used in this Article, “rights management information” means information which identifies the performer, the performance of the performer, the producer of the phonogram, the phonogram, the owner of any right in the performance or phonogram, or information about the terms and conditions of use of the performance or phonogram, and any numbers or codes that represent such information, when any of these items of information is attached to a copy of a fixed performance or a phonogram or appears in connection with the communication or making available of a fixed performance or a phonogram in public.

2. Conclusion

In a word, it can be said that because digital environment has facilitated the infringement of intellectual property rights, it has created a lot of dangers for the right holders and that is why various treaties are seeking to protect IP rights but none of them has discussed the issue of enforcing intellectual property rights over digital environment. That type of enforcement which has been discussed in article 27 of ACTA to protect intellectual property rights can meet the needs of right holders to some extent. However, as it was said, developing countries consider these measures as barriers to the way of their progress. In this article, we only elaborated and discussed each of the paragraphs of article 27 of ACTA and we hope to be able to investigate its defects and its impact on developing countries as well.

References

Bioclimatic Analysis State School in the City of Macapá-Amapá/Brazil

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Abstract

The growth of cities shows the importance of seeking solutions that minimize the environmental impacts due to the fact that civil construction is among the activities that cause most environmental degradation. Bioclimatic architecture, that relates man to climate, optimizes the energy relations with the surrounding natural environment through architectural designs and particular strategies. The architectural design is the most adequate stage for implementing sustainability guidelines in the building. In the context of school building in the State of Amapá, the standard design developed by SEINF-AP asserts itself as a school building defined according to the construction rationalization for the generation of economy in public administration; however it has been found that due priority has not been given to the building environmental performance. The implantation of the building on the site and its physical configuration in the school environment should adapt itself to the climatic characteristics of the region and the terrain where it may be built. The lack of flexibility in these projects entails unfavorable conditions – especially thermal comfort in the building – which interfere in productivity, motivation and concentration of the users.

Keywords: Bioclimatic architecture; standard school building, thermal comfort.

1. Introduction

The present Project considers the principles of bioclimatic architecture, the environmental factors, the human comfort and the architectural solutions in the constructed school environment.

Macapá, the Amapá state capitol, according to the 2012 Census Bureau data has a population of 415,554, and is
located in the extreme north of Brazil, on the banks of the Amazon River. The humid equatorial climate presents high
temperatures, low wind velocity, high relative humidity rates and abundant precipitation with totals oscillating from 30 to
400 mm a month. In consequence, there is an increase in the annual average temperature, the record of which indicates
approximately 27.1 °C. Therefore, one can see the importance of implementing strategies to obtain thermal comfort in
the buildings because of these climatic characteristics.

In the Valeverde neighborhood we have the Professora Jacinta Carvalho State School, inaugurated on August 1st,
2012, with a 1200 student capacity, following the standard prototype of two stories with 16 classrooms, a multipurpose
sports court, cafeteria, computer lab, auditorium and administrative block, according to the standard project established
by the Amapá State Secretary of Infrastructure – SEINF. The building standardization has great advantages such as the
speed of the public tender process, since the architectural, structural and complementary projects are defined, a specific
tender is not necessary, allowing only the adjustments of implementing the building in the terrain. However, if the
localization and solar orientation of the buildings is not taken into account, obeying the regional climatic characteristics,
the quality of the school building may be affected, compromising the whole project. The result will be a project that may
not meet the users’ comfort requirements, that is, provide a favorable and stimulating educational environment.
According to studies by Bartolomeu (2007), the fact that often the professionals who think constructed space do not take
the behavior of the sun and the climatic conditions into consideration in the buildings and urbanization of equatorial cities
causes the inhabitants to live with great thermal discomfort, be it in the buildings or in the open spaces (streets, squares
and promenades). The inhabitants, meanwhile, try to solve this problem developing strategies to adapt to the local
climate. However, the main focus of this project was based on the thermal comfort in school buildings, specifically with
predetermined standard design, that is, whose architectural project is stipulated by modules based on the classrooms.
Based on standardization, the spaces in a school building are organized in a determined plot taking into consideration
only the current local legislation. In this context, the adaptation of the architectural project to the climate of a given region
and the choice of materials befitting that climate are determinant factors to guarantee high quality architecture, entailing
rationalized projects, reducing the energy consumption and offering satisfying thermal conditions to the user (BERALDO,
2007)

2. Goal

The goal of this project was to carry out a bioclimatic analysis of the school architecture currently used in the State of
Amapá, where we intend to answer the following question: “does the implantation of standard school buildings adopted in
the public school network in the state of Amapá allow a homogenous performance of the thermal comfort aspects for the
users?”

3. Method

The Methodological procedures used in this project are based on the characterization of the E.E. Teacher Jacinta
Carvalho, chosen as a case study, with data provided by the Amapá State Secretary of Infrastructure (SEINF), whose
installations mention the project standard archetype and of the following analyses: the bioclimatic characteristics of the
region under study with the use of the Climaticus program 4.1; of the ventilation in constructed environments with the use
of the Fluxovento program; of the solar Incidence and shading of the diverse facades of the building in different periods
of the year with the use of the Heliodon2 program. Through the result of these procedures we sought the definition of
conclusive recommendations for the climate of the locality, as a form of contribution to education, research and practical
applications, aiming to adjust to the normative requirement for thermal performance in the buildings.

4. Climatic Characteristics of the Location

Brazil has its climate mapped and divided into bioclimatic zones. These zones relate to the climatic characteristics of the
various areas of the territory, which do not obey political mapping or division into States or economic regions. Based on
these studies and its respective map, one can find the climate of each city, and correlate it through data that indicate the
recommended strategies and bioclimatic construction guidelines for each site where a building will be designed and
constructed. Studies of researchers related to the climates of diverse parts of the country mapped the Brazilian territory,
dividing it into bioclimatic zones. As figure below, Amapá is in the Z8, its main recommendation being crossed ventilation,
shade for openings and artificial refrigeration. According to Givoni diagram 27.1% of the year Macapá presents
characteristics of the Ventilation Zone. This situation occurs mainly in the middle of the night, from May through September. 72.9% of the year the city of Macapá is found in the Zone that requires artificial conditioning.

Figure 01 & 02: On the left the map of climatic zoning in Brazil and recommended strategies, on the right, a graph with data on the temperature and relative humidity for Macapá (Adapted of ZBBR 1,1)

Macapá is found at the latitude 00º 02 ' 20 N and longitude 51º 03 ' 59" W. Its land area is 1,065, 00 km². In this region, the global solar irradiation presents an annual average of 584,4 Wh/m² day. Located in a tropical zone, the climate of the city it is classified as equatorial super-humid (hot and humid), a direct influence of the Amazonian forest due to its geographic localization (on the equator), with constant rains, small thermal amplitude and without defined climatic seasons, one observes throughout the period, that the average temperature, average maximum and minimum average of air were of the order of 26.8°C, 27.9°C and 25.7°C, respectively. According to data of the Ministry of Agriculture Meteorology Service (1931/1960 norms), the greatest annual frequencies of the winds for the city of Macapá are northeast (29%), north (10%) and east (9%). The frequency from other directions is insignificant. The average wind speed is between 2.6 and 2.9m/s and there is a lull 45% of the 12 months, as shown in figure 03.

Figure 03: Statistical diagram of the winds in Macapá (site Windfinder)

5. Standard School Building

Standardized school construction system appeared in Brazil in the 70's (Kowaltowski, 2005). The idea was to project a unified standard so that it could be repeated on different terrains of different cities, modifying only the form of implantation. For the case study, the school building archetype of the Government of the State of the Amapá was analyzed. This standard was conceived in 2008 by the technical team at the State Secretary of Infrastructure - SEINF. Since then the new schools of the State of the Amapá have rigorously followed the archetype for public education buildings. The project presents a typology with classrooms directed in opposing directions, divided in four parts with hallways directed outwards. In this standard the blocks can be two or three floors with 8, 12 or 16 rooms. All of them have a library, auditorium, sports court, cafeteria, etc.

This archetype of school construction has an estimated cost of R$ 4.000.000, 00 (four million Real ). Starting in 2008 the Amapá Government initiated the construction of four schools archetypes, being: Nanci Nina Costa (Macapá); Eliesbão (Santana) State school and the Augusto of the Angels State School, currently being inaugurated, in Macapá.
The construction of a new school unit involves several stages, from the donation of the land by the city, through the process of implanting the standard project on the terrain, the approval of this project by the competent agencies, and the bidding process, and up to the actual construction.

6. **Prof Jacinta Carvalho State School**

The Prof Jacinta Carvalho State school is situated in the Valeverde neighborhood in the city of Macapá, in the urban zone at 0°02' S and 51°06'W, near the fazendinha district where the main watering-place of the city is located. The land made available for the school encompasses an area of 7900m², and is surrounded by native vegetation and a preservation area on the west, being accessible via the Marinha Street.
The executive project follows the Amapá State Government archetype proposal for school construction and is divided as follows: two floors with: 16 classrooms; computer lab; Auditorium; Library; Administrative area; Conference room; teachers' room; Educational nucleus; sports court; Cafeteria and Bathrooms. The project foresaw three blocks, the main block being rectangular, twelve meters wide by 80 meters long, the multi-sports court 24 meters wide by 45 meters long and the cafeteria 26 meters wide by 10 meters long. The present study detained itself to the main block.

Figure 06: Implantation of the Jacinta Carvalho School

The building faces the east-northeast quadrant at 14 degrees to the west of due north. The facades will be called, for simplicity, east and west facade existing angle is minor.


The main building is twelve meters wide by 80 meters long divided in two floors with ceilings 4m high each. The 16 classrooms measure 6m wide by 8m long each, 8 rooms facing east and 8 facing west. There is a great hall dividing the two blocks of classrooms, where the stairs are placed. The classroom window frames are made of aluminum and glass 6mm thick, with sills at 1,40m, and 2,40m wide and 1,50m high.

Figure 07: Upper floor blueprint

7. Analysis with Bioclimatic Tools

7.1 Study of facade insulation

The main façade faces west, which is unfavorable, since, as can be seen in figure 08, the sun shines directly on the largest facade throughout the year heating the walls and consequently raising the temperature in internal environments. This directly influences the performance of the building. The north and south façades, the smallest of the building, are in a more favorable position, due to lesser incidence of solar radiation. This condition is fairly constant during the entire year.
and varies little in the course of the day.

For the analysis of the intensity of the insolation on the façades Heliodon2 and Climaticus 4.1 software was used, as we can see in a simplified form: North Facade = in the afternoon there is a solar incidence of 680 W/m²; South façade = in the morning there is a solar incidence of 650 W/m²; East facade = in the morning there is a solar incidence of 680 W/m²; West facade = in the afternoon there is a solar incidence of 680 W/m².

Still through Climaticus 4.1 data, it can be observed that the east, north and west facades receive solar incidence be it in the morning or the afternoon, and at all hours of this period and during the whole year. On the other hand for the south façade this condition changes, being more favorable for this facade, since one can see, for example, that in the month of June the sun only reaches this facade between 7 and 8 am.

![Diagram of insolation on the facades](Adapted from Climaticus 4.1).

**Figure 08:** Diagram of insolation on the facades (Adapted from Climaticus 4.1).

The east facade at 10am suffers the greatest incidence of solar radiation and according to the analysis of the projected solar chart on the construction we see that the facade is not protected at this period. The sun impacts the facade without obstacle until 10am during every month of the year. From March to September the insolation occurs until 11am. The west facade at 4pm suffers the greatest incidence of solar radiation and according to the analysis of the projected solar chart for the building we see that this is the least favorable facade. There is no protection starting at 2pm throughout the year. The sun reaches this facade that even has large glass windows 6mm thick that do not prevent the entrance of solar radiation.

![Analysis of the shading of the construction throughout the year](Adapted from Heliodon2)

**Figure 09:** Analysis of the shading of the construction throughout the year (Adapted from Heliodon2)
The conditions shown above demonstrate the solar incidence on the wall of the classroom, as well as the penetration of the sun into the classroom 3pm, 3:30pm and 4pm. The sun invades the room starting at 3:30pm causing the temperature to rise. Even with the 2.5m hallway and the 1.2m eaves there is no barrier for the sun, allowing the same to shine on the wall of the classrooms facing west from 2pm until it sets. The lack of flexibility in the project archetype ensures that this situation is presents in the other schools as well.


7.2 Study of ventilation

In relation to the ventilation, even if the construction directly faces the predominant ventilation, it does not possess crossed openings and consequently, according to simulations made using fluxovento software, the wind does not penetrate the classrooms and there is little ventilation in the hallway of the building. Analyzing only the room one perceives that the lack of openings opposite the existing windows, even with incidence of ventilation in the place, hinders penetration of the ventilation into the classrooms.

Figure 10: Wind flow in the building and classrooms (Adapted from Fluxovento)
7.3 Survey of the environmental restrictions

Measurement of the climatic parameters during peak hours of solar incidence in the classrooms facing west and east in the table below:

### Table 1: Climatic parameters found in room 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Point 1</th>
<th>Point 2</th>
<th>Point 3</th>
<th>Point 4</th>
<th>Point 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>ºC</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relative humidity</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
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<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>dB</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>33.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>Lux</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind flow</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The values verified in the analysis of room 9, show the absence of wind flow in the classrooms due to the existing openings being all in the same wall, not allowing cross ventilation. The classrooms have good luminosity, presenting values above those recommended by NBR 5413 (in classrooms the luminosity must be over 200 Lux). The noise did not present variations even though the school is located on a public street, thus being susceptible to the noise from the same. The temperature registered below 30°C even at the peak of solar radiation (10am), at this time the east facades already do not suffer much solar incidence.

### Table 2: Climatic parameters found in room 13

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
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<th>Point 3</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Temperature</td>
<td>ºC</td>
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<td>34.7</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>34.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relative humidity</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
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<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>dB</td>
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<td>32.6</td>
<td>32.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>Lux</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>2478</td>
<td>846</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wind flow</td>
<td>m/s</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values verified in the analysis of room 13, also show the absence of wind flow in the classrooms, good luminosity and the noise levels without variations, however the temperature showed itself very high, since at the peak of solar radiation (4pm), the west facades suffer high solar incidence. With the intention of going deeper in the analysis we checked the incidence of wind flow and temperature in the hallway that leads to the classrooms, which possess openings that allow cross ventilation and is shaded constantly, even in the hours of peak solar radiation. We found that the temperature of the hallway outside the classrooms held steady at 29.8°C during the whole afternoon and were able to perceive a wind flow of 1.2m/s.

*Figure 11: Map of the localization of the points where the parameters were collected*
Comparing the conditions of the Hallway with those in room 13, that receives direct insolation starting at 3:30pm, we saw a stability of temperature in the Hallway while in room 13 the temperature went up considerably, passing from 30.8°C to 34.8°C, as seen in graph 01.

Graph 01: Evolution of the temperature on the West facade from 3pm to 4pm (Aragão, 2012).

8. Final Considerações and Recommendations

Knowledge of the climate and bioclimatic strategies shows itself as an important step to understanding the real necessity imposed by the environment and that it must be taken into consideration in the buildings. Through the climate analysis using the Givoni Diagram, it is observed that the city of Macapá, whose climatic characteristic, according to Koppen, are equatorial super humid (Af) this being the only type of incident climate in the State of the Amapá; only 0.3% of the year the city is in the zone of comfort and 72.9% requiring artificial conditioning, hence the great necessity to adapt the building to the climate. We can conclude, without rigorous analysis, that the solar orientation of the standard school building developed by the Amapá State government does not correspond to the ideal of ambient comfort recommended by the Brazilian Climatic Zoning. Even not being ideal, there was no concern in adapting the building to the consequent impact of the chosen orientation.

The temperature of the classrooms exposed to solar radiation, in the period of the afternoon in comparison with the covered and shaded hallway, where ventilation circulates at 1.2m/s on average, had considerable thermal gain. This demonstrates that ventilation and protection from the solar rays are primordial for the architectural project. The architectural recommendations for the Climatic Zone Z8, where Macapá is found, determine that the means buildings should use to minimize the effect of the climate are: cross ventilation, shade over openings, protection of the facades and artificial conditioning. It is highlighted that ample eaves, with the intention of horizontal protection of the facade, and opening in the cover to allow ventilation for cooling were two good examples of strategies adopted in the standard project.

To assuage the lack of thermal comfort in the school the solution adopted by the State Secretary of Education was the refrigeration of all the rooms, with installation of 48,000 BTUs central air conditioner in each room, what causes an increase in the consumption of electric energy, a solution that goes against sustainability actions. As did several other archetypes, the standard school building did not take characteristics of climate and location into consideration, thus being open to providing unfavorable aspects for the thermal performance of the construction, when implanted contrary to what would have been adequate for the local climate.

The standard school building adopted in the State of the Amapá, in the case study, does not cater to the aspects of livability and wellbeing in the school building, if it does not rigorous study standards of implantation and performance for the climate of the state of Amapá (Af). The bioclimatic architecture must be inserted in the context of the standardized constructions of the Amapá State Secretary of Infrastructure.

In implanting all the standard school buildings, the main streets where the lots are inserted have as their mains feature the facades facing west; however this facade is least favorable for the Macapá's climate. Therefore, since the lots allowed a more favorable orientation, apparently more importance was given to decorative architecture, in detriment to the performance of the building. Another aspect under analysis, of the cited classrooms, is the fact of the organization of the layout for teaching, the localization of the whiteboard, situated perpendicular to the direct solar incidence, interferes with the teacher's work.

To assuage the impact caused by the deficiency in the project we recommend the following improvements in the building: - Extend the existing horizontal protection for the facades east and west; - Create vertical protection such as brises-soleil, sun screens, marquees, decorative bricks with air passages, blinds for the east and west facades; - Create
microclimate area for protection and to soften the temperature. The main users of this environment are most affected, therefore they can suffer from attention deficit, decreased productivity and results in activities carried out. Being thus, the main objective, education, is jeopardized by the implanted physical structure.

To make available areas with better quality, economy and performance of the constructed space, taking into consideration the natural resources, is the main challenge of architecture. Through study and analysis of the problems of the existing standard project, we can see in practice the importance of the theoretical knowledge acquired academically and its consequences for the users. Therefore, the main goal of this analysis was reached and will serve as a basis for application in future projects.

References


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An Assessment of Schools’ Efficiency of Different Educational Systems

Montserrat Casalprim
Josep Rialp
Diego Prior
Betlem Sabrià

Abstract

The allocation of public resources is an important concern of developed economies in modern societies and there are many studies that aim at measuring their efficiency. This work presents an efficiency assessment of public elementary schools in Andorra, a little country where there are three public educational systems (Andorran, Spanish – congregational and non congregational-, and French). Therefore, the aim of this study is to compare the efficiency of public elementary schools among the three different educational systems existing in Andorra. The methodology used to measure the efficiency of the educational process in this study is the DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis), a nonparametric frontier method, introduced by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes in 1978. In this study the DEA technique is applied with bootstrap (Simar and Wilson, 2000), that correct the bias by generating successive evaluations with changed data in order to obtain a new distribution of efficiency levels representative of the original (correct but unknown) distribution. Then two nonparametric tests are used (median test and Kruskal-Wallis test) to establish the comparison of efficiency results between different educational systems and identify which system is the most efficient. Results show a decreasing of efficiency along the years and suggest that there are significant differences between different centres depending on their educational system. These results seem to confirm the benefits of decentralization in efficiency of schools.

Keywords: DEA, efficiency, bootstrap, production function, education, academic performance, public resources.

1. Introduction

Adam Smith starts the discussion on the role of state in the economy with his work Wealth of Nations, in 1776. The development of the welfare economy and the current context, with an increasing national debt in the developed economies, has generated new lines of discussion about the efficiency of public services.

The measurement of the profitability of the public sector as a supplier of public services is difficult; particularly, in the field of education several attempts have been observed in the literature to do it. The estimation of efficient frontiers opens the possibility of detecting inefficient situations. This means that we can improve the performance of the public sector without increasing the resources assigned (output orientation) or that we can maintain performance of the public sector even if we reduce public resources (input orientation). Furthermore, the question of efficiency gives a new dimension to the current debate on the size of the state (Afonso and Aubyn, 2005).

Farrell opened the studies of organization’s efficiency in 1957 using the concept of “Pareto efficiency”. From this perspective, the most efficient organization is one that carries out like the best and even better. Given that the concept of efficiency is closely related to productivity, which establishes the relationship between inputs and outputs, the organization with the highest productivity in all inputs will be the most efficient one. With this information, it is possible to calculate the percentage of inefficiency of the other organizations compared to one the most efficient one.

When there are multiple inputs and multiple outputs, there appears the concept of “overall productivity”. Early indicators appeared in a paper by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes published in 1978. They propose to do a weighted sum of all inputs and all outputs and the ratio of the two sums. The weightings are the prices and the result is the ratio of income and expenses (Profitability). If the ratio is > 1 means there are benefits; if the ratio is = 1 means the benefit is zero; and if the result is <1, there are losses. When there are not prices for inputs, or for outputs, the solution proposed is to calculate the weights that maximize the ratio above with two constraints:

1. The weightings cannot tend to infinity.
2. It is necessary to apply the same weights to all units so that the sum is ≤ 1.
If these two constraints are introduced to maximize the function, the best unit has a value = 1 and all the rest must be <1.

This is how the DEA method (Data Envelopment Analysis) has been developed. This method draws the frontier of efficient DMUs (Decision Making Units) that act better than the rest, and measures the distance to the rest of the frontier. This method allows us to measure efficiency in organizations where there are multiple inputs and outputs, whose prices are unknown. Mainly, it is for this reason that it is an appropriate method to measure the efficiency of educational process.

The main objective of this study is to analyze the efficiency of elementary schools in Andorra, identifying the variables involved in this process. Some previous studies that followed this general objective in elementary level schools are: Bessent and Bessent (1980), in a Californian urban district; Kim et al. (2006), in New York City; Conroy and Arguela (2008), in Florida; Addonizio (2009), in Minnesota; and Barbosa and Wilhelm (2009), in Paraná; and Thieme et al. (2011) in Chile. The particular environment in Andorra, with three public educational systems (Andorran, Spanish and French), provide a new context to apply efficiency studies of educational process and results of this study can give new contributions to existent literature in this field.

2. Educational Context in Andorra

Andorra is a small country of 468 km² with 78,115 inhabitants¹ where there are three different educational systems: Andorran, French and Spanish. Regarding at Spanish educational system, must distinguish between the Spanish public schools, private schools and public congregational schools. This study was carried out in all Andorran public schools, excluding one school belonging to the private Spanish educational system, but including congregational schools, which are financed, like schools of the Andorran educational system, by the Andorran Government. It is for this reason that four educational systems are considered: a) Andorran, b) Spanish public, c) Spanish congregational and d) French.

Considering elementary levels (from 3 to 12 years old, for Andorran and Spanish systems, and from 3 to 11 years old for French system), there were 25 schools (8 from the Andorran educational system, 5 from the public Spanish educational system, 3 from the congregational Spanish educational system and 9 from the French system) during five academic years (from 2005-6 until 2009-10). In June 2011, according to data provided by the head of the school, there were 6,663 children at elementary level (2832 in the Andorran educational system, 527 in the Spanish educational system, 1,342 in the Spanish congregational educational system and 1,962 in the French educational system).

One of the main features that distinguish the four systems is the vehicular language or languages used, in addition, of course, of the specificities of the official curriculum for each system. In the Andorran system, the vehicular languages are Catalan and French. There are two permanent teachers in the classroom (one Catalan-speaking and one French-speaking). In the Spanish non-congregational system, the vehicular language is Spanish; French is taught as a foreign language, just like English. In the Spanish congregational system, the vehicular language is Catalan; Spanish is taught more intensively than the other languages; French and English are taught as foreign languages. In the French system, the vehicular language is French; Spanish and English are taught as foreign languages. Moreover, the educational agreement between Andorra and neighbouring states establishes that it is necessary to include two subjects in the curricula of all systems: Catalan and Andorran history.

Another important difference between the four systems is the level of autonomy in school management, especially in the recruitment process of teachers. In Andorran and French systems, the process is centralized by the national government of each country, teachers are hired achieve the working place in Andorra for a long time. In Spanish non-congregational system hiring process is also centralized by the Spanish government, but it is a temporal hiring: places are offered to existing Spanish teachers, that have yet a place in a Spanish school and want to change the place for a limited period (maximum 6 years). After this period, teachers have to leave Andorra and return to the originally Spanish school. Is for this reason that teachers rotation is bigger in schools of the Spanish non-congregational educational system. The most different recruitment process of teachers in Andorra is in schools of Spanish congregational system, where is decentralized and is the principal of each school the responsible of the process. The school calendar is set by the Andorran Government and it is the same for all schools regardless of the educational system to which they belong. There is also the same number of teaching hours in the schedule of all schools. While it is true that the evaluation system has some specificities for each system, like qualification system, all the systems apply the same criteria to determine if a student can move up to the next course, as has been confirmed in interviews with the heads of the three educational systems.

¹ Source: web of national andorran statistics institute (www.estadistica.ad)
systems.

In Andorra there is no common test for all educational systems and it is a country out of the Pisa project, at this moment. No data are available that provide homogeneous academic results in order to compare the different educational systems. It is for this reason that when we need an indicator of academic results we will use the number of students that move up to the next course.

With regard to funding, the Andorran educational system and the Spanish congregational system are fully financed by the Andorran Government. The Andorran Government also finances infrastructure, facilities, teaching assistants and training in Andorran subjects (Catalan and Andorran history) of all schools in the country. The Spanish non-congregational and the French educational systems are financed by the governments of their respective countries (Spain and France).

The Andorran educational system emerged in 1980. Before then, public education in Andorra was offered by educational systems of neighbouring countries and the Andorran Government contributed with the two subjects mentioned above (Catalan and Andorran history). Public data in the web of national Andorran statistics institute (www.estadistica.ad) show a decrease of elementary students in Andorra in the last years (2004-2011). There has been a decrease of population in Andorra during this period. This decrease of students (-2.6%) has been more important in Spanish non-congregational educational system (-37.57%). French educational system has also had a decrease of students, with a -11.15% of variation, but Andorran and Spanish congregational educational systems have increased their students with a 12.05% and a 3.86% respectively. The Spanish non-congregational educational system in recent years has closed two elementary schools.

3. Methodology

The particularities of the educational process are different from those characterizing other productive processes. The educational process is a multi-input and multi-output very complex production process whose prices are unknown. Another particularity of the educational processes is that there is not a clear productive function to describe it.

There are different methods used in the literature to measure the efficiency of educational process. Some of these methods are parametric, like regression analysis (Gray et al., 1986; Jesson et al., 1987) or Cobb Douglas function production (Henderson and Quandt, 1971) or the Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA) method (Aigner et al., 1977; Meeusen and van den Broeck, 1977; Franta and Konecny, 2009). Other methods used in the literature revised are non-parametric, like the Free Disposable Hull (FDH) method (Thieme et al., 2011; Lavado and Cabanda, 2009; Agasisti, 2009; Afonso and Aubyn, 2006; and Oliveira and Santos, 2006), and Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA).

DEA is a non-parametric frontier method that designs the best weight for each input and output in order to obtain the best efficiency measure for each unit (for each Decision-Making Unit: DMU). It can work, then, without prices for inputs and outputs. This method is also useful if there are multiple inputs and outputs, and it allows identifying the inefficiency causes through peer comparison. DEA compares each DMU with the nearest one in the frontier and measures the distance to the frontier. This distance shows the reduction of inputs (input orientation) or the increase of outputs (output orientation) that each non-efficient DMU can achieve to become efficient (to be at the frontier). DEA was introduced by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes in 1978. Focused on educational process, previous studies that have used this methodology are: Chen and Chen, 2011; Afonso et al., 2010; Naper, 2010; Chang et al., 2009; Tyagi et al., 2009; Barbosa and Wilhelm, 2009; Lavado and Cabanda, 2009; Agasisti, 2009; Cordero et al., 2009; Kao and Hung, 2008; Johnes and Yu, 2008; Murias et al., 2008; Manzebon and Muñiz, 2008; Ray and Jeon, 2008; Spircu et al., 2007; Giménez et al. 2007; Afonso and Aubyn, 2006; Portela and Thannassoulis, 2001; Thannassoulis, 1996.

DEA method constructs the production frontier that envelops the set of observation using linear programming methods. Afonso et al. (2010) describe the linear programming for an input-orientation with variable-returns to scale by this form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Min } & \delta, \lambda \\
\text{s. t. } & -\gamma^T + Y\lambda \geq 0 \\
& \delta^T x - X\lambda \geq 0 \\
& m^T \lambda = 1 \\
& \lambda \geq 0
\end{align*}
\]

Where there are \( k \) inputs, \( m \) outputs and \( n \) DMUs, and:

- \( i \) is the DMU under assessment
- \( x \) is the column vector of the inputs
\( y \) is the column vector of the outputs
\( X \) is the \((k \times n)\) input matrix
\( Y \) is the \((m \times n)\) output matrix
\( \delta \) is a scalar that satisfies \( \delta \leq 1 \). More specifically, it is the efficiency score that measures the distance between a DMU and the efficiency frontier, defined as a linear combination of the best practice observations.

With \( \delta < 1 \), the DMU is inside the frontier (i.e. it is inefficient), while \( \delta = 1 \) implies that the DMU is on the frontier (i.e. it is efficient).

\( \lambda \) is a \((n \times 1)\) activity vector that measures the weights used to mix the efficient units taken as a benchmark of the unit under assessment.

\( 1 \) is an \( n \)-dimensional vector of ones.

The inefficient DMU is projected on the production frontier. The frontier is composed of efficient units and their lineal combination.

The restriction \( n1'\lambda = 1 \) imposes a technology exhibiting variable returns to scale (VRS). Dropping this restriction implies that constant returns to scale are prevalent.

The previous mathematical program has to be solved \( n \) times, one for each DMU in the analysis.

In order to design the frontier with the DMUs that have shown the best practice DEA with input orientation is used, considering variable returns to scale (VRS) with \( 2 \) inputs \((X_1 \text{ and } X_2)\) and \( 2 \) outputs. Figure 1 provides a graphical intuition of the analysis performed.

**Figure 1. Efficiency frontier input oriented**

A contemporary DEA for 5 academic years (from 2005-6 to 2009-10) is applied considering \( 25 \) DMUs per year (the \( 25 \) public elementary schools) so the analysis considers the data year by year, not pooling them. In order to increase the number of units, an intertemporal DEA is also applied pooling the data from all the years (considering \( 125 \) DMUs and interpreting the same school in different years as different DMUs).

In the second step, the intertemporal DEA estimation is bootstrapped (Simar and Wilson, 2000) in order to correct the potential bias in the original estimations. Bootstrap technique with DEA is introduced by Simar and Wilson (2000) and has been used by others, like Blank and Van Hulst, 2011; Murillo et al., 2010; Oliveira and Santos, 2005; and Fuentes, 2011.

Finally, two non-parametric tests (Median test and Kruskal-Wallis test) are used to establish the comparison of efficiency results between different educational systems. These methods allow us to test differences between groups (educational systems in this study) by comparing the medians and the mean ranks respectively. Both methods are useful when the normality distribution assumption is not guaranteed.

### 4. Data

As it is exposed above, most of educational data are not available in Andorra. There is just a data used in this study that is public: the total number of students per year. This data is published by the National Statistic Service of the Government of Andorra (www.estadistica.ad).

The rest of data were provided by the Ministry of Education of the Government of Andorra. To get the authorisation
to obtain these data it is has been necessary to sign a confidentiality commitment in which we agree to identify anonymously the different schools in the results of the study. Therefore, we identify the four educational systems (with the terms: A, B, C and D, and the different schools by numbers (from 1 to 125).

4.1 Inputs

Two general inputs are identified in the literature on schools efficiency: financial and human resources. The most usual indicators for each of these inputs are: operating expenses and academic staff, respectively.

Operating expenses (we will tell this variable Opex) has been used as an input in educational process efficiency studies by Casu and Thanassoulis, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Kao and Hung, 2008; Yuhong and Yongmei, 2008; Addonizio, 2009; and Tyagi et al., 2009, among others.

Moreover, academic staff (we will tell this variable Teachers) has been used as an input in educational process efficiency studies by Kantabutra and Tang, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Martin, 2006; Giménez et al., 2007; Spircu et al., 2007; Conroy and Argüea, 2008; Yuhong and Yongmei, 2008; Cordero et al., 2008; Addonizio, 2009; Agasisti, 2009; Cheo, 2009; Franta and Konecny, 2009; Tyagi et al., 2009; Naper, 2010; Ouellette and Vierstraete, 2010; Chen and Chen, 2011; and Thieme et al., 2011, among others.

4.2 Outputs

The difficulty in measuring the outputs of the educational process, such as the positive effects of education on economic and social development of a society focused most efficiency studies of education in more easily measurable outputs. It is for this reason that attempts to measure the efficiency of the schools is limited to internal efficiency, which considers only the relationship between inputs and measurable outputs schools.

It is difficult to define the social value of education. Additionally educational outputs don't have market prices and it is difficult to identify their value. As shown in Shields and Shields (2009), education has a direct impact on the overall country's equity, as there are positive externalities of education, which are long-term and difficult to measure. Afonso et al. (2010) studied the impact of the quality of education in the efficiency of public resources for equality in several OECD countries and found that the efficiency of social spending is more enhanced by the success of education than to the education spending.

The most frequent outputs in the literature are the academic results in a global test (maths and reading or language), as Hanushek (1997) has shown in a literature review. This test is passed to all the students at the end of some school level.

In Andorra does not exist a homogeneous test for all the students of the different educational systems, so it is not possible to choose this indicator as an output to our study. We take the number of students that moved up to the next course successfully as an indicator for other.

The second output used in this study is a measure of the number of students (Students). This output has been used by Martin, 2006; Kao and Hung, 2008; Tyagi et al., 2009; Ouellette and Vierstraete, 2010, among others.

5. Results

Results of contemporary study (25 DMUs per year, 5 frontiers—one for each year-) show a slight decrease in efficiency measures over the years and the same 5 schools appear at the frontier over the years. This result serves to confirm the consistency of the frontier along the years. These 5 schools belong to two different educational systems (C and D) and those used as peers for more inefficient DMUs are from educational system C. Another result is the presence of the same school with the lowest efficiency score every year, belonging to the educational system B. Again another signal of consistency.

Results of the intertemporal study (125 DMUs considering all 5 years together) show a decrease in efficiency scores during the 2008-2009 period. This period was also the first with a decrease in the Andorran population and in the number of students in the elementary grade. Efficiency scores of these 125 DMUs also show one school belonging to the educational system C that appears every year at the frontier (DMU14, DMU39, DMU64 DMU89 and DMU114). In table 1 we can observe that this school, during the first academic year analysed is the most used as a benchmark for other
DMUs and every year is used less as a benchmark, as the other schools at the frontier. There are 4 more schools, 2 belonging to the educational system C and 2 belonging to the educational system D, which appeared different times at the frontier. The school with the lowest score is the same in different years and belongs to the educational system B. Overall the intertemporal results depicts a similar assessment than the one produced with the contemporary estimation. Table 1 resume these results.

Table 1. Efficiency results with an intertemporal DEA methodology (125 DMUs: the 25 elementary schools in Andorra from 2005 to 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Efficiency scores</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System A</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System B</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System C</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System D</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Efficiency frontier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMUs</th>
<th>Educational System</th>
<th>Academic Year</th>
<th>Benchmarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DMU14</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU15</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU16</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU19</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU23</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU33</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU39</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU48</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU58</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU64</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU89</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU90</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU110</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU114</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU115</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMU123</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Just for controlling the potential bias in the deterministic frontier and for solving dimensionality problems, a second analysis was performed through the bootstrapping estimation method. To do this, FEAR software is used to apply the intertemporal DEA technique with bootstrap (Simar and Wilson, 2000). Generating successive evaluations with changed data in order to obtain a new distribution of efficiency levels representative of the original (correct but unknown) distribution it is possible to correct the potential bias.

We organise efficiency scores and we find the most efficient DMUs: DMU16, DMU41, DMU19, DMU64, DMU39, DMU14, DMU89, DMU44, DMU114. All of them are from educational system C, except two (DMU19 and DMU44), that are the same school of educational system D, in different years. This confirms that the C systems appears to be the most efficient independently of the estimation method employed. Table 2 resumes these results.

Table 2. Bootstrapped efficiency results with an intertemporal DEA methodology (125 DMUs: the 25 elementary schools in Andorra from 2005 to 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bootstrapped Efficiency scores</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System A</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System B</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System C</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System D</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System A</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System B</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed. System C</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To establish the comparison between different Educational Systems we used two non-parametric methods. The results of these methods are illustrated in table 3.

Median test confirms that there are significant differences in median scores of efficiency between Educational Systems. Schools of Educational System C have a higher median value than schools of other Educational Systems, and schools of Educational System B have a lower median value.

Kruskal-Wallis test confirms that there are significant differences in efficiency between Educational Systems by comparing ranks of the original values.

Table 3. Non-parametric tests to establish the comparison of efficiency between different Educational Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Median test</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>0.80025608</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>37.077</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymptotic Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of schools with efficiency scores &gt; median</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System A: 58%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System B: 4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System C: 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System D: 51%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>54.664</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymptotic Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System A: 73.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System B: 27.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System C: 111.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ. System D: 57.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Summary and Conclusions

In a society focused in the problem of public debt, the study of efficiency in public resources allocation is an important concern.

Literature about efficiency of educational process is extensive and show the DEA methodology as a non-parametric frontier method very appropriate to analyse the efficiency of this process, due to their particularities (there are multiple inputs and outputs and their prices are unknown).

This study analyses the efficiency of 25 elementary schools in Andorra, during 5 years, with a contemporary and an intertemporal study, using DEA and applying a bootstrap technique to correct the potential bias.

Considering the 4 different public educational systems that exist in Andorra (Andorran, French, Spanish non-congregational and Spanish congregational), this study makes also a comparison between different educational systems, using nonparametric methods to compare the median values or the mean ranks.

Conclusions that can be drawn from the results of this study are:

1. A decreasing in the efficiency of schools along the years possibly due to the decreasing of Andorran population and of elementary students.
2. A significant difference between educational systems exists. It is shown that the educational system C has the higher median efficiency value and the higher mean efficiency rank value, and the educational system B has the lower values. Causes of these differences may be analysed but these results suggest us to identify the autonomy in school management, which is a feature of educational system C that differs from the others, as a positive contribution in efficiency, and stability of staff during the time, that is not a feature of educational system B, as another positive contribution in efficiency.

These results confirm extensive literature that suggests a positive contribution of decentralization in educational outcomes. Some examples are Wößmann (2003), Eskeland and Filmer (2007) and Clark (2005). In the field of efficiency
of schools, Naper (2010) studies the impact of decentralization in school’s efficiency and he concludes that efficiency of schools is higher in districts where hiring is decentralized. Agasisti (2009) suggest the same contribution of decentralization.

This confirms the intuition that, in the same physical environment, the system has a significant impact on the performance of the students. Therefore, it is not the same to enrol a student in one school of C system than in a school of B system because the school will have a significant impact on the students’ result: an important message for the family and for the policy makers in Andorra.

Finally, and anticipating future research work, it is worth to point out that these results need to be contrasted by introducing other factors, for example environmental ones, that could have an effect in efficiency of educational process and that are not considered in this study. As Coleman report (Coleman et al., 1966) shows, the environmental variables role in educational process is truly important. That is the reason why several studies are considering these variables in efficiency measures. Future research will introduce the effect of environmental variables.

References


Paleopathological Findings in Cranial Series from a Necropolis of a Medieval Town of Drustar (Silistra), Bulgaria

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Abstract
The comprehensive study of the various paleopathological findings on bone material is of great importance for the biological reconstruction. It is also a valuable source of information about the way of life of the past populations. In this study we described some paleopathological findings on cranial series obtained from archaeological excavation of a necropolis of the medieval town of Drustar (9th-15th century), Northeastern Bulgaria. Drustar was the most important Bulgarian fortress of the lower Danube. This town was connected with the earlier history of Bulgaria since it was one of the first places in which the Slavic people and the Bulgars were settled after they passed over Danube. The town was also an inheritor of the Roman town Durostorum, called Dorostol from the Byzantines. From the Ottoman period in Bulgaria till today the town bears the name Silistra. The investigated cranial series includes a total of 196 crania (70 male, 50 female, 59 infant, and 17 unidentified). There are two cases of traumas inflicted as a probable result of battle injuries in adult male individuals. In a few individuals is observed cribra orbitalia as an evidence of anemia. Concerning the jaw and tooth pathology the most common findings were the dental caries with related complications. There are also some cases of alveolar atrophy in adult individuals and cases of temporomandibular joint arthritis as well.

1. Introduction
The comprehensive study of the varied findings discovered during archaeological excavations is a valuable source of information for the way of life of the past populations. Diseases have played an important role in the course of human history and in the development of human civilization. The consequence of different pathological processes and traumatical bone damages are an evidence for the spread and frequency of a number of diseases and also for the development of medicine.

The aim of this study is to describe some paleopathological findings on cranial series obtained from archaeological excavation of a necropolis of the medieval town of Drustar (9th-15th century), Northeastern Bulgaria. The investigated necropolis was situated around and within the basilica, which was near to the northern fortress wall. The basis of the basilica was revealed in 1993 year during excavations in the National archaeological reserve “Durostorum-Drustar-Silistra”, supervised by associate professor Stefka Angelova (Angelova, 2002). The necropolis was dated 9th -15th century as the burials from the 14th century were numerous.

Drustar was connected with the earlier history of Bulgaria. This town was the most important Bulgarian fortress of the lower Danube. Furthermore, this was one of the first places in which the Slavic people and the Bulgars were settled after they passed over Danube. Therefore, a study of bone material from this region is of great importance for the biological reconstruction.

2. Material and methods
The study was performed on a cranial series from medieval necropolis in Drustar. The investigated series included a total
of 196 crania: 70 males, 50 females, 59 infants and 17 adult individuals with unidentified sex and age (Table 1). Sex and age of the individuals was determined on the basis of the metrical and morphological features on the skulls and postcranial skeletons.

Macroscopical observation on the bone material was used. The bone changes were detailed examined and documented.

Table. 1: Sex and age distribution of the buried individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age categories</th>
<th>Total count by age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Infant</th>
<th>Individuals with unidentified sex and age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infans I (0-7)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>46</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infans II (7-14)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenilis (14-20)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adultus (20-40)</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturus (40-60)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senilis (over 60)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total count by sex</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Description of the paleopahtological findings

3.1.1 Trauma of the skull

There are two cases of traumas inflicted as a probable result of battle injuries in adult male individuals. The first finding is a relatively small concavity with oval shape and blunted edges upon the left parietal bone on an adult male skull (Fig. 1). The damage involves the both outer and inner table. Depressed fractures often but not always affect the inner table and if these heal they tend to leave a circular depression in the cranial vault (Orthner, 2003). According to Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martín (1998) low velocity injuries affect a broad area and generate linear fractures while the energy of high velocity impacts is often focused on smaller areas causing depressed fractures. Consequently the bone defect (depressed skull fracture) in this case is caused by a blow with blunt object with high velocity (slingshot injury?). The lesion was well healed indicating long survival after the injury i.e. the trauma was not lethal.

Fig. 1. Skull trauma caused by a blow with blunt object upon the left parietal bone on an adult male skull

The second finding is observed on a skull belonged to a mature male individual. The bone defect represents a groove upon the both parietal bones (Fig. 2a, 2b). It is situated near to the coronal suture and passing obliquely through the sagittal suture. This linear indentation of the outer table most probably represents a cut trauma with sharp object. The rounded edges suggested that the trauma was survived. Investigation of the postcranial skeleton of this individual revealed also a healed fracture of the right ulna. Most probably the two traumas were obtained simultaneously as a result of battle injuries.
Fig. 2a. Skull trauma caused with a sharp object upon the both parietal bones on a mature male individual

Fig. 2b. Bone defect represent a linear indentation of the outer table of the skull

Thus, most studies demonstrate a substantial predominance of skull fractures in males and location of the lesions on the left side of the cranium, implying that the pathology was acquired by a face-to-face encounter with a right handed opponent. By far the most common injury is a concave indentation of the outer table. (Aufderheide and Rodriguez-Martin, 1998).

Trauma to the skull, particularly injury sufficiently severe to cause fracture, results in a vascular response, including increased fluid. Within the enclosed cranium the increased pressure from the fluid can cause damage to the brain tissues and relieving the pressure buildup is an important component in treating skull trauma (Orthner, 2003). The two survived cases of head wounds are an indicator for the level of medical treatment for this period. Moreover, in both cases there are no evidences for complications arising from the fractures such as infection, tissue necrosis and so on.

3.1.2 Hematopoietic Diseases

In 11 cases (8 infant, 2 females and 1 male) are observed lesions located bilaterally on the orbital roof (symmetrical orbital osteoporosis). In four of the infant individuals the involved areas are thickened by the expanded diploic layer and the outer table overlying the lesions is completely resorbed. This permits direct visualization of the trabeculae of the expanded cancellous bone (Fig. 3).
All these secondary bone changes are known as *porotic hyperostosis* (PH) or *cribra orbitalia* (CO) and are most commonly linked to some kind of anemia. PH is a porous enlargement of the bone tissue. In some situations the external gross appearance may consist of labyrinth-like plates of bone. The porous nature of the abnormal bone varies from fine, pumice-like pores to large pores in excess of 2 mm in diameter. A single lesion may contain all variation of porosity (Orthner, 2003). Through the descriptive analysis of the gross lesions including cross-sectional appearance it is obviously that in our cases the most probable pathogenesis of these lesions is a stimulus from anemia to increase the space for hematopoietic marrow. This marrow hypertrophy causes an enlargement of diploe at the expense of the outer table. Moreover, in the aforementioned four infant cases, CO represents active lesions of anemia typical for young individuals. The inactive form of CO in older individuals, where the orbital roof has begun remodeling itself, represents a healing stage of a previously more overt lesion. Unfortunately the diagnosis of a specific type of anemia only on a skeletal morphological basis is difficult, because the skeletal changes are similar. Porotic hyperostosis caused by other diseases, such as infection or scurvy, tends to have important differences in cross-sectional morphology as the bone enlargement is the result of activation of the periosteum and the lesions are superficial to the outer table. In such a case there is no significant change in the diploic space or the outer table (Orthner, 2003).

### 3.1.3 Dental Diseases and pathological conditions of jaws

Concerning the jaw and tooth pathology the most common findings are the dental caries with related complications such as granulomatous lesions and cysts of the adjoining tissues of the affected teeth. There are also some cases of alveolar atrophy in adult individuals and cases of temporomandibular joint arthritis as well (Fig. 4).

![Fig. 4. Alveolar atrophy and temporomandibular joint arthritis](image)

In a mandible belonged to a mature individual of unidentified sex, the genial tubercle of the right side is remarkably increased (Fig. 5). This mandible is also with alveolar atrophy and almost entirely edentulous. According to MacLeod and MacIntyre (1992) the resorption of the edentulous mandible can lead to the genial tubercles taking up a relatively
superficial position. The authors presented case where resorption was accompanied by calcification of the insertion of genioglossus resulting in the development of a painful mass in the floor of the mouth. Selvamuthukumar et al. (2010) described similar case with a spike like projection originating from the genial tubercular region. The authors diagnosed this case as an oral carcinoma and hypertrophy of genial tubercle.

Fig. 5. Hypertrophy of right genial tubercle

3.2 Discussion

There are previous investigations of the paleopathological findings from different territories of Bulgaria. According to Kondova and Cholakov (1992) the high frequency of symmetric orbital osteoporosis in the late antique population of Augusta Trayana (Stara Zagora), great administrative centre in Romen province Thracia, indicates congenital haemolytic anemias of thalassemia type. Moreover half of the cases are in second and third stage of development – cribra orbitalia porotica and cribra orbitalia trabecularis. According to tooth-maxillary paleopathology, the caries damages and their complications of constant teeth appear in children yet, and gradually increase with age.

In vast studies of the medieval Bulgarian population paleopathology, based on an investigation of numerous necropolis, Boev et al. (1981) and Kondova et al.(1982) discussed some traumatic inflicts as a result of labour or war reasons. They also described two cases of trephining for curing purposes. In these investigations the authors described cribra orbitalia as a condition connected with different in origin anemias. In series from Tatul, Kardjali district (12th – 14th century) they discover orbital osteoporosis in 9,1 % of the skulls probably due to bad nourishing diet.

In 1993 Tcholakov investigated medieval necropolis from Drustur. The necropolis was revealed beside the southern fortress wall of the early Byzantium town Dorostol and was dated 12th – 14th century. Most of the burials were from the 13th century. The author found two depressed skull fractures caused by a blow with a blunt object and healed without complications. The first injury was on the frontal bone in mature male individual and the second – on the right parietal bone in adult male individual. In five cases (four infants and one adult female) the author found secondary bone changes – osteoporosis of the upper orbital wall as a bone reaction of different kinds of anemias. The caries and its complications, such as destruction of the dental crown to the radix, granulomatous lesions and cysts of the affected tooth adjoining tissues were frequent even in young individuals. According to Tcholakov (1993), the paradontopathy in adult and juvenile individuals confirmed that the alveolar osteolysis was not a senile atrophy but a result of pathological resorption. The author’s conclusion was that the conditions of life for the medieval population of Drustur were not very favourable. These paleopathological findings are similar to ours.

4. Conclusions

The paleopathological findings among the investigated cranial series showed that the living conditions were not very favourable for the medieval population of Drustar.

Cases of amenia and the high frequency of dental caries with related complications in young and adult individuals are probable evidences for a bad nourishing diet. On the other hand, the two survived battle injuries are an indicator for the level of the medical practice.

Our results are similar and confirm the conclusions obtained by previous investigations of this region and period.
5. Acknowledgments

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Reference


An Empirical Study of Factors Affecting Poverty Level Among Albanian Families

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Abstract

Poverty threshold defined as the minimum expenditure basket of food, other known as consumption, provides an adult approximately 2,100 calories per day, in addition to a multiplier of other essential goods. The income needed to meet this minimum threshold is about 1.5 Euros per adult a day, or approximately 50 Euros per adult a month. Population having income values below this threshold is considered to be living in poverty. Literature suggests that a country's economic development, migration, welfare, education of family members, family composition, economic assistance, rural or urban development, are important factors affecting poverty threshold value. The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of employment status, family composition, education of parents, migration, and family residential area on poverty.

Keywords: Threshold of poverty, education, migration, consumption basket, poverty.

1. Introduction

Poverty, as an unacceptable physiological and social deprivation, is defined as an economic condition of lacking stable means to meet basic necessities, in other words, food, water, shelter, education and healthcare (World Bank, 2000). Poverty threshold, or the Poverty line, known as the minimum adequate level of income to meet basic requirements, is officially higher in developed countries than in developing countries (Hagenaars and De Vos, 1988).

The common international poverty threshold has in the past has been estimated 1 American Dollar per adult a day, while in 2008, the World Bank revised the purchasing-power parity (PPP) figure of 1.25 American Dollars (World Bank, 2005) to 2 American Dollars or 1.5 Euros per adult a day (approximately 50 Euros per adult a month).

Purchasing-power parity or PPP estimates the adjusted amount needed to facilitate international comparisons of income due to volatile exchange rates in different countries. Poverty headcount ratio at 2 American Dollars (1.5 Euros) PPP is 4.25% (World Bank, 2008), which means that in 2008, 4.25% of the population in Albania had a daily income of less than 2 American Dollars or 1.5 Euros to meet basic necessities.

Poverty headcount ratio at rural poverty line in Albania is 14.6 % of rural population. On the contrary, poverty headcount ratio at urban poverty line is 10.1% of urban population (World Bank, 2008).

Albania’s transition to a democratic society and market-based economy has proved to be very challenging in terms of increased poverty rates due to high rates of unemployment. Rapid economic growth, structural reforms and implementation of policies were among the different Albanian governments strategies to continuously reduce poverty level since 2002.


Globally, extreme poverty continues to be a rural phenomenon rather than urban (Anriquez and Stamoulis, 2007). It is also suggested that economic growth policies are crucial to poverty reduction strategies (The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 2002). Kenworthy (1999) discusses that social welfare policies also help to reduce poverty even when indirect.
Family composition does strongly impact poverty reduction as reflected in the findings of Atkinson (1992). World Bank Report (2007) states that larger households account for much higher incidence of poverty and the risk of poverty is much lower in more educated families. Education attainment and work experience are seen as very effective in poverty reduction in transition countries (Njong, 2010; Chaudhry et al., 2010).

In low income countries, remittances are seen as very important sources of poverty reduction (McLeod and Molina, 2005). As far as remittances from migration is concerned, some of the most dramatic reductions in poverty were observed among the rural population in the Mountain areas and urban population in Tirana and some major cities in Albania. There is clear evidence that Tirana and the Mountain rural regions are the areas where the largest increases in the share of households receiving remittances have been observed (World Bank Report, 2007).

2. Data, Methods and Results

Survey Monkey Online Tool was used to gather structured data from 39 respondents. Further analysis has been conducted through SPSS statistical software.

2.1 Demographic Data Frequencies

In Table 1, respondents demographic profile was generated by means of Frequencies taking into consideration gender, age, marital status, employment status, education level and residential area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Respondents Profile</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>.84</td>
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<td>43,59</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>1,92</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<tr>
<td>18-23 yrs</td>
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<td>1,5</td>
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<td>24-29 yrs</td>
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<td>7,7</td>
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<td>30-35 yrs</td>
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<td>.1</td>
<td>7,7</td>
<td>92,3</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; 36 yrs</td>
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<td>7,7</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>Engaged</td>
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<td>.1</td>
<td>7,7</td>
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<td>.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
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<td>1,3</td>
<td>66,7</td>
<td>66,7</td>
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<td>.6</td>
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<td>Education Level</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1,4</td>
<td>74,4</td>
<td>74,4</td>
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<td>Master Degree</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>.0</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<td>79,5</td>
<td>100,0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1,9</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Impact of Employment Status on Income

Monthly Income is selected over other dependent variables as a poverty indicator. By this ratio: (monthly income) /...
(number of family members) * (average number of days/month), a daily income value per individual can be obtained. Compared to the minimum poverty threshold, not a much higher difference has been observed. Moreover, reliability of Monthly Income scale variable is measured. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient equals 1.000. Therefore maximum internal consistency reliability is confirmed. After Cronbach Test, Linear Regression is conducted to show whether there exists a relationship of employment status and income or not. Regression model is fit, given high values of $R = .885$ and $R^2 = .783$. Employment status is statistically significant at $p = .000$. This reconfirms previous findings that employment does reduce poverty, in other words it helps increase of monthly income in order for a family to survive.

### 2.3 Impact of Family Composition, Education Level on Income

Family composition impact on Monthly Income has been also tested. Regression model is not fit (for $R = .039$ and $R^2 = .001$). Family Composition is not statistically significant at $p = .816$. The reason behind this result might relate to the impact of more powerful factors: remittances from migration and expenditure based on residential living area. However, using multivariate regression, Family Composition and Education Level have been tested over Monthly Income. Education attainment alone is found to be a very powerful factor affecting poverty reduction even in large composition families as confirmed by Njong (2010) and Chaudhry et.al, (2010). Multivariate model testing Family Composition and Education Level simultaneously over Monthly Income, is considerably improved with $R = .684$ and $R^2 = .468$. These two paired factors do impact income at $p = .000$.

### 2.4 Impact of Father’s Education Level, Mother’s Education Level on Income

The impact of education attainment level among parents, namely father and mother, on poverty reduction (increased monthly income) has been analyzed. Father’s education level alone does not seem to be a significant factor over monthly income as shown from Linear regression (with $p = .997$) and Bivariate Correlation Pearson coefficient of very small value ($r = .001$). Additionally Mother’s Education Level is neither statistically significant at $p = .257$ and $r = -.186$ which is a fairly medium correlation which suggests not high impact on Income. If father’s and mother’s education level is tested as a pair of independent variables over income (poverty reduction), improved regression coefficient can be obtained.

### 2.5 Impact of Migration on Income Total

Remittances from migrated family members is seen as a crucial factor affecting poverty reduction in low income and transition countries. Income Total refers to the total monthly income taking into account remittances as well. High effect of migration on poverty reduction and increased monthly income is observed in this study. The regression model is well-fitting ($R = .950$, $R^2 = .903$). Thus, migration is a highly statistically significant factor at $p = .000$. The finding confirms (McLeod and Molina, 2005).

### 2.6 Impact of Family Residential Area on Income

Residential areas, namely rural and urban areas are believed to impact the monthly income and affect poverty reduction. Means analysis is run on residential area groups to observe if there is any difference between Rural Area and Urban Area groups affecting Monthly Income. As seen in Table 2, there is not much difference of Mean values of both groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential Area</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Area</td>
<td>625,8750</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>514,96170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Area</td>
<td>678,4839</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>472,15025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>667,6923</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>474,66538</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A more detailed Means Analysis has been conducted adding up Education Level as an independent variable (see Table 3). The Std. Deviation column indicates that individuals who hold Bachelor Degree and live in rural areas, vary more widely around their monthly incomes than similarly educated individuals residing in urban areas. The same can be observed on individuals who hold a Master Degree. Its is shown that there is a significant difference of incomes in rural
and urban areas, regardless of the same education level attained. This is to be explained by the gap of wage rates in urban versus rural areas. Therefore, educated individuals who are resident in urban areas tend to be less poorer than similarly educated individuals living in rural areas.

Table 3. Means – Residential Area, Education Level and Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential Area</th>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td>514,96170</td>
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<td>Bachelor Degree</td>
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<td>Philosophy Degree</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>667,6923</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>474,66538</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Conclusions

Poverty reduction is affected by employment status, education level of the respondent, migration, residential area. Despite previous findings, parents’ education level an family composition are not statistically significant, thus they do not seem to be important factors in improving poverty levels. These results might be explained by migration remittances that help poverty reduction.

Education level highly differs in individuals residing in urban areas rather than rural ones. It is also shown that remittances flow mostly towards rural areas strongly helps poverty eradication.

Limitations include limited sample size of online survey participants. Future empirical research could focus on the impact of these factors on a larger population, considering other demographic variables.

References


Impact of Green Marketing on Consumer Purchase Intention

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Abstract

The objectives of the research are to study the factors that determine consumer intentions towards buying green products. The inclusion criterion for the respondent was at least 14 years of education and the minimum age of 19. Findings of the study show that age and education have a positive relation with Eco-literacy. Socio-demographic variables are not significantly related with green purchase intention. Besides this, environmental advertisements, price, and ecological packaging were found to be positively related with the green purchase intention. Recommendations are presented for the existing and new companies to exploit the opportunities by investing in corporate social responsibility and advertisement as well as in improving and greening the marketing program. Further studies are needed to widen the scope of research in other areas of green marketing program and strategy.

Keywords: Green Marketing, Green Purchase Behavior (GPB), Green Purchase Intentions (GPI)

1. Introduction and Background of the Study

Environmental concern has become an important area of interest for multi-national corporations, government, academics and other stakeholders over the past decades. The concept of green marketing emerged in the 1970s and green products became popular during the 1990s. Consumers are becoming increasingly environmentally conscious (Laroche et al., 2001). Companies and consumers are more thoughtful of green marketing now (Paettie & Crane, 2005). Today's market place is different from the yesteryears in a sense that it is more environment-friendly. Consumers nowadays are more concerned about their shopping attitude and purchases. They are concerned about the planet earth they are living and want to contribute towards its longevity and well-being. This positive attitude towards the environment is evidenced by their shopping habits such as their concern regarding CFC and product-recycling. Another convincing evidence is an upward trend in paying more for the environment-friendly products by the consumers (Laroche et al., 2001). As a result of this, manufacturing firms should be cautious about their products and consumer needs. If they fail to comply they may face regulations and hardening customer demands (Grant, 2008).

This trend towards environment-friendly attitude has developed the concept of green marketing. It is a relatively new concept with its origins in the latter half of the 20th century (Peattie & Crane, 2005). Green marketing activities include, manufacturing, differentiating, pricing, and promoting products and services which can satisfy consumer's environmental needs (Paettie, 1992) as cited by Chen & Chang (2012). According to Chen & Chang (2012) these green marketing efforts enhance consumer's purchase intentions. Companies need to focus on reducing the green perceived risk by giving trustworthy information so that it helps build the trust with the customers, improve the green perceived value and enhance the purchase intentions about buying a green product.

Besides this, consumers propose that environmental advertisements are more effective in enhancing their knowledge about green products and help make informed decisions (Akehurst et al., 2012). Therefore, environmental advertisement can help enhance motivation towards buying green products. Moreover, according to Hartmann and Ibanez (2006) consumers will more likely buy a green product having ecological packaging provided they meet cost benefit analysis. Sustainability is also demanded from industrial suppliers, and exporters are under pressure for supplying eco-packed products (Saxena & Khandelwal, 2012). Ecologically conscious consumers are willing to pay high prices for such products (Laroche et al., 2001).

The aim of the present study is to identify the elements of green marketing that influence consumer purchase of a green product.
2. Research Problem

The concept of green marketing emerged in 1970s and green products became popular during 90's. Consumers are becoming increasingly environmentally conscious. (Laroche et al, 2001). Companies and consumers are more thoughtful of green marketing now. (Paettie & Crane, 2005). Developed economies markets are increasingly purchasing green product and a greater market lies there, so is the case with marketing researches on such topics. Asian studies on green marketing are far less than western countries (Lee, 2009). This makes it important to conduct this study and identify the factors responsible for consumer purchase intention towards green products (electronic goods).

3. Research Questions

The research questions for this study are given below:
1. What socio-demographic variables are relevant to the green consumers?
2. Does high price of green product deter consumers from purchasing the green product?
3. Does green advertising contribute positively towards consumer green purchase intention?
4. Does ecological packaging of the products contribute positively towards green purchase intention?

4. Research Objectives

The objective of the study is to identify the factors that contribute towards influencing the consumer green purchase intention towards electronic goods.

5. Scope of the Study

The purpose of this research undertaken is to study the factors that impact green purchase intention. The factors under consideration are socio demographic variables, environmental advertisements, pricing and ecological packaging. The population under study is the residents of Karachi, Pakistan and at least 14 years of formal education was required to participate in the study.

6. Research Methodology

The researcher takes an interpretivist approach. The approach suggests that reality is subjective. It is appropriate for the current study since intentions are subjective to individual needs and attitude. The research is quantitative and studies the impact of independent variables (Socio-demographic variables, price, environmental advertising and ecological packaging) on dependent variable (Green Purchase Intention).

6.1 Population, Sample Design and Sample Size

For the purpose of this study a sample of 384 individuals was selected. The sample size was calculated using web-based sampling calculator. The sampling criteria were minimum age of 19 years and an education of at least 14. Convenience sampling method was used and the population under study is limited to the metropolis of Karachi.

6.2 Questionnaire Design

The current research studies the factors contributing towards green purchase intention. The questionnaire has been adapted from earlier studies such as Laroche et al (2001), Akehurst et al (2012), Chen & Chang (2012) and Baker & Ozaki (2008).

Research questionnaire had two parts, whereby, Part A was further divided into two. The first part was about the socio demographic details to test the first hypothesis and the second one measures the eco-literacy of respondents. Part B of the research questionnaire includes items based on 5-point likert scale to test the other hypothesis.
6.3 Pretesting the Questionnaire:

Research questionnaire was pretested and a representative sample of 30 individuals was selected to test the questionnaire. The feedback was incorporated to improve the questionnaire for data collection.

6.4 Data Collection

Data was collected in the natural settings of the respondent through a questionnaire adapted from earlier studies. The sampling criteria were 14 years of education and a minimum age of 19.

6.5 Plan of Analysis

Data was analyzed using SPSS version 20. Inferential and descriptive statistics were used to analyze and explain the findings. Pie charts and frequency distribution were developed for the socio demographic details as well as for the eco-literacy part. Correlation analysis was used to test the association among different constructs.

7. Literature Review

7.1 Concepts & Definitions

According to American Marketing Association online resource library green marketing definitions are:

1. Retailing definition: The marketing of products that are presumed to be environmentally safe.
2. Social Marketing definition: The development and marketing of products designed to minimize negative effects on the physical environment or to improve its quality.
3. Environments definition: The efforts by organizations to produce, promote, package, and reclaim products in a manner that is sensitive or responsive to ecological concerns.

Green Purchase Intention has been defined by Netemeyer et al (2005) as cited by Chen & Chang (2012), “the likelihood that a consumer would buy a particular product resulting from his or her environmental needs”.

8. Theoretical Reflections

Akehurst et al (2012) re-examined the determinants of Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior (ECCB) through building consumer profiles (socio-demographic and psychographic components). The study also explored about the determinant of effective green purchase behavior (GPB) through analyzing ECCB and Green Purchase Intention (GPI) from previous studies. For this purpose researchers conducted an online survey and concluded that psychographic variables are more important in characterizing ECCB than demographic ones, and there’s a positive relation between ECCB and GPI. Also ECCB has more impact on GPB than GPI.

Chen & Chang (2012) developed a framework to look at the effects of green perceived value and green perceived risk on green purchase intention as well as to find the role of green trust on these aforementioned variables. The study showed a positive influence of green perceived value on green trust and green purchase intention whereas green perceived risk have a negative influence on both of them. Moreover, study showed that green perceived intention and its antecedents green perceived value and green perceived risk are partially influenced by green trust. Which concluded that resources should be invested in increasing the green perceived value and minimizing green perceived risk that will lead to higher trust and green purchase intention.

Rahbar & Wahid (2011) investigated the effects of green marketing tools (eco labels, eco brand, environmental advertisement and trust in eco label and eco brand) on actual consumer purchase behavior. Findings of the study showed that trust in eco label and eco brand are significantly related. Whereas relation between knowledge about eco labels and the effect on consumer purchase behavior was not significant. Moreover, environmental advertisement, another dimension of green marketing was not found to be significant. Akehurst et al (2012) studied the impact of socio-demographic and psychographic variables on ecological conscious consumers. The study concluded with psychographic variables as more convincing towards affecting the behaviour.
8.1 Theoretical/Conceptual framework

The current research studied the following variables.

8.2 Independent Variables

- Socio-demographic variables
- Price
- Environmental advertisement and
- Ecological packaging

8.3 Dependent Variable

- Green Purchase Intention (GPI)

Following is the diagram of the theoretical framework employed in this study.

8.4 Hypothesis:

Following hypotheses were developed based on the theoretical framework.

H1: Socio-demographic variables positively affect green purchase intentions.
H2: High prices of ecological products relate negatively to green purchase intention.
H3: Environmental advertisement positively influence green purchase intention.
H4: Ecological packaging has a positive relationship to green purchase intention.

9. Data Analysis and Findings

The data was found to have reasonable internal consistency with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.795 that is higher than the minimum acceptable value of 0.7.

9.1 Descriptive Statistics:

9.1.1 Frequency analysis

Frequency analysis was run for the socio-demographic and eco-literacy factors. Findings are summarized below:

Gender distribution was 35% male and 65% female. Most of the participants (84%) were in the age bracket of 19 – 25. 16% mark below Rs. 20,000 of income, 16% 20,000 to 40,000, 4% 41,000 to 60,000, 4% 61,000 to 80,000, 3% above Rs. 1 Lac and 57% mark N/A. 66% of the respondents correctly recognized the recycling symbol in the eco-literacy section. In the next question about green and blue box, 40% did not know the meaning of the symbols. 57% respondents think that single most important source of air pollution is heavy industry.
9.1.2 Cross tabulation

The result of the cross tabulation of socio demographic variables with the eco-literacy questions is given below.

Cross tabulation for gender shows that majority of male and female could correctly recognize the recycling symbol. They however, could not correctly identify the usage of green and blue bag (box). It can be generalized since the proportion of males and females were not equal. Respondent in the age bracket of 40 onwards were able to correctly identify these symbols as compared to the younger ones. The cross tabulation also showed that respondent with at least 18 years of education were able to give correct answers.

10. Hypothesis Testing

T-test, ANOVA, and correlation analysis were used to test the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Socio-demographic variables positively affect green purchase intentions.

10.1 Independent sample t-test:

Independent sample t-test was applied on the independent variable gender and dependent variable green purchase intention. The result shows the mean for male segment as 3.2762 and female 3.5052. Levene's test for equality of variance show a level of significance of .764 which means variability in the two conditions is same. At a value of df (degree of freedom) of 97 t score of the row is shown to be -1.699 and two tail significance of .093. As the value of p is greater than .05 there is no statistically significant difference between males and females green purchase intention.

10.2 One-way ANOVA:

One-way ANOVA has been performed for the other demographic variables that are age, education and income. Results for the age variable show mean and standard deviation for different age bracket, though the majority of the respondents are from 19 - 25 age bracket. At df 5 significance level is found to be .719. As this figure is greater than .05 it means there is no statistically significant difference between the mean of different age brackets. Majority of the respondents have at least 16 years of education. At df 3 level of significance of .065 have been shown. This shows that there is no statistically significant difference between different age groups with reference to the construct of green purchase intention. One-way ANOVA was performed between income and green purchase intention. At df 5 significance value of .706 has been shown, which is not significant. That means there is no statistically significant difference between various income brackets.

Result: Hence, it is concluded from the above analysis that socio demographic variables do not contribute towards green purchase intention.

Hypothesis 2: High prices of ecological products relate negatively to green purchase intention.

Price was found to have positive association with Green purchase intention. Pearson correlation of .495 showed a moderate correlation.

Result: We reject the hypothesis and conclude that high prices of ecological products relate positively to green purchase intention.

Hypothesis 3: Environmental advertisement positively influence green purchase intention.

Positive and significant correlation is found between Environmental advertisement and Green purchase intention. Person correlation value of 0.437 shows a moderate correlation.

Result: We fail to reject the hypothesis and conclude that Environmental advertisement positively influence green purchase intention.

Hypothesis 4: Ecological packaging has a positive relationship to green purchase intention.

Ecological packaging is found to be positively related with Green purchase intention though a weak but significant correlation of 0.198 exists between the variables.

Result: We fail to reject the hypothesis and conclude that Environmental advertisement positively influence green purchase intention.
11. Discussion

The present study suggests that socio demographic variables are not found to have significant relationship with green purchase intention. This is in conformance with the previous study of Akehurst et al (2012) which concluded that socio demographic variable were not relevant in explaining ecological conscious consumer behaviour. Environmental advertisements are positively related with the green purchase intention and there is a moderate correlation amongst them. This is in conformance with the previous study of Akehurst et al (2012). A positive relationship exists between the price and green purchase intention that favours the notion that environmentally conscious individual might buy the environment friendly product even at a higher price. This finding is similar to the earlier findings of Coddington, 1990, Suchard & Polonsky, 1991., and Myburgh-Louw & O'Shaughnessy, 1994. Ecological packaging is also found to be positively associated with the green purchase intention with a weak correlation. This is similar to the previous finding by Hartmann & Ibanez (2006), which concluded that consumers would likely buy a green product in ecological packaging provided it meets cost benefit analysis.

12. Conclusion

The study concludes that age and education are associated with environmental literacy. Socio demographic variables are not found to be significantly associated with green purchase intentions. Environmental advertisement, price and Ecological packaging also have a positive relationship with the green purchase intention.

13. Recommendations

The researcher proposes the following recommendations.

1. Consumers are learning about climatic change and environmental issues through the mass media and advertisements. This presents an opportunity for new and existing businesses to invest in green products.

2. Organizations can emphasize on ecological packaging in their promotional messages to target their consumers and enhance their brand image.

References


The Right to Complain in Albanian Civil Service and Its Effects

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Abstract

The so-called Civil Service has come as early as a result of the need to create an administration capable. Its origins associated with the Han dynasty (206 BC-220 BC). In Europe and America, this practice began to be used later. Creating a modern Civil Service is closely related to the decline of feudalism and the creation of national autocratic states (see W. A. Robson, the civil service in Britain and France, 1958) (E. A. Cracker 1968), (F. C. Mosher 1968). In Albania after 90 years among the most important reforms in the public administration, was that of adjustment of labor relations in the public administration, reform that was based on the adoption of basic principles such as meritocracy, depoliticized, professionalism, career, etc… In point of view, on 1996 was initially adopted the “Law on Civil Service”, which after three years was replaced by Law No. 8549 dated 11.11.1999 “Status Civil Servants”. Important part of the rules laid down in this law is the right to complain, which is presented as a fundamental right of civil servants. However, this right is a right of special civil service, and so applies to a part of the public administration and not to all legal persons constituting public administration in our country.

Keywords: Civil Service, the right of appeal, the execution of decisions, the law.

1. Introduction

Law aims to be achieved its goal for sustainability, professionalism, efficiency in public administration through the acceptance of special rules in the so-called civil service, the performance of duty and the termination of the labor relation, the civil servants (article 1 of S.C.C).

Essential part of these special rules is the right to complain, which is presented as a fundamental right of civil servants. Placing her in public law regime is in the same philosophy adoption of a special law on the civil service, including the aspect that relates to disputes that may arise during labor relations in the civil service. However it should be said that these rules, including the right to appeal, are special for civil service, and so are valid for part of the public administration and not to all legal persons constituting statutory public administration in the country. Naturally, taking for granted that the purpose of the law is realized through rules that it offers, the question may arise whether, the interest to have an efficient public administration, professional, apolitical, sustainable truly achieved if these rules apply only to a part and not for all public administration. This right to complain, initially closely linked to a special body set up to review the complaints of civil servants before they und tem to exercise their right to appeal in court, and in the Civil Service Commission (CSC). The data reported by the Civil Service Commission in the exercise of the right of appeal by civil servants, tell us that during 2011 are reviewed 261 complaints, 188 of which registered in 2011 and 80 carried out in 2010. Meanwhile in 2010 were registered 259 complaints, of which the Civil Service Commission had examined 179 and 80 were transferred to 2011. During 2011 there were only seven complaints reviewed by the Civil Service Commission. Data not showing himself volume of exercise of the right to appeal to civil servants (see annual report o K.SH.C- 2011), but at the same time the topology of the problem is reflected in the civil service and which is reflected in the civil service appeal. The analysis that follows focuses on the legal regime guaranteeing the right to complain to the civil service and the important aspects related to the consequences of its exercise.

Law on the status of civil servant guarantees the right to complain at all stages of the employment relationship of a civil servant (or such candidate).

Law on the status of civil servant is a law with specific application area. The law provides a vertical and horizontal expansion set, thus limiting the enjoyment of civil servant status for a part of public administration. Thus, the horizontal extension of the scope of the law on the status of civil servant is limited to central and independent institutions as defined in law, and as defined in

For a clear analysis, will need to make the distinction of nature that appeals to different aspects related to the civil
service. Any complaint or appeal request that CSC exercised at first. CSC is an independent institution tasked with the supervision of the management of the civil service at all institutions falling in the scope of this law (article 5 of Law S.C.S). CSC, although I created causes as outside judicial institution, was named sin are clearly present quasi-judicial body. In this form the Supreme Court has described the nature of the CSC.

2. Civil Service - The Special Arrangement as Part of Public Law

One public administration reforms of the Republic of Albania after 90 years it was the regulation of the labor relation, in public administration. This reform was based on the adoption of basic principles such as meritocracy, professionalism, career during the practice of labor relations. It thus reflected the approach according to which the issue of regulation of labor relations in the public administration is considered a matter of public law (Cardona F-2002). In this regard, in 1996 the law was first passed the civil service (Law No.8095) , who after three years was almost entirely replaced by Law no. 8549 dated 11.11.1999 "status of civil servant ". Last law is still in effect even though a whole steps are taken to replace it with a new law (see www.pad.gov.al) that is being developed as a result of the problem that has emerged as the country's civil service, as well as the need for reform associated with the integration process (see sigma European Principles for Public Administration) . Regarding the latter may be mentioned that N. 110 The SAA states as needed creating a transparent administration, open, accountable and coherent, as well as institutional strengthening, providing impartial recruitment procedures, human resources management, career development, training, promotion of ethics public administration and development of information technologies in the field of Government, that such measures be taken as the central and local institutions (law no.9590).

3. The Right to Appeal to the Civil Service

Law on the status of civil servant guarantees the right to complain at all stages of the employment relationship of a civil servant (or such candidate):

- Article. 8 provides that "Civil Service Commission has the following powers: a) handling appeals of decisions concerning admission to the civil service, probation, promotion, lateral transfer, evaluation, discipline, rights and civil servant ...".

  - Section. 13, paragraph 6 provides that appeals for development and competition results are presented in the civil service commission, within thirty working days of the publication of the findings in two newspapers with the largest circulation. If an appeal is successful, the applicant will be proposed to the institution for the next available the same category and level that he has applied.

  - Section. 14, provides that the officer may appeal to the Civil Service Commission, within 30 working days from the communication of the decision.

  - Section. 15, paragraph 5 provides that complaints submitted to the development of competition in the civil service commission, within 30 working days of the publication of the results in two newspapers with the largest circulation.

- Article. 20 provides that the civil servant is denied or violated the rights guaranteed by this law, may be able to appeal in writing to the Civil Service Commission.

  - Section. 21 provides for appeals against the decision (to release) are presented in the civil service commission, within 30 working days from the communication of the decision.

  - Section. 25 provides that while the direct supervisor has the right to take disciplinary action, civil servant of giving its guaranteed through an administrative procedure, which guarantees the right to be informed, to be heard, to be protected and to complain. Also, in the paragraph 5 of this Article provides that appeals against decisions on disciplinary measures presented in the civil service commission, within 30 working days from the communication of the decision.

Subjects are entitled to complain

Law on the status of civil servant is a law with specific application area. The law provides a vertical and horizontal expansion set, thus limiting the enjoyment of civil servant status for a part of public administration. Thus, the horizontal extension of the scope of the law, (see article 2 of law no.8549) on the status of civil servant is limited to central and independent institutions as defined in law, and as defined in Article 2 of this law as follows:

- The central institutions: the Council of Ministers, Ministries.

- Independent institutions: Parliament, Presidency, municipalities, counties and independent central institutions
Further, in all these institutions, only certain employees enjoy civil servant status. So the vertical extent of the civil service in our country include: Secretary General, Department Head, department director general and equivalent positions these three categories, department director and equivalent positions: Head and Head office sector and equivalent positions them, and Specialist (see article 13 of law no.8549).

So the civil service and therefore its legal arrangements concerning labor relations, lie only in a part of public administration employees. Even the right to appeal under the rules of the civil service is limited to those that are considered civil servants. It seems as if the law has clearly defined the scope of the civil service in place, but there were some uncertainties in the practical implementation of the exercise of the right to complain. It is quite clearly the case in Parliament, Presidency, Council of Ministers, Ministries, Municipalities and Regions, but to be discussed can be one of the central institutions that rank among the independent part of the civil service bodies. Also, a discussion was even that if the institutions in command of Ministries or Prime Ministers, that qualify as dependent under the law for the Council of Ministers, which are not mentioned among the institutions listed as part of the civil service, may interpreted or not as part of the civil service. In relation to the totality of the central bodies that qualify as independent, we can say that all those who created such site by the Constitution but and by law, be included in the category of part of the civil service institutions. Such are, for example, the Supreme State Ombudsman, the High Council of Justice, the National Council of Radio and Television, The Civil Service Commission, Central Election Commission, Competition Authority, Presidency, etc. In these institutions, only employees who are involved in their vertical civilian employees. Regarding the question whether the subordinate bodies or not part of the civil service, one case that was addressed with a unified decision of the High Court in 2007 (unified decision of High Court no.8) had to do with that if Customs officers enjoy status civil and therefore can they appeal before a civil service commission. Law on the status of civil servant should say that did not mention the bodies that are or may be considered depending on those that are provided by law. Thus, the ministry mentioned in the law as an institution but not mentioned legal persons depending on ministries, such as the General Directorate of Customs, General Directorate of Prisons, Office of Immovable Property Registration, or Regional Education Directorate, etc; which are created with the status of a legal person depending on ministers and / or prime minister. There are times, even among these examples were mentioned, when a special law, not aim on the status of civil servant, I know the status of civil servant employees of the institution, such example is the Directorate General of Taxation that the law on tax procedures provided that is part of the civil service and some of its employees are entitled to civil servant status (law no.9920).

We also refer to this attitude, and the interpretation reference noted above, it can be said that the status of the officer:

- The employees enjoy those expressly provided for in the law on the status of civil servant (horizontal and vertical extent shown above).
- The employees enjoy independent central institutions (whether constitutional or online laid such by the Constitution but by law), for which it should be said that often the relevant laws expressly provided joy of this status.
- The employees also enjoy hanging institutions for which special law expressly provides enjoyment of this status.
- I do not enjoy when employees of institutions or laws regulations governing their operation provided that certain processes or specific events regulated in reference to borrowing arrangements or law on the status of civil servant.

At the end of this analysis, we can say that the right to complain at CSC belongs only to those employees who enjoy the status of civil servant. For a competitive process, the right to complain enjoys even the participants on the process of competition, in reference to the adjustments shown in this analysis (See Table 1).


Although in several articles this right is explicitly associated with the creation special moment or exercising employment relationship, it seems that in all these cases the relevant competent authority, are requested adoption of a decision, in any case have to do with the decision - Act nomination to the Department of Public Administration (see article 130), or personnel department depending on the categorization of the body part of the civil service where vacant land was opened, in any case, the decision of the supervisor directly for confirmation or not of the status of civil servant at the end of the probationary period, the any other case of direct supervisor for disciplinary action, or for remuneration, or for
violations of the rights of civil servants. This attitude is reflected in the principle of decision-making by Article. 15 of the administrative code (A.P.C), which expressly provides for the obligation of the administrative body to adopt a decision whenever there are complaints submitted to him (article 15 of A.P.C). So, the right of appeal is closely related to a decision, which becomes the object of administrative appeals exercising relevant subject, civilian employee or candidate for being such. This aspect is important to note because the process of reviewing administrative and / or judicial is closely linked to an administrative decision and cannot be exercised prior to the relevant administrative act adopted and the second is a review process that addressing decision, addresses the consequences, and return the situation to the previous situation. It is important to note that although not expressly provided a right to complain about omissions, cannot be said that it isn’t the right of the parties: example of such a situation would be if the competent authority does not issue the act of appointment to the office of officer winner of the competition. The right to appeal against administrative processes exercised against the actions and omissions, known causes as a subjective right of the fundamental law of administrative procedures and basic procedural law on which civil trials conducted in the country, and thus IAC (article 140) Code of Civil Procedure (CPC)-(see article 134 &135). In reference to the sample taken, even though the competition is held, the act of appointment has not come at the end of process as provided for by Art. 13 of the Law on the civil status servant and therefore the parties have the right to request at the relevant bodies, CSC or court, adopting the act of appointment. What can be raised for discussion is within what should exercise the right of appeal in such cases, since there was a special of the estimates of the exercise of the right of appeal for failure in the law on the status of civil servant, will refer to deadlines forecasted by the code of administrative procedures which the article. 140 provide that the right to appeal in cases of omission arises after 3 months of the submission of the initial application. A possible interpretation of these rules by legal, it may be that in such cases The complainant must submit the request to the relevant administrative body for the first removal of the administrative body in charge of appointing and three months of this request not address the right of appeal which is also the deadline for its exercise that is until one month later. While attending further to the period within which to exercise the right of appeal in cases of actions - see table No. 1 for details - it should be said that it expected to exercise that right within 30 days from the time of communication of the decision was appealed. An important element in the framework of the principle of due process is that of expectation expressed in the bylaws of the commencement deadline to appeal after the communication so that the recognition decision by appealing subject.

Table No. 1: The right to appeal to the civil service.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>appeal for</th>
<th>Subject to exercise the right to complain</th>
<th>The first recipient of the right to appeal</th>
<th>The period within which exercised his right of appeal</th>
<th>Effects that brings complaint</th>
<th>what set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Article 8</td>
<td>The decision regarding admission to the civil service, probation,</td>
<td>civil servants</td>
<td>The Civil Service Commission</td>
<td>See below</td>
<td>See below</td>
<td>See below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article 13</td>
<td>Development and outcome of the competition</td>
<td>Participants in the competition</td>
<td>The Civil Service Commission</td>
<td>Within 30 working days of the publication of the results in two newspapers with the largest circulation</td>
<td>If an appeal is successful, the applicant will be proposed to the institution for the next available the same category and level applied</td>
<td>Depending on the situation: - changeability of the competition process. - Proposal for appointment of competitors in the first place free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article 14</td>
<td>The decision by the end of the probationary period</td>
<td>civil servants</td>
<td>The Civil Service Commission</td>
<td>Within 30 working days of the communication of the decision</td>
<td>No any special adjustment for the effects that entails appeal</td>
<td>Depending on the situation: -Drop-in power -Repeal -Amendment of the act.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article 15</td>
<td>Development of competition in the case of parallel</td>
<td>civil servants</td>
<td>The Civil Service Commission</td>
<td>The rules are expected to be the same admission procedure</td>
<td>No any special adjustment for the effects that entails appeal</td>
<td>We forecast that reflection is the same procedure with the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
motion or promotions | acceptance procedure: - changeability of the competition process - proposal for appointment of competitors in the first place free

Denial or violation of rights guaranteed by this law | civil servants | The Civil Service Commission | not defined deadline | No any special adjustment for the effects that entails appeal | Depending on the situation: - drop-in power - repeal - amendment of the act.

Decision on release | civil servants | The Civil Service Commission | Within 30 working days of the communication of the decision | No any special adjustment for the effects that entails appeal | Depending on the situation: - drop-in power - repeal - amendment of the act.

The decision disciplinary measure | civil servants | The Civil Service Commission | Within 30 working days of the communication of the decision | No any special adjustment for the effects that entails appeal | Depending on the situation: - drop-in power - repeal - amendment of the act.

5. Effects of Exercise of the Right to Appeal at KSHC (CSC)

Another aspect of the right to complain about is the consequences that come with filing the complaint. As a rule, an administrative appeal brought suspension of the effects of the decision unless the latter has to do with meeting fees, taxes, budget revenue, police action, implementation is in the interests of public order or public health and other interests public, and as provided by law enforcement absence of one or consequence of the act (see article 138 A.P.C). Law on the status of civil servant does not provide any special adjustment related to the effect of the exercise of the right to appeal to civil servants. Bylaws for the implementation of the law on the status of civil servant have forecasts that appear may indirectly relate to this aspect. So for example:

- In DCM. 306, dated 13.06.2000 "for discipline in the civil service" provided that "in the case when the civil servant has taken disciplinary action and dismissal from the civil service and the Commission decides to revoke or amend the decision of the direct supervisor, officer receives full salary from the moment when relations were severed financial establishment ".

- In DCM. 231, dated 11.05.2000 "for admission to the civil service and probation" provided that depending on the decision of the CSC officer recorded in a waiting list for first place in the same position as that for which it has applied or repeated procedures competition from the stage where there were irregularities.

At the same DCM, specifically in its point 30, provided that if the appeal presented at CSC for the direct supervisor's decision at the end of the probationary period, the institution is required to keep the workplace free until final settlement resolution appeal or until the expiration of the deadline for their submission. I would say that it means to a certain degree the effects of the decision suspending the direct supervisor. I say this because a full suspension would have regardless of whether the officer was a decision without confirmed, will proceed normally working relationships to receiving a decision of CSC that, while simply holding the country provided free, which that in itself is entirely indicative of protection that provides the status of civil servant in the spirit of the law on the status of civil servant.

- We DCM. 360 dated 14.07.2000 "for release from civil service" that civil servants detailed exercises the right of appeal for the release decision for disability and case decision, the Civil Service Commission and the officer receives full salary from the date of termination financial relations, which means you can be and why exercise the right to appeal it brings itself does not suspend the implementation of the act of release, but is CSC's decision that he who will bring this effect. New diagnosis is that in this case the effect is not related to making a final decision, but simply with the decision of the CSC. I think that such a determination under this decision
of the Council of Ministers respect the legal regulation provided for in N. 8, paragraph 3, which provides that CSC decisions are binding on the institutions, without their liability associated with the acquisition of final status.

As seen, the filing of the appeal to different decisions as provided for law enforcement along the decision on the status of civil servant entails no effect of suspending the effect of the act. This approach is not expressly provided for in the law on the status of civil servant, but then I implied by-laws that regulate in detail the exercise of the right to complain. I think that such an issue for the legal nature and not requiring adjustment Welfare. It has to do with the exercise of a right or fundamental subjective human (article 42 of Constitution), that the appeal against the administrative decision-making (or inaction), and as such any adjustment of the aspects that have to do with the need to adjust the level of a law. This would bring more clarity and a better protection for anyone who exercises this right. Not in vain IAC N. 138 refers expressly excluded from decision-making or forecasting suspension of such a possibility by special law relating this approach to public interest law anyway.

For a clear analysis, will need to make the distinction of nature that appeal to different aspects related to the civil service. Any complaint or appeal request that CSC exercised at first. CSC is an independent institution tasked with the supervision of the management of the civil service at all institutions falling in the scope of this law (article 5). CSC, although I created causes as outside judicial institution, was named sin are clearly present quasi-judicial body. In this form the Supreme Court has described the nature of the CSC:

- Wearing the features of an administrative body, independent and charged with resolving appeals of decisions concerning civil servants Civil Service Commission has administrative features an arbitrator, or various body with quasi-judicial function and powers.
- Select appeals concerning civil servant in all public administration institutions of central or local, which are regulated by this law, regardless of the scope of activities that develop without being a superior body of any of them (Unifying decision of the Supreme Court No.3).

In this regard CSC is considered a first degree in an administrative trial, and was at the time of filing the complaint with the commission, the party that initiates this process should be clear which party directs its research and based on general principles of civil procedural law "parties to a trial, the object and determined the cause of the claim that the beginning of the trial and can be changed only under conditions that provide for its specific provisions." This attitude of the Supreme Court directs us towards the Great also being considered submitting the appeal at CSC thy how a complaint of an administrative nature clean. So, the legal regime that should appeal to customize the appearance of at CSC should be considered under the same optical, as a remedy that is procedurally appear before a first instance administrative judgment. The general rules of civil procedure that brings deposition on the effects of an administrative claim in court are such that the presentation of a claim does not automatically entail the suspension of the effects of the act, the parties will need to ask specifically due to the advent of this request and the court vevante should decide the intermediate decision on taking this measure. I applied this rule in the case of exercise at CSC appeal that leads us DREH interpretation due to the nature of the institution, the presentation of an appeal does not bring the effect of suspending the effect of the act was appealed. Despite this, in order to reflect the spirit of the law for providing a protective regime for civil servants, in any case provided the country holding of free labor, the expected return instantly to the task of civil servant, if the work is not setting provides free civil servant in the waiting list.

6. **CSC's Decisions on Appeals Filed - Mandatory to be Implemented**

CSC institution as provided by law that resolves claims for labor relations between civil servants and the institution where he works. Being such an institution, which is the legal value of CSC decisions: a CSC decisions are binding that? Are decisions which became final and thus executive titles? The law provides that the CSC decisions that are binding on the institutions of central and local public administration, then I would say to all institutions involved in the field of law enforcement on the status of civil servant (article 5). CSC decisions that are of a special nature, since decisions of a quasi-judicial body, and they themselves will reflect the mixed nature of this decision as the intermediate between that administrative and judicial. This also means that their liability be considered and analyzed in the same perspective. If we had to do with a pure administrative decision, it will be applicable once the law took effect. This means that CSC decisions are obligated to be applied directly (article 130 of A.P.C). AW on the status of civil servant does not provide any time for implementation of the CSC’s decision, but own rules of organization and operation of the CSC provides that decisions shall be published within 3 days of their approval and duly notified to the A.P.C (see Regulation of organization and functioning of K.S.H.C).
Also, the nature of the CSC decision that it is not pure administrative acts, but some kind of acts that many of those judicial approach (see law no.8730). Some decisions unifying the Supreme Court have already clearly this position. The High Court concluded that "the decision of CSC that resembles the decision given by the court of first instance, based on its features and coercive power that the legislator has given us when he appealed" (Unifying decision of the Supreme Court No.3). This court has noted that CSC decisions that "1) containing an obligation, 2) have effects executive, 3) we take final form unless appealed, or remain in force by higher courts" (Unifying decision of the Supreme Court No.3). Given that CSC features, it cannot be equated with an administrative body clean and in view of taking over the execution of its decisions: Well CSC is set in law as a body hanging over the parties and that, as and its courts cannot execute its decisions, which in any case as the law provides mandatory. The execution of these decisions is left to the authorities to make the execution of judicial decisions, but after having received the final form (Unifying decision of the Supreme Court No.1). For this, the Supreme Court concluded that "the consequences and the effects these decisions will have to be the same with the consequences and effects that bring the first instance decision, if not appealed or when they take final form." Not only that, but their execution should be made within a reasonable time. Compulsory execution of a final decision of CSC that is handled by the constitutional court (see part 4 of K.P.C).

7. Brief Presentation of the Problem that Faced the Implementation of K.SH.C (CSC's) Decisions.

Legal interpretations indicate that the obligation to implement a final decision is undisputed that the K.SH.C (CSC), while the obligation to implement a decision of the K.SH.C (CSC) as soon as he can handle this interpretation. Despite legal interpretations, the data doesn’t show all of CSC decisions that have taken final form resulting executed. According to K.SH.C (CSC) "K.SH.C (CSC) activity for 2014" if it turns out that this year 261 decisions were taken by K.SH.C (CSC), 30 have returned to an executive as of the date of approval of the report 20.02.2012 (Resolution No. 17 The K.SH.C). According to K.SH.C (CSC), most decisions that are in favor of civil servants appealed to the appellate court, we report mentioned a few times.

K.SH.C (CSC) considers the report of collision between Article 8 of the law on the status of civil servant and proves that K.SH.C (CSC) decisions that are not considered as an executive (annual report 2011, page 56). I think that this interpretation of the K.SH.C (CSC) should be seen in light of the legal interpretations made now that K.SH.C (CSC) decisions are likened to those of the judiciary, by nature, take final form and in this sense they are required for issuing the order of execution by the K.P.C (CPC) for articles compulsory execution. Attitude that final actions of CSC are required to apply is clearly held by the constitutional court (resolution no.1 of constitution court). So there is no room for equivocation in the proper reading of the nature of a final decision of CSC (when they take final form). It was born as concern has to do with the fact that when the CSC decision becomes mandatory to be implemented. Voluntary compliance in any case is related to the moment of gaining legal power, but the right one is related to the transformation of CSC's decision in an executive, which in itself requires compliance with the relevant procedure prescribed by CPC and then the execution by the Executor. A legal amendment in this regard may lead to the implementation of the rapid binding decisions of the CSC.

8. Comments on the Draft Law on Civil Service, the Need for Legal Changes

Now, a new bill is designed for civilian service in our country (see www.pad.gov.al). In a span of 18 years since 1996 when the first law was passed on the civil service, this is the third draft; apparently adoption of a new law is seen as the appropriate way to address the problems that occur in connection with labor relations in our public administration and specifically in the civil service. Having not been focused of analyzing the project, it can be said briefly that he intends to address the problems encountered in the implementation of CSC decisions. Draft addresses in a separate complaint under the K.SH.C (CSC), aiming to first appeal to K.SH.C (CSC) treated like any administrative remedy that brings the effect of suspending the effects of the act was appealed, and secondly note that regardless of your right to appeal against decisions the K.SH.C (CSC) that the institution must first implement the decisions of the K.SH.C (CSC), the latter therefore be mandatory to apply to the court before the opposition (article 13 of K.SH.C). Both these attitudes that are proposed in the draft draws on an approach different from keeping up today. They will bring a new approach to efficiency at K.SH.C (CSC)'s appeal and the decision of the latter. Such an attitude reinforced deeply and will decide on a new legal regime of K.SH.C (CSC)'s decision, bringing an even greater needs protecting for civil servants. Such a prediction would be complete reflection of the goals of a civil service law. However, it should be said that together with this proposal, made another public relating to CSC, it comes out of the draft law on Administrative Courts: bill being discussed in parliament.
which already provides solutions, making decision of appeal related in Civil Service Administrative Court (see www.keshilliministrave.al): Well possible legal solution is that it be referred of the right to complain directly at court.

Such a prediction would be efficiently reflected in the views of specialization, quality, speed and effectiveness of judicial decision making; all these features will be reflected think the administrative court decisions on issues that will be linked to the civil service. However, effectiveness may have been questionable from the viewpoint of the effect that would bring the presentation of such a claim: the presentation of the claim in the Administrative Court under the project does not automatically entail the suspension of the effects of the act for which the claim is presented. However, according to the draft party that raises the lawsuit may require obtaining security measure suit, one of which is the suspension of the effects of the act, and even this measure can also be provided to the filing of the suit, but it means that in any case will have a court decision that under the project will be taken if there is a possibility of the arrival of the heavy damage irreparable arising from the execution of administrative action. Considered the likelihood that such damage that may come from a decision relating to the civil service to be low (in the best case).

9. Conclusion

Through civil service legislator intended to help sustainability, professionalism, efficiency, in public administration. The legislator should be clear as written above. The following legal regulations should be adopted in connection with the exercise: The first; the right to appeal against the decision-making governing authorities of the state administration in the civil service. Second; the execution of which shall be the competent authority to review such complaints.

All this in order to be employed in public administration and employees to feel themselves secure in fulfilling their obligations in work place, in compliance with the laws in force, to feel themselves protected from discrimination that may come to them because they impact the rotation policy that provides no legal change of public administration. As well, to be protected from gender discrimination, preferential choice, friendly choice, racial, etc.. These’s typical phenomena of the former communist bloc countries such as Albania is, they bring negative consequences in two aspects: First; the legal functioning of public administration in the service of the citizens interests. Second; the discrimination of public administration employees for illegal reasons such as: political, gender, racial, etc..

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Impact of Multilingualism and Multiculturalism on English Language Education: The Case of Arunachal Pradesh, India

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Abstract

Arunachal Pradesh is a multilingual and multicultural state with twenty five major tribes, sixty dialects and two languages i.e. Boti and Thai. The region was a terra-incognito until WW II and India’s independence in 1947. Against this backdrop when schools were started in the late 1940s, the medium of instruction was Assamese in pre-primary and primary level. In the year 1974 the medium of instruction was switched to English at all level with Hindi (national language) as second language and Assamese/Sanskrit as third in middle level, in response to demands by the then NEFA students’ union. English is the official language and the medium of instruction in the state since then. But despite 39 years of English teaching the standard of English is found deteriorating especially in Government schools. This paper will look into, and analyze the socio-cultural and linguistic impact of dominant languages, introduced in the multilingual and multicultural state like Arunachal Pradesh, India.

Keywords: multilingualism, multiculturalism, impact English, language, education.

1. Introduction

Multilingualism\(^1\) and multiculturalism\(^2\) is the hallmark of Indian national identity. India is home to five language families, namely, Indo-European, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burmese and Semito-Hamitic and many ethnic groups. According to 2001 census India has 22 Scheduled languages, 100 Non-Scheduled languages and 234 mother tongues (Census of India 2001, 2001). Diversity in language and ethnicity is not confined to a particular geographical location in India. It is a norm rather than an exception. “In fact, each part of India is a kind of replica of the bigger cultural space called India” (Shailendra Kumar Singh eds. 2009 P: xii). One of the most diverse region in the country is India’s north-east, comprising of the seven states, viz. Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Tripura and Manipur. Lately Sikkim has also been added in the group. Each of these states has many groups of people speaking different languages and following a distinct cultural way of life. Discussing about the difficulty in classification of languages in the north east, particularly the Naga group, Thurgood and Lapolla says “lexical comparison, however, is peculiarly difficult for the two dozen or more ‘Naga’ languages, for they seem almost perversely diverse, as if the people had spent several centuries deliberately manipulating their languages so as to set themselves apart from their neighbours” (Thurgood & Lapolla, 2003). This is just the tip of the linguistic iceberg!

Moving further east, to Arunachal Pradesh, the focus of the paper, the diversity is no less. Arunachal Pradesh is home to twenty five major tribes and about hundred sub-tribes. There is two (2) language\(^3\) and sixty (60) dialects\(^4\) spoken in the state. With the exception of two scripts, Boti and Thai, no other tribes have a written script. These two languages have been introduced in the primary classes in their respective area of domicile. The jurisdiction of Boti is confined to the primary schools in Mon areas of Tawang and West Kameng districts, inhabited by the believers (Mohanty, 2009) of Mahayana sect of Buddhism. Similarly, the Thai (Shaan) script, used in Thai Khampti language of Arunachal Pradesh is already in effect being taught to primary classes in Lohit district, inhabited by the Khampti tribe. Khamptis are followers of

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\(^1\) Multilingualism is the act of using, or promoting the use of, multiple languages, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers. (Wikipedia)

\(^2\) Multiculturalism refers to the doctrine that several different cultures (rather than one national culture) can coexist peacefully and equitably in a single country. (wordnetweb)

\(^3\) Language here has been used to mean the one with a script.

\(^4\) Dialect is for the ones without written script. But for the convenience of discussion, the word language will be used in the paper, even for the ‘dialects’.
Hinayana (Theravada) sect of Buddhism. Efforts are on to adapt and adopt the Roman script by many of the tribes. Like the language, the culture is also equally diverse and interesting.

Arunachal Pradesh was a terra-incognito until the WW II and India’s Independence in 1947. ‘During the British rule no serious attempt was made by the British Indian government to establish schools in the then North East Frontier Agency (NEFA), now Arunachal Pradesh. There only eleven schools in NEFA in the pre-independence period’ (Begi, 2007: 29). Schools in right earnest were started in the late 1940s only, with Assamese as medium of instruction in both pre-primary and primary Classes. It remained so until 1974, when it was switched to English in response to demands made by the then NEFA Students’ Union. Since then English has been the medium of instruction at all levels of education with Hindi a second language and Assamese/Sanskrit as the third language in middle level (class VI-VIII).

2. Linguistic Profile of Arunachal Pradesh

Resource Centre for Indian languages Technology Solutions (RCILTS), IIT Guwahati classifies the languages of Arunachal Pradesh under the following categories:

- Tibeto-Burman
  This group is further represented by various sub family namely, Tani, Hrusso, Lolo-Burmese, Monpa, Sherdubpen and Konyak.\(^5\)
  - Siamese-Chinese (sub family of Sino-Tibetan language family) is represented by Shaan and Khampti, the only two nonTibeto-Burman languages.
  - Indo-Aryan: Asamiya/Axomiya.\(^6\)

The two maps below will help in understanding the geographical distribution and the linguistic diversity of Arunachal Pradesh.\(^7\)

![Linguistic map of Arunachal Pradesh](image)

**Fig.1.1:** Linguistic map of Arunachal Pradesh. Source: Thurgood & Lapolla 2003, P.179

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5 In Arunachal Pradesh, the language spoken is known by the same name as that of its tribe. For example, Monpa, Hrusso, Sherdubpen, Nyishi and so on represent both the people (tribe) and the language spoken. But in the case of Konyak group, it is different. There is no tribe by the name of Konyak in Arunachal Pradesh. It is because of their linguistic and cultural affinity with the ‘Konyak’ tribe of neighboring Nagaland, that they have been called so.

6 Assamiya/Axomiya/Assamese is a regional language of Assam not a mother tongue of any of the tribes in Arunachal Pradesh. The influence of Axomiya is high among the tribes bordering Assam and also for the fact that Assamese/Axomiya used to be the medium of instruction prior to 1974 and was still continued as third language in the middle level of school education in Arunachal Pradesh.

7 In this linguistic map of Arunachal Pradesh by Thurgood and Lapolla, Adi, one of the major tribes of Tani group having more than ninety thousand speakers is not reflected.
Similarly, culture of the people of may also be classified according to the linguistic groups. The Nocte and Wancho tribes are in the Konyak group are famed for their body tattoo art. The rites of passages, agricultural practices and food habits are also common between the two. The former by religion were originally Vaishnavites, a sect of Hinduism. The Wanchos however have been followers of indigenous faith. But many have been converted to Christianity in both the tribes in recent times. Mention may be made of the Tangsas, some of whose sub/tribes are Theravada Buddhists. Christianity has made inroads even among the Tangsas.

As the Tani group share same origin myths and legends, the culture is also quite akin among the tribes. Small differences can be found here and there which is but natural, given the vast geographical spaces that separate the groups. Face tattooing was popular among the Apatani tribe in the Tani group. The practice has been discouraged. It can be seen only in the older generation of the tribe. There are many festivals but one thing common about all the main festivals of the tribes are related to agricultural cycle.

Likewise, the tribes mentioned in the Monpa, Sherdupken and Hrusso have certain degree of cultural affinity among them. Whereas, Monpa, Sherdupken, and some tribes in Hrusso group are Buddhists by religion, the Hrusso (people) themselves are not Buddhists. Even the Sulungs (Puroiks) are animist by faith.

Singpho is the only tribe in the Lolo-Burmese group. They may be different from the Khamptis linguistically but both the tribes follow the same religion and share similar cultural way of life too.

3. Methodology

The study is based on Primary as well as Secondary sources. For the primary source, students belonging to five major Tibeto-Burman speakers i.e. Tani, Hrusso, Monpa, Konyak and Shaan/Khampti were taken. The sample size was 250 comprising 50 (fifty) students each from these groups. The age group of the respondents ranged from 14 to 18 years. For the students pursuing Three years Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Commerce and Bachelor of Science, primary data has also been drawn from the evaluation of their answer scripts in the House Tests (Internal examination) and Annual University examinations. The sample and the data are representative and not exhaustive.

4. Analysis

Resource Centre for Indian Languages Technology Solutions (RCILTS), Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India, has identified seven language groups in Arunachal Pradesh. Notwithstanding the lack of intelligibility among the different language groups, the Mutual Intelligibility (MI) factor even among intra-group is very less in some case. The diversity of language and culture and its impact can be understood from the hard fact that Arunachal Pradesh does not have an ‘indigenous’ language as a lingua franca. The tribes have not been able to come to unanimity regarding a ‘local’ lingua franca in the state. Besides the lack of organization and institution to facilitate in this matter, there is always the pull-push

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8 RCILTS in its district-wise Linguistic representation, has wrongly shown Apatani language as being spoken in two districts, Papum Pare and Lower Subansiri. Apatani, one of the major tribe in the Tani group is spoken in Lower Subansiri district only. The term Apatani represents both the language and the name of the tribe. See map 1.2 for reference.
factor of ‘majority’ and ‘minority’ groups. An initiative by one Mr. Tony Koyu to develop indigenous script called ‘Tani Lipi’, a derivation of Devanagari script is yet to gain acceptability popularity because of the local community politics. The inventor of the script claims that it corresponds to all sounds in Tani group. The other language groups are still apprehensive. The efficacy of the script has not been evaluated as it has not been used formally. Moreover all the literate population is familiar with the Roman script and has voiced their support for adaptation of it to suit their specific languages. As has been mentioned in the introduction, there are only two languages having their own script i.e. Khampi/Shan with the Thai and Monpa with Boti script. As in the case of the Tani Lipi, these two scripts are not favored by other language groups as it is Greek to them. So Hindi and Assamese are the de-facto lingua franca among the different groups though English is the medium of instruction and the official language of the state.

Since structural language teaching should appropriately be corresponded by cultural knowledge, the effort to relate ELT to culture, to students unexposed to the foreign tongue and its accompanying intrinsic culture, can really prove to be a daunting exercise. The job of teaching and learning a foreign language may not prove very fruitful if the language teachers themselves were not adequately ‘at home’ with the target culture. Such seems to have been the case with English Language Teaching (ELT) in Arunachal Pradesh. In the initial years of Union Territory and later State building process, (13Au) (wordnet.web.Princeton.edu/perl/webwn) people from all parts of India were recruited as teachers to teach the illiterate mass. These teachers were mostly from northern India with strong Hindi background. Significant numbers were from neighboring Assam and from southern India too. Majority of them were from Vernacular media with little or no exposure to English culture while having the structural linguistic competence. The lacking of the teachers in target culture as well as native culture has led to many wrongly spelt native names and surnames. These teachers also carried with them their own personal cultural experiences and linguistic prejudices which they transmitted to their students unwittingly.

To cite an example, my own name got changed and surname remains inappropriately spelt as the teacher concerned, an Assamese, could not pronounce it correctly. My original name YELLI had to be changed to AZU my pet name. The teacher kept pronouncing it as ELLI, since he could not say ‘YE’, to which my sister who had taken me for admission objected. Similarly my surname TAW, should have been correctly written as TAO. Names of many places in Arunachal Pradesh are today incorrectly written and pronounced because the crusaders of education in the early years were unfamiliar with the local Pronunciation. And there were relatively few locals who could correct or guide them. To cite a few examples, Yazalyii became Yazali, Yochulyii to Yachuli, Aalo to Along, Cher to Sher, Lyichii to Lichi and so on.

The efficiency of learners was doubly incapacitated by their own native linguistic restrictions/shortcomings and unwitting transmission of inappropriate sounds by their teachers, tradesman and Government employees in the initial years of the State building process. Some of the typical vernacular sounds were ‘chhu’ (mouse) as ‘suha’, kachha (raw) as ‘kasa’, V ‘bher’ by our Assamese teachers; station as ‘istation’, school as ‘bschool’, blood as ‘balad’ by the north Indian teachers and yal, yum and yam for L,M,and N respectively by the southerners. This is not to say that all teachers were alike. There were exceptionally good teachers also. But as far as English pronunciation was concerned, it was heavily localized with few exceptions.

Examples are galore of natives’ phonological faux pas as many of the tribal dialects do not have all the corresponding sound system of English, Hindi and many other languages. One can hear a Nyishi speaker (Tani) asking for ‘kana’ and ‘hana’ (Khana), rice in Hindi, khabar ,news ‘kab’ar, thanda (cool) as ‘tanda’. In Apatani tribe, where ‘h’, ‘r’ and ‘l’ is mildly pronounced, Naharлагun turns into ‘Nuanагun’ and Bus becomes ‘Bans’. The sound ‘f’ ‘v’ and ‘ph’ is absent in most tribes except in some sections of the Nyishi and Tangsa tribe where it is strongly accented. So, in case of the former, telephone becomes ‘telipоon’, office, ‘оппice’, fifty ‘пipти’, valley is ‘balley’,phase and face becomes ‘pace’. In the latter office is ‘ophice’ and valley becomes ‘phalley’. Raasta,( road), is ‘daasta’ among the Noctes (Konyak) of eastern Arunachal.

In many tribes despite the existence of particular sounds/phonemes, they use it inversely-one for the other. Hence among the Adis and Galos (Tani) one can be heard asking for ‘siken’ instead of ‘chicken’, achcha (good) is asa, narrating a ‘chapna’ instead of ‘sapna’ (dream), “Jalman kaan” for Salman Khan the bollywood actor and ‘Jajan’ for “sajan”, name of a Salman Khanstarrer bollywood film. The Adis also use t and d inversely. So aadmн (man) becomes aadмн, matлab (meaning) becomes mooflob and kiна (how much) is kedna.

Another interesting feature among the Nyishis (Tani) of East Kameng district is their literal translation of the mother tongue into English/Hindi. The sentence “Na mingming hihiye?” is supposed to mean ‘what is your name?’ but the word hiye in Nyishi actually means ‘who’ and not ‘what’. So when it is translated into English or Hindi it goes like ‘who’ is your name? (English) and ‘tumhara naam kaun hai?’ (Hindi).

Among the Monpas,’down’ is ‘don’, haddi (bone) is heddi and one is often offered jai (tea) instead of chai and so
on. And a Khampti calls a ‘bus’ as ‘baat’ and ‘rolling’ as ‘lolling’ and ‘low’ as ‘row’.

The linguistic impact on English education can be seen more from its respective mother tongues than from inter-group and intra-groups.

Hence many Hindi, Assamese and few English words have become part and parcel of many of the local languages.

5. Hindi: The De-Facto Official Language

The impact of mother tongues in English learning and other languages is quite visible. In addition to that, the popularity of Hindi and Assamese has not only impeded the learning of English but made quite an inroad into local tongues. The former by virtue of being the national language and the latter because of its status as medium of instruction up to 1973 in the state and also as third language too. The influence of Hindi is such that many of the second and third generation children do not speak their own mother tongue. It was a fashion in the 60s and 70s to teach Assamese to one’s children rather than own mother tongue by the ‘educated’ people. It progressed to Hindi in the late 80s and 90s and the trend is still on.

Moreover, English teaching in primary classes were and still is practically done mostly in Hindi and Assamese. No doubt the lessons were read in English but explanations were done either in Hindi or Assamese. Today, Hindi has taken over Assamese in almost all the regions. This explains the reason why students in Arunachal find it more comfortable to speak in Hindi than in English. Spoken English was not encouraged in any way. Exposure to spoken English was confined to the classroom alone. Majority being the first generation learners, there was no English to be heard, at home or among the peers.

The arrival of Televisions in homes also made little impact in terms of enhancing the spoken proficiency of the learners in the early years. Firstly, TV set was a luxury which every family could not afford not to talk of the absence of power supply, barring few urban/semi-urban areas only. Secondly, there were limited channels that too all in Hindi. Even after the onslaught of satellite channels in English, people prefer to watch Hindi programs. Moreover, the spoken English of Americans and Europeans are unfamiliar to our ears. The auditory mechanism of my generation and the one before, are attuned to the likes of ‘Jha sir, Chutia sir and C.D. Rajen sir. Consequently dialogue in English movies becomes difficult to understand without the subtitles in the bottom. So is the case with English songs.

Given the diversity the state has in terms of language, culture and education legacy, the English language learning may be looked at with the emphasis on the social context. It has been clearly and firmly echoed by many experts in the field that language cannot be taught outside a social context. Learning of language is an individual act but it occurs in the society. The social context include components such as the sociolinguistic situation, the general exposure of learners to other languages, the roles of the target language and other languages in the outside community and in the home, and the general perception of values of the target language. “Whatever the language learners brings to the task, whether innate ability, a language acquisition device, attitudes, the outcome of language learning depends in large measure on the amount and kind of exposure to the target language” (Spolsky, 1989). It is this key element, “exposure to the target language” that is missing in the English education in the state owing to the various factors discussed above.

6. Findings: Impact on English Education

The impact of multilingualism on English education can be observed in phonological influence of mother tongues of the different speech communities, the verbatim transcription of it in English as well as written form. For example, with exception to Monpa group, in no tribe is ‘sh’ sound found. Hence the English words like ‘shame’, ‘sheep’, ‘shambles’ are pronounced as ‘same’, sip, and ‘sambles’. The Nyishis (Tani group) of East Kameng district, use ‘ing’ in place of ‘en/in/nd’. So ‘chicken’ becomes ‘chicking’, ‘second’ is ‘seeking’ and ‘join’ is pronounced as ‘joing’. The orthography is influenced by their pronunciation in many cases.

Influence of mother tongues can be heard all around in the state. It affects in speaker’s fluency in other languages. In fact the local accents are so much tribe specific that one can easily identify the community of the speaker by his or her accent while speaking languages other than their own mother tongues. It can also be seen in hoardings and local advertisements.

In all the languages discussed here, none has gender specific pronouns like ‘he’ or ‘she’. Besides the factors discussed above, lack of proper documentation and authentic research on most of the languages of Arunachal Pradesh, seem to be hampering the process of learning of other languages in the back drop of multilingualism and
multiculturalism. Hence, in the absence of a point of reference, learning of other languages is affected.

The picture below is an example of mother tongue influence on orthography\(^9\)

![Image of a sign with the word "AMA YASO META'S COLLECTION"

**Fig. 1.3**

7. **Conclusion**

Multilingualism and multiculturalism is an integral part of a multi-ethnic State or a country. Migration, through the ages in the world has been taking place owing to various historical reasons. It has given rise to multilingual and multicultural societies. In the 21st century, globalization has hastened the process even faster. It is a fact with which the concerned State or country has to live with and addressed to. In the case of Arunachal Pradesh, efforts may be initiated while planning language policy and curriculum to bridge the gap and minimize the degree of difference.

Initiatives may also be taken to develop the local languages/dialects, popularize it by introducing it in the school curriculum; train teachers in native and target grammar; develop academic material on the native languages; use electronic and social network media to minimize the inter-dialectical differences.

A humble endeavor has been made here to analyze various features and aspects of the impact of multilingualism and multiculturalism on English language learning with special reference to Arunachal Pradesh which is inhabited by the various tribes representing multilingualism and multiculturalism with their unique and rich heritage which still remains almost unexplored to most parts of the world. The researcher has painstakingly made all efforts to bring out and highlight the linguistic complexities arising out of inherent diversities in terms of both the languages and the cultures prevalent in this easternmost State of India.

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\(^9\) The word “Beats” in the photo is supposed to mean “Beads”.

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Taiwanese EFL Nursing Students’ English Learning Beliefs and Anxiety

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Abstract

As in a global village and English has been widely used in medical terminology, medical records and in professional communication, it’s quite essential to have good English ability for those people standing in the front line of healthcare, in particular, the nurses. However, how do nursing students outside of English speaking countries think of English learning and what are the effects on their English performance? The paper aims to investigate (1) how Taiwanese EFL nursing students think of English learning, (2) what their anxiety are, and (3) the effects of beliefs and anxiety on their English performance. Participants are 733 nursing students in a private medical college in south Taiwan, including 78 males (11%) and 655 females (89%). The research instruments include a set of English Proficiency Test and questionnaires dealing with the Beliefs about Language Learning (Horwitz, 1988), and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986). All available data are processed by SPSS 15. Findings show that students' beliefs do affect their anxiety and negatively relate to their English performance. It’s expected that the findings can provide teachers and educators with more understanding about students’ individual differences in English learning for nursing schools outside of English speaking countries.

Keywords: nursing students, beliefs, anxiety, English performance

1. Introduction

Many learners regard foreign language learning as an anxiety-provoking experience which affects their language performance in one way or another. Hence, the role of anxiety on foreign language learning has been attracting lots of attention from the mid-1970s, in particular, since the early 2000s, there have been a growing number of studies of Asian learners of Japan (Andrade & Williams, 2009), China (Na, 2007), Taiwan (Hou, et al., 2012; Wu, 2010), Korea (Kim, 2000), Vietnam (Linh,2011), the Philippines (Sioson, 2011) and many others.

In the past few decades, researchers have become more interested in the study of the acquisition of second or foreign languages. They have paid more attention to investigating the affective variables, which are believed to be teachable and trainable. Previous studies have indicated how students think about language learning, how those beliefs related to their learning anxiety (Horwitz, 1990), as well as how some beliefs are conflicting among students of different institutions (Kern, 1995), and different culture settings (Yang, 1992). It seems that no matter what participants of those studies are, it’s obvious that students have some misconceptions toward language learning itself, which have some impacts on their anxiety and English learning. Particularly, as in a global village and English has been widely used in medical terminology, medical records and in professional communication, it’s quite essential to have good English ability for those people standing in the front line of healthcare, in particular, the nurses. However, how do nursing students outside of English speaking countries think of English learning and what are the effects on their English performance?

2. Literature Review

Reviews of anxiety and beliefs about foreign language learning are described below:

Anxiety about foreign language learning—Learning anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p.128), which is likely to arouse in language learning stages: input, processing, and output (Tobias, 1986) and affect language learners' performance. MacIntyre (1995) claimed that " Language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these..." (p.96). Language anxiety's affect on language learning is two-fold: positive and negative. In terms of its positive effect, it is suggested that some anxiety can improve performance (Scovl, 1978), and influence both the quality of performance and the amount of effort invested in it
(Eysenck, 1979). On the other hand, anxiety is relative to some other variables such as motivation, attitude, and strategy use, as well as language learning outcome (Hou, et al., 2012; Wu, 2010).

Belief about foreign language learning - Students of all ages have opinions about materials, instructions, learning situations, teachers, and classmates. Individual's opinion about learning may not be the same, and even the learners themselves sometimes have conflicting beliefs about learning. Students bring those concepts into classroom and are affected by them. From their beliefs, we can understand students’ expectation of commitment to, success in, and satisfaction with their language classes (Horwitz, 1988). Yorio (1986) reported that students’ beliefs are determined by their proficiency level and language background, especially the latter “most often appears to result in marked differences” (p.682). Another finding dealing with student’s conflicting beliefs is that, on one hand, “students indicated a marked preference for courses stressing communicative competence”, but on the other hand, “they show obvious reluctance to abandon very traditional teaching techniques” (Yorio, 1986, p.672). Other studies, like Horwitz (1988), Yang (1992), and Kern (1995) assessed students’ and teachers’ beliefs or role expectations and claimed that some similarities and contrasts do exist. Among them, Horwitz is the first to systematically identify beliefs about language learning. In 1988, Horwitz developed The Belief About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Since then, the BALLI has become a widely adopted instrument to measure learners’ opinions about difficulty, aptitude, nature, strategy use, and expectation of language learning. Horwitz (1988) claimed that some students’ beliefs are very optimistic and unrealistic, and even conflict with real language learning. Kern (1995) pointed out that there are some mismatches between teachers’ and students’ beliefs, as well as even students of different universities.

3. Methodology

3.1 Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are to explore (1) how Taiwanese EFL nursing students think of English learning, (2) what their anxiety are, and (3) the effects of beliefs and anxiety on their English performance.

3.2 Research Design

The research design is a descriptive study. The methodology of descriptive study was chosen as the research design because of its particular strength and advantages in being able to set an objective “to determine the factors, and relationships among the factors that have resulted in the current behavior or status of the study” (Gay, 1992, p.236).

3.3 Subjects

A total of 733 nursing students in a private five-year medical junior college in south Taiwan served as subjects, including 78 male students (11%) and 655 female students (89%). They were arranged to fill out a set of questionnaires dealing with their beliefs and anxiety about English learning, adopted from Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1988), and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), respectively. In addition, a General English Proficiency Test, CEF A2, consisting of listening part and reading part, was used to presenting their English performance.

3.4 Process

In that five-year medical junior college, English was a require course in the first three years. There were 5 departments in the college, but only Nursing Department was chosen for the purposes of the study to investigate nursing students' beliefs and anxiety about English learning. All the first 3 graders of the Nursing Department participated in the study, including 261 first graders (35%), 223 second graders (30%), and 260 third graders (35%).

4. Findings and discussions

Findings include the reliability of the questionnaire, students’ English scores, nursing students’ beliefs and anxiety about English learning, the impacts of beliefs on anxiety and English performance as well. The findings and discussions of the study are described below:
4.1 The reliability of the questionnaire

The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire is found to be Cronbach’s Alpha = .75 (Item number=20). According to Gay and Airasian (2003), “If a test were perfectly reliable, the reliability coefficient would be 1.00….However, no test is perfect reliable.” (p.141). Hence, the result of .75 reliability coefficient indicates that the research instrument is acceptable and reliable.

4.2 Nursing students’ English scores

The results show that students’ English scores are not satisfactory. The mean score of listening, reading and total score is 54.88, 39.49, and 94.38, respectively, while the full score is 120, 120, and 240, respectively. Obviously, students’ English performance is not satisfactory, especially reading. The findings are shown in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>listening high</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>reading high</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>total high</th>
<th>low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st grader</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>38.58</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grader</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.51</td>
<td>95.2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd grader</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39.59</td>
<td>98.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average</td>
<td>54.88</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>39.49</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full score</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Nursing students’ beliefs

The findings show that students strongly believe that language learning involves a lot of memorization, they shouldn’t say anything in English until they can say it correctly, the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words, it is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it, and it is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation. Comparatively, they are with weaker beliefs that if beginning students are permitted to make errors in English without correction, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly (to correct errors) later on, people who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages, the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar, they have a special ability for learning foreign languages, and the most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from their native language. The results are shown in Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beliefs about foreign language learning</th>
<th>1=agree 2= disagree 3= no comment</th>
<th>1%</th>
<th>2%</th>
<th>3%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>(05)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You shouldn’t say anything in English until you can say it correctly.</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>(02)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>(09)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>(07)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>(03)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English without correction, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly (to correct errors) later on.</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>(08)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>(06)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>(04)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Language learning involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>(01)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Nursing students’ anxiety about foreign language learning

The findings reveal that students are anxious most that they never feel quite sure of themselves when they are speaking...
in English class. In addition, they feel more tense and nervous in English class than in other classes. They are worried to find themselves thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. They feel embarrassed to volunteer answers in English class and worry about making mistakes in English class. In comparison, students are less anxious about not understanding what the teacher is saying in English class, knowing that they are going to be called on in English class, always feeling that the other students speak English better than they do, and being afraid that their English teacher is ready to correct every mistake they make. The results of students' anxiety about foreign language learning are shown in Table 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Anxiety about foreign language learning 1=agree 2= disagree 3= no comment</th>
<th>1%</th>
<th>2%</th>
<th>3%</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>(01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>(05)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English class.</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>(08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English class.</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>(03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>It embarrassed me to volunteer answers in my English class.</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>(04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>(09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>(06)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>(07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>(01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 The impacts of nursing students' beliefs on their anxiety and English scores

It's found that students' beliefs have some impacts on their anxiety and English scores. For example, students who believe that “It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it” (item 9) are more anxious about “It embarrassed me to volunteer answers in my English class” (item 16), which has positive impacts on both their reading scores and total scores (p<.05). Furthermore, they worry more about “Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it” (item 17), which has impacts on their total scores negatively (p<.05). The impacts of students' beliefs on anxiety and their English scores are shown in Figure 1:

Figure 1. The impacts of nursing students' beliefs on anxiety and English scores

5. Discussion and Implication

5.1 Discussion

1. In the study, many nursing students' English ability is not satisfactory, especially their reading ability. In addition, individual differences in English ability exist among students.
2. Many nursing students believe the importance of memorization, excellent pronunciation, lots of vocabulary words, good preparation, and the difficulties of English speaking and understanding.

3. Nursing students are more anxious about speaking English, being absent-minded, making mistakes, and to volunteer answers in English class.

4. Particularly, nursing students believe that English reading and writing are easier than speaking and understanding, which has the impact on their being anxious about English class, and negatively predicts their English total scores (p<.05).

5.2 Implication

1. Nursing students' English ability should be improved, especially their reading ability.
2. Nursing students’ individual differences in English ability should be taken into consideration. Hence, homogeneous grouping instruction should be encouraged.
3. Nursing students' beliefs are proved to have some impacts on their anxiety and predictive of English scores. So, they should be encouraged to develop positive beliefs and decrease their anxiety for a better English performance.

Reference


An Enemy to the People of H. Ibsen and Major Barbara of G. B. Shaw

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Abstract:
This paper is focused in the analysis of two famous and much debated plays of Henrik Ibsen and Bernard Shaw, respectively An Enemy to the People and Major Barbara. Both plays deal with the social aspect of the individual, the freedom of speech and the freedom of acting, but what does this paper bring to the reader is the attitude of the main characters of both plays towards moral integrity and destruction of moral virtues and values, what is considered moral might be amoral at the same time from a different point of view, what is the attitude of the main characters towards the truth, the relative truth and the absolute truth, what is the attitude of the main characters towards poverty, social position, exploitation of the social benefits and so on. The protagonists of both plays carry the heaviest weight in the characterization of the whole class they represent. Both authors have in common the wit to compel us in analyzing and revoking our consciousness to these phenomena.

Keywords: characters, individual, similarities, illusion, point of view etc.

1. The individual against society

Since 1877 Ibsen began to write a series of five plays in which he criticized the moral occurrences of society, including Pillars of Society, a Doll’s House, Ghosts, An Enemy of the People and The Wild Duck. The play we are analysing in this article is An Enemy of the People, written in 1882, two years following Ibsen’s move to live in Italy. In this play he attacked the debauched and corrupted moral of the people who wore the mantle of power; the extent to which individual beliefs and desires are compromised by society, as well as the ways in which an individual becomes isolated from society which he tries to help. This is all about a person: Dr. Tommas Stockman, precisely the protagonist of this play. Here he has to deal with all his friends who are unjustly counter, through which said, among other things, a slice of Ibsen’s life itself since he wrote the play Ghosts. This drama of Ibsen is in the same line with Major Barbara of Bernard Shaw, mainly in terms of its moral aspect, but regarding the visibility of the characters integrity, it has many points to discuss about. Major Barbara of Bernard Shaw has been extensively analyzed by many critics so far, to whom I have found valuable reference. Thus, I see it appropriate to face these two plays in order to browse some points where there may lie similarities as well as differences. Considering their setting, we do agree that both dramas are linear, which means that they have a normal course of events; they are not widely conceived into broken lines in terms of the element of time, by mixing the past with the present thanks to the retrospective element. It seems to be rather the contrary, both contain a subject built on the cause-effect Aristotelian principle, which causes them to tie up in a nodosity for a causal event which later proceeds and develops within the space between some dramatic vicissitudes, later it is reflected in a culmination point and a conflict disposition. It is important also to notice what is common to both plays, the argument related to real and false morality that characterized the society of the time, also the power effect which in most of the cases corrupts the human soul.

Bernard Shaw wrote this play Major Barbara in 1905, in this same year it was first performed in New York, while it was published two years later, in 1907. In the preface of this play, Preface to Major Barbara: First Aid for Critics, Shaw deliberately explains to the critics that he is not repeating here those great voices of modernity, as Schopenhauer, Nietzsche, Ibsen, Strindberg or Tolstoy, but he is just trying to make clear and transparent his first and early inspiration for the ideas in this drama. Due to this he attributes the play Major Barbara to Gilbert Murray in more than one way.
Shaw also dedicates his inspiration to an earlier writer, Charles Lever and his work entitled *A Day's Ride: A Life's Romance*, and to the critics he addresses these words: “Now why is it that when I also deal in the tragi-comic irony of the conflict between real life and the romantic imagination, no critic ever affiliates me to my countryman and immediate forerunner, Charles Lever, whilst they confidently derive me from a Norwegian author of whose language I do not know three words, and of whom I knew nothing until years after the Shavian Anschauung was already unequivocally declared in books full of what came, ten years later, to be perfunctorily labelled Ibsenism. I was not Ibsenist even at second hand; for Lever, though he may have read Henri Beyle, alias Stendhal, certainly never read Ibsen. Of the books that made Lever popular, such as Charles O'Malley and Harry Lorrequer, I know nothing but the names and some of the illustrations. But the story of the day's ride and life's romance of Potts (claiming alliance with Pozzo di Borgo) caught me and fascinated me as something strange and significant, though I already knew all about Alnaschar and Don Quixote and Simon Tapperit and many another romantic hero mocked by reality. From the plays of Aristophanes to the tales of Stevenson that mockery has been made familiar to all who are properly saturated with letters.”

Murray himself has written two memoirs about his involvement in the work of Shout, which confirm that the characters of the play were in fact Murray's wife and her mother, Mrs. respectively in the play Barbara and Lady Britomart. Since the characters of the play are purely modelings of real people, whom Shaw had personal knowledge with, the author has been extremely cautious not to offend in any way their family. A year after he started to write it, Shaw himself went to Murray family, with the special scope to read the play to them first. (*Bernard Shaw's Plays: W. S. Smith, 1970: 376*)

2. The conflict in the family

While analyzing *Major Barbara*, we are faced with the conflict in the family, for the simple reason that the protagonist is an idealistic person, who, while facing the reality that surrounds her, realizes that she is powerless to change the world, also too weak to get involved into the process of katarsis, the renewal of moral reformation in a society that was suffering from a lack of references and which was dramatically losing its historic values. On the other hand, the freezing or "stillness" of things, although in many extremely unfavorable situations, it seems like it has to do with an almost fatalistic view. This outlook stares the artistic sign as a reality immobilized inside trapped codes that can ever change, hence this outlook also considers the healing power of the society as an utopia, as an adventure or as a pure illusion.

Barbara’s father, Mr. Undershaft, is a successful armament industrialist, whose life is lead by a philosophical aspect based mainly on one’s will for safe living and success. His own life has not been easy along the years, considering the fact that he did not inherit the fortune. With that strength of will, he cleaved between life difficulties, which were not few in number and intensity, Mr. Undershaft proved to be a very tenacious and ambitious person. Mr. Undershaft established his own Gospel, which shows that the greatest evil and the greatest crime of all is poverty itself. We all fear this evil and crime, we want to avoid it at all costs, we want to stay away from it as long as possible, we do everything not to meet it anywhere, but unfortunately we are destined to remain in its basin. Society itself tolerates poverty as its phenomenon, because society considers it as innocuous, something that can not hurt it to its foundations. Instead, thanks to the illusion and the need to a social balance, society itself refers to poverty as a virtue on which St. Francis formatted his novatory opinion in relation to the status - quo of the dominant concept of the Catholic Church regarding the impact of God over man and man’s behavior, as a relation based on confidence and evocation. One of the tools that Bernard Shaw makes use of artistically at this point is the avoidance of the moral and religious rhetoric, by doing so, it helps in creating Barbara a deep cleft in Barbara’s awareness.

Thanks to his exquisite irony, but not only, thanks to his critical sense, also, with wich he refuses to turns the religious reference into reason, the sanctification of moral deformity, this drama informs us that poverty of low status people also an awareness which knowingly accepts or justifies humiliation, it means weakness, ignorance, nihilation of personality, an irreproachable example of the ugliness. Poverty produces diseases in more than one way, and the most dishonorable of them, is the desease of the prostitition because of it, where the rich abuse the frail exposed bodies of young and poor girls. At this point, society does nothing to change the situation. If a man is indolent, let him be poor. If he is drunk, let him be poor. If he is not a gentleman, let him be poor. If he is addicted to the fine arts or to pure science instead of to trade and finance, let him be poor. If he chooses to spend his urban eighteen shillings a week or his agricultural thirteen shillings a week on his beer and his family instead of saving it up for his old age, let him be poor. Let nothing be done for "the undeserving": let him be poor. Serve him right! Also—somewhat inconsistently—blessed are the poor!
3. Undershaft and Stockman facing the society

Confronting these two characters, Mr. Undershaft of Major Barbara and Mr. Stokman of An Enemy of the People, puts the reader in front of a huge dilemma concerning the morality of the relative right to absolute right. The relative right is best represented with what Undershaft builds and protects, while the absolute right is the one what both characters believe and are convinced of, but they do not both agree to adopt it as the leitmotif of their lives, but only Mr. Stockman is sacrificed for. As this wouldn’t be enough, Stockman is rejected and criticized by his wife, a woman whose pragmatic values are turned out to be obsequious, this woman blames Stockman for lack of pragmatism in understanding the functioning of things. She asks him to establish some priorities, the first of which, she seeks to be their family and the protection of it. This pretence is also a false one, because we can not say that Stockman does not take into account the priority versus family, but he had another conception related to its protection. The idealism which Stockman greatly sustained made him think otherwise regarding its protection. What Stockman thought, was that good things to one’s family come due to the defense of its morality and rectitude, not from economic incomes that it may be missing.

Is it possible that Mrs. Stockman in a sense was afraid of poverty or of loosing social comfort in which she has accommodated herself? Would she ready to protect her circumstances at any cost, even with the condition of breaking the morality of Stockman? Even Mr. Undershaft argues with his wife on their family’s future, not based on principles, but based on profits from the foundry incomes. Mrs. Britomart claims that her son should inherit his father’s foundry, breaking the tradition of that business which has been inherited by generations to a foundling. In other words, we can still refer to the idea of Undershaft’s gospel used by him to mitigate the excessive idealism Barbara is fitted with. As such, if we take this issue as an approach to our matching point and our analytical juxtaposition, we come to the conclusion that Lady Britomart believes in the same values her husband does.

Reconsidering An Enemy of the People, another objection comes from Stockman’s brother, Mayor Peter, who tries to use the position he has for personal beneficiary purposes. Peter, Stockman’s brother, differs a lot form him, he does not think about anyone else’s good, just for himself. It does not matter to Peter how much damage pollution might cause to community, but how much money he can benefit from the project. The most important thing for him is to have money no matter the way he makes them, because the only way he can feel himself being strong, honorable and mighty is being rich and having money.

The author makes use of this play, selecting this unpleasant subject to justify the sheer scope of his, which seems to tell us to what depths of evil people go through when they let themselves be influenced solely by self-interest reasons. (The Times, 15 June, 1893:10) This attitude makes us understand that the individual and society mutually affect each other. Empowered people, like Peter, for example, prefer despotism in order to press and constrain individual freedom of expression and acting. In this way his behavior harms the community, because it does not allow the community to develop and progress freely. Peter, on the other hand, is harmed by the same society which gave him power, abusing with it, he loses his morals and integrity. On behalf of the good for the community Peter devours the incomes, harms the others and does not respect any moral norm. He represents the majority of the society he is a member of, as it is this same society which offered him such a high ruling position. In a lucidity of thought, this does not mean that the majority is always right. Ibsen used the figure of Stockman to throw down this inherent idea since in Act II. While Dr. Stockman was defending his progressive ideas, he claimed contrary to the interests of nomocracy and its servants, but expressed openly in favor to and for the benefit of the community:

Dr. Stockmann. You may depend upon it—I shall name them! That is precisely the great discovery I made yesterday. (Raises his voice.) The most dangerous enemy of truth and freedom amongst us is the compact majority—yes, the damned compact Liberal majority—that is it! Now you know! …
(MRS. STOCKMANN gets up, looking anxious. EJLIF and MORTEN advance threateningly upon some schoolboys who are playing pranks. ASLAKSEN rings his bell and begs for silence. HOVSTAD and BILLING both talk at once, but are inaudible. At last quiet is restored.)

Aslaksen. As Chairman, I call upon the speaker to withdraw the ill-considered expressions he has just used.

Dr. Stockmann. Never, Mr. Aslaksen! It is the majority in our community that denies me my freedom and seeks to prevent my speaking the truth.

Hovstad. The majority always has right on its side.

Billing. And truth too, by God!

Dr. Stockmann. The majority never has right on its side. Never, I say! That is one of these social lies against which an independent, intelligent man must wage war. Who is it that constitutes the majority of the population in a country? Is it the clever folk, or the stupid? I don't imagine you will dispute the fact that at present the stupid people are in an absolutely overwhelming majority all the world over. But, good Lord!—you can never pretend that it is right that the stupid folk should govern the clever ones! (Uproar and cries.) Oh, yes—you can shout me down, I know! But you cannot answer me. The majority has might on its side—unfortunately; but right it has not. I am in the right—I and a few other scattered individuals. The minority is always in the right. (Renewed uproar.)

According to Ibsen, the majority is conservative and lacks humanity. Only a small minority or any enlightened person is not satisfied with some prevalent facts in the society, because of this, he wants reformation to be made and aspires to revolution. An essential thing to note here is the society’s attitude towards minority or any enlightened person. The society fears minority, fears that person who aspires to revolution, society calls him the idealist and the prodigal, because allegedly he is destroying the peace of the community. Dr. Stockman is detained the freedom of speech and the declaration of the truth, by using the will and the pressure of the majority. He wants to hold a public speech but he is refused and rejected everywhere, no one gives him space for it. But eventually he manages to find such a place, the audience refuses to follow and forces him down from the podium. They all unanimously declare him an enemy of the people and follow him up to his house where the mob throws stones and breaks the windows of his house. Is there not enough evidence to be convinced that the majority consists of fools (according to Stockman)? Is it not ironic the opaque attitude, disapproving and aggressive at the same time, of this mass of people which have been manipulated or self-manipulated? The least they could do was to hearken to the honorable doctor. To this Dr. Stockman, who was greatly appreciated as a respected and honest man, and not to be outraged about the truths he wanted to unveil, without knowing and without having the strength of argument or debate which would take place? The text of Ibsen is rich in dialogue and according to the level it represents, this text comes to us as an ardent apology of the human individuality. (Papagjoni, Josif. 2004:131)

With the aggravation of the community, local government representatives take advantage of the opportunity to revoke his official duty as a doctor, local businessmen distribute flyers calling on people not to regard him as a doctor anymore, and in addition to these things, the schoolmaster where his daughter teaches up to then, fires her off. Through the figure of Stockman and his unwavering attitude, Ibsen restores his emancipating idea that the persecution of the social majority by the minority of those people who "stand up alone" and are considered as 'trouble-makers', is not likely to prevail. "Triumph" is only physical, what we concretely can see, as the deprivation of wealth, power or social presence, but by never can it be deprivation of morality, declared conscience and willingness to challenge the rotten throne where a overrun and poor society once stood.

Coming back to Major Barbara, Undershaft knew very well the power of the majority, precisely because of this he did not want his daughter, Barbara, to be among those few who blindly believed in the idealism of the spiritual sanctification. The ideological struggle between Undershaft and Barbara lies in his belief that money should be recognized as the first basic need, while poverty should be recognized as the most infamous sin of man and society. It is easily understood the failure of this Barbara’s conviction, since her undertake to save her father’s soul, because there is no soul to be saved if the Salvation Army itself has not been saved, whose revenues come through crime, murder and exploitation.

The idea that the protagonists of these both plays convey is the attitude towards truth and reality. Telling the absolute truth is something Ibsen seriously is interested in, when we consider the whole set of the play An Enemy of the People. If this absolute truth comes out from the mouth of the honest, brave and uncompromised Stockman, the audience has the honour not only to listen to it but to embrace it and keep it as an arm against the mob which constitutes
the majority. In this way he tries to destroy that institution of lies which has been deeply rooted in the minds of people, by carrying it out of the depths of the thoughts of the dead truths that noone would say anymore. On the other hand, Shaw also makes us clear the bitter reality through Undershaft and through all those industrialists whose enrichment comes from exploitation of lower class society. This class of people like Undershaft has met poverty for a long time, that is why they hate it, and that is why they stress that there is nothing which should give up now:

UNDERSHAFT. My religion? Well, my dear, I am a Millionaire. That is my religion.
BARBARA. Then I’m afraid you and Mr Shirley won’t be able to comfort one another after all. You’re not a Millionaire, are you, Peter?
SHIRLEY. No; and proud of it.
UNDERSHAFT [gravely] Poverty, my friend, is not a thing to be proud of.

CUSINS. Take care! Barbara is in love with the common people. So am I. Have you never felt the romance of that love?
UNDERSHAFT [cold and sardonic] Have you ever been in love with Poverty, like St Francis? Have you ever been in love with Dirt, like St Simeon? Have you ever been in love with disease and suffering, like our nurses and philanthropists? Such passions are not virtues, but the most unnatural of all the vices. This love of the common people may please an earl's granddaughter and a university professor; but I have been a common man and a poor man; and it has no romance for me. Leave it to the poor to pretend that poverty is a blessing; leave it to the coward to make a religion of his cowardice by preaching humility: we know better than that. We three must stand together above the common people: how else can we help their children to climb up beside us? Barbara must belong to us, not to the Salvation Army.

(G. B. S.’s Plays: W.S.Smith, 1970: 376)

And after all, no matter how careful the analysis of these two works is, confronting the individual to society is always the right time, and the internal dilemma unfolds the ideas in each of the protagonists, themes and realities which strongly affect the tilt of the individual sometimes on the relative right (Barbara) and sometimes on the absolute right (Stockman). Such a strategy followed during the critique shows how a set of idealistic criteria is formed to the arrival of such a stern playwright towards any form of idealism, such as Ibsen, followed later by Shaw. (McGann, Jerome., 1983:37-51)

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Understanding Gender Politics in Literature:  
A study of The Tenant of Wildfell Hall by Anne Bronte

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Abstract

This paper attempts to analyze characterization patterns of male characters in female writing. The aim of this study is to explore the construction of female gender subjectivity while representing male characters in their novels. It has generally been considered that gender politics plays a very significant role in depicting male and female characterization in literature. Female authors engage themselves in over exaltation of female characters and display liking towards them by foregrounding the strengths of their female characters over their weaknesses; and reveal degeneration of male counterparts. Similarly male authors are inherently inclined towards male characters and reflect patriarchy in their works. It has also been analyzed that genuine representation of men by women writers and women by men writers, is not possible; there is always writer’s gender subjectivity involved in the representation of characters. Gender identity and gendered representation are the focal concerns in this analysis and I have selected Anne Bronte’s novel The Tenant of Wildfell Hall for my gender analysis. This research concludes that gender – apart from biological sex – plays a vital role in determining male and female characterization in literature. Female gender characteristics permeate in the portrayal of male character, language and psychology.

1. Introduction

Literature is generally referred as the representation of the contemporary life, as life transforms with the changing scenarios of time similarly literature is also influenced by these socio-political changes. Although it is assumed that every literary artist is somehow concerned with universalism, and depict objective and universal characters in their writings but these characters are neither objective nor timeless as they reflect history, culture as well as gender subjectivity. Every writer is as much a product of his society as his writing is the progeny of his own reaction to the life.

Gender is an important characteristic of a person’s individuality. It exerts enormous impact on our lives from the time of our birth, and we act out its cultural and social aspects at crucial moments of our lives: from birth to death. Gender, apart from biological discrimination, is a social and cultural construction of masculinities and femininities. As the philosopher Simon de Beauvoir (1949) said all human beings are not born with tags of man or woman but it is society that makes them either man or woman (p. 118). We, as human beings, create gender based classification and hierarchies among ourselves. From birth, children, on the basis of gender, are given different treatments because of gender discrimination, and babies are not only dressed in different colors of clothing but are given different kinds of toys to sustain gendered division. Gender bifurcation between male and female, created in different societies and cultures, manifests itself among the reactions of people. Some of them stand against this hierarchy while others try to justify it. Similarly literary artists also bring forth their responses in their writings.

As this study concerns gender politics in a literary text, it requires interpretation and will therefore be based on research in hermeneutical and postmodern epistemology. I will conduct a Discourse Analysis of the text under study with the backdrop of feminist literary theory in order to gain a better understanding of the hidden structures of language that are involved in gender representation. Through discourse analysis, I aim to look at the following aspects:

a. how much space is given to a character,
b. what sort of words the author employs, and
c. what is the social, cultural and historical situatedness of the characters etc.,

It will also be helpful for investigating the author’s ideological dispositions evident in text.

The present study is undertaken to investigate gender politics in literature. In developing the parameters of this inquiry, the following objectives are established.

1. To understand the role and significance of gender subjectivity in representing characters in the novel.
2. To analyze how female gender characteristics permeate in the portrayal of male character, language and psychology.

In order to determine gender identity and gender representation, we need to distinguish between sex and gender. Sexual characteristics refer to biological differences that categorize someone as male or female; while gender refers to the ideas, characteristics and practices of masculine and feminine and is constructed within a social framework. Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary defines gender as “sexual classification; sex, the male and female” (p, 171).

The hierarchical power associations between male and female lead to the gender discrimination, which further culminates in marginalization and exploitation of women. This distinction between genders is usually accepted as a natural phenomenon but is actually constituted by society. According to Reeves and Baden (2000), “Gender relationships among the people are determined, in a culture, by a number of different operating authorities like family relations, legal system etc. These operating authorities are the reasons that are responsible for creating certain rules or regulations to control and manipulate social institutions. Even the history reveals the fact that women were marginalized and were not given equal rights to use their power to bring about change in the social sphere” (p, 18).

Feminist Literary Theory is chiefly related to the influence of gender on writings and readings. It often takes into account social discrimination and provides a critique to the patriarchal culture that is devised to favor males. It is also concerned with the position of female writers with their male counterpart. Finally, it looks for a feminist theory or a feminist approach to the texts produced by both male and female writers. Feminists believe that gender (male or female) signifies nothing but the differences between genders are constructed and imposed by the society. Feminist theory provides a platform for the readers to look for the power structures and power practices due to gender discrimination in a certain culture are reflected and challenged by the literary authors in their texts. All major feminist critics, like Betty Friedan, Kate Millet, Ellen Moers and Elaine Showalter, adopted a female-oriented perspective focusing on literature by women and forsaking earlier exclusive emphasis on exposing sexist distortions and patriarchal stereotypes.

According to Elaine Showalter (1995) feminist literary criticism focuses on ‘the woman as reader’ and on ‘the woman as writer’. The first type is concerned with;

“…woman being the user of the literature produced by the male writers, and is related to the ways and traditions by which the pre-suppositions of any female reader transforms our understanding of a certain text, and making us aware of the underlying importance of its textual codes… it involves the representations and stereotypical images of women in literature.” (p, 128)

This kind of analysis can be called feminist critique, which attempts to investigate the ideological hypotheses of any literary phenomenon. It also takes into account the stereotypical representations of women in literature and helps to transform these pre-supposition, as we know that women are generally associated with the characteristics of motherhood, like caring, loving, taking interest in household affairs, less rational, emotional, and sensitive and similarly weak nerved, while the second type focuses on ‘the woman as writer’;

“… woman as the producer of textual meaning, that is how female writers differ from male writers in terms of their creativity, their linguistics underpinnings, and the course of the individual or collective literary career”. (p. 128)

Feminist literary critics demonstrate in their criticism how often literary images of women are a reflection of recognizable cultural stereotypes. These recognizable cultural stereotypical images include – the woman; as morally depraved and dangerous seductress, perpetually helpless, unworldly, self-sacrificing, etc. Since the way female characters were portrayed had not much in common with the way feminist critics saw and experienced themselves. These characters were not natural but rather constructions, put together – not necessarily by the writers who presented them, but by the culture they belong to – serve not-so-hidden purpose: the continued social and cultural domination of males.

“The Tenant of Wildfell Hall” (1848), by Anne Bronte, is the story of a woman who leaves her abusive, drunken and adulterous husband and decides to bear the burden of herself and her son. Anne Bronte challenges the prevailing conventions of morality of the time. It was extensively popular and one of the most controversial novel of the time when it was published in 1848, and considered to be the first modern feminist novel. Critics of the times and later disapprove of the uneven characterization, but it was Bronte’s ideas about the rights of every individual woman that caused a tumult in the mid 1800s. As in the preface Anne says;

“The underlying purpose, in writing this novel, was not simply to entertain the readers, neither was it to satisfy my own experience, nor yet to get in myself with the press and the public: I tried to convey the truth, and truth always conveys
During the Victorian age, women were marginalized and thought of as lower than to their male counterparts. Bronte challenges this gender system by providing readers with a strong female heroine who blatantly defies laws and norms of the day by leaving her abusive and fearful husband for an autonomous existence, which overturned the prevalent socially accepted principles of the day. In that age the husband had a legal right and control over the wife and offspring, since they were considered the husband’s property and it was impossible to rebel against the norms of society. Inspite of everything Bronte’s female protagonist bravely walks out on her own, taking her son with her.

2. Gendered Representation of Gilbert Markham

Anne Bronte, challenging the prevalent norms of gender of her age, not only creates a powerful female character but also depicts feminine male character. In the novel the hero (Gilbert Markham) is presented as gender contrast; displaying a mixture of both masculine and feminine features. Gilbert Markham is a kind hearted, hard-working and passionate young farmer. The story begins with a series of letters written by Gilbert to his brother-in-law; telling of his romantic experience with a mysterious woman who had came to Wildfell Hall as a new tenant. At first he was unable to win her compassion because of her coldness and aloofness, but Gilbert finally discovers her past story; and his sincere sympathy and interest in her work as a landscape painter endear him to her; and he marries his beloved.

Gilbert is a gentleman farmer, a more dynamic member of society than the idle male of the contemporary era. He is an important part of a well-knit domestic circle, which consists of his mother, brother and sister. From the family and social circle, Gilbert develops ideas about his future life; as opposed to the conventional norms of the time. Which dictated that after marriage, a woman had to serve her husband and do whatever was most agreeable to the menfolk of the house.

Gilbert has the kind of thinking which was unlike the gentle men of the time, as when he talks about domestic responsibilities of man and woman as being equal and interdependent. According to him both husband and wife need to co-operate with each other in order to lead a happy and successful life; instead of husband exercising a commanding and powerful role. Talking to his mother, Gilbert says;

“I am not sent to this world merely to exercise the goodness of others and to take benefits from other’s good feelings and good capacities – am I? – but rather it is also my obligation to put forth mine own good behavior towards them; and when I’ll get marry, I’ll try to make my life more pleasing in making my wife happy and comfortable, …………..
‘Well, then, we are supposed to bear one another’s burdens.” (p. 78, 79)

After marrying Helen, Gilbert continues embodying domestic masculinity and becomes a good, loving and caring step father to little Arthur. This domestic bent of mind and looking after his wife and stepson, displays Gilbert’s feminine traits rather than masculine ones.

Gilbert is reckless and leaps to conclusion very quickly without prior consideration. When he supposes Lawrence to be in love with Helen, he immediately finds him “repugnant” and refuses to talk to him or shake hand”. (p. 74)

Gilbert is obsessive, envious and changeable in temperament, but these are not negative qualities, except for the fact that he could not overcome them. Possessing qualities and characteristics that make him not fit for expectations of middle-class masculinity. Gilbert suspects that Helen and Lawrence are entangled in a love affair and in utter disappointment he states; “like a passionate child, I dashed myself on the ground and lay there in a paroxysm of anger and despair…” (p. 91)

Gilbert’s character possesses female traits, while his masculine qualities underlie the dominant female qualities. Anne Bronte portrays him like a woman more than a man; raising the question whether she consciously depicts him as such or it is her gender identity which permeates into her characterization. Although the novel is an attempt to challenge the prevailing conventions about gender she is unable to rid herself of her gender biasness, as observed in the character of Gilbert Markham.

3. Conclusion

The foregoing discussion about gender representation in the novel justifies the fact that gender politics plays a vital role in characterization by female writers. After analyzing the salient features of Gilbert Markham, we can conclude that genuine depiction of male characters by women writers and female characters by men writers is not possible; there is
always the writer's gender subjectivity involved in the representation. Anne Bronte in her novel “The Tenant of Wildfell Hall” portrays the character of Gilbert Markham embodying female psychological features. As a female writer she is unable to depict the male character neutrally and effectively, since her gender subjectivity is involved in the representation of male character.

References

Legislative Weaknesses for the Foundation and the Function of the Public Enterprises and Trade Companies in Economy Development in Kosova

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Abstract

Kosovo is going through a difficult phase of social transition and problematic history. The reasons for this situation are of different nature. Until now the competent institutions, despite their commitments, do not have noticeable encouraging results with a view toward the economic growth and enhancing the employability of youth as the European Union norms require. Among the issues that require solutions and was not given priority, is the scarce and copied legislation that regulates the establishment of public companies, competences that are under the responsibility of state authorities. On the other side, the primary and secondary legislation dedicated to commercial – private enterprises establishment is more appropriated while to the partnership companies and limited partnership is not recognized the quality as a legal entity. Although the government is trying to compile and submit a compatible legislation, according to European Union standard, the establishment of a public company is still limited. The institutions with this legislation have the possibility to create only Joint Stock Companies. If we handle this issue in comparative plan we can conclude that the legislation for public companies is weak while for trade companies are unclear. For this reason not only is necessary but is emergent that state authorities, even in central and local level, engage experts that based to the economic development level, to provide appropriate legislation in way to give the possibility to the state authorities to establish other enterprises and to reconsider the possibilities to provide legal subjectivity to trade companies.

Key words: trade companies, Joint Stock Companies, legislation, institutions.

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is focused on the identification of some serious weaknesses of primary legislation of the Republic of Kosovo for the foundation and the successful function of, primary, Public Enterprises and partially of private enterprises. To identify and to give a critical think for these weaknesses is necessary to discuss respectively to pose the problem in historical plan. The motivation to deal with this problem derives from the fact that the most of the juridical and economical literature is focused only in the aspect of economical efficiency of the enterprises and to not treat the juridical issues. For this reason, based in this aim must be underlined that the social-economical development in the republic of Kosova, looking at the historical plan, is very complex. First, because in 1945-1989 the country was an autonomous province of ex Yugoslavia and the most poor one. In 1989 after the dissolution of the former Yugoslavia, the Republic of Serbia with violent instruments suspended the constitutional autonomy of Kosova and until 1999 have destroyed every economical valuable segments in the former Yugoslavia. During the period of after war with the Resolution 1244 (1999) of the Security Council of United Nations of 10 June, has acted through the United Nation Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) taking the responsibility to administrate Kosova. The special Representative of the General Secretary until the independence of Kosova in 2007 was the highest authority in Kosova. The authorizations of this mission were very important and included all the legislative and executive decisions and also the administration of law and the economy. UNMIK had created juridical bases for the foundation and formation of the enterprises and in this case a considerable number of Public Enterprises have been partially revitalized but in unfavorable circumstances, with very low level of capacities use and potential activation. After the declaration of independence the legal and real authority has been transferred to the new institutions of Kosova.

1 In a research report of “Riinvest” institute 2012 and based in a survey developed in the enterprises regarding the loses during the war of 1999 are 21.2% of the physic capital. Only ten of 192 have been damaged by the war. Almost half of them (44%) had 1 – 10 million Dem, and 15 % of them until 100 million DEM. The biggest damage had the agro industry, metal industry, agriculture, transport, etc. Almost every enterprise had loses of 5.2 million DEM.
Because of the irreplaceable importance these enterprises and the commercial societies have in the economy development and for the citizens, as in all the world, the legislations in Kosovo and the way of the foundation, function and managing of these enterprises is regulated based in the Law for Public Enterprises (LPE) and the Law for Commercial Societies (LCS).2

The present paper aims to encourage the professional and scientific debate for this problem. The idea is that the issues presented in the future must be treated in multidimensional aspects because the juridical and economical nature of the enterprises is multidimensional.

2. Types of business enterprises according to the actual legislation in Kosovo

The different organizational and functional formations, in the quality of juridical – business persons are founded and structured with different modalities, represented, acting and function in different time and places, with different denomination and terms. Considering that in reality these are all synonyms and consequently in other forms and denominations these are used in wrong way. The most widespread forms of the organizations are: for business organizations – business organization, commercial organization) for companies – (company), enterprise (enterprise, establishment, Unternehmen), corporation (Corporation), society (society, societe), firm (firm, commercial firm, business firm), partnership, (partnership, societe) etc.

It should be stressed that the business activities of different business subjects in Kosovo after the last war, for the first time are systemized with the law for public enterprises and for the commercial societies, as fundamental law of organization and function of different business activities in Kosovo.

We consider that in Albanian language the Law for public enterprises in terms of denomination is complete but the Law for commercial society not only is incomplete but also inadequate. This finding confirms the fact that the law for commercial societies in English language (as original language for drafting the law) is denominated in a right way in our language as Law on Business Organizations. Since the denomination of this important law in Albanian language is inadequate and antipode with the trends, dynamics and the level of business activities development and further, and the needs and developing trend always increasing, for pragmatic scopes, practical and unified in this text for the commercial societies further on will be used the phrase – business organizations.

The phrase business organizations of Kosovo is a general denomination, that according to law means and includes every modality and form of the business founded in Kosovo according to the law in treatment as: personal business enterprise, a general partnership, limited; a limited liability Company; or joint stock company; (art. 4 of the Law for Business Organizations in Kosovo.

These types or forms of business organizations, can be founded, act and operate in Kosovo only if they develop legal activities. These organizations according to the law can be founded and registered by every physical person, society or group composed by two or more persons and/or many other business modalities (art. 5 of the Law). The business activity according to the law means every type of regular activity or repeated that includes: goods and/or services, propriety or and works for every person or organization in exchange of any method of payment or compensation; with the condition that the employee which works for the employer is not considered that is executing “business activity” and his services will be compensated according to the contract between the employer and the employee.

3. Juridical basis for the foundation of the public enterprises in Kosovo

There are many economical activities in Kosovo in the last years as result of social development after the war as we mentioned above. This sustainable level of the activities, in the general level aspect, has overpasses the capacity and the ability to support the private enterprises and regulative systems of the public sector, to act with quality and efficiency. The public enterprises are established according the Law on Public Enterprises nr. L.03/087 dated 18.06.2008. Analyzing this law we observe that its structure is interesting for the fact that is related to the rights and the duties of these enterprises that are based on the Law on Commercial Societies3. This is a law act that regulates the establishment and the function of private enterprises in our country. The principal characteristics of this law are: all the public enterprises are propriety of the Republic of Kosovo. The enterprises are divided in central and local. According to the criterions for the

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2 The law on Public Enterprises nr. L – 03 / 087 and the law on Trade Societies nr. L – 02 / 123
3 The law on public enterprises, art. 2.1.
establishment of local public enterprises and the participation of the municipalities in directors boards of regional enterprises of water, with the aim to govern the corporation of the public enterprises acting in municipalities are regulated with special regulative.4

All the public enterprises, local, regional or central are joint stock companies and consequently the local governments respectively the central government has exclusive competences in executing the rights of the shareholders. The supervision of these enterprises is realized through the Board of the Directors and Auditing Commissions. The government responds to the Parliament for the supervision method according to which the government, the Ministry and the Unit for the Policies and Monitoring the PE execute their competences and responsibilities given by law. The government reports to the Parliament in annual bases on the performance of these authorizations and responsibilities and on the achievement of the objectives determined in the art. 6.1 of this law. The government provides quantitative and sustainable dates for the public and for the Parliament. The stocks of a public enterprise can be sold if such decision is approved in writing and the Governmental Commission is authorized for the privatization but this decision must be approved by the majority of the parliament. After the approval of this decision by the government and the Parliament, the Governmental Commission for Privatization is authorized to realize a tender and sell the stocks. Have to be emphasized that if an enterprise had less than 50% of its propriety this enterprise is not considered a Public Enterprise. In this cases automatically is acted on the base of the Law on Commercial Societies and other laws applicable in the Republic of Kosova.

4. What is a Public Enterprise

The constitution of the Republic of Kosova defines that “the Republic of Kosova is owner of all the enterprises in the Republic of Kosova, that are known as Public Enterprises…..all the obligations of these enterprises are obligations of the Republic of Kosova….The propriety rights in a Public Enterprise that provides services for a municipality or a limited number of municipalities will be part of that/those municipalities …..as well as the relevant obligations” The Public Enterprises in Kosova are divided in Central Public Enterprises (CPE), the Government can privatize, to grand concession or rent, and the Local Public Enterprises (LPE) and the owners are the municipalities, determined by the law 04/L-111 and the law nr. 03/1-087 for the public enterprises. The Government and the municipalities administrate the PE in their propriety only through methods foreseen by law and they have no right to get involved in managing and in the propriety of a PE. On the other side the Law for Local Auto government is a fundamental and a general law that regulates and decides the auto government normative system as a guar anteed right with Constitution. According to this law the municipalities have the full and exclusive right to offer and manage these public services for the local interests. This give the possibility to choose the way of offering the public services that might be through a department of the municipality, through a contracted private company or through a public enterprise. Because of a non harmonization of this law with the laws that regulate the managing of PE has been created a confusion regarding the competences of the municipalities over some PE and as consequence some Mayors have requested to have control in managing of these public enterprises or to have the right to found municipality public enterprises.

5. The situation of Public Enterprises in negative context

We consider that the options offered by actual Law for the Public Law in the Republic of Kosova are poor and negative in two aspects:

a) First, the law in question does not offer the possibility and further information for the enterprises except the Joint stock companies. If we analyze in the comparative context the formation of public enterprises founded by certain states then we conclude that our country gives the possibility to central and local institutions to found only Join Stock Companies. Is interesting that in some countries in south-east Europe the law for public enterprises does not prohibit the other formations and the institutions have the right to make the necessary alternative solutions.

b) Second: based in the actual situation of our country, offering only a formation – Joint Stock Company, is not only unreasonable but also contradictory and clearly testify the political influence in the activities of the public enterprises not for the public interest but for the interest of certain

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4 The rule nr. 02/2012on the criterions for the foundation of the local public enterprises and the participation of the municipalities in Directors Boards in Water Regional Enterprise.
groups and individuals with influence in the society. The best and more advanced practices several times have testify that except every form or modality of organization and activities of the public enterprises the influence of the government and its exponents is considerable. The influence of government on these enterprises can be reflected: directly – through relevant decisions for these enterprises related to the prices, development policies etc; indirectly « ex – ante »- through the selection of monitoring and inspection bodies; indirectly « ex – post » - through the verification of finances, as arbiters in the relations with the third persons, for example with the consumers. Is to be mentioned that the government has “played” and “experimented” with the status of these enterprises. In some countries has been realized the privatization process, in some others has just started, in other countries this process is ongoing; this process is continuing also in countries called “in transition” part of which is Kosova.

6. What are the duties that can be taken into consideration by the institutions

Even there is achieved a progress, there have to be done improvements of legal infrastructure in Kosova in way to offer a favorable environment and possibilities that can be used by the public institutions and investors. Some of the key factors on which have to be addressed and urgently act for their improvement are:

- Change and improvement of the Law on Public Enterprises and creating possibilities for state institutions of all levels to have in their disposition the possibility to found some formations – business enterprises;
- Change and improvement of laws system in economy field, regarding the company in general, and especially to change the capital ownership and the following laws:
- Completing the law for Securities, Foreign Investments, Foreign Trade, and others laws of the Republic of Kosova (the Law on Privatization of the Privatization of Action Plan Found Agency, the Law for Public Enterprises, Law on Concessions, etc), creating conditions for further development of enterprises and the transformation of the public ownership in other forms.
- The legal and regulative environment: the legal environment of Kosova is deficient of a court system still in consolidation and inefficient that does not offer necessary protection for the investors. Some important laws are missing or must be changed. Even the independent regulators are founded during UNMIK administration, after June 2008 have been noted tendencies of some ministries to get involved in the regulators mandate. Some regulatory had find difficulties because of some vacuums caused by the delay in selecting the board members by the Parliament. The vacant places are opened for period of time avoiding seriously, in this way, the function of relevant institutions. There is no political support for the work of the independent institutions and this influence negatively. The lack of adequate protection of the consumer has negative impact in the trade liberalization and economical development in general.

7. OECD guideline implementation on Public Enterprise in Kosova

One of the most relevant issues is to evaluate if the OECD Guidelines are implemented in the Public Enterprises in Kosova, if yes, in which measure. The Ministry of Economy urgently must prepare a Corporative Governmental Code for the PE that is according the Guidelines of the EOCD. Until now even the ministry neither the Public Enterprises has reported for the respect of this code.

According to the legal and regulative issues the actual system of the Public Enterprises is composed by the following framework: the ministries of the Government of Kosova, Public Enterprises and Regulators. According to the information actually have confirmed that the regulators, by law, must be independent but in reality they cannot be completely independent because of the finances and government intervention. In this aspect, the law foresees individual entrances of the regulators by the registration taxes. The regulators in the actual circumstances depend by Kosova Budget Financing and their independence is very limited. Another issue is that the regulators do not collaborate enough with the governmental institutions and enterprises and this limits their efficiency. To overpass this situation must exist a type of activities coordination between the respective ministries and regulators.

6 For example the Government of the USA through its Trade Federal Commission realize a special control over the business in general.
8. Conclusions

During the last 15 years, our country as all the transition economies, have tried to adopt the legislation and the codes of corporative governmental similar with those of the Continental Europe. But, the legal institutions and the financial trades in undeveloped or in developing countries have obstacle this process especially in south-east Europe. There is a massive progress on paper; anyway there is a vacuum between the laws on paper and those in practice. The influence of the new laws and the regulative is far away from the regular situation and this composes a defect in the foreign finances to recommend investments or new capital for the enterprise.

The governmental framework of the Public Enterprises is referred to a group of rules according to which the enterprises are managed in the interest of their owners, investors and other interested parties; mechanisms according to which the owners monitor the work of the management. The ineffectiveness to execute an efficient framework of corporative government, for example, if there is no possibility to found certain enterprises by the institutions and if there is no efficient control then there will be a poor performance of the Public Enterprises, causing serious consequences for the efficiency and the competitive ability of the economy in Kosova. A better legal framework offers security for the owners, potential investors and lenders because the interests of the enterprise are protected and support the approach of the company in external resources. The lack of such formations automatically produce negative effects for a good governance and do not encourage the investors, especially the foreign investors and in this way slows the further evolution of the ownership and contributes in economy stagnation.

The present paper do not disputes the fact that the enterprise is an important factor to the society and the country that reflects the economy development level and social stability in general. By following the example of the developed countries we can support the development of the society in our in transition country and as consequence the economy in general. To develop the economy we must follow the IOM directives for the small and medium enterprises. Principally to stimulate the youth and ambitious people with the ability to do this progress.

The Public Enterprises are created and partially operate in accordance with the law that regulates their juridical position. The State capital in a Public Enterprise is divided in stocks or specific stocks according to the value and the incomes of the company. The State capital and the funds of the public enterprises are invested by the government as well as the use of the propriety and the other right of the State.

The role of the public enterprises is essential for the society and the activities of these enterprises are predefined by law in the fields as follow:

- production, distribution of the energy, production and processing of the cobbles, research, distribution and transport of the fuel and natural and liquid gas, selling of the fuel and its products, post and air transportation, telecommunication, media services, the use and management of the public goods (water, roads, mineral resources, forests, rivers, lakes, banks, etc) and services.

The public companies are created to support the municipality services, to manage the goods with general interest.

The adoption of a modern legislative framework in accordance with the OECD Guidelines for corporative governance of State Enterprises is one of the fundamental issues that will face the Govern of Kosova (and reformative governments in all transition economies). With a poor ownership rights system and the rule of law in general an effective framework for corporative governance is essential for the public enterprises and to attract investments (especially foreign investments) that are necessary and indispensable for our economy stabilization.

Kosova is in an important phase of its democratic transition and toward a trade economy. Kosova’s final status also after the declaration of its independence is contested by some EU States even the positive attitude of the international community the problems raised with the integration process are not undersized. For this reason is important that the Government of Kosova create its policies for the Public Enterprises (and also for other important fields) as soon as possible. Continuing with the actual situation of the Public Enterprises will create poor performance, increase of subventions and increasing level of corruption. The present situation can change by applying adequate measures for the improvement of the legislation as abovementioned in this paper, especially by implementing the Guidelines of OECD. This will contribute and improve also other sectors of the economy and the reducing the pressures for more taxes and improving the other govern services. On the other side will support the privatization of the companies as one of the aims of the Government of Kosova.
Literature


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Effective Factors on Agricultural Land Use Change in Guilan Province, Iran

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Abstract

To identify effective factors on agricultural land use changes in Guilan Province of northern Iran, a study with 320 experts of Agricultural Organization and Main Department of Natural Resources of Guilan’s experts was done. This research was an applied research and descriptive. A questionnaire was the main research instrument. For determining the validity of the questionnaire, the face and content validity was used. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the reliability of the instrument, which was 0.94 and showed the instrument reliability. Results showed that economic factors had the greatest impact on agricultural land use changes in Guilan followed by Social, management and policy related, personal and technical factors. Of the selected economic factors, locating in the outskirts of cities and no justification about expenditure with revenue had the greatest impact of land use changes. Population growth and expansion of the physical part of the city was the most effective social factor in land use change. Lack of support for manufacturer from managerial and policy making factors and increasing age of farmers were among the individual factors also impacted land use change. Traditional production methods and changes in cropping patterns were technical and technological factors respectively had less impact compared to the identified economic, social, and managerial factors.

Keywords: land use, economic factors, social factors, managerial factors, technical factors, personal factors.

1. Introduction

Land and soil as the basic elements of human and plant life are gifts of God to man to optimize utilization and conservation of flora and fauna, and to ensure consistency of his generation (Land Affairs Organization, 2009). Land played an important role in comfort, safety, style, and quality of human life. Sociologically, origin of the earth and land exploitation has been major causes of social and legal issues, and conflicts between public and private interests (Hagh Sheno, 2007).

The Iranian agricultural sector is faced with serious challenges, with depleting soil base being one major one. Capital formation in agriculture sector is low and workforce employed largely lacks sufficient knowledge. Operational units are primarily not-economic and not-technical, and their production is small. The factors responsible for this situation need to be reviewed. Lack of production bases and lack of basic knowledge of the factors of production made the possibility of conserving the basic resources like soil very difficult. (Mohaghegh, 2003). Since the increase in food production required maintaining and developing agricultural land for national development, farmland preservation and expansion of agricultural lands are considered as the main goals. So the preservation of agricultural lands and orchards for self-sufficiency has increasingly received more attention (Akbari and Bezi, 2003). Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) based on evaluating the nine Asian countries, in 1994, found Iran to have agricultural land and natural resources in the areas that are heavily eroded and destroyed (Youseffard et al., 2007). The agriculture sector as a provider of food security and sustainable development is one of the key economic sectors in Iran, and contributes nearly 14% of GDP, 31% of non-oil exports, 23 % of total employment and self-sufficiency rate of over 94% of agricultural products (Land Affairs Organization, 2009).

Following the enactment of the keeping usage of Land Act (1995), there are more than 140 thousand hectares of agricultural land with use change. Per hectare of agricultural land that is outside of the production circuit, a figure that is equivalent to 7-8 tons of the produce are diminished and for every 2-3 acres of agricultural land that is lost, at least a healthy employment in the agricultural sector is excluded that should investigate to make up for it in other areas (Land
Affairs Organization, 2010). It is clear that changes in land use can lead to serious environmental problems (Parnun, 2010). Khakpour et al. (2007) stated that an example of the human impact on the environment is land use, and in order to plan and control the land and its development it is necessary to identify and evaluate factors influencing it. This study identifies factors affecting agricultural land use changes in Guilan Province of northern Iran.

Abelairas and Astorkiza (2012) mentioned that conversion of agricultural land to housing in rural areas that are closer to the city resulted in increased land prices. Long et al. (2007) called some management practices and their implications for political and administrative issues as main factors to build on agricultural land of China and land use change. Siciliano (2012) identified migration of villagers to the cities in search of better livelihood as the most important factor in land use change. Kroll and Haase (2010) predicted demographic change as one of the most important factors affecting land use changes in Europe. Wang et al. (2012) stated that 0.12 billion hectares of agricultural land in China cope with land use change when economic development began, and 13.55 percent of China’s population is now faced with a shortage of land resources. Hagh Sheno et al. (2009) opined that low agricultural productivity and increased immigration lead to informal markets of housing and land use changes. The results showed that many farmers sold their lands, and areas with high costs and production areas have been converted into residential units. Monshi Zadeh and Khosh’hal (2005) stated economy to be one of the most important factors in deciding the type of land use. Further, they stated that activities and projects created to attract tourism also affect urban and rural land use change. Bick et al. (2001) found that there were many social impacts that have been impressive in land use changes during 19th and 20th centuries. Fanley et al. (2012) showed that enforcing new laws and taking control of lands leads to purchase and sale of land which makes deterioration of natural landscapes. Braimoh (2009) revealed that macro-economic changes in governments directly and indirectly impacted land use change in Ghana.

The main purpose of this study was to identify effective factors on agricultural land use changes in Guilan Province of northern Iran.

2. Materials and Methods

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. Data were collected using a valid and reliable questionnaire. The first part of questionnaire collected demographic characteristics of experts including age, experience, gender, level of education, academic and organizational position. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 39 statements based on the literature review; the variables that seemed to have the greatest impact on land use changes were made. Face and content validity of the questionnaire were established by an expert validation panel. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (0.94) was used to establish the reliability of the questionnaire. The population for this study consisted of experts from Agricultural Organizations in Guilan province like Department of Land Management, Extension Management, Soil and Water Management, Department of improving plant production, improve livestock production Department and Department of Natural Resources. A census of the population was conducted for this study. A total of 341 questionnaires was distributed, out of which 320 were returned to a response rate of 94%. Data were analyzed using SPSS software. Descriptive statistical tools such as frequency distribution, mean, standard deviation and variation ratio and analytical tools like confirmatory factor analysis were used to analyze the data.

3. Results

Demographic findings revealed that the age group 40-49 years had the highest prevalence and age group 60-69 years had the lowest prevalence among the respondents (Table 1). The mean age of the respondents was 43.46 years. Respondents with experience of above 20 years and older had the highest prevalence and those with less than 5 years of experience had the lowest prevalence. The respondents’ average work experience was 19.19 years. Of the 320 respondents, 268 (89.9%) were male and 30 were female. Further, it was found that respondents with the highest degree of education (Master and above) had the highest prevalence and those with secondary education had the lowest prevalence. Two hundred and eleven respondents had agricultural major and 78 people had non-agricultural major.
Table 1, Frequency Distribution of respondents according to demographic characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>19.65</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>54.14</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>21.03</td>
<td>90.4</td>
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<td>60-69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>90.6</td>
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<td>No respond</td>
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<td>9.4</td>
<td>10.34</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>Work Experience</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
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<td>5 – 9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10 – 19</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 years later</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No respond</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>61.6</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master and above</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No respond</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Field of study</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non agricultural</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No respond</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to study the factors affecting agricultural land use change in Guilan, select variables were divided to five factors: economic, managerial and policy making, social, personal, and technical and technological factors using confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis sorted out eight variables as economic factors. Accordingly, 7, 15, 4 and 5 factors were extracted as social, management and policy making, individual technical and technological factors, respectively.

Table 2, fitness indicators for factor analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row</th>
<th>Effective factors on land use change</th>
<th>KMO</th>
<th>Bartlet</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td>290.9</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>267.55</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Management and Policy</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>811.41</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>378.55</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Technical and technological</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>361.94</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the economic factors that affected agricultural land use change, being located in the outskirts of agricultural land and rising land prices with the highest average and high production costs and no justification of expenditure and revenue,
had the greatest impact on agricultural land use change. Then, other variables such as low agricultural product prices, low income of rural farmers, and price volatility of agricultural products were the factors that had the highest average and were identified as important economic factors (Table 3).

Among the social factors affecting agricultural land use change, expansion of the physical aspect due to increase in population with the highest average is the most effective one. The trend of urbanization and escape from village life, rising unemployment and the desire to have a career in the city, to build houses for family, leaving their traditional agricultural occupation due to higher education of rural people are among the other factors that make the highest average according to respondents. Frequency distribution of management and policymaking factors that have an impact on land use change showed the lack of support for manufacturer is the most effective factor based on management and policy-making approach. The import of foreign products such as rice, land fragmentation due to inheritance law, lack of support for small farmers, increased rent and rental homes and need of private housing, were among the variables having a great impact on land use change. Hard work of farming is the most effective personal factors according to respondents.

The distribution of technical and technological factors affecting agricultural land use change in Gulian revealed that traditional production methods and no interest to farmers and involve in agricultural activities were the most effective factors. Changing the crop pattern was another factor that had a greater impact than any other factor. Overall, economic factors having the highest mean values were the most effective ones followed by social and management and policy making, interpersonal, and technical and technological factors affecting changes in agricultural land use in Gulian province in Iran.

Table 3. Frequency distribution of factors influencing agricultural land use change in Gulian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Effective factors on land use change</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>VR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Economic factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lands located on the outskirts and rising up land prices tend to increase sales or use changes.</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>High cost of production and not explains cost with revenue causes farmers have benefited little from agricultural work and turned into non-agricultural activities.</td>
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<td>0.55</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Low prices for agricultural products increases wanting people to convert and land use changes.</td>
<td>5.20</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A low income rural farmer reduces motivation activity in the agricultural sector and farmers in order to meet security requirements, become more motivated to use change.</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Volatility of agricultural price increases tends to reduce agricultural and farmer thinks non-agricultural use of land.</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Income in non-agricultural activities agricultural land use is motivation to change</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The low productivity of rice production causes non-cultivated agricultural lands and increases the desire for change.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The products reduce destroy's motivation agricultural activities and tends to change more agricultural land.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Social factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Population increases spread town physical space and land use changes in outside of the cities.</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The trend of urbanization and escape from the village life causes land abandonment and land use change.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Increase in unemployment and want to have good jobs in the city's cause's abandonment agricultural lands and land use change.</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>To need for a family part of agricultural land changes direction construction of houses</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Enhance rural education due to exit people from the traditional occupation of agriculture.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Seasonal labor lacks causes give up some parts of agriculture and context of use changes.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Having multiple jobs produces land abandonment and land use changes over time.</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.57</td>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>Management and policy factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
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Based on the results of the comparison of average of factors affecting agricultural land use change in the Guilan according to respondents the highest average was related to economic factors, the second factor affecting land use changes with average of 4.81 related to social factors, the third factor with an average of 4.08 related to managerial
policy making factors that affect land use change, according to the views of respondents, personal factor with an average of 4.01 is effective in land use change and technical and technological factors with the lowest average had the least effect on land use change.

4. Discussion

According to the results from the present study, the influence of economic factors on land use changes was the highest. The most important of these factors with the highest average were being located on outskirts of urban land and rising land prices, high production costs and lack of income justification, and low cost of agricultural products, the low income of rural farmers, agricultural prices and income instability and higher income in non-agricultural activities are all an expression of the economic problems of farmers and has provided areas for land use change. A profit making school of economics is a market that heavily influences the agricultural ecosystem. That is why owners and owners of agricultural lands and gardens generally with strong economic incentives are looking for land use change and using the other competing uses for the same space. Due to exposure to agricultural lands on outskirts of cities and the rising economic value of agricultural land in the poll was conducted, identified as the most important economic factors affecting land use change and we can note the benefit from the purchase and sale of the land to be granted to farmers, considering the low price of agricultural products and having no economic justification for some farmers causes no interest in agricultural activities and they become reluctant to sell farm lands or other construction such as factories, shops and homes on the land be taken. According to Abelairas and Astorkiza (2012), conversion of agricultural lands where prices are higher and rural areas close to the city lead people to have a willingness to pay high charges for conversion to residential land. Also, Monshi Zade and Khosh Hal (2005) found economic factors, as the most important factor in deciding the type of land use.

However, other problems such as lack of government subsidies and high costs of agricultural production, a lot of hard work and effort farmers do in the fields and the little profit that the farmer gets, decreases related motivation in this section. If the children of these people never do what their fathers did and seek other jobs with more benefits, including projects such as establishing industrial workshops, factories, shops, tourist sites or other activities related to agriculture such as poultry or fish ponds, which change the land use or sometimes it is possible to make land use changes by giving up the land. Volatility of agricultural prices while the survey was carried out is an important example of the land use change and it can be said due to the uncertainty of the farm product prices and input in a dusty atmosphere farmers make decisions because of uncertain import and export policies, price fluctuations and uncertainty of government support policies make farmers have no clear picture of their future and thus can’t make a clear decision. Mismatch cost of sales and production, in addition to frustration on the part of farmers and activists of these events help brokers in the agricultural sector and farmers are forced to provide some money by selling wood products and struck it with the dealers sell at low prices. The above mentioned reasons make farmers to change their land use and to think about lucrative jobs and with higher economic benefits.

The second factors affecting land use change were social factors such as increasing urban population, migration and urbanization trends and escape from village life, rising unemployment and the need to build houses for habitat. In these social factors, youth unemployment and migrating from the countryside to find jobs in the cities or conversion of agricultural lands use to achieve high-income jobs could be the reason for the change. According to much research in this regard inside and outside the country shows the importance of this factor in the change of land use, so it can be concluded in recent years due to increasing population and urban expansion and pressure to expand urban and industrial areas, Greenland mostly cultivated land and garden areas around cities are extremely vulnerable to degradation and conversion. Krol and Hasse (2010) mentioned demographic change as one of the most important anticipated factors affecting land use changes in Europe.

The third factor affecting the land use change according to the respondents of this study was managerial and policy-making factors including the lack of support for the manufacturer, import of foreign products such as rice, inheritance law, which leads to land fragmentation and the non-economic production, the lack of support for small farmers, guiding plan, advise by some other not responsible authorities in performing non-agricultural projects, increased rent and rental homes and need to have a private mortgage can be named that lack of support for manufacturer has the highest distribution. So it seems the problems farmers face, such as lack of proper equipment, lack of proper warehouses for storage of rice including home depot and industrial warehouse which decrease the quality and quantity of rice yield, also, the lack of proper equipment for rice processing, failure to allocate the necessary funds to all led to lower rice production and need to be supported by government, otherwise profit from less agricultural work can motivate people to make changes to their agricultural land for other lucrative opportunities.
According to Long et al., (2007) some management practices and political consequences of changes in land use and management problems are reasons of land use change to residences in China. Another managerial factor affecting agricultural land use change is import of foreign rice products that reduce incentives for rice cultivation and it seems there is a need for more attention of government for domestic manufacturers in this field. In fact import should take place when a product is in short supply or not produced. However, when a product is being produced in the country there is no need to import it. Empowering farmers need to respect them for their efforts and provide the context that they did not pitch their products and at a suitable time sells products to market and take advantage of their efforts. Land fragmentation due to heredity is another factor that makes no economic gains. Land conservation laws inefficacy are one of those factors that are also found deficiencies in the law, including the Additional Note 4 of Article 1 of the Reform Act 2006, noted that issuing permits for agricultural activities (livestock, poultry, fish farming, processing and complementary industries and nurseries) to optimize agricultural department is not known as land use change. This note, first, leads people provide their plan in simple ways without observing the rules of transferring agricultural lands to perform those plans. Second, even those who destroyed agricultural lands such as paddy fields, tea plantations, orchards, berries and other agricultural lands (A or B grade) acting are top-notch. Also by virtue of Note 5 to Article 1 of the law, the lands located within the constitutional scheme of rural areas with guiding plan are subjected to the terms of any guiding plan excepted including law that this has caused more agricultural land to be in the guiding plan by people who change land use unauthorized. Therefore, there is a need that legislators review these laws.

Among personal factors influencing land use changes, increasing the age of farmers has the highest distribution that in this age the ability to perform agricultural labor is low and has more tendencies to make more land use change. However, due to being less important than other factors mentioned we can point to giving up the lands because of inability to farm with farmers aging that gradually land use change happens or they give lands to their children and due to no motivation some youth in rural areas and lack of economic justification of their farm may sell it or develop other non-agricultural jobs to the area. Among technical factors affecting land use changes, those with the highest distribution are related to changes in traditional production methods and cropping patterns that make conversion of arable and horticultural land use changes that have less impact in comparison to other factors. Adopting suitable cropping patterns based on related law continues to increase agricultural productivity and this can be a remedy. This model is based on each country's needs and priorities of strategic products and essential ones and evaluating the capacity of production in each region can be taken to prevent the indiscriminate land use changes that are related to these types of factors.

The factors that had the least impact on land use changes were fertile soil salinity which is among technical and technological factors and it is possible to have little lands with these characteristics due to a climate of Gulian and most soils there have suitable fertility. So we cannot consider it as a main reason of land use change. Performing land policies and housing given by government such as Mehr project, loss of enough water and essential facilities to collect water in water-filled seasons are among those factors that have less impact compared to other factors.

5. Recommendations

The following recommendations can be made based on the results from this study:

Since the economic incentives are among the most important factors influencing migration of labor from the agricultural sector, investment in the sector, subsidies, loans, guarantees the purchase of inputs and the fit between the actual cost of rice production, including those factors that will lead the farmers to crop strategic and necessary products. Or like in some countries that the government with setting prices and production levels declare the amount to farmers a year ago and farmers with a clear and conscious decision, attempt to grow next year.

Having written programs of import and export and support policies given by the government provide the basic needs of the country and prevent fluctuations of production and market price. It may also develop the agricultural sector and gaining goals of future views to develop a plan to increase exports of agricultural products, in line with expansion plans to increase production. Allocating the necessary funds for cultural activities is to promote public awareness of the importance of preserving agricultural land and to prevent unauthorized land use change, providing guidance and support to farmers to reduce production costs and increase their revenue.

Increased facilities for the villagers to prevent them from leaving their villages and farms and immigration, adoption and revision of a dynamic rules-based multilateral ones and Timely and appropriate implementation of laws to prevent the unauthorized land use change, increasing agricultural comparative advantage to other jobs, allocation exponentially taxes for non-agricultural land use, in order to protect the special land use allocation of preferential tax,
This method presented in the form of subsidies to farmers to encourage them to protect agricultural land use. Consultants have limited development plans of rural areas to the construction and neighboring lands and prevent placing a wide range of agricultural land (rice paddies and orchards) in guiding plan limit. Purchase of development rights by the government, the owner sells the right to government and he will be the owner of land but sells the right to keep the current land use. Preparations of operating procedures such as a physical boundary between agricultural and non-agricultural use, adopt development strategies that are based on the protection of agricultural lands are done.

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Land Affairs Organization (2009), Series of laws and regulations to protect agricultural land and orchards.


Mohaghegh, M., (2003), Analysis of attitudes to preserve and protect agricultural land in the recent period and the required remedy. Proceedings of the First Conference of the agricultural operation in Iran.


Learner Sexual Offenders: Cyber Child Pornography

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Abstract

Much has been written about child pornography with the emphasis on children as the victims, but far less has been written on children as the manufacturers and distributors of cyber pornography and the role of the school in this regard. Thinking of children as sexual offenders is disturbing and even more so if one considers that the manufacturing and distributing of the pornography takes place at schools or during school activities. Learners filming sexual acts by co-learners, learners distributing videos of co-learners having sex; learners receiving or being in possession of messages containing pornographic images; sexting; accessing pornographic websites while at school; watching pornographic material on their cell phones on school grounds are increasingly becoming ‘normal’ behaviour for learners. Many of these actions constitute child pornography. Schools are faced with the dilemma of having to give recognition to learners’ right to freedom of expression and privacy and promote the use of technology, but simultaneously fulfil their obligations to protect learners from exposure to pornographic material, educating learners on responsible use of the internet and cell phones, and disciplining learners who commit sexual misconduct by means of cyber technology.

1. Introduction

A survey conducted, under the auspices of the South African Films and Publication Board, in randomly-selected schools in Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg among 934 learners between 13 and 17 years old, brought to light that 60% is aware of friends distributing website addresses of pornographic sites to one another and 81% is aware of friends having pornographic images on their cell phones (Chetty & Basson, 2006, p. 31-32). In September 2012 the Internet Watch Forum’s analysts investigated how many instances of self-generated, sexually explicit online images and videos of young people were on the internet and found a total of 12,224 such images and videos, 88% of which were uploaded from the original websites to parasite websites (Internet Watch Foundation, 2012, p. 19). Owens, Behun, Manning and Reid (2012, p. 101, 116) contend that internet pornography is a global trend and that there is a need for research on “emerging trends towards technology use (in) production and distribution of one’s own pornography (e.g. sexting, pornography, YouTube videos etc.)”. A literature review brought to light that much research has already been done on sexting. There is, however, a lack of research on other forms of cyber sexual misconduct and I attempt to make a contribution to fill that gap with this paper.

Learners are increasingly producing and distributing child pornography, seemingly without realising the dangers. Hope (2006, p. 308), with reference to Feredi (1997), argues that online dangers (such as cyber child pornography) have brought new dimensions to schools as “risk environments”. Learners are not only at risk but are also creating the risk because they are creating danger to themselves and others online (Hope, 2006, p. 313).

How can schools manage these new forms of cyber sexual misconduct and still observe learners’ rights to privacy and freedom of speech? Schools are faced with the dilemma of having to observe learners’ rights and promote the use of technology, but simultaneously fulfil their obligations to protect learners from exposure to pornographic material, educating learners on responsible use of the internet and cell phones, and disciplining learners who commit cyber sexual misconduct.

2. Definition of “cyber child pornography”

Cyber is a prefix for “forming words relating to electronic communication networks and virtual reality” (Reader’s Digest 1998). This is the meaning attached to “cyber-” in this paper. Various authors such as Ahn, Bivona and DiScala (2011, p.1) and Owens et al. (2012, p. 102) refer to the ubiquitous nature of the internet. Internet access can be gained not only through computers but also through mobile technology, video game consoles or other electronic devices (Owens et al.
Avenues that learners use to access, create or distribute child pornography include websites, blogs, discussion forums, chat rooms, instant MMS messaging or text messages and social network sites such as Facebook, Mxit, Twitter, MySpace, and LinkedIn. “Cyber” in the term “cyber child pornography” refers to child pornography produced, distributed or accessed through the internet.

Although this paper is based on the argument that learners’ conduct constitutes criminal behaviour, it is essential to remember there is a difference between “cyber child pornography” as a crime and as a form of sexual misconduct. Cyber child pornography as a crime and as a form of sexual misconduct is independent yet interrelated because one transgression can constitute both misconduct and a crime. Schools will be responsible to deal with cyber child pornography as a form of misconduct and the police with cyber child pornography as a crime.

The leading treaty regarding cybercrime (such as child pornography) is the Council of Europe’s Convention on Cybercrime adopted in November 2001 (Council of Europe, 2001). The Convention was opened to worldwide membership and non-member States can thus ratify it (Keyser, 2003, p. 297). Article 9 of the Convention (Council of Europe, 2001) deals with child pornography and prohibits the following:

a. producing child pornography for the purpose of its distribution through a computer system;
b. offering or making available child pornography through a computer system;
c. distributing or transmitting child pornography through a computer system;
d. procuring child pornography through a computer system for oneself or for another person;
e. possessing child pornography in a computer system or on a computer-data storage medium.

For the purposes of this paper “through a computer system” is extended to include all technological avenues through which pornography can be produced, offered, distributed or procured in cyber space.

But what will constitute “child pornography”? The definition in article 20(2) of the Lanzarote Convention on the Protection of Children against sexual exploitation and abuse is used for the purposes of this paper: “child pornography' shall mean any material that visually depicts a child engaged in real or simulated sexually explicit conduct or any depiction of a child’s sexual organs for primary sexual purposes”. If one takes the examples of learner sexual misconduct described in the literature and benchmark those against the above definition, the following conduct could be interpreted as constituting producing, making available, procuring, possessing or distributing cyber child pornography:

2.1 Producing cyber child pornography

- Learners filming sexual acts by co-learners (Campbell, 2008).
- Learners taking pictures of co-learners in the locker room while they are showering or toileting (Butler, Kift, & Campbell, 2009, p. 94-95).

2.2 Offering or making cyber child pornography available

- Learners sending pornographic images that they have downloaded via Bluetooth to their friends at R5 each (Campbell, 2008).
- Learners sending co-learners or friends inappropriate images such as pictures of genitals or sex videos (Schrock, & Boyd, 2011, p. 29).
- Learners trading with sexual images sexted to them (Wastler, 2010, p. 689).

2.3 Procuring cyber child pornography

To constitute procuring (downloading), the images do not need to be saved to the computer’s hard drive or to a removable disk (Wortley, & Smallbone, 2006).

- Learners downloading pornographic images (Schrock & Boyd, 2011, p. 4)

2.4 Possessing cyber child pornography

Whitear-Nel (2011, p. 9) states that possession, in terms of the South African Films and Publication Act, includes keeping or storing in or on a computer, computer system or computer data storage medium. Inadvertent “possession” of child pornography would not constitute criminal possession since fault in the form of intention is required (Whitear-Nel, 2011,
However, if one accidentally stumbles across child pornography or receives unsolicited child pornography, without knowledge or suspicion of its source or origin, one should immediately delete the images or descriptions. The time lapse between the opening of the message containing child pornography and its deletion could be interpreted as possession (Film and Publication Board, par 7.3).

- Learners receiving or being in possession of messages containing pornographic images. The learner receiving a sexted image and opening it, is guilty of possessing child pornography.

2.5 Distributing cyber child pornography

Distribution will include the uploading and dissemination of pornographic images (Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). Displaying unsolicited child pornography to another person, except a police officer, would amount to the offence of distribution (Film and Publication Board, par 7.2.2). Re-mailing a “spam” message or e-mail containing child pornography would also constitute distribution (Film and Publication Board, par 7.2.3).

- Learners distributing videos of co-learners having sex (Mukhuthu, 2011).
- Posting fake, obscene photographs on social networking websites (Brett, 2009).
- A learner taking pictures of her breasts and sending it to her boyfriend, a learner sending a picture of his genitals to his classmates, a boy forwarding a picture of his ex-girlfriend’s breasts that she had sent him to his friend (Chetty, 2009, par 1; Crofts & Lee, 2013, p. 85-86; Dowell et al., 2009, p. 551; Lenhart, 2009, p. 6; Schrock & Boyd, 2011, p. 34; Theodore, 2010-11, pp. 370, 375). Sexting, a combination of “sex” and “texting”, is a form of self-produced child pornography (Duncan, 2010, p. 1). It is defined by the CJCP, as the act of “sending nude or semi-nude photos or videos, including sexually suggestive messages through mobile phone texting or instant messaging.” Theodore (2010-11, p. 367) maintains that it is only sexting if the picture is sent by a minor to a minor and not when a minor sends a sexually explicit picture to an adult. “Sexting” revealing photos of oneself, in the case of any person under the age of 18 years, is, in fact, the creation, possession and distribution of child pornography (Chetty, 2009, par 2.1).
- Sending malicious text messages of a sexual nature (Hinduja & Patchin, 2009; Lenhart, 2009, p. 7).
- Learners sexually harassing or bullying co-learners online, include “outing”, that is sharing someone’s secrets or embarrassing information or sexual images online and “trickery”, that is, talking someone into revealing secrets or embarrassing information or (sexual) images online (Willard, 2005, p. 1).
- Taking pictures and videos of someone with the intention of distributing the content to others via mobile phones or online (Hinduja & Patchin, 2009). Distributing nude images of other learners is not only a form of cyber bullying but also cyber child pornography (Willard, 2011, p. 75).

3. Schools’ responsibility and authority with regard to child pornography

Schools have the duty to protect, to educate and to discipline with regard to cyber sexual misconduct such as child pornography. If a school requires the learners to use the internet and web services while at school, it also has the responsibility to ensure the learners’ personal privacy and data security (Theodore, 2010-11, p. 389). Regardless of the geographic origin of any speech, school officials are responsible for ensuring the delivery of instruction and the well-being of all of the learners under their custodial care (Willard, 2011, p. 90). Where the misconduct occurs on the school premises the school will have authority to act through normal disciplinary processes.

However, do schools have the responsibility to discipline a learner who has used his private computer at home to produce or distribute child pornography and do schools have the authority to discipline learners for child pornography which either was not produced or not distributed on school premises? (Shipley, 2011, p. 14; Willard, 2011, p. 76)

The following guidelines were deducted from American case law:

- It depends on whether the learner’s posting caused or reasonably likely to cause “substantial disruption” at school or interfere with the rights of other learners to be secure and safe (e.g. create a hostile school environment). This “disruption” could include “violent physical or verbal altercations between students, significant interference with the right of a student to receive an education and feel safe at school, or significant interference with instruction or school operations” (Shipley, 2011, p. 15). Learners’ right to freedom of

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expression can be limited if such speech is “lewd or otherwise inconsistent to the educational mission of the school” (Willard, 2011, p. 87).

- Schools always have a responsibility to discipline learners who watch, produce or distribute child pornography on the school premises but it must be able to establish a nexus between posting and disruption of school environment if not produced or distributed on the school premises (Shipley, 2011, p. 15; Willard, 2011, pp. 100, 109). Where the dissemination of images is part of conduct that constitutes bullying or harassment directed at harming a co-learner’s reputation or causing a hostile environment at school for that learner, school officials should have the authority to impose discipline for such conduct irrespective of whether it was committed on or of school grounds (Willard, 2011, p. 110).

4. Observing learners’ rights

Schools should consider learners’ right to education, right to freedom of expression and right to privacy when handling instances of cyber child pornography.

The primary purpose of education in terms of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is to prepare children for “a responsible adult life” (UN 1989). The CRC Committee Comment no 1, par 9 reads: “Education must also be aimed at ensuring that essential life skills are learnt by every child and that no child leaves school without being equipped to face the challenges that he or she can expect to be confronted with in life.” The right to education is an empowering right which enables learners to enjoy their other rights. In light of the importance of technology, part of fulfilling learners’ right to education will be to educate them for, what Shipley (2011, p. 14) calls, “digital citizenship”. Public schools are instrumental for states to fulfill their obligations in terms of the right to education. This reinforces the importance that schools should be places where effective teaching and learning can take place. Victims of child pornography can avoid attending school (Willards, 2011, p. 80) which affects their right to equal education. In Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education 526 U.S. at 652 the court held “... in the context of student-on-student harassment, damages are available only where the behavior is so severe, pervasive, and objectively offensive that it denies its victims the equal access to education”.

The European Convention on Human Rights (ETS No. 5) provides that the right to freedom of expression and information as enshrined in Article 10 shall “not prevent States to take measures against offline and online sexual exploitation and sexual abuse of children” (Council of Europe Cybercrime Division, 2012, p. 6). In the South African case De Reuck v DPP 2003 2 SACR 445 (CC) (at 61) Langa J emphasised that the court endorsed this approach (at 49) and that the criminalisation of the creation, production, importation, distribution and possession of child pornography limits the right to freedom of expression (at 50). Similarly, Alito J in Morse v. Frederic 551 U.S. 393 (2007) (at 424-25) accentuated that learners’ right to freedom of speech may be curtailed in the school setting: “But due to the special features of the school environment, school officials may have greater authority to intervene before speech leads to violence”. Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District 393 U.S. (1969) (at 508-509) the Court acknowledged “the special characteristics of the school environment” by permitting school officials to prohibit student speech if that speech “would substantially interfere with the work of the school or impinge upon the rights of other students, including the right ‘to be secure.’”

Limiting learners’ right to privacy can be justified in certain circumstances such as when the learner’s actions threaten the right to education. In such instances the responsibilities of the school outweigh the rights of the individual (Errico, 2000). Ackerman J in Bernstein v Bester 1996 2 SA 751 (CC) at 65 explanation of the right to privacy is most applicable to learners’ right to privacy while at school: “(T)he truism that no right is to be considered absolute implies that from the outset of interpretation each right is always already limited by every other right accruing to another citizen. In the context of privacy this would mean that it is only the inner sanctum of a person, such as his/her family life, sexual preference and home environment, which is shielded from erosion by conflicting rights of the community rights of fellow members placing a corresponding obligation on a citizen, thereby shaping the abstract notion of individualism towards identifying a concrete member of civil society. Privacy is acknowledged in the truly personal realm, but as a person moves into communal relations and activities such as business and social interaction, the scope of personal space shrinks accordingly”. The learner’s right to privacy is balanced against the school’s “ability to efficiently and safely carry out business without undue interference or disruption” (Errico, 2000).

What should further be kept in mind is that when one learner publishes a picture of another learner who sent such picture while in a relationship and with the intention that it should be kept private, the learner making the picture public unjustifiably limits the first learner’s right to privacy. In the South African case De Reuck v DPP 2003 2 SACR 445 (CC)
(at 61) the court describes the harm done by child pornography as follow: “It strikes at the dignity of children, it is harmful to children who are used in its production, and it is potentially harmful because of the attitude to child sex that it fosters and the use to which it can be put in grooming children to engage in sexual conduct’. Langa J further held that: “Moreover, since child pornography is frequently being imported via the Internet and possessed on computers, the ease with which such possessors may become distributors at a touch of a button, as it were, should be taken into account. This exacerbates the risk of harm and further justifies the intrusion of the Act onto the private sphere” (at 90).

5. Practical ideas

Schools should consider adopting a strategy that focuses on raising awareness, empowerment, prevention, cooperation and regulation (discipline). Prevention strategies should be developmentally appropriate. Programs for young learners should focus on risky online situations and include practice exercises for refusal and resisting techniques (Dowell et al., 2009, p. 552). Programs for older learners should emphasise learners’ acceptance of responsibility for their own protection and their role in promoting the observation of their rights. Older learners should be made aware of the “difference between positive and negative relationships and how pornography may distort their view of what is normal – both in terms of body image and sexual relationships” (PSHE Association, 2012). Newman (2009) emphasises the importance of co-operation and the implementation of a school-wide program involving principals, teachers, learners and school counsellors to promote a safe environment.

Hope (2006, p. 320) found that principals and educators tend to be more concerned about the school’s image and reputation than the learners. She mentions that educators argue that older learners are accessing pornographic websites from their homes where there are less or no supervision and that what harm could be done was already done when learners arrive at school (Hope, 2006, p. 317). This attitude indicates that victims are totally forgotten. Observing the rights to freedom of expression and privacy of the offenders are important but the rights of the victims should not be forgotten. Schools should provide counselling, as well as emotional and psychological support to the victims.

Delmonico and Griffin (2008, cited in Ownes et al., 2012, p. 100) argue the importance of regulating adolescents’ internet access because they “often lack the risk attenuation needed to discern and manage online dangers and content in safe and healthy ways”. Learners do not regard the virtual world as real and they do not realise that they will have to take responsibility for their actions in the cyber world just as much as in the real world (Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, 2011, p. 12). I suggest schools incorporate rules on cyber misconduct in existing schools codes of conduct and adopt school policy on computer and cell phone use. Krent (2012:10) suggests the following steps in dealing with cyber misconduct:

- Separate the medium from the message by determining the underlying misconduct
- Identify where and when the underlying misconduct occurred. That tells you whether it has a “nexus” to the school.
- Investigate thoroughly.

In cases of solicitation or where a learner has sent an image with the expectation that it would remain private, and that image has been disseminated, the learner who coerced and/or distributed it should be disciplined. The question should be which learner is responsible for the disruption at school? The fact that the other learner has been engaged in action that is now causing him or her to be ridiculed does not mean that he or she has caused the substantial disruption (Willard, 2011, p. 111).

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City Information Systems as E-Manucipality Application in Local Administrations; An Evaluation Over Konya and Kayseri Big Cities Examples

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Abstract

Information has become the most important resource for local administrations. Especially in face of rapid urbanization, cities’ expansion and planning in a more healthy way, optimal usages of existing resources, services’ being carried out in a contemporary perspective are available only by systematic analyze of the information gathered by local institutions. Developments observed in recent years in information and communication fields caused important changes in government structures. That is, refraining from classical, bureaucratic structures, governments proceeded to structures in which processes are done more easily and less costly. Rapid change that was experienced showed the fact that a structural transformation was required in “Public Administration” field. Like all over the world, this transformation has two main trivets in Turkey, as well. These are “e-government” and “mobile government” notions. Reflection of these two notions on local administrations is “e-municipality”. In local administrations, especially municipalities are leading institutions which are extremely involved in data processing and required to share the produced information with public. With their dynamic and sophisticated organizations, municipalities need to create more resources as a result of the increase in their functions in both urban and rural areas. This case increases the needs of politicians to have more information and process them to form up-to-date, easily available, reliable policies. Compared to the total, %77.6 of the population lives in the borders of municipalities. It is an obligation to employ information technologies to govern the cities which have such an important potential. In this study, how local administrations exploit “City Information Systems” as an “e-government” application in detecting, planning and meeting the needs of public, and the legal, social and technologic motives directing municipalities to “City Information Systems” will be examined comprehensively. In addition, current situation in Turkey in view of city information systems will be indicated and Konya-Kayseri Big City Municipalities’ city information systems will be handled to put forward new suggestions.

Key Words: Public Administration, E-Government, E-Municipality, City Information System, Konya Municipality, Kayseri Municipality.

1. Introduction

In rapidly growing and developing cities, information systems are required for controlling urbanization, carrying out the performances of investment and services in the most optimum and economical conditions, detection, planning and supplying the requirements of the people living in cities today and will live in future. Establishing city information systems (CIS) is a priority for local authorities to meet the necessities mentioned above. In this framework, CISs are important tools in view of policy making process. CIS is a system which controls and directs all graph and non-graph information.

The importance of the information system used actively in modern societies has been understood in our country recently and it has found lots of fields to be carried out. Today some municipalities such as Ankara, Antalya, Aydın, Bursa, İstanbul, İzmir, Kayseri, Konya and Trabzon struggle to establish and sustain CIS. However, it is observed that CIS is not utilized effectively because of traditional governance understanding and lack of information update. In this study, Kayseri and Konya municipalities that establish and carry out CIS successfully are handled as good examples in Turkey.
2. City information system and general performance

Authorities’ abilities in planning, program making and decision making depend on the location and administration and saving of information. Saving and administration of information concerning location is one of the computer abilities that are carried out in many disciplines. (Ucuzal, 1999:2) Thanks to the system called as CIS, we get information about the city, urban life and citizens, then process the information in a system, and finally make use of this information system in many fields.

CISs, which are depicted as very examples of e-government notion, can be explained as systems that collect information about the city and citizens, process this information in a database, associate and organize this information to be benefited in performing economical, social, cultural, administrative and other services. (Erdoğan, Can ve Alkan, 2005). CIS consists of different components. Especially local municipalities tend to establish and use CIS with the intention of improving government understanding which is more effective, cooperative, efficient and storing, questioning, analyzing information in a sustainable way. (Morova, 2006). Designing of CIS is based on two main pillars.

a. City dweller; the person who has relationship with city life and so benefit from services of municipality
b. Property; the place or location which city dwellers own or use.

In this framework, a system established to develop municipality’s services inevitably has to take these two concepts “City Dweller and Property” into consideration. So, forming city dweller and property registers in CIS is vital. Concerning this context, following components are the examples for the establishment of necessary mechanisms of a system.; (Eser, 2009:35).

a. Address Information System
b. Available Numerical Maps
c. Land Registry Cadastre Information System
d. Population Information System
e. Reconstruction Information System
f. Infrastructure Information System (water, electricity, gas)
g. Construction Projects Information System (www.alfabim.com.tr)

To do right investments by making right decisions for the future, a well designed CIS is crucially important. For that reason, CIS must be designed in accordance with the following targets. (Baz, 1999; 32)

a) Eliciting necessary communication and coordination between municipal units, waste of time, man power, budget for similar or same activities should be prevented and efficiency promoting activities should be carried out.
b) All necessary information, graphics, results of surveys and analyses should be easily reached to have a more efficient planning and administration process.
c) Oversight of infrastructure, transportation, cleaning of environment, income and expenditure should be transferred to automation, and this kind of services should be offered to citizens electronically.
d) Municipality’s property and other kind of tax incomes should be oversighted electronically.

3. The reasons that lead local authorities to city information systems

The technological advancements which are changing and developing day by day have come up with a more delicate, more efficient, and citizen-based process. This process covers e-state, e-government, and e-municipality; all of which have been prospered to catch the European Union Criteria. Information systems enable institutions to perform faster with less cost. (Yomralioğlu and Mataraci, 1999:143)

Today, there is a need for information systems in cities to meet not only people’s demands, but also institutions’ needs. Multi-dimensional information analyses are required to take right steps. Appeared in the early 1960s and used for city planning, computers have become the most effective tools when determining strategies on the cities’ development. Among those reasons leading the municipalities to city information systems, there are legal regulations apart from the technological advancements. According to the laws (number 5393, article 14), it is stated that municipalities have to launch a city information system. In addition, in the related article of metropolitan municipalities’ law, building city information systems is issued as the metropolitan municipalities’ responsibility.

Here are the benefits of city information systems to municipalities: (İnce, 1999:46-47):

1- To give efficient municipal service and to follow and function a municipality’s revenues,
2- To create an efficient environment for a city’s physical planning and applying this plan,
3- To execute the most productive and suitable applications for planning, performing, and operating the
investments,

4- To minimize the abuses of duties and to guarantee the state’s and citizens’ rights.
In any city, building an information system helps to meet the local government’s and citizens’ needs in a very short time.

4. The evaluation of the current situation by examining Konya and Kayseri metropolitan municipalities

Although building city information systems is issued as metropolitan municipalities’ responsibility by the related laws (5393, 5216), it is not the case in many places. The level that municipalities reach in generally providing a limited e-municipality service. For this reason, the obstacles and problems of local authorities in building city information systems should be solved immediately with cooperation among public, private and voluntary institutions and foundations. This cooperation should cover financial, legal, technical, educational issues, and municipalities should be equipped with high technology.

Though limited in number, there are municipalities which has already built and operated city information systems. Konya Metropolitan Municipality and Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality are two successful examples.

4.1 The example of Konya metropolitan municipality

Konya City Information System was put forward with an understanding based on dealing with the city’s everything at the same time. As Konya is expanding gradually, it is getting more difficult to handle all problems in different parts of the city at the same time. If you want to manage all problems, the solution is that the authorities should know everything about the city. As stated before, building the system is the municipality’s duty.

Konya City Information System was built on January 1st, 2005 by the directorate of construction affairs and the existing numerating unit was linked to the directorate. The system was built after consulting other institutions.

Konya City Information System was built on three fundamental units (http://www.konya.bel.tr):

• Konya Metropolitan Municipality (the numeration, the collection of the social data, the integration of all data, to update the system),
• Land Office (numerical land information)
• Province Bank (the existing maps and orthographic images).

Via this information system (http://www.konya.bel.tr), citizens can:

• surf on the virtual model of the city,
• reach the information of completed, incomplete, or planned projects,
• go virtually around the streets of the city and watch it 3D,
• reach the necessary information such as the important public places, foundations, schools, medical centres, pharmacies, the police, hotels, and so on under the title of city guide,
• reach the information and photos of all historical masterpieces,
• reach land information and building permission information,
• watch the touristic places via live camera,
• get information about transportation
• reach the demographic, cultural, social database of the city.

4.2 The example of Kayseri metropolitan municipality

“3 Dimensional City Information System” has been formed for 5 towns inside the borders of Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality named Melikgazi, Kocasinan, Talas, Hacılar, and İncesi. The system is being updated frequently. Thanks to this system, one can reach a wide range of information from all the units of Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality to historical places of the city. Moreover, there are photos of the cultural and touristic places and roads. The system also includes an updated database which private institutions and citizens may need. It is stated that the system is being periodically updated by the staff of the Directorate of Geographical Information System. With this geographic information system prepared by Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality (http://cbs.kayseri.bel.tr/), citizens can:

• surf on the virtual model and delicate land model of the city with the latest (2010) satellite images,
• reach the information of planned projects(Erciyes Winter Sports Centre, Anatolian Wonders Land, etc.),
• go virtually around the streets of the city and watch it 3D,
• reach the necessary information such as the important public places, foundations, schools, medical centres, pharmacies, the police, hotels, and so on under the title of city guide,
• get information about transportation (tram, bus, biking roads and stops),
• analyse the shortest way for a destination inside the city,
• learn the nearest hospital, pharmacy, or other emergency units to your location,
• reach the short information and photos of all (confirmed or non-confirmed) historical masterpieces,
• reach the demographic information and learn the chief of the district,
• reach the list of the tombs in the cemetery,
• reach the information of hobby gardens,
• reach the information of police’s responsible area, fire brigades’ area
• view any address on a 3D map when they use the search engine,
• get the address of a location when they click on any spot,
• go to a destination when they write the coordinations,
• measure the area or distance on the 3D model,
• get information about the latest earthquakes and weather forecast,
• view mapping services such as Google Maps, Windows Live maps, Openstreet maps.

There is no limit for the number of the users.

Here is a list of the works achieved by Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality in recent years.
• Kayseri City Guide, which was developed for Android operation system, has been broadcasted.
• The 2.0 version of Kayseri City Guide has been broadcasted.
• The Transportation Information System has been added to Kayseri City Guide.
• Complaint and request module has been added to the city guide.
• Cemetery Information System has been added to the city guide.

Developed for Android operation system, free Kayseri City Guide has been launched by Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality.

5. Conclusion

The quick advancements in information technologies affect human life directly. As the individuals in a society demand to reach and question a variety of information, the institutions have to be ready for such things. That is, building those systems and providing certain services should be one of the duties of the local authorities.

Today, there is a need for information systems in cities to meet not only people’s demands, but also institutions’ needs. In particular, multi-dimensional information analyses are required to take right steps. Appeared in the early 1960s and used for city planning, computers have become the most effective tools when determining strategies on the cities' development. However, in today’s world, managing the information has become more important than the installation of computerized systems. Therefore, local authorities should absolutely give enough importance to city information system which is a type of geographical information system, and they should try to settle it down.

Thanks to city information systems, local authorities can save time and money to great extent for maintenance works by mastering the infrastructures of the cities. Municipalities can serve citizens better and faster in terms of construction, tax, punishment, renting and paying the rents, the vacancy in the houses, following a city’s socio-cultural development, public assistance, fixing the possible fire area, defining roads for fire brigade, making the transportation system more rational, and many more.

Konya and Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality realize e-state which can be called the technological reflection on public work. They meet the citizens needs in a very short time via those information systems and the tasks functioned by those systems.

Although building city information systems is issued as metropolitan municipalities’ responsibility by the related laws (5393, 5216), it is not the case in many places. The level that municipalities reach is generally providing a limited e-municipality service. For this reason, the obstacles before the local authorities should be solved in cooperation and this system should be used more common all around the country.
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The Steps that Led to the Independence of Albania

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Abstract:

The purpose of this article is to analyze the steps that led to the Albanian independence in the early '900. Albania was a state under the rule of the Ottoman Empire and benefited from the protection of its Vilayets (regions) on the part of the empire. With the weakening of the Ottomans, Albanians were looking for a solution to their future and the only one who could save the last stronghold of the Ottomans was their independence from the empire. The methodology of this article is based on an exploration of archival sources and on the basis of an assessment of historical texts which deal with the question of the Independence of Albania.

Keywords: Independence, Vilayet, Ottoman empire, Albania.

1. Albanian territorial organisation under the empire

While the Ottoman power waned, some authentic feudal principalities formed the so-called Large “Pashallik”. Istanbul had placed in each district its sipahis: soldiers who had to respond to the call of the sultan and show up on horseback, accompanied by a number of infantry. To meet the expenses, the sipahis enjoyed a timar, which were plots of land taken from public lands. It was based on income and not on the extension. It was thought that the timar should make its holder a certain amount. Their number varied greatly depending on the policy of the sultans. They were almost completely in the lowlands and highlands. Theoretically, the sipahis had to go to collect the tithe from his peasants, but also they were getting the fees for the Sultan. It instituted a kind of feudalism, albeit limited by the power of the sultan who could always intervene in the allocation of timar.

The various sipahis were part of the districts in which the territory was divided. The districts were the Sanjaks, named to mean feudal and military districts. The Sangjak Bey was the chief of sipahis of a given part of the country.

Especially in the northern mountainous areas, some regions were exempt from the timar regime and had the right to administer according to the ancient customs. They only had to pay a fee as a sign of submission. These geographic areas were populated by tribes, led by the head of a large family: Bayraktar, hereditary office, which applied the traditional law based on besa, the word of honor.

Following the conversion to Islam, many Albanians reached the upper echelons of the empire: the Great Vizir, which were governors of provinces, many generals, used in all orders of justice and finance. The crisis of the Ottoman state reflected the transformation of timar. They formed the major territories, private property, sipahis, taking advantage of the weakness of the central authority had brought together more timar or taking possession of the lands of the sultan or religious institutions.

Thus a landed aristocracy, from the military class was born. The weakening of the power of Istanbul, later, pushed sipahis to neglect their military service obligations. Similarly, the owners of the new wide areas did not deposit the taxes to the treasury which prevailed on the peasants, thus becoming powerful feudal lords of the region. These powers were slowly made hereditary to the ones who, in Albanian history, are called the “Big Pashalik”. One, for example, was in Shkodra. Another one was formed in the environs of the region of Tepelenë.

On the basis of the Napoleonic wars throughout southern Albania, Epirus and Thessaly were incorporated in a Pashalik which included the Albanian and Greek, with 934 villages. After a series of battles, the Sultan was able to recover his territories. The “Big Pashalik” disappeared in 1831. Albania was divided into vilayets.

Vilayet = provinces of European Turkey (around 6). Among these were three Albanian vilayets:
1. Shkoder, Albanian equivalent north-central;
2. Janina, which included southern Albania and Epirus;
3. Kosovo (Kosova) which did not coincide with the Yugoslav and Kosovo today. Its capital was Skopje. It extended to Macedonia of Vardar and included:

- The Sanjak of Novi Pazar: Slavic Muslim majority population (comparable to the Bosnian Muslims, serbofones)
- Kosovo itself, with the majority Albanian (Muslim mostly and a small part Catholic) and the minority Serbs (Orthodox) and with a presence of Muslim Slavs in the South of Prizren (the Gorani)
- The territory of Skopje, where there lived Macedonian Slavs, Albanians, Serbs, Gorani, Turkish communities, Greek and Roma.

In these provinces, the population was multi-ethnic, with the presence of Albanians, Montenegrans, Serbs, Greeks, Macedonians and Turks. When the official end of the military feudal system in the countries of Albania happened, it was introduced as the civil administration of the Ottoman state. This system, in Albania, strengthened the largest private property, while the heads of the hill tribes were ready to defend their privileges by force. Everywhere armed revolts broke out, supported by the hostile peasants to pay taxes to the state and to submit to military service, such as in Gjirokastra, Berat and throughout southern Albania.

2. The birth of Albanian nationalism

The special conditions in which the Albanians were incorporated into the Ottoman government team had delayed the emergence of a national consciousness that balance out the internal contrasts, especially since the vast majority of the population was Muslim and made it possible to identify with the imperial Ottoman idea. Within this climate the first bearers of the modern national idea appeared as a result of impulses from abroad.

The first attempts were concentrated in the action of opening of non-denominational schools. In these ones it was taught in Arabic, Greek and Italian. With the emergence of national targets, an attempt was made to open schools where teaching was instructed in Albanian, with a new alphabet and simplified textbooks.

During the great Balkan crisis of 1875-1878 the issue of Albanian schools was at the center of the intellectuals` debates, which faced the hostility not only of the Ottomans, but also of the Patriarchate of Constantinople. The Ottomans continued to open public schools in Turkish, while the Greek Patriarchate multiplied educational institutions in the south of the country. In 1878, in the three Sanjaks of Gjirokastra, Berat and Vlora there were 80 Turkish schools, 163 Greek schools, but not any Albanian school. The native language was used only in the Catholic schools of Shkodra, where it was given instruction in Italian, but with the Albanian as a second alternative.

All this produced a new attitude among the Albanian leadership. It began to grow a strong concern for the advances of the Greek and Serbian claims on Albanian vilayets albeit their Albanian majority of population. The Albanian national body had internal divisions of a religious nature:
- Muslim majority (70%)
- Catholics in the area of Shkodra
- Greek-Orthodox in the area of Janina (over 20%)

and linguistic diversity:
- Gheg in the northern areas
- Tuscan in the central and southern regions.

With the Treaty of Saint Stefan, Russia included some Albanian regions within the Bulgarian border. Faced with such a situation, the Albanian deputy in the Ottoman parliament of Janina, Abdul Frashëri, coming from a Bey family in the south, as the interpreter of national bodies that were synthesized in the memorandum in which it called for the administrative autonomy of the Albanian villages gathered in a single province. The request was not taken into consideration. There were attempts at direct approach to Greece for political and military alliance function in anti-Ottoman. The attempt fell through however, because Greece refused to recognize the ethnic borders of an independent Albanian state. With the Treaty of Saint Stefan, the main issue was, in fact, the need to reject the expansionist ambitions of the Balkan neighbors, Montenegrans, Serbs, Bulgarians and Greeks, thesis to the partition of Albanian lands. Three days before the Congress of Berlin, June 10, 1878, in Prizren opened the meeting with the delegates of the Albanian Vilayets. On this occasion, under the leadership of Abdul Frashëri, the Prizren League for the Protection of the rights of the Albanian nation was recreated.
The league decided to form an armed force capable of protecting Albanian regions which were threatened from neighboring states with the annexation of Albanian regions. This League also addressed a note of protest to the Congress of Berlin.

From the political demands' point of view, however, this was in the presence of a division among the Albanians of perspective on what was supposed to represent the League:
1. Some, especially the large landowners, aspired to bring together in a single Muslim organization in all the representatives of all the peoples of the Balkans, to preserve the integrity of the empire;
2. The most radical nationalists, the “Albanian patriots”, however, that the league wanted to remain Albanian organization, bringing together the faithful of the three religions and that his goal was the autonomy of the Albanian villages within the empire.

For everyone, of course, at that time, the best solution seemed, however, to remain under Ottoman rule.

The Congress of Berlin, which opened on June 13, 1878, drastically reduced the territories for Bulgaria. Even the request of the Serbian Pristina went ignored, with some minor territorial allocations. Montenegro occupied the cities that had been assigned to Podgorica and Antivari. Greece claimed Epirus and Thessaly. As for the Albanian requests, none of the Great Powers representatives raised the issue. The Albanians reacted to the military occupation of Montenegro. Since 1879 began an armed struggle. The league, clarified its program, defining the formal request for autonomy as a central demand of the movement. The request to this point in materialized search for autonomy under Ottoman suzerainty and the unification of all Albanian regions in a single Vilayet. It was called the Albanian territory, between the Vilayet of Shkodra, Kosovo, Monastir and Janina.

Prince Nicholas of Montenegro did not hesitate to advance his troops to occupy the promised territories, Podgorica and Antivari. He was twice defeated by irregular Albanian volunteers of the League. Faced with the risk of seeing explode the issue at the international level, the Ottoman authorities found themselves forced to send their troops to break the Albanian resistance.

The disastrous outcome of the resistance caused, in 1880, an open rupture in the League, during its meeting in Dibra, between the old Ottoman and the team pro-radical component. This was not even more alien by a detachment from the empire, so that an egg elected governing body that proclaimed itself the “Provisional Government” Albania. The Albanian administration was settled in Prizren and Gjakova where it was formed an army.

The Ottoman authorities reacted and began to rally the Beys. In 1881, the hard work of the Ottoman forces poses a provisional end to the alarming threat of the Albanian independence. Prizren was taken after fierce resistance of irregular Albanians. The league was dissolved, its leaders were sentenced to long prison terms, and the same Frashëri was sentenced to death, although pardoned later.

Despite the end of the League, the representatives of a national awakening movement were activated from the own capital of the empire. At that time it arose a series of national-patriotic associations, where merchants and artisans collaborated for success, as well as representatives of the still small bourgeois intellectual class, they all spread the idea of a common Albanian state beyond all religious and social boundaries by proliferating the cause and spread of the Albanian language in the territories populated by Albanians and centers of emigration out of the motherland: especially in Romania, in southern Italy, Bulgaria, Egypt, and, as has been said, in the same Istanbul (which they call Stamboul), in the United States.

In 1887 the first public national school was opened in Korca, where the teaching was in Albanian and both Muslim and Christian students were welcomed. It was a victory, limited but undeniable for the Albanian nationalism. So a national sentiment spread among the lower strata of the population. However, as mentioned above, the most active centers of Albanian nationalism remained abroad.

3. The “Rilindja” and birth of the Albanian question

The Albanian question rose up at the European level on the occasion of the affirmation of the Macedonian question. The borders of this province were not easy to define, and included a number of territories inhabited by Albanians. In 1898 the ALLOY of Peje (PEC) was born, which manifested two trends:

Conservatives claimed:
- A unique Vilayet formed from those of Shkodra, Kosovo, Janina and Thessaloniki
- Educational reforms such as the introduction of Albanian next to Turkish language which still remained the language of the administration;
the Liberals demanded:
- They limited up to 3 vilayets to be unified, with the exception of that in Thessaloniki
- Albanian as the language of administration.

Two requests were sent to Istanbul which remained unanswered. In support of the thesis of the liberals, Sami Frashëri (brother of Abdul) published his work: “Albania, what it was, what it is and what it will be”, in 1899. The manifesto of the period referred to as the Albanian renaissance, the so-called “Rilindja”. The Albanian people were presented as “the oldest nation” in Europe given its descent from the Pelasgians, and serve as a unit of language and blood. In the same story of the family of Sami Frashëri, formed in the Islamic world, with a prominent place in Turkish literature, reflects the fate of the families of Albanian Beys, whose members, through a painful process of growing disillusionment, reneged loyalty to the sultan and devoted themselves to national objectives. National ideas, however, had not the support of the population. The public road continued to be dominated by the Beys and Bayraktars.

Istanbul, however, continued its policy of repression and in 1902 decided the closure of the school of Korca, as a request of patriarchy.

The climate of terrorism, which started after the uprising in Macedonia dell’Ilinden, there present even in the Albanian regions, triggered especially by gangs of Greeks (andartes = rebels) which also led to some sensational killings of intellectuals and representatives of Albanian nationalists.

The Albanian answer was the foundation of “Liberation Committee of Albania” in Monastir, which organized similar committees in many Albanian cities and settled the first ÇETA (guerrilla units) which formed its departments throughout the south of the country.

Thus began to develop an activity of a revolutionary type. The first act was manifested by the assassination of the Greek Metropolitan of Korça, Foti, one of the leaders of the Greek communities of the region (1906).

4. The years of the great riots: 1910-1911

The revolution of the Young Turks, in 1908, was greeted favorably by Albanian nationalists, especially because they promised to replace the absolute power of the Sultan with a constitutional regime based on equality of all nationalities of the empire. It was also granted the request to restore the constitution of 1876 and this developed a remarkable series of patriotic circles, while they began to print newspapers in Albanian. It was in November 1908, which was adopted the Latin alphabet with some diacritical scripts, which is still in use today. The centralizing tendencies and the new Ottomanisation of the Young Turks, which manifested itself, for example, the obligation to restore the Arabic alphabet for the Albanians, put at peril the Albanian provincial autonomy.

From 1909 on, internal disturbances occurred within the Albanian territory, uprisings and wars between gangs followed without respite.

In 1910 The Vilayet of Kosovo, saw a vast movement of anti-Turkish Albanians, whose clan turned into small armies. The armed revolt began in Pristina and quickly spread to the entire vilayet. So the insurrection spread throughout the vilayet of Shkodra. The rebellion was against the neo-Ottoman modernization, against new taxes, against compulsory military service, against the census, against the Turkish language and the Arabic alphabet. The rebellion was put down with a massive deployment of troops. Many people took refuge in Montenegro, whose king, Nicola, provided weapons to the insurgents, and who had alliance agreements with the leaders of the clans, especially with the Catholic Mirdita region, in anticipation of an eventual enlargement of Montenegro on the areas of Shkodra.

In March 1911 riots returned, this time in northern Albania. However, the coordination with the Kosovo Albanian leaders and the Tuscans was absent. The Young Turks tried to conciliate the uprising promising the re-opening of Albanian schools and the use of the Latin script. But the truce did not last long. In Kosovo resulted in open confrontation between the militias of local potentates Albanians and Serb communities, now aligned with Belgrade and supported by the Chetniks, the irregular militias in the region. The Albanian guerrilla shooting in October of 1911 coincided with the Italian invasion of Libya.

It declined in the early 1912, when the Ottoman parliament was dissolved and new elections were called. The reconfirmation of the overwhelming majority of the Young Turks encouraged them not to change their deeply nationalistic attitude. This rekindled more vigorously the insurgency in Kosovo (May 1912). Now the Turkish nationalism was facing the Albanian one.

Even the Christian states were alarmed:
- Sofia and Belgrade in 1912 signed two treaties with which it was recognized to Serbia the right to annex the whole region of Kosovo and a part of the territories to the north, as well as the division of the territories of the southern regions of Albania.
- Greece and Bulgaria concluded another treaty which involved the division of the southern Albanian regions (May 1912)

The Albanian leaders several times presented requirements to achieve autonomy in administrative and institutional Albanian Vilayet. In the absence of a prompt response in Istanbul, they occupied the cities of Prizren, Skopje and Novi Pazar. In all, in the Vilayet of Kosovo, there were about 45,000 armed Albanians. The Ottoman administration was completely paralyzed. Before that confrontation, the Ottoman authorities were forced to enter into negotiations and to accept the main Albanian requests, thereby allowing autonomy in all the four Vilayets of Janina, Kosovo, Monastir and Shkodra (4 September 1912). It was the victory of the Albanians. From the Vilayets now emerged a real Albania for the first time.

5. The First Balkan War for Albania

King Nicholas of Montenegro took the indication of what was happening in Albania to declare war on Turkey in October of 1912, followed by the states of the Balkan League. The progress of the war was favorable to the Allies. The Turks had to offer to Bulgaria truce negotiations.

The Albanian committees took advantage of this power vacuum that was created with the Turkish defeat. Since November 1912 the Albanian political leaders in exile in Romania, above all Qemal Ismail, had turned to seek support from the Great Powers.

The support came mainly by Austria-Hungary and Italy. These two powers saw the usefulness of an autonomous Albanian context in the Ottoman Empire or it might serve a guaranty in the balance of the Balkans, especially in the anti-Russian part, Vienna, or as an access bridge to the region, and to exclude for Rome the influence of Greece in Vlora surroundings. Vienna and Rome moved concretely. They sent experts in the Western Albanian Vilayets to identify and trace the boundaries of the ethnic Albanian lands.

The situation on the ground had evolved. The Albanian territory had become deployment zone of the armies of Serbia, Montenegro and Greece who had already occupied some Albanian regions.

Ismail Qemal, who returned from the trip to European capitals, summoned on 28 November, in Vlora, the National Congress, which proclaimed Albania “an independent and sovereign state”. It was formed at that time a provisional government to which Ismail Qemal became the prime minister and also the foreign minister, as deputy he chose the Catholic priest Dom Nikollë Kaçorri. Muslims and Christians faced with the task of ensuring the survival of the Albanian nation-state in a hostile environment, while in fact the Serbian, Montenegrean and Greek armies moved to Shkodra and Vlora. This event is considered as the foundation of the Albanian state and November 28th is their national day.

In fact, the event went unnoticed: the government of Ismail Qemal reported the decision of independence to the Western powers, Turkey and the Balkan states, asking them to recognize the Albanian state and its government. The government was unsuccessful at this point.

The external troops continued their advances to occupy the areas referred to in their alliance agreements. Serbia occupied Tirana and Durres, Greece occupied Epirus, the two towns of Shkodra and Janina were under the siege of Montenegro. The position of Vlora government became increasingly unsteady; meanwhile Istanbul was giving orders to his army in retreat to dissolve the Assembly of Vlora and to arrest Ismail Qemal.

The division of the Albanian territory was avoided thanks to the objections of Asutria-Hungary and Italy. The matter was in the hands of the Conference of Ambassadors in December 1912. The conference was in front of an official declaration of the Albanian national will, thus it decided that, contrary to the decision of Vlora, Albania was not to be an independent state, but “an autonomous state under the sovereign of the Sultan and under the assurance and control of the six Great Powers”.

At that point it came to define the boundaries of an Albanian national space, which involved the question of access to the sea of Serbia and Serbian application in the area. The confrontation between Vienna, its vision of Albania, and Serbia together with Montenegro, assisted by Russia, became the diplomatic showdown between the Triple Alliance and the Triple intent. At the European registries became a fact that there might be an autonomous or independent Albania, to this fact Serbia itself did not oppose. Vienna refused to accept what was instead a Serbian port on the Adriatic. Against the Serbian presence on the eastern Adriatic coast Italy sided as well. Vienna had its support from Berlin and Rome. The Austrian answer was clear in all terms that the Empire would not tolerate a Serbian maritime outlet in the Albanian national territory, invoking, paradoxically (given the situation within the Dual Monarchy) the right of the Albanians to be a nation. Belgrade claimed that the Albanian autonomy would be accepted in exchange to a Serbian port in the Adriatic. St. Petersburg, fearing war, gave way in front of the Austrian firm attitude. The Serbian aspirations were overshadowed. It
was thus established a joint Albanian - Montenegranean border and then was given the outlet to the sea for Serbia. Reactions in Belgrade were of great bitterness, because it was implied the withdrawal of troops from Albania.

The boundaries proposed by Vienna also included practically the whole of Kosovo, even Dibra and Ohrid in Macedonia and also Janina. This time neither Serbia nor Russia stepped back. The King Nicholas of Montenegro declared himself ready to succumb just to have Shkodra. These duels lasted all winter 1912-1913. The Montenegrin troops, meanwhile, with the support of Serbia, had taken Shkodra, despite the fierce defense put up by a big landowner in the region, Toptani Esad Pasha, who did not hide the ambition to be part of the vertices of the emerging Albanian state. It was necessary the intervention of Austria and the arrival of an international fleet to force the evacuation of King Nikola and put the city under international administration.

The authority of the Albanian government was limited to the triangle Vlora - Berat - Lushnjë; Toptani, controlling the region of Durres - Tirana, giving rise to a counter. The peace tract of London, signed in May 30, 1913, effectively left the Albanian affair unclosed.

6. Ratification of independence: July 29, 1913

In June 1913 the Serbian and Ottoman armies had evacuated the country, while only the Greeks continued to occupy the southern regions. At the same time broke the Second Balkan War, which ended July 30. The Peace Conference set up in Bucharest in that same 30th of July, with deeds that proceeded very rapidly, ending ten days later, on August 10, 1913.

Meanwhile, the Conference of Ambassadors in London, concluded its case on the Albanian question, when, on July 29, a new project was presented. It was confirmed the full independence of the Albanian state, but under the control of the six powers. It must be neutral and governed by a sovereign prince chosen by the powers. The control was planned for 10 years and would be carried out by an international committee of 7 members: 6 powers, plus an Albanian delegate, he would take care of the administration and the budget. It was also decided that the police would be submitted to the command of Swedish officers. The name of the king that emerged was that of Prince Wilhelm von Wied.

The act of 29 July created an Albania, but a partial Albania, since a substantially equal number of Albanians remained in the territories of Kosovo and Macedonia, given to Serbia, while the Greek Macedonia passed under the authority of Athens. With the Treaty of Bucharest, Macedonia was cut into two zones. Kosovo became Serbian: Belgrade had claimed it as “a holy land and the heart of the Serbian state”. It became a very sensitive place for the Serbian nationalism. For the Serbs, the Albanians were nothing more than Turks, or just enemies, because they converted to Islam, and as soldiers they were loyal to the sultan. It began a policy of colonization of the region by distributing land to former combatants of the Balkan wars.

In the south-east was included the city of Korca (Koritza), occupied by the Greeks and inhabited by Greeks, and from there, the frontier was pointing towards the lake of Ohrid.

7. The Prince of Wied, a kingdom for six months

Within the borders drawn in London, Ismail Qemal tried to organize an administration, to increase the number of Albanian schools and to replace the old Ottoman laws with new legislation. But soon the clans showed their ambitions.

In October of 1913 he had formed a new independent government around Esad Toptani, in Durres. The powers were divided. Austria and Italy supported Ismail Qemal; Russia and France took a stand in favor of Esad Toptani.

Among neighboring states: Bulgaria and Romania maintained accurate relationships with the government of Vlora, Serbia instead, supported the government of Durres. Greece continued to claim southern Albania, which it called “Northern Epirus” and it sent irregular bands that fought the administration set up by Vlora. The Great Powers had agreed on William Wied, a Prussian officer, nephew of the Queen of Romania. Meanwhile Istanbul, according to its anti-Serbian and anti-Greek function, promised to the government of Vlora, in case of a resumption of hostilities, would have succumbed Kosovo. Ismail Qemal signed a secret pact, to provide soldiers in Istanbul. A landing attempt was stopped by the European Commissioners. Ismail Qemal was forced to resign in 1914. He retired to Nice, where he died in 1919. Esad Pasha Toptani was forced to do the same.

The Control Commission took the totality of power in Albania. The Greeks were encouraged to evacuate the south of the country, but during the retreat they organized Epirotes bands that imposed their authority using terror. They were gathered in a conference in the south city Gjirokastra, where they proclaimed the independence of the Northern Epirus and formed a government headed and controlled by a Greek.
The Prince of Wied arrived in Albania, Durres, in March 7, 1914, on an Austrian ship, escorted by Italian, French and English units.

Not knowing absolutely the reality of the country the Prince surrounded himself with former officials of the sultan. Among these he chose the prime minister, while Toptani was appointed to the Ministry of the Interior and of that of War. These officials came into contact with the Greeks and negotiated with the government of Epirus in the north. On May 17, an agreement was signed in Corfu, which recognized to the southern territories a regime of semi-autonomy, with a local government and a police force, also the use of the two languages, Greek and Albanian. Senior officials should be appointed by the Albanian government in Durres. The agreement was not ratified because of the Albanian resistance. The Young Turks in Istanbul strongly criticized the government of Wied, and came to push the revolt of the peasants in the central regions of Albania. They wanted to launch a Muslim prince on the Albanian throne, thus on their side was Esad Pasha Toptani and the Mufti of Tirana.

In May, 1914, in the region of Tirana and Shijak, there were uprisings against the government of Durrës, thus Toptani was arrested, but by the Italian intermediation, was able to take refuge in Italy. The farmers continued to fight and in Shijak it was elected a General Council, with a president and a commander of the armed forces.

The government of Wied then ratified the Protocol of Corfu. The beginnings of World War I created a tragic situation in Albania. After the withdrawal of the International Commission of Control Albania found itself with:
- The authority of the Government of Wied limited to the ports of Durres and Vlora;
- Central Albania under the control of the rebels;
- The south of the country was dominated by Greek bands;
- The Dibra region occupied by the Serbian army
- The surrounding mountains in the hands of local leaders.

In August 1914 the opponents of Wied took possession of Vlora, while Austria, driven by war, abandoned his protégé, also cutting off the food, since it refused to take sides in the conflict.

On September 3, 1914 William of Wied embarked on a ship and went back to Germany, leaving Albania into chaos. Albania did not have the opportunity to establish itself as a state in 1912-1913. Strong men in Albania were those already established during the Ottoman system and the transition to the new order of the nation-state proved extremely difficult. To complicate matters, there were some Serbian officers, who bribed leaders in the north, and it was Greece who managed with its manipulation to bring out a filo-hellenic Epirus and a potentially separatist one, but, above all, to animate the long discord it was the struggle between the landowners for new or potential powers, as well as the differences in language, religion and political views, including local and regional interests.

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The Impact of the Monetary Policy on the Economic Growth and the Development of the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

Upon the monetary independence of the country from the previous joined state, it began with the creation (construction) of new own monetary system and implement its own authentic monetary policy. Besides the implementation of the projected primary monetary objectives (maintenance of price stability and stability of the purchasing power of money, i.e. internal and external value of the denar), the monetary authority cares for the realization of other basic goals of macroeconomic policy, such as: providing a higher rate of economic growth, increased foreign trade, especially exports, increasing the employment and improving the balance of payments positions. The realization of these macroeconomic objectives is possible if, with the measures of macroeconomic policy, and in this framework, monetary policy measures, are created the: favorable conditions for management(expansion of production capabilities, better utilization of available resources, adequate location and prompt reallocation of resources), improving economic relations and trade cooperation, aimed at increasing foreign trade, especially exports and improve the current account positions, and thus the position of the balance of payments.

1. Introduction

If we consider the factor that, the realization of the bigger part of the previously mentioned objectives requires comprehensive engaging of all players (business sector, authorities and the government institutions) responsible for the realization of economic objectives (economic, development, exporting), higher level of coordination and cooperation between business sector, authorities and institutions, engaging the larger volume of funds, in function at increasing the productive capacity of the domestic economy, and the need of the relatively long period of time, so the effects of undertaken measures will reflect the value of the macroeconomic indicators. If we consider the fact that, economic reforms implemented in the previous period, especially so-called structural reforms, are seen as insufficient and delayed success. Then, lack of funds for investments, in function of increasing commodities of physical and human capital, in the whole period after economic independence, led to further deepening of the so-called distance in the technical and technological development of the domestic economy.

In such circumstances, the major part of the task, to secure better business conditions, while in a function of reforms of the domestic economy, fell on the monetary and fiscal policy. If we consider the fact that, the effects of measures and instruments of monetary and fiscal policy cannot completely cover the failures and disadvantages in the implementation of other policies (production, development and export policy, the primary distribution of income tax and other), then the implementation of sustainable and efficient monetary and fiscal policy, according to the needs and demands of the domestic economy, may partially successfully and in the short term, to resolve disadvantages, weaknesses and obvious limitations of the domestic economy. Of course, in the economic theory there are other views and opinions, often conflicting, in view of the role and importance of monetary policy on economic growth and development. Thus, according to them, restrictive monetary policy is the main limiting factor to reduce the production activity in the country. In addition to the previously mentioned attitude, the author lists the following arguments:

- Through quantitative restrictions on credit growth, banks, respectively monetary institutions have limited the access of the enterprises to the working capital, which was necessarily required to finance current production;
- Restrictive monetary policy is the reason, respectively one of reasons for the deterioration of liquidity of the economy;
- Restrictive monetary policy led to increased interest rates;
- Restrictive monetary policy led to the establishment of intercurrence value of denar, i.e. exchange rate of denar, on a higher level in terms of real value of money, which had a negative impact on the competitive ability of domestic exporters.
Although the foregoing arguments stand, we still believe that the monetary policy together with fiscal policy had a significant impact on economic trends. The measures of monetary and fiscal policy for a relatively short time, it was managed to achieve a higher level of price stability, stability of the purchasing power of money and stability of the exchange rate of national currency, which is essential precondition for creating a stable macroeconomic environment. The failure, i.e. partial success in implementing the reforms, particularly the so-called structural reforms, the failure in improving the economy structure, insufficient allowance for investment, unfavorable structure in the primary distribution of earned income, are the reasons for the unfavorable development of real economic trends. In such a situation, measures of monetary and fiscal policy can partly influence the actual economic flows, but not completely changing direction (development tendency) to actual economic flows. The character of monetary policy (restrictive, expansive or neutral) basically depends primarily on the state of national economy and the objectives of macroeconomic policy.

2. The impact of monetary policy on the economic growth

Period after economic and monetary independence from the previous joint state union is characterized by worsened economic situation (negative rates of economic growth, high unemployment and the state of economic instability) and the unfavorable tendency of development of economic flows. The main reasons for the deteriorating condition of the domestic economy, as previously mentioned are: the failure, that partial success in implementing economic reforms, especially the so-called structural reforms, then the inability of the domestic economy to face foreign competition, lack of funds for investment and failure in attracting foreign investments (in function at changing the existing economic structure and function of increasing freight of physical and human capital) prolonging transformation of capital (process privatization and restitution). Also, a great impact on the situation and unfavorable development of economic trends in the past have the so-called external shocks on the domestic economy (military actions in the premises of former Yugoslavia, Greek blockade to us, blockade of the UN towards Serbia, military actions in the country during 2001, etc.).

The literature in the field of monetary theory and policy can be met different views and attitudes regarding the impact of various factors, and in this framework, the impact of monetary policy measures. In the early stage of transition in all former socialist countries, there was a decline in economic activity, and in extreme cases, the real decline in GDP in those countries are reduced to only 50.0% of the level reached before the transition (petrevski 2005). The main reasons for the entry of these economies in the so-called transformation recession period are: the autonomous movements in demand as a result of liberalization, the collapse of the former joined markets, and breaches occurred in the supply of goods of domestic origin, the failure of previous generation capacities and insufficient investment to build new ones. Also, the opinion of a larger number of domestic economic theorists is that the stabilization policy is one of the reasons for the decline in economic activity in the country. Restrictive approach to the conduct of monetary policy leads to: decrease the amount of funds on behalf of credit loans, deterioration of liquidity, growth of the interest rates and condition of an overestimated exchange rate of national currency, causing growth of cost of production, and thus reduction of the competitive ability of the domestic economy, in the internal and external markets (Prevalla 2005). According to the State Statistical Bureau, in the period 1992-1995, when implemented stabilization program, the national economy has achieved negative growth rates, although the rates of monetary growth had been very high.

Table 1. Rates of growth of GDP, monetary growth and the rates of inflation in 80 %

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<tr>
<td>Growth of GDP</td>
<td>-6,6</td>
<td>-7,5</td>
<td>-1,8</td>
<td>-1,1</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>3,4</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>4,5</td>
<td>-4,5</td>
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<td>Monetary growth</td>
<td>704,5</td>
<td>236,6</td>
<td>87,9</td>
<td>19,2</td>
<td>0,9</td>
<td>13,2</td>
<td>13,3</td>
<td>29,4</td>
<td>20,9</td>
<td>57,2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inflation</td>
<td>151,1</td>
<td>362,0</td>
<td>128,3</td>
<td>15,7</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>2,6</td>
<td>-0,1</td>
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<td>5,8</td>
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Extension:

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<th>2002</th>
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<td>1,6</td>
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Source: State Statistical Bureau, Annual reports by year
From the indicators presented in Table 1 certain conclusions and findings can be drawn, including:
- Despite the fact that the in the period of 1992-1995 it was led an expansionary monetary policy, with a tendency of increased restrictiveness of the year, according to the foundations laid by the stabilization program, the rates of economic growth are negative (from -6.6% in 1992 -1.2% in 1995), suggesting that, there is no correlation, or causal relationship between economic growth and the growth of monetary factors. This means that, the reason for recession movements are other factors and constraints;
- The period 1996-2010 was characterized by positive rates of economic growth (except in 2001 and 2009), although lower than the projected values. Positive economic growth rates are achieved in the years when monetary growth was positive but also in the years when the monetary growth was negative (2002). Also, the rates of economic growth are higher in years when monetary growth was high, but also in the years when the rate of monetary growth was lower, indicating that, there is no causal link between monetary growth and economic growth.

From the foregoing it can be concluded that the effects of application of the measures of monetary policy are positive, especially in creating a stable macroeconomic environment (price stability, stability in the purchasing power of money in the domestic market and the stability of the exchange rate). However, measures of the monetary policy are shown as insufficiently effective in stimulating economic growth and boost the employment. This situation in the medium and long term is unsustainable and is a matter of time before a breach of the established state of macroeconomic stability, because the current internal balance is maintained by increased imports. Increased imports cause growth of the trade deficit, which in turn causes a greater outflow of funds from the current account of balance of payments. So far it was mostly covered by foreign borrowing, but the question is until when, and in the same time the maintenance the external balance not to be questioned.

3. The impact of the monetary policy on foreign trade exchange

Measures of the macroeconomic policy, and in this framework the monetary policy measures, have an impact on the development of foreign trade. Every economy seeks to increase the volume of foreign trade, in order to better supply the domestic market with necessary goods and services on the one hand, and to increase exports of goods and services from domestic production in the foreign market. The basic question that imposes during the performance of foreign trade is the way of calculation and execution of payments, when each national economy has its own national currency and its own policies determining the exchange rate of national currency. The answer to this question, or dilemma, is the following: national monetary units are a tool of payment in the internal market, while in the foreign trade, as a tool of payment are used the currencies of economically developed countries, such as: the U.S. dollar, euro, Japanese yen, British pound, Swiss franc, Russian ruble and others.

Of particular importance in the pursuit of the foreign trade is receiving adequate equivalent in goods or money, in order to preserve the material substance of the domestic economy. This is achieved by determining the parity value of the national currency unit or its intercurrence value. Monetary authority shall establish and monitor the changes of the intercurrence value, i.e. the exchange rate of national currency, the purpose of realization of the basic macroeconomic objectives, and in that context and function of realization the purposes of foreign trade policy of the country. 1Depending on the state of the national economy (level of economic development, stage of economic cycle, the level of development of relations in foreign trade) and the system of targets that are expected to be realized, the exchange rate of national currency can be set at realistic grounds, be undervalued or overvalued. In market conditions, the change in exchange rates of national currencies depends on their supply and demand of foreign exchange market. When the supply and demand of foreign currencies in the foreign exchange market are not balanced relation, it comes to a deviation in the direction of increase or decrease of the real exchange rate in relation to the official exchange rate. The change in the exchange rate leads to a change of parity, i.e. the ratio of the value (intercurrence) of separate currencies. In order to sustain the stability of the established exchange rate of the national currency, the interventions of monetary authorities in the foreign exchange market are often, by using a number of monetary instruments at its disposal.

In principle, each national economy seeks to determine the exchange rate of national currency on the real basis, aware of the benefits of this way of determining the parity of the national economy. Under the real exchange rate it implies such a relationship in foreign exchange, which allows, purchase of the same amount of goods and services in the internal market, with one or 100 units of national currency, as you can buy the equivalent amount of money stated in

1 Dr. Aleksandar Zhivkovic and Dr. Gradimir Kozhetinac, Monetary Economy, Economic faculty – Belgrade, 2005, page 550.
foreign currency. For example, the exchange rate is considered a real set, if for 61 denars you can buy a certain quantity of goods in the domestic market, as you can buy for one euro on the foreign market.

4. The impact of monetary policy on the internal and external balance

Monetary policy has a major impact on the maintenance, or reestablishment of the internal and external balance. No economy is not completely immune from the state of imbalance, but the difference between them is that both (the developed economies) often succeed in a short time to re-establish a state of equilibrium, compared to other economies (the underdeveloped and developing countries). The state of internal imbalance often causes distortion and external balance and the opposite. As the most frequent reasons (factors) that lead to a state of imbalance are mentioned:

- the impact of factors of material nature;
- the impact of factors of monetary nature.

If within a national economy there is an insufficient supply of goods and services of domestic origin, then it is forced to reduce the amount (value) of domestic demand or to increase the import. In conditions of a liberalized market, that lack of sufficient supply of goods and services of domestic origin shall be filled by increased imports. If a national economy is set to limit the demand on the level of domestic offer, it is possible that it will come to a disruption of internal balance, as a consequence of imbalance between commodity and purchase funds.

5. The role of the state in this process

The role of the state in implementation of the restructuring and rehabilitation of the banks is extremely important. Such a significant state role in this process can be viewed from several aspects as follows:

a. State through its budget provides most of the funds in order to implement the process of restructuring and rehabilitation of the banks. Given the fact that, for successful accomplishment of the process of restructuring and rehabilitation of the banks, according to some evaluations funds in the amount of 5-6% of GDP of the country are needed. The funds required for the project should be used for the:

- Payment of the interest to the foreign currency deposits of these banks;
- Payment of the interest on bonds issued by the Agency for rehabilitation of the banks, in exchange for writing off bad and doubtful claims on the base of credit loans to banks, amounting to 50% of their amount;
- Payment of the interest on the liabilities of the banks on the basis of used foreign loans and guarantees given;
- Regular servicing of foreign currency deposits of citizens, whose amount, according to some estimation, moves at about 3% of the GDP of the country.

b. Providing additional resources of funds for implementation of the process of rehabilitation of the banks. Given the limited capabilities of the State Budget to fully fund this project, it was assessed as a requirement to be used additional sources of funds, primarily from international financial institutions, or request for an approval from them for reprogramming the debts of banks and enterprises for a period of time.

Still, the biggest part of the burden from implementation of the process of restructuring and rehabilitation of the banks fell on the budget of the country, the methodology of implementation of this process was conceived in that way, that the entire obligations which come out from this project should be divided into: 1. Obligations of the economy and the banks which were faced with the so-called bad loan placements to be solved with the help of the state, and 2. The obligations in behalf foreign currency deposits of the population to be solved in the way that more solutions and alternatives are offered: introduction of transferable certificates based on the voluntarily conversion of the foreign currency deposits. These certificates could be used to buy real goods, to buy securities and the same could be bought and sell on the secondary market of the capital. The second opportunity which is given to the deponents of foreign currency deposits is buying of stocks of the bank which is client of their deposits. Third opportunity is transfer of the foreign currency deposits of the citizens into denar deposits. Fourth opportunity is the right with the foreign currency deposits to buy apartments, business offices and other type of property which is in social ownership and the last opportunity is freezing of the foreign currency deposits on certain time period. The choice which alternative will be taken is a decision of the foreign currency deponents in the banks.

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6. The role of the NBRM

The role of the NBRM in the process of restructuring and rehabilitation of the banks is specific, given the fact that as the highest monetary authority in the country, conducts the legally determined functions and supervisions. The impact of the NBRM on the process of rehabilitation of the banks although indirectly, is very significant. That impact of the NBRM comes into expression especially:

- through the instruments of the monetary regulation, the NBRM influences on the level of liquidity in the economy, in the way that in conditions of bigger liquidity of the banking sector she intervenes, and with that it reduces the pressure of the borrowers for new loans, but in the same time the mechanism of monetary regulation reduces also the loan potential of the banks, and that narrows the opportunity for new loan placements. In that way is prevented the possibility banks to create new, so-called bad placements of funds;
- through the mechanism of the enhanced control in the working of the banks, in regard to the respect of the legal regulations and other bylaws, as well as the order and decisions of the monetary authority in regard to the amount of credit multiplication, the criteria of approving new placements, the amount of the banking guarantees etc.;
- through the enhanced control while issuing agreements for founding new banks. Namely, when issuing a license to found a bank, the criteria should be strengthened, with the aim new banks to be able to found only those investors who secured appropriate amount of founding capital, business policy and professional personnel, who will be capable of carrying the problem of banking operations.

In no case, the NBRM shouldn’t be directly involved in the process of rehabilitation of the banks, nor in the role of financing institution of the activities of the institution in charge of implementing the project, nor in the role of direct bearer of implementation of the project for rehabilitation of the banks.

7. Conclusion

Regarding the impact of the monetary policy on the development of the banking sector in Republic of Macedonia in the previous period (2005-2010) the most important measures which led to the dynamic growth of this sector can be listed, such are:
- Determination of low census, i.e. founder capital for the establishment of new banking institutions. The minimum amount for the establishment of a bank was set at 3 million DEM and 1 million DEM for the establishment of a branch of a foreign bank in the country, in MKD;
- Reorganization and consolidation of the banking sector. The process of consolidation of the banking business, encompassed activities within the domain of the reorganization of the existing banks, establishment of new banking entities, and their restructuring in accordance with the Law on banks and savings of 1991;
- Measures with which was predicted rehabilitation of the banking institutions. With the process of rehabilitation of the banks was envisaged: cleaning banks’ balance sheets of so-called dubious in the previous operations of the banks, restructuring and recapitalization of the banks.

The process of rehabilitation of the banks started in 1990/91, through the so-called process of linear rehabilitation of the banks, and then followed a process of further rehabilitation of each bank separately;
- Liberalization of the domestic financial market, which give the possibility for establishment of banks and other banking institutions by foreign entities, mainly banks and other financial institutions. As result of such an approach, the value of foreign capital in the banking sector in Republic of Macedonia, of 31.12. In 2001 exceeds 110 million U.S. dollars, which is seen as a successful approach in attracting foreign capital, as in the formation of new banking institutions (new banks), as well as investments of foreign banks in the existing banking institutions. This led not only to the increase of the banking capital, but also to a change of the ownership structure of banking sector in Republic of Macedonia. The participation of foreign capital in total banking sector in the period 2005-2010 in the country increased from 49.1% in 2005 to 85.5% in 2010. In the same period the share of the domestic private capital in the total banking sector decreased from 46.4% in 2005 to 9.2% in 2010. The participation of state capital in total banking sector varies from 4.5% in 2005 to 5.3% in 2010. The increase of the participation of the foreign capital in the total banking sector in the country mainly was conducted through the purchase of shares of some domestic banks by foreign banks (In April 2010, 93.8% of the shares of Stater Banka AD Kumanovo were purchased by the Central Cooperative Bank AD Sofia, then through the recapitalization of some banks (Alpha Bank AD Skopje, Ohrid Bank AD Skopje and Ziraat Bank AD Skopje) and by the conversion of so-called priority shares into ordinary shares;
Measures of the monetary authority in regard to the policy of lending to the commercial banking, then measures in the domain of policies for determining the discount rate, the amount of mandatory reserves, and the measures which give the opportunity to expand the scope of activities in the domain of the deposit and credit activity of bank institutions. As a result of the growth of the activities of the banking sector in the country, especially the deposit activity increasing the so-called core deposits in the banking sector. Although the growth of the deposit activity in the period 2005-2010 was several times higher (index 230.1), the credit activity of the banking sector during the same period was below the level of secured assets (credit potential of the banking sector). The dynamics of growth of credit activity in the banking sector in the investigated period (index 204.7) is lower than the dynamic growth of the deposit activity, leading to the increased liquidity in the banking sector, on one hand, and the declining level of cost-effectiveness and profitability in the operations of the banking sector, on the other hand. Consequently, some banks, especially the so-called large banks, they direct part of their credit potential the last few years towards purchase of securities (bonds and treasury bills);

- As a result of the expanded activities of the banking sector and the successful implementation of the determined policy of development, was ensured a higher stability in the operations, and an increase of the level of trust and reliability in the operations of our banking sector. Achieved success primarily is due to the increase of own funds (capital of banks) and thus the credit potential in most of our banking institutions. The increase of the own funds of most part of our banks is primarily a result of the rising census for establishment of new banks, then undistributed profits from previous years, particularly as a result of several emissions of new share by the banks, which was in function of recapitalization of banks, leading to a quantitative increase of the capital of the banking sector, and to a qualitatively improvement of the structure of the funds available to the banking sector in the country.

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Promotion’s Ethics – Social And Economic Aspects

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Abstract

The advertising and promotion are fields in which the non-compliance of ethical standards or different considerations may have visible negative results and often harmful for the company. One of the controversial issues of promoting is that the companies use this to increase the sales, impacting not only the sales methods but also the values of life style. The techniques used by the advertisers are considered to be not true and vulnerable. Some of these techniques leave bad impression and are considered as an offense by the public and some others have a negative impact to the sensible groups, especially to the children. All these techniques will be analyzed in this paper that aims to evidence these issues, based in some case studies, and the possibility of avoiding these methods considered unsustainable and harmful for the applicant companies. Which are the most frequent cases of ethic violation? Are frequent the cases when a promotion message is presented as not true and fraudulent? What makes an advertising or promotion message offensive or bad perceived? These are some of the research questions that I will try to give an answer in this paper. On the other side also the advertisings and promotional spots very often violate the ethic, representing inconvenience and are considered as a bad indicator for the social values and life style. The increasing number of unethical advertisings and their presentation in media represent a bad impact to social values in general. The visible impact of advertising in society very often determine what is bad and what is good for them and contributes in public dialog as well. Although, nowadays the impact of advertising and promotion are evaluated for their positive impact in the society but on the other side there are opinions also for the negative impact of these advertisings and promotions. The research in question will reflect on the abovementioned cases, when the advertising faces the reality, and also the reality reflected by how advertising faces with opinion’s misunderstanding.

Key words: Promotion, Product, Campaign, Consumer, Marketing.

1. Introduction

Ethics is the science that studies the moral, the principles, norms and rules of people behaviour. The ethic in philosophy is the study and evaluation of people behaviour in the light of moral principles. The moral principles can be seen as a standard of behaviour that people have build for them selves or as a result of the constriction or obligation of what a society requires by her members. It deals with the facts what is good and what is bad, how we can differentiate them, is the good and the bad usual for all; how can we take such important decisions that can help or exasperate the others, etc.

The role of promotion and advertisement in society is complex and controversial, very often results with efforts that limit or prohibit the transmission of the advertisement in this way the advertisement is limited only to a specific group of the society.

The function of promotion market requires the defining of the game rules for all the subjects that will take part on it. This requires objectively continous perfection of legal framework. The commercial code, in the concrete case in Kosovo, was a positive effort in this direction but there are still many uncovered fields.

The law for audiovisual media is one of the important issues that deal with the prevention of ethical violation in advertisement and promotion. This law in Kosovo is still deficient regarding its implementation. Actually in Kosovo, the biggest companies have started to buy long term advertisements. In this aspect every advertisement holder chooses the advertising interests and their duration by realizing a non clean competition against the opponent.

The audience measurement is another challenging issue that is turning as a priority to the Kosovo companies. The Independent Commission for Media and other different organizations that take care of such activities reflect time by time the measurement of watching in Kosovo media. The weakness in this aspect represent the fact that these measurements are made on order by the mediums that in this case they laft behind doubts for the results and doubts in really facts of the company.

1 Independent Commission for media, 2009, pg. 12, Indipendent Commision for Media, Kosova,
Beyond the law in the end is the consumer that evaluates and seals the advertisement ethics. If the consumer see a ethical violation in the advertisement message he reacts – reflect or coment negatively, refuse to by the product, made a formal complain, etc.(Hysi et. al. 2012). What is important in this aspect is the influence of media. The media must have professional criterium in choosing, selecting and differenting the advertisements considering what is right, what is appropriate for the viewers or things that are in contradiction with the ethic of the advertisement.

2. Ethical Principles of Advertising

Many societies and countries dedicate success of economic and social development to the role of ethics individual behavior of institutions and businesses. The core of this success lies in the transition from the stage of "limited individual ethics" in the state of "general ethics". Limited ethics applies values its obligations only in close family environments, clan, political, social or business. Beyond this environment of connection, everything is ethically and morally acceptable. Rather, the general ethics means that its norms become part of the whole economy and society, and economic or public policy, all manner of different professional categories to contain essentially ethical values and norms. "Generalized Ethics" creates much more mutual trust between stakeholders of an economy or a society causing market economy to function qualitatively (Civici 2009).

If we compare two neighboring countries and Kosovo, and analyze the ethical principles of advertising, or more precisely the annex of advertising messages, it is regulated by law that messages should be in Albanian language, and the main reason is not to create confusion among the society. This paragraph states that customer must be protected from the unethical advertising such as:

- Discrimination against sex, race, religion, nationality, political affiliation, age, personality, physical and mental condition;
- Attempt to provoke anxiety or benefit from the lack of the customer experience;
- Inadequate explanations for the customer who has no knowledge for the of the luck games that promise easy profit;
- Creation of confusing situation by providing the similar products or services and comparing them with the well known brands;
- Causing moral harm and distress to children;
- Greatly increase the value of the goods or service advertised.

For misleading advertising, for damages caused and for an immediate halt to this ad, legal provisions in both countries are applied. Advertisers and advertising agencies are responsible, individually or jointly, for their misleading and unfair advertising, and are sanctioned accordingly. Since the main reason of advertising is to push customer to buy certain product, sometimes the way the product is advertised or presented customer decides to buy the mentioned product. There are several ways how design and content can influence on customer preferences.

One of the main issues or problems today is that advertising is that many advertisements are misleading and confusing customers and directly violates the ethics of advertising. As a result of this phenomenon, many researchers have concluded that customers have lost their trust in advertising.

3. The influence of advertisements to children and society’s specific groups

One of the most sensitive issues tied with the advertisement of the products has to do with children. Televisions are the main mediators that reach the children through their advertisements. According to the latest researches, there is an average of five hours a day that children pass around media (audio-visual devices), especially watching television, on internet or playing video games. The research estimates that besides the fact that a kid spends 22 hours a week around audio-visual media, the same is supposed to be a subject of 40000 advertisements a year (Belch and Belch 2007). It is estimated that huge advertisement companies in the world spend more than 12 billion dollars a year in order to reach the children through advertisement, since the children are considered as an important target group for the market. On the other side, children are those who desperately want to buy the goods they see on advertisements, because of a single reason: they want to have those goods that the rest of the children have, too. Therefore, their parents are urged to buy what their children ask for.

Nevertheless, a simple question might be raised: Why these advertisements, whose target group are the children, are so deceivers? The psychologist Jolanta Vons explains how the content of an advertisement is not focused on the price, quality or advantage of the product.
The advertisement is made to abet the feelings. Vons explains: “The children do not deeply analyze the advertisement. They do not compare the information with what they know about. Even if they try to do so, their knowledge is too limited to understand the real value of the product”.

In this context, could we ascertain that we have to do with the violation of ethics or these are merely some psychological aspects that the advertisers do usually take into consideration when they create an advertisement?! Taking into account the influence of these advertisements to children, and especially their deceivable power, is there any way to prevent this phenomenon? According to the magazine Rewia, the researchers found that in order to avoid this phenomenon, there is a need to spend more time with the children and to explain them that the value of a human is not the same as the value of his clothes or shoes. Furthermore, they suggest that there is a need to explain to children that they could have a happy childhood without having toys. And that the parents should be aware on how the advertisements influence their children. Vons advices that we don’t have to permit the advertisements to show what are good and what is bad for our children.

Another sensitive group exposed to advertisements might be the females who are mostly introduced as a sexual object. Those who mostly commit ethic violence is the cosmetic companies as well as “under wear” companies, whose advertisements sometimes overpass the common sense of an advertisement.

4. The social and economical influence in advertising

Except the advantages offered by a company and products upgrading, the advertisement and other forms of promotion face also with negative opinions. Such opinions are always present but it must be considered the fact that advertisers, the companies that applying for advertisement must be careful in the way of use, formulating of advertising messages and when they use them, with the only aim that the advertising will have no negative impact to the society. The advertising is a potential institution, and as such will remain only if the consumers believe what they see of hear (Belch and Belch 2007). The multiple problems that the advertising face in the front of the consumers and wide opinion can be avoided only when the intermediaries, the promotion managers, or the company as a order of advertising campaigning decide to respect the ethical issues among the planning process containing in itself the marketing integrated communication.

The advertising plays an important role in open markets where the free trade is applied, in the concrete case the Kosovo market. In these markets the consumers learn for the products and services that they want to have (buy). In general the economical role of the advertising goes even further that its fundamental role can be. The advertising obviously encourages the product’s consumption and in the same time encourages country economical development. On the other side the advertising not only plays the information role for the products and services but in the same time supports and facilitates the introduction into the market of a product or brand.

Despite these effects and benefits and advantages, is the advertising role informative and the right one or all these elements in some cases exceed they limits? One of the reviews is that the advertising manipulates with the opinion, force them to buy products that can be useless for them and as abovementioned the influence of advertising to the children, but in this case has impact also for the adult.

The advertising that in this case try to convince the consumer for the function of the product, the concrete case when within an advertising is presented a new product that can solve people’s problems, can have emotional and psychological effects and also can be scary to those who believe or create hesitation for advertising message. Such advertising very often has raised discontent to the consumers, especially for the enthusiasm created for the new product that in this case will help them to choose a determined product.

In this case arises the question….is this advertising ethical violation considering the fact that such advertising message with a negative content in a part of the opinion result with the dissadisfaction after buying the product.

On the other side the advertising holders try to give different arguments that defend them from the charges why they tried to convince the consumers to buy the unecessary products. The first explanation of them is that the consumers are they need or not, even when the advertising’s aim is to convince them to buy the product.3 What reforce the fact that the consumers is free to choose between many product represented in advertisings and he is not obligated to buy the produktet. If this fact stays today we will not meet companies that have enough capital but their products are not stable in

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2 Watchtower, Online Library, 12/08, Fraud power of advertising, pg, 22, wol.jw.org
3 The research according the opinion of the consumers and marketers opinions according the the Hulumtimi rreth advertisingsd and the convinction to buy a product is made in 2011 by a company for juice production Bibita Group in Peja, KosovO.
the market, they will invest this capital in advertisements and in this case they will “convince” the consumers to buy their products.

However, is possible to prove that these advertisements even after the argumentation of the public or advertiser have within their message ethical violations? Even if there is no any offensive message in the classic way these advertisements can not be considered no ethical. These companies are doing their work and in this case there are stimulation the consumers to buy their products. If we go back to the key problem where the target are the children even even in this case such advertising is not considered unethical because in this case the company is not trying to convince the children but their parents to buy the products.

5. The society’s reviews against the non ethical advertisements and their influence in non-reliability

The ethical violation, then the frauds, the wrong conclusions that in this case can be the stimulations or trying attempts to convince at any cost the consumers is some of the influences pushing the consumers to claim against their advertisements. Many researches not only in Kosovo but in the entire world result with the consumers claiming against the advertisements. According to the research realized by Banvari Mital is identified a specific detail and the statistics that a quarter of the TV advertisements are reliable.

Another research realized by Sharon Shavit, Pamela Loveri and Xhejm Hefner with the participation of 1000 respondents, mainly of them adults. The reasearch’s aim was to understand the consumer’s behavior toward the advertisements. The findings of the research were that the Amerikans in principle do not believe the advertisements even if they believe in many cases and their decision to buy a product is based to the advertisements. Forest Research has revealed that the consumers in many of cases do not believe in the advertisements for a considerable part of their products and for them the best advertising is the direct advertising, information of a friend regarding the product they used before. On the other side this research shows another important fact, the online advertising, advertisements in webpages is the second source of reliable advertisements.

6. The media’s policies to accept the advertisements

One of the biggest guarantors in financing the media are considered the companies or the advertiser. This fact arise a hypothesis if these advertisers are indicators in editorial policies of the media or simply the editorial policies of the media or simply they control them. According to a research realized in April 2013 by a group of the students of Haxhi Zeka University, where the subject were the national public media (radio and TVs) in Kosovo result that that 70% of incomes of these media are realized by the advertisements. In the private media 100% of the incomes are realized by the advertisements. Even in the last years are established new standards and the media are limited by a “wall” between the advertisements department and information editorial, nevertheless the influence of advertisements is present through direct forms.

There are several products that require a special treatment by the media who decide to promote these products. In this group of the advertisements are included non-medical products (different medicines), harmful or very harmful products.
for the health. For alcoholic drinks the advertisings must be in accordance with the law dispoitions for advertisings and promotions. In the concrete case in Kosovo these advertisings are not monitored.

The advertising for different tanning lotions according to the experts must pass first to the approval of the editor. And the same thing for cosmetics or the preparations that prevent premature aging of the skin, etc.

On the other side the books and other publications that are subject of advertisings must pass first to the editor. This is made for different reasons as copyright and the content and apparrance of the books or publications, etc.

The advertisings for nutriotionaly products, vitamins and minerals must be in accordance with advertising and promotion legal guidelines. The same thing states also for products which emphasize weakening or body increased energy (drinks, energy products).

Travel agents are another sensible sector and the advertisings require a special treatment. Initially the advertising company must be authorized and must provide evidences that testify the consumers and all the audience.

7. Conclusion

The present research has raised many issues for further discutions and researches, many prejudices, but also specific cases that reflect the ethic or the ethical violation during the product advertising. Is difficult to avoid the ethical violation during the product advertisings, considering the fact that many products are questionable for the content?

This research identify some cases when “without” consciousness make a ethical violation during their advertisings. There are many cases when is discussed the question if there is ethical violation in alcohol, medicins, food and other products wheer in focus are the children. If all these products are not subject of editorial controls or is not verified the legal content then within these advertisements we will have ethical violations.

Non controlled media, especially in transition countries, are predisposed for ethical violation in their advertisings spots and promotions. All these advertisings that in reality after their consumption have no testify the same effects of advertisings have influenced negatively to the consumers. A big part of the consumers in Kosovo do not believe to the advertisings and some of them considered them offensive.

The fraud, that in this case is a heavy ethical violation, is one of the elements that today are presented to the advertisings. The most frequeint cases, refering to Kosovo, are advertisings regarding the promotion of kids products.

Another element, founded in this research is the stimulation of the companies who promote. This stimulation is directly “aggressive” in frequent cases has as target the children and the adults, and in this case they obligate the consumers to buy products that for them are not useful. This element is alarming and require a special treatment.

In conclusion, considering what is presented in this paper we can say that the ethical violation is present and really is very difficult to take necessary measures for this phenomenon. The attention has to be greater by the governal authorities to control the media and the law for consumer’s protection must be implemented.

If we consider the professional issue in advertising and promotion field and global trends the ethic continue to be a very sensitive issue for the society that change one from another.

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Milestones In Turkey’s Long Way To European Union Membership

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Abstract

The membership process of Turkey has been carried out since 1959 when Turkey first applied to join what was then called the European Economic Community. This process had profound influence on Turkey in many fields such as economy, social life, international policy, education etc. The first agreement signed between Turkey and European Union was “Ankara Agreement” which took place in 12 September 1963. This agreement envisaged establishment of customs union, which was aimed at integration of Turkey and European Economic Community in three main phases. Following this agreement additional protocols were signed. The year 1987 was another turning point for the process that Turkey applied for full membership on this date. In Helsinki Summit, which took place in 1999, Turkey was accepted as a candidate country. Five years later, in 2004 Turkey realized an important step on the way to becoming a full member. In 2004 European Union Member States decided that negotiations with Turkey could be initiated. The negotiations are still carried out. All of the agreements and protocols in the process required Turkey perform new policies which affect the society in many fields. In this study, milestones in Turkey’s long way for European Union Membership will be examined chronologically.

Key Words: EU, Turkey, Membership Process, Customs Union, Ankara Agreement.

1. Introduction

The relations between Turkish people and the European civilization have a deep and long history. Remarkable relations date back till the Seljuk Empire times then it continues with the Ottomans. The Ottoman Empire was recognized as a European state with the Declaration of Paris in 1856 (Eldem, 2005). After Ottoman Empire’s collapse, Turkish Republic was founded and its fundamental aim was to reach modern civilizations level.

The way of reaching modern civilizations level was to internalize developments experienced in the west without destroying our own values. Till the end of 1950s, the relations ran at an idle, however 1959 was a landmark in view of Turkey’s relationships with Europe. In this year the Turkish government applied to European Economic Community to be an associate member.

The second important date is 1963. The Turkish government signed the Ankara Agreement with the EEC. It was the first financial protocol between the community and Turkey (Euractive 2004) and constituted legal foundations of the membership process. After Ankara Agreement, another important component in the relations was The Additional Protocol of 13 November 1970 which meant Turkey would be a part of customs union step by step. After the long period of negotiations, protocols and different obstacles which took nearly thirty years, in 1995 Customs Union Agreement was signed. With this agreement, Turkey became a full member of the Customs Union in 1 January 1996 and almost 60 per cent of Turkey’s trade is now with European states. (Ulgar, 2009)

Between the Additional Protocol (1970) and Customs Union Agreement (1995), 1987 is another important date when Turkey applied to the Community for full membership, which was not a planned action.

1999 Helsinki Summit followed Customs Union Agreement and Turkey became a candidate country. After Helsinki Summit, another important date was October 2004 when the Commission presented the 2004 regular report on Turkey’s
progress towards accession and recommended the opening of accession negotiations with Turkey in this report (Pime Ministry Undersecretariat of Customs 2007). In October 2005 negotiations started and membership process took a new route.

2. Ankara Agreement

In July 1959, just after the foundation of the European Economic Community, Turkey applied to the community to join. Turkey had two main aims to apply; the first aim was not to be surpassed by Greece, which applied before Turkey, in trade because Turkey and Greece had similar agricultural products and if Greece had joined the community, it would have a lot of commercial advantages compared to Turkey. The second aim was to internalize western developments and innovations in all fields of life. With the declaration of republic, Turkey made its preference towards becoming a contemporary western state and joining the community was important to realize this aim.

In response to Turkey’s application, EEC suggested establishing an association until Turkey’s standards reached a satisfactory level. Following negations resulted in the signature of Ankara Agreement which was signed on 12 September 1963. In the framework of this agreement, Turkey would be a full member state, but before full membership, customs union would be established in three phases to secure Turkey’s integration into the community. (Hatipoğlu, 2004)

Ankara Agreement aimed at bringing the parties closer together in economic and trade matters. In this direction, EEC offered financial assistance to Turkey. Under the first Financial Protocol which lasted from 1963 to 1970, the EEC provided Turkey 175 million ECU. The trade concession which the EEC granted to Turkey under the form of tariff quotas proved not to be as effective as expected, however, the EEC’s share in Turkey imports rose from 29% in 1963 to 42% in 1972. (www.abgs.gov.tr)

Another issue which should be mentioned under this title is that although Ankara Agreement envisaged the free circulation not only of goods, but of persons, services and capital between parties, this has never been performed and Turkey still struggle to abolish visa barrier between the parties of the Ankara Agreement.

3. Additional Protocol

The Additional Protocol, which was signed on 13 November 1970, explained in a detailed way how the Customs Union would be established. According to this protocol, EEC would abolish tariff and quantitative barriers to its imports from Turkey, while Turkey would do the same in accordance with a timetable containing calendars set for 12 and 22 years. During this process, EEC asked Turkey to harmonize its legislation with that of EEC. In addition, the Additional Protocol envisaged the free circulation of persons between the parties in the next 12 to 22 years. 92% of our agricultural exports benefited from this regime. Additional Protocol means passage to second phase mentioned in Ankara Agreement. (Karluk, 2011)

4. Application For Full Membership

Military intervention, which took place on 12 September 1980, caused the relations between Turkey and EEC to come to a halt. After the freeze stage between parties, in 1983 multiparty elections in Turkey were carried out and then Turkey started to normalize its conditions. In the positive atmosphere after the military intervention, Turkey applied to EEC to become a full member state. This application was not planned in the process plan written in Ankara Agreement. As basis for the application, Turkey showed EEC Treaty’s 237. Article which declares any European Country can apply for full membership. EEC’s response to the application was to wait until Turkey had more favorable economic, social and political standards. Although this unplanned full membership application did not work, it certainly revived the relations between parties. (www.euroactive.com)

5. Customs Union

As planned in Additional Protocol, necessary regulations were carried out to achieve Customs Union in 1995. After 2 years-long preparation process, on 5 March 1995, Customs Union Agreement was signed. It came into force on 1 January 1996. This means passage to the last phase mentioned in Ankara Agreement. Customs Union has a lot of advantages at commercial issues for both sides. It also envisages free circulation of persons, goods, services and
capital. However, free circulation of persons was not realized in practice and it is still a negotiation matter between Turkey and EU. (www.mfa.gov.tr)

6. Helsinki Summit

Helsinki Summit was held on 10-11 December in 1999. In this meeting, Turkey’s candidate position was approved and it was stressed that Turkey had equal position with other candidate countries. What required this explanation was the offer to Turkey to be a conditional candidate and member country, which was strongly opposed by Turkey. As a result of the approval, Instrument of Accession was signed between parties in 2001 and reviewed in the years 2003, 2005, 2006 and 2008. In the framework of Instrument of Accession, National Program was formed and updated in 2003, 2005 and 2008. During these years, many adaptation laws concerning human rights, freedoms of speech and thought, constitutional and democratic rights were passed by Turkey.

7. Negotiations Start

17 December 2004 was another milestone in Turkey’s accession to European Union. On this date European Union decided Turkey met the requirements of European Union’s political criteria and membership negotiations would be started on 3 October 2005.

Negotiations have been continuing since 3 October 2005. Till now 13 articles have been started to be negotiated and one of them was completed temporarily.

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The Influence of the Ecumenical Movement of the XIX Century on the Formation of the Universalist Ideology

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Abstract

At the core of the majority of today’s socio-political and military conflicts lies one reason – the national identity crisis has caused a sharp conflict of values, which, in turn, is the consequence of globalization. The religious norms play the most important role in the formation of a person’s sense of identity. The consideration of the ecumenical movement in the XIX century is indicative for the analysis of the process of globalization, as the Christian church was the forerunner of the universalization through the call for ecumenism. The purpose of this article is to identify the genetic relationship between the properties of ecumenism of the XIX century and the main characteristics of universalization. The method of research is historical-genetic. The study includes the analysis of the dialogue between the three largest Christian confessions – Roman Catholic, Orthodox and Anglican churches. A wide range of historical sources (letters, diplomatic documents, articles) related to the investigated period has served as the research material. The analysis led to the conclusion that the concept of “ecumenism” underwent a radical change during the XIX century, becoming a specific half-secular ideology akin to the concepts of “liberalism” and “postmodernity”. Herewith, each of these confessions was guided by its own choice of behavioral strategies by special, peculiar only to it, motives, which largely determined the specific national, country and regional identity of XX-XXI centuries.

Key words: ecumenical movement, universalization, Christian churches, national identity, postmodernity.

1. Introduction

The logic of the development of modern civilization creates ideological phenomena. The seeable victory of the capitalist mode of production over the socialist generated a strong belief that there is no other way of the development of the society, rather than be based on capitalism. Francis Fukuyama in his famous book “The End of History and the Last Man” substantiates the idea that humanity has come to a perfect (with a few reservations) form of government – liberal democracy (which at the same time, using the terminology of K. Marx, is a superstructure of the capitalist economic organization), and consequently there is nothing more to aspire. But capitalism as an ideology is a product of Western mentality1. Thus, having gained a victory’s wreath, it pretends to supremacy on planetary scale that in practice means the dictatorship of the values inherent in Western world view.

The development of the universalist process suggests that people of the future will exist in some kind of a planetary society, and the citizens’ worldview, for example, in Latin America, will be identical to the worldview of the inhabitants of the African continent. At the same time the values of the future will be equivalent or nearly equivalent to the values of modern Western civilization. Consequently, with a new force there renewed the debates about the legality of universalism, existing only in the coordinate system of Western ideology, as this process caused the growing crisis of national identity of the world communities, often resulting in bloody clashes.

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1 Here and below, the definition of “Western” refers to the arbitrary definition of socio-cultural type, the main characteristic of which is to focus on rationalism. It is important to note that this is not a geographical term, however, in accordance with its contents, it can be attributed to the country, which bases its own cultural and social life on a rationalist philosophy with its main distinguishing characteristics: individualism in the field of spiritual and personal, and liberal democracy in the political sphere.
Long-term secularization of public life led to the fact that the fundamental concepts of modern society, such as “equality” and “freedom”, were considered the “invention” of the Renaissance or Enlightenment, or of the latest world policy. In fact, it is not a recent discovery, the “copyright” here belongs to Christianity, as well as the universalization of the modern world which has originated among others from the ecumenical movement\(^2\). Unfortunately, the history of ecumenism is considered often in isolation from the context of actual events of everyday life, because it is viewed as the prerogative of the narrow experts. This approach, in my opinion, does not take into account the enormous importance of this factor for the development of the so called “collective unconscious” of the modern world. The XIX century has the particular importance for the topic of article, because this century developed strategies and ideological concepts which we use successfully in the XXI century. Moreover, these attitudes formed a century and a half ago, have become something natural, “eternal” in the public mind. The historical analysis of the origin of these concepts is of great value, as it helps to avoid incorrect interpretations.

In this paper I want to show how Christian church responded to the challenges of modernity, changing its own behavior and strategy, and how the church became one of the leaders in the worldwide movement of union, as though “having sanctified” the nascent globalization by its authority. The paper consists of four sections, each of which is dedicated to the most important aspects of the ecumenical movement in the XIX century. The tools of the historical-genetic method allowed to systematize similar and distinctive features of ecumenism and modern universality with the greatest possible clarity. This paper is based mainly on the authentic sources. The detailed analysis of the transformation of the ecumenical policy of the Holy See, made by A. Dobroer (Dobroer, 2005) was of great help. Some English-language sources of section 2.1 have been not available to me in the original, so I used them in Russian translation.

2. Breath of future: practicality vs. dogma

“We have a lot of men... who want to see our church united by close ties of love with the Holy Eastern Church...” - these are the lines from a letter of Bishop of the Episcopal Diocese of Western New York William H. Delancey to Orthodox Patriarchs (Delancey, 1882). The most active period in the modern history of interfaith dialogue between the Orthodox and Anglican churches occurred in the 1840s and 1870s. It developed in two complementary ways: by itself the Church of England, the Mother Church of the Anglican community, and by the American Episcopal Church. Each of them guided by both different, at the same time, similar motives.

Inside the Church of England increased the famous “Oxford Movement”. The leaders of the “Oxford Movement” formulated a “branch theory”, according to which the Eastern Orthodox, Anglican and Roman Catholic Churches are the three branches of the Catholic and Apostolic Church on the ground “that it continues to hold the faith of the original undivided Church, and to maintain the apostolic succession of its bishops” (The Oxford Dictionary of the Christian Church, 1997, p. 232). Some particularly impressed with the new idea activists of the “Oxford Movement” began to bow down in front of Rome and the institution of the papacy, denying the possibility of an original way for Anglicanism. Orthodox protopriest and prior of the embassy church in London Evgeny Popov cited in his letter to the Procurator of the Holy Synod Earl N. Protasov some words of «the learned Oxfordiens»: «Rome in its degree is to be considered the model. Rome as she is must be the actual model in religion. The Pope is the Christ’s ambassador on the Earth... the holy see is the proper medium of communion with catholic church» (Protopriest Popov, 1904, p. 600). However, the issue of identification of the English nation with Roman Catholicism on the state level threatened the sovereignty of Britain in the eyes of the British public figures, and it was doomed to failure primordially. Accordingly, the recognition or non-recognition of the correctness of the Roman Catholicism' foundations in British circumstances could be only a private affair of individuals, but no state church program.

In the case of the Orthodox Church, it was not so univocal. Surprisingly, the idea of union with Eastern Orthodox churches received support even on the side of the big policy: at this time British foreign policy interests were bonded with Greece. It was a “side effect” of anti-ottoman policy of the Great Powers, tried to solve the “Eastern Question”, which was, as a matter of fact, the struggle between Britain and Russia for influence in the Balkans and the Middle East. It is not surprising that some of the British bishops began to look lux ex Oriente. In order to “spread in the English society the correct and accurate information about the status and situation of the Eastern Christians”, as well as “to acquaint Christian brothers from East with the teachings and the beginnings of the Church of England» (Lopukhin, 1882, p. 99),

\(^2\) The term “ecumenism” was introduced into science only in the XX century. Until that time, from the point of view of scientific terminology, it would be appropriate to speak of “interconfessional contacts”. However, for the sake of convenience, I will use the terms “ecumenism” and “ecumenical movement” in relation to the events of the XIX century.
were created in Britain “Committee for Relations with the Eastern churches” (“Greek-Russian Committee”), and The Eastern Church Association.

The Greek-Russian Committee was organized in the U.S. Episcopal Church in 1862, too. At that time American Church was going through its second revival. The development of the idea of religious centralism was, among other things, the result of the end of the Civil War in North America, “...small sects began to disintegrate... major religious communities absorbed small... large communities themselves, because of public request, had to re-examine your inner self” - so were these events treated in Russia (Lopukhin, 1882, p. 687). As in Britain regarding Anglicanism, in America began to speak highly skepticalviews about future of Protestantism. In the 1860s the sermons about “bankruptcy of Protestantism” and calling the “catholicity” as the only salvation from the moral failure became popular. But the most serious cause of American bishops’ appeal to the Eastern Orthodox hierarchs was the purchase of Alaska in 1867, as recorded in the official report of the American Greek-Russian Committee, “[need] to communication caused by the fact that we have recently acquired a large Russian territory, with its bishop and forty other spiritual entities to which our immigrants could apply for the execution of pastoral ministry – in visiting the sick, burial of the dead, committing a wedding, baptism of children and the like” (The Report of the North American Greek-Russian Committee, 1882, p. 124). One of the members of the North American Greek-Russian Committee made a trip to Russia, where he was greeted the higher church dignitaries warmly. On the wave of public goodwill in 1870 in New York City was opened the Russian Orthodox Church. Although officially it was allowed to the prior of that church Nicholas Bierring to attend the service at the Anglican churches only, eyewitnesses confirm the participation of Father Nicholas in some Episcopal Church’ ceremonies. However, a welcoming alliance did not happen. The main reason for the failure of negotiations, I think, has nothing to do with theological controversy.

From the beginning, British and American bishops did not mean the union of the churches in the sense of a full merger. For example, the report of British Greek-Russian Committee for 1867 declared: “It is not, as many think, the merger of one church with the other, it is not the question about our submission to the authorities of Eastern Orthodox Church, or the requirements of a similar submission from thereof. Likewise, it does not mean to add to our church some teachings, rituals or ceremonies peculiar to other churches, or, on the other hand, demand from them the abandonment of what seems us superfluous in them... No, in the communion, which we are looking for, there is a mutual recognition that all the churches that are similar in having a true episcopacy, are similar in the sacraments, and are similar in their teachings, rituals or ceremonies peculiar to other churches, or, on the other hand, demand from them the abandonment of what seems us superfluous in them... No, in the communion, which we are looking for, there is a mutual recognition that all the churches that are similar in having a true episcopacy, are similar in the sacraments, and are similar in their faith should be, after its unification, in general Lord, to accept each other in full communion in prayer and the sacraments...” (The Report of the British Greek-Russian Committee, 1882, p. 122). From the point of view of theology, this is a very controversial statement, because the unity of churches without the identity of the sacraments and the creed is converted into an abstraction. It seems that the beginning of globalization was the real cause of efforts. Herewith, maybe, it not was perceived by the participants as the main motive. Scientific and technological progress has accelerated life on the planet. Travel, so dangerous and long before, in the middle of the XIX century, thanks to the steam engine, became much faster and more comfortable, which is why ridership has increased significantly. “The trip across the sea was gradually becoming commonplace, more and more people were breaking out of the closed world of their village, town, community, and were going literally into other people’s worlds. Thus was conceived the modern concept of “tolerance” that required forbearance, in particular, to the characteristics of the religious life of others.

In particular, it was important for the Britain, a maritime power, which had its outposts around the globe and, of course, in large numbers – in countries with prevalence of the population professing Christian faith of the Eastern Orthodox sample. Proof of this is the resolution adopted by the British Greek-Russian Committee, which denotes the next goal of the negotiations: “In consideration of the large number of members of the Church of England, staying in the east, in places very remote from the stations of our chaplains, as well as many of our seamen employed extensive trade in the Levant and the Black Sea, which die there without any opportunity to meet their religious needs on the part of our clergy, the committee finds that the only way to avoid the burial of such persons in unconsecrated ground without a word of Christian hope and prayer may be just the thing to rites Christian burial was made over them by local Orthodox clergy” (Cit. by: Lopukhin, 1882, p. 707). In fact, the goal of the Anglican bishops was pragmatic. Alongside with this objective were chosen the means of interaction – the spiritual assistance to each other in case of emergency, without unity in the dogmas.

At the same time, for the Oriental Churches the union was the visible realization of the Christ covenants about the Church’s unity on earth: “...we have to stretch our hand friendly to the help of God to join together what has been divided, and to fulfill the words of the Savior...” - wrote the Patriarch of Constantinople Anfim to Charles Hale, the Secretary of the North American Greek-Russian Committee (Ecumenical Patriarch Anthimus VI of Constantinople, 1883, p. 354). All messages of Eastern Orthodox hierarchs breathe for this sacred rapture, for example, here is an excerpt from a letter of...
Archbishop Theophilus of Athens: “The desire and prayer of the Episcopal Church in America were the messengers of unspeakable joy... at the sight of rising expectations of fraternal rapprochement and reunification of the Christ’s Churches, which for so long prayed” (Archbishop Theophilus of Athens, 1883, p. 359).

Because of the immediately discovered difference of purposes between the two parties, misunderstanding grew faster and faster. Oriental clergy sincerely did not understand why, officially recognizing the lack of Filioque in the Creed of Constantinople Ecumenical Council (The Report and the Resolution of the North American General Convention of the Episcopal Church in 1874, 1883, p. 374), the Episcopal Church had still not banned it for believers. Anglican bishops, in turn, were genuinely surprised by the persistence of Orthodox clergy in the abolition of Filioque, which, in their opinion, was not a significant item to take risks of calm their communities because of it. Gradually the communication subsided, the Greek-Russian committees were dissolved and soon the Orthodox Church in New York City was closed.

3. Association or merger: the difficulties of definitions of the model of ecumenism of new time

The dialogue about the union between Old Catholics and the Russian Orthodox Church looks quite different. From the beginning, these negotiations did not carry a discernible practical element and had a distinct theological consonance. Old Catholic movement set up on its own after the Vatican I (1869-70) through the non-acceptance of a part of the Catholic clergy the dogmas of the Papal infallibility and of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary3. In Russia the news about the separation of a group of believers from the Roman Catholic Church was met with understanding. There was a kind of party of supporters of association with the Old Catholics; the personality of Johann von Döllinger, one of the leaders of the Old Catholic movement, aroused particular sympathy. J. Döllinger called the divided state of Christianity, especially in Germany, “the great drama of history” and believed that the union of the church was much more natural than the separation (Döllinger, 1888, p. 31). Old Catholic priest Aloysius Anton wrote in 1872: “...we are fully convinced that the Greek Church is much closer than the Roman Church to that ancient church, which is ideal for us and the ultimate goal of our aspirations» (Priest Aloysius Anton, 1872, p. 135).

The affair took an official character: a special commission of the Holy Synod considered the possibility of reunification after the response of the Old Catholics to quaestionum controversarum. Old Catholic clergy, having completed theological research, acknowledged that the major stumbling block to reunification – Filioque – is not a dogma, but a private opinion of some theologians. In 1874 and 1875 Conference on unification held in Bonn, where took part the Orthodox clergy and theologians. In 1875 by Old Catholics was published “Guide to Learning the Orthodox faith in the institutions of higher learning”. Russian supporters of union with the Old Catholics have tried to find a political reasonableness of this act. For example, General A.A. Kireyev wrote to Nicholas, Bishop of Alaska and the Aleutian: “...for us, Russian, Old Catholicism has another special meaning. This is the key to the solution of the Polish question4. If we could move our Roman Catholic Poles – in Old Catholicism, Polish question would be resolved eo ipso» (Kireyev, 1911, p. 1351).

However, the problem of the union between Russian Orthodox Church and Old Catholics remained “in limbo”. The reasons for non placet may have served the active negotiations of Old Catholics with the Anglicans about the union, and also (as in the case of the Anglican Church) the unwillingness of Old Catholics of complete merger with Eastern Church. This is explicitly stated in the “Invitation to the first Bonn Conference” (1874), which was written by J. Delligener: “The immediate aim, which the conference should contribute, there is no all-consuming union (absorptive Union), or complete merger of the various religious bodies (Kirchenkoerper), but the recovery of ecclesial communion on the basis of unity in the required (unitas in necessaritis), with savings and retaining those characteristics of individual churches that do not belong to the essence of the ancient church” (Citi. by: Bolotov, 1893, p. 101). J. Reinkens, Old Catholic bishop, accentuated at the Bonn conference in 1875: “I remind you... that in fact none of us are thinking to move to the Eastern Church” (Citi. by: Ibid.). For the Orthodox churches such an approach was unacceptable.

On the contrary, the dialogue between Old Catholics and Anglicans ended the conclusion of “intercommunion” in the XX century. The material terms of “intercommunion” were the recognition of the independence of each of the parties provided the resolving of the participation of believers in the sacraments. In the context of the article it is important to note: it’s hardly an accidental fact that Old Catholics and Anglicans (representatives of Western Christianity) came to a common understanding of the “unitas in necessaritis”, while Eastern Christians strongly rejected this formulation. It is

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3 The origin of Old Catholic movement dates from the XVIII century. Further information: Sokolov, 1897. However, since the consideration of the beginning and the growth of Old Catholic movement is beyond the scopes of this paper, I will confine myself to the statement of the official separation of the Old Catholics after Vatican I.

4 On the essence of “the Polish question” for Russia, see below.
impossible not to see here the effects of the similar world outlook, due to centuries-old spiritual, geographical, economic, social and political ties, that is what is called a “common historical path” and determines, ultimately, the regional specificity. Under favorable conditions, which created the emerging globalist ideology, the factor of “a common historical path” was stronger than the dogmatic controversies.

4. Metamorphoses of ecumenism in “Roman version”

Without belittling the sincerity of attempts of Anglicans and Old Catholics to unite with Orthodox Church, it should be noted that in all of these negotiations elusively and perhaps even unconsciously, played a motive, other than the above: the desire to join forces against the might of the Vatican. Objectively, in the world of the XIX century only Eastern Orthodox Church, and, in particular, Russian Orthodox Church, could compete with the Vatican – in theology, politics, etc. The undeniable advantage of Orthodox churches was the centuries-old existence without Rome, proved their strength and vitality. It was a real alternative to the Vatican; consequently the seductiveness of the alliance with Orthodox Church looked even more prominent. This elusive desire is articulated most clearly by the Russian general A.A. Kireyev: “…no doubt that the affair of the Old Catholicism and of the Orthodoxy – is one and the same thing, we have the same enemies (the Jesuits) and the same desire... – restoration of church unity, infringed by Rome...” (Kireyev, 1911, p. 1351). In another letter he wrote that the negotiators were on “advanced fortifications against the Roman camp” (Kireyev, 1911, p. 1500).

In its turn, the Holy See in the XIX century was active in their actions to unite with the Eastern Orthodox churches as never before. The documents relating to this period, clearly demonstrate a watershed in ecumenical politics of the Vatican, which appeared with the beginning of the pontificate of Leo XIII. We can see how in a very short time lapse the authoritarian-demanding regime of monologue of encyclicals transformed into a dialogical narration in the spirit of “kinship and intimacy”. In the absolutist paradigm were written the most famous letters of Pius IX: the encyclical «In suprema Petri» (1848) and the Dogmatic Constitution «Pastor aeternus» (1870). The first document, although it promises to preserve the Orthodox Liturgy in the event of reunion, however, places the blame for the schism completely on the Eastern Church. It was written, according to A. Dobroer, in the spirit of “soteriological exclusivism” (Dobroer, 2005, p. 101), offensive to the eastern Christians. Soon there followed a very sharp response by the Orthodox patriarchs. Eastern bishops accused the Bishop of Rome of the thirst for power, as well as the deliberate distortion of the Sacred tradition: “As for the supremacy, about which there was a lot of noise and disputes, to which lays strong claim, which rises and extols and which the Bishop of Rome threatens, as a cloud thunderbolt, then we tell the truth, it does not prove the writings of the Eastern Fathers and the Eastern Church has never accepted that it has the power, as the bishops of the Roman philosophize” (The Reply of the Orthodox Eastern Church, 1849, p. 51). Eastern patriarchs still gave the Bishop of Rome only the primacy of honor, but not the primacy of jurisdiction.

The deep conviction of Pius IX in the necessity and the legality of full power of the Holy See was reflected in the Dogmatic Constitution «Pastor aeternus». In it Pius IX canonized the provisions which were the subject of a centuries-old dispute with the Eastern Churches, namely the supremacy and full jurisdiction of the Successor of the Prince of the Apostles and the priority of the Bishop of Rome in front of the Ecumenical Councils, vowing the ban to all dissenters. Even the canonization of these controversial provisions has been able to cause a storm in the Christian world. But the real odium the document acquired thanks to the famous dogma of the infallibility of the Pope’s statements ex cathedra. The new dogma has not only added the arguments to opponents of the Holy See, but it has also split Roman Catholic Church itself – Old Catholics separated from it, until today they have not accepted “the Papal infallibility”.

However, the merit of abolition of praestantia ritus latini in the official ideology of the Roman Catholic Church belongs to Pius IX. Still, back in the encyclical «In suprema Petri» he wrote: “We shall maintain intact your particular Catholic liturgies; as We value them greatly, even as they differ in some ways from the Latin liturgy. Our predecessors always held them in great esteem due to the venerable antiquity of their origin, the languages employed by the Apostles and the Fathers and in which they written down, as well as the maginifcence of their rites, truly suited as they are to nourishing the piety of the faithful and to imbue them with respect for the divine mysteries” (Pope Pius IX, 1848). At first

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5 Under the term “association of churches” in this section I mean the union of the Roman Catholic and Eastern Orthodox churches, not touching the dialogue between the Vatican and Protestant churches. The Holy See has never refused to accept the Protestants back into the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church, but only under the condition of complete repentance of delusions and acknowledgment of the Vatican’s primacy in matters of dogmas and liturgy. When the question is put so the discourse could be just about the absorption of the Protestant churches by the Vatican, but not about their association.
sight, this detail is important only for historians of the church. However, it really is another step to tolerance in the modern sense.

For all this, the fact that Pius IX remained an apologist for the Latin Canon law prevented the relations with the Eastern churches. In encyclicals «Quae in patriarchatu» and «Quartus supra», addressed to the Chaldean and Armenian Eastern Christian churches, he emphatically declared: “Nor can the Eastern Churches preserve communion and unity of faith with Us without being subject to the Apostolic power in matters of discipline” (Pope Pius IX, 1873). This is an extremely important point to which I will return shortly.

Just 10 years passed since the publication of «Pastor aeternus», and the Holy See published a very different in spirit encyclical «Grande munus». In it Rome appealed to Eastern Christians in the following terms: “We thank God for giving Us this suitable occasion to thank the Slavic people and to effect a common benefit for them” (Pope Leo XIII, 1880). Despite the fact that the text referred to the schism: “May there be constancy in all Catholic men and the will to reconcile all dissidents to the true Church” (Ibid.), however, the tone of the encyclical and the occasion on which it was written (appointment of the special day to honor the memory of the Slavic missionaries Cyril and Methodius, who are significant figures in the pantheon of heroes of the Slavic countries), aroused sympathy to the Pope among Eastern Christians. The encyclical «Grande munus» is seldom considered under such foreshortening, but I believe that, in the context of the history of the Roman Catholic Church, it continued “In suprema Petri", mounting stylistically an accomplished change. Since the “Grande munus” the offensive to Eastern Christians tone leaves the encyclicals of Bishops of Rome.

In 1894 the three “ecumenical” encyclical were published: «Praeclara gratulationis», «Christi nomen» and «Orientalium Dignitas». Among them it is necessary to distinguish the latter. Returning to the issue of priority of the Latin Canon law, it must be said that the encyclical «Orientalium Dignitas» made a real revolution in this matter. Leo XIII recognized the value of the Eastern Church law and declared the opportunity of the priority of specific canons in the Eastern Christian dioceses: “Inasmuch as this diversity of liturgical form and discipline of the Eastern Churches is approved in law, besides its other merits, it has redounded tremendously to the glory and usefulness of the Church” (Pope Leo XIII, 1894). This was the final step in strengthening of the globalist thinking in the church ideology.

The feature of «Orientalium Dignitas» was immediately noticed in the Orthodox world: “...Leo XIII throws off the greatness and acts humility as a “servant of the servants of God”, - wrote A.P. Lopukhin, a Russian writer and theologian (Lopukhin, 1895, p. 112). On the pages of Russian Orthodox press appeared the responses, clearly showing sympathy to the pope, but at the same time they reflected skepticism about the real embodiment of good intentions of Leo XIII: “Some popes might even make formal orders to the need to spare and to respect the ritual features of the Uniates, but in reality the Romanization continues its destructive work, as if such regulations have never existed, because the papacy as the system is infinitely stronger than single popes” (Ibid. P. 115.). The encyclical received the official response of the Patriarchs, which, although in a relaxed expression as compared to the letter of 1849, but it still noted the “spirit of excessive vanity” of the bishops of Rome and declared that as long as Rome did not give up “illegal and contrary to the Gospel innovations”, “all discourses about the union will be idle and vain” (The Patriarchal and Synodal Encyclical letter, 1895, pp. 1, 3).

The sharp response of the Orthodox hierarchs was not just “a tribute to the past”: proselytism of Rome outraged Eastern Christians utterly. The Holy See was accused of Uniatism, during which the “deceitful workers”, transforming themselves into the apostles of Christ, wearing clothes of Orthodox priests» (Ibid.), realized Romanization of Eastern Christian population. Often the process of Romanization was accomplished without the due consideration of religious traditions: the report of Cardinal Langénieux, appointed legate to the Eucharistic Congress in 1893, stated “the triumphalist behavior of the Latin clergy” (Dobroer, 2005, p. 104). The Orthodox observers wrote: “[Roman court] looked at the union, as a temporary deal, as the first step towards full accession of the Uniates to the Roman Church” (Popov, 1868, p. 28). And here we come to consider an essential element of ecumenism of the XIX century – the ideological policy of the Government of the Russian Empire.

5. “Persona sui generis”

Previously Roman ecumenical policy was considered in isolation, as the concentrated form helped to visualize the scale and the true meaning of ideological transformation. However, this analysis is not complete, because it ignores the Vatican relations with Russia – “the blessed” Russian Empire, the largest Orthodox country with a “particularly great and glorious Church” (The Patriarchal and Synodal Encyclical letter, 1895, p. 17), the ideological heir of Byzantium, which played an extraordinary role in the ecumenical movement, setting the tone for the entire Orthodox community.
Despite courtesy of diplomatic correspondence and even the conclusion of the Concordat, in general, the relationship of the Russian Empire and the Vatican in the XIX century can be characterized as follows: à la guerre comme à la guerre. It was promoted by a range of reasons.

First, Russia for the Modern History thought herself a stronghold of Orthodoxy and the guarantor of its rights in the world. It was believed that Rome received the deserved punishment from heaven, while Moscow – the “third Rome” – prospered. Why did, in that case, the thriving “third Rome” was to take something from the “fallen Rome”, not used its historical chance?

Second, the peculiar geographical position of Russia contributed to the permanent state of war because Russia appeared geographically in the role of a “bridge” between Europe and Asia. The reflection of a particular civilizational paradigm of Russia can be seen in the following lines of one of the largest and most popular in the XIX century Russian magazines “Herald of Europe”: “Russian people, from the very first days of its historical existence, defended their national and state independence and the universal church from two enemies: on the one hand, from Asiatic barbarism... on the other – from the Latin West. In this last fight the instigator and leader of the time was Rome» (Popov, 1868, p. 24). Thus, the Roman Catholic Church for Russian rulers meant not just one of the branches of Christianity, but the quintessence of the Western way of thinking. Rome was considered the mastermind behind the Western secular states with which Russia had a difficult relationship. The question of union between Western and Eastern churches, or even just their communication, in fact, was seen as an encroachment on the state sovereignty. As a result, the process of negotiations between Russian Orthodox Church and the Holy See was heavily politicized.

The question of establishing any contacts with the Vatican was seriously considered in Russia after the invitation of German colonists by Catherine II to the territory of the Volga in the XVIII century, as well as after the partitions of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, so that a large number of Catholics became the subjects of the Russian crown. In the effort to prevent the influence of an alien ideology on the Russian mentality, the government did everything to prevent the propagation of Catholicism in the empire. Empress Catherine II issued a decree that before the promulgation papal bulls must have received the approval of the government. The peculiarity of Catholic canon law was the source of strong irritation: “...the Catholic Church within the Russian Empire is a special state, subordinated only to the Pope, and in the affairs of which any other authority can intervene, but to the extent of what the Pope will approve of” (Popov, 1868 p. 33). Imperial absolutism was not going to put up with a “Catholic absolutism”, therefore Paul I created the Roman Catholic Department of the Collegium of Justice, where both were the laymen. After the reorganization the Department was called the Roman Catholic Theological Collegium, then the Department of Religious Affairs of Foreign faiths, but essentially it did not change. Imperial Court considered Catholic priests if not spies, but at least as the “fifth column”, ready to collapse at the worst possible moment, and with good reason: there is historical evidence that during the Patriotic War of 1812 some Russian Catholic bishops supported Napoleon (Tolstoy, 1877, p. 429-430). But the most painful blow was the behavior of some Catholic priests during the Polish uprising of 1830-31: “...ecclesiastics, of all ranks, forgetting the sanctity of their calling, interfered in all the bloody action and were constantly at the head of the revolutionary movement and participated in hostilities” (The Note of the Envoy in Rome on April 20, 1832). This was seen as high treason, after rebellion the tsar government began Russification of Poland, which included, inter alia, the popularization of Orthodoxy.

In the years 1833-75 the vast majority of the Polish Uniate parishes returned to the jurisdiction of the Russian Orthodox Church. In the years 1833-75 the vast majority of the Polish Uniate parishes returned to the jurisdiction of the Russian Orthodox Church.

In spite of the persecution of the Catholic clergy in Poland, the Roman court was forced to follow in the footsteps of the policy of St. Petersburg in the Polish question, because Russia was too strong, so it could not be ignored. Therefore, in 1832, Pope Gregory XVI condemned the Polish uprising. Only in 1867, Pius IX, after a rebellion in Poland and the Russification, anathematized the persecution of the Catholic Church in Russia in the encyclical «Levate». Russian public, considering the “Polish question” as “family affair” (Pushkin, 1941, p. 169), answered in the spirit: ut salutas, ita salutaberis, justifying the right of spreading of Orthodoxy by historical fact of the existence of the Eastern Rite in the Western Slavic lands long before the Catholic and qualifying addition of the Uniate parishes to the Russian Church as the restoration of status quo, broken at the Union of Brest. In response to the allegations in discrimination of Catholicism followed recrimination in two centuries of discrimination against Orthodoxy in the West Slavic lands.

Thus, Russian public, though condemned excessively zealous secular officials who conducted the Russification of Poland, supported the state policy in general, based on the doctrine of “Orthodoxy, Autocracy and Nationality”. Russian scientists, writers, theologians agreed in the opinion that the “secular ambition” (Spichakov, 1872, p. 5) of the Roman...

from the “new model of ecumenism” (Protopriest Razumovsky, 1948). Realized the fundamental difference between “native ecumenism” of the beginning and the first half of the XIX century, of the spiritual power that in the new world was made “use properly”. It is no coincidence that in the XX century was forms of hierarchy, in the direction of the anarchic anti-synthesis of postmodernity. Dogmatic deals led to the dispersion of “Caesaropapism” and “political Arianism” (Solovyov, 1911, pp. 28, 29, 32, 33, 49). Following the publication of his works in the Russian press there began a debate in which opponents of the writer rejected the arguments made by him. In the end, the publicist was perceived as a renegade, a traitor of national interests and more – the traitor of the interests of “universal Christianity”, “evangelical rock”, “mighty bulwark of the truth”, and a sample of the Byzantine autocracy accused of “Caesaropapism” and “political Arianism” (Solovyov, 1911, pp. 28, 29, 32, 33, 49). Following the publication of his works in the Russian press there began a debate in which opponents of the writer rejected the arguments made by him. In the end, the publicist was perceived as a renegade, a traitor of national interests and more – the traitor of the interests of true Christianity, almost heretical, blasphemous to encroach upon the foundation of faith. In the context of the paper, however, the most important point to note is that apologistancy of Roman Catholic Church remained only the very private affair of Vladimir Solovyov. Together with the blamed ideas of Vladimir Solovyov was censured the idea of Churches’ Union in its “Roman edition” – this process seemed as too painful and even catastrophic for Russia’s national identity.

6. Conclusion

The development of the ecumenical movement in the XIX century showed the evidence and the depth of intrusion of the globalist ideology in all spheres of public life. Even the doctrinal dogmas, seemed unshakable for centuries, wavered in front of the power of the new current. Like the “aqua regia”, it transformed irreversibly the concept of “ecumenism”: it began to include not only and not so much a church joining but a kind of universalist worldview, and with a pronounced shade of the “spirit of Protestantism” in the interpretation of Max Weber.

Exclusively church’s movement towards the end of the XIX century turned into a secular in nature, and was fully developed in line with the mainstream. The most definite characteristic feature of it – the tolerance – related it to liberalism6. The emphasis on rationality and legitimacy of relying on scientific evidence (mark neo-Thomism in Roman Catholic Church) allowed to see the features of modernism. But the spirit of ecumenism of end of the XIX century was the closest to post-modernism. The acceptance of differentiated church law – is, in essence, a departure from the rigid forms of hierarchy, in the direction of the anarchic anti-synthesis of postmodernity. Dogmatic deals led to the dispersion of the spiritual power that in the new world was made “use properly”. It is no coincidence that in the XX century was realized the fundamental difference between “native ecumenism” of the beginning and the first half of the XIX century, from the “new model of ecumenism” (Protopriest Razumovsky, 1948).

6 It is noteworthy that S. Aleskerova came to similar conclusions, exploring the ecumenism of the XX century on the other sources. Further information: Aleskerova, 2009.
The starting point of thinking that led to these conclusions is the fact that the ecumenical movement of the XIX century was a double even multi-directional flow, quite different in nature. One of them, we’ll call “traditional ecumenism”, was the continuation of the centuries-old Vatican policy, the essence of which is to try to unite with the Eastern Christian Church under the aegis of the Roman pontiff. The core of the second course was the Anglican Church, focused on the practical aspects of using the advantages of the union. Russian Orthodox Church as a forward of Eastern Christianity was the element of attraction for both flows. A powerful factor that created the conditions for such an active combination efforts was globalization, based on the ideas of Protestantism. The spirit of Protestantism “went to the masses”. In this situation, the “old” churches had no choice but to adapt, with more or less success. Particularly impressive is the transformation of the ideology of the Roman Catholic Church from the end of XIX century: Rome began to talk about parity reunion with the Orthodox Churches, which it considered worthy of honor save in the case of union of the inherent doctrinal bases, especially the liturgy and even of canon law, or at least, a substantial part thereof.

An invitation to a dialogue on an equal footing diverted the churches away from irreconcilable discussions about doctrinal issues of the Middle Ages. This process, on the one hand, contributed to the apparent association of people, on the other – leveled the unique characteristics of each religion: if all religions are equally good, and you can believe in any, why bother to believe in the religious sense? “God the Father” in the public mind split in two, then in three, and in the XX century in even a greater number of names. And all these “little gods” themselves are immeasurably less important and are qualitatively different in nature from the original Christian “God the Father”. Thus, the ecumenical movement, paradoxically, completely secularized the already secularized world.

Aware of planetary meaning of the ecumenical movement, at the same time we must note its regional influence. The conclusion of “intercommunion” between Anglicans and Old Catholics, the spread of the “Latin Christianity” in the Eastern Orthodox European countries (excluding Russia) as though anticipated the idea of the united Europe. Europeans were lighter and easier to neglect the “formalities” in the face of centuries-old of living together in a common area, a stronghold of social, political, economic and cultural ties. In contrast to the Western idea of universalization, in Russia in the late XIX century, won the idea of national identity, that still puts it in a unique position of international relations.

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The Main Structural Patterns of Verbal Phraseological Units In English and Albanian

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Abstract:

This paper introduces a comparative approach to the structural patterns of verbal phraseological units in English and Albanian. The structural criterion brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and especially contrasting them to free word-groups. In the same way as we speak of word patterns, the structure of phraseological units is also based on certain patterns. In this paper we are going to focus on verbal phraseological units which compared to free word-groups have structural stability, semantic unity and figurativeness. Both languages, English and Albanian are very rich in such phrases and share some similarities. Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, as we shall see, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions. The aim of this study is to find out the main restrictions regarding the structure of verbal phraseological units and to give the main structural patterns in both languages. Their structure is contrasted and compared by use of examples in English and Albanian as well.

Key words: verb, phraseological unit, idiom, idiomatic, structure, pattern.

1. Introduction

Phraseological units, or idioms, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language’s vocabulary. Generally, phraseological units are defined as units made up of at least two words, as unique combinations of words not created according to a certain pattern and no other combinations can be created accordingly. Combinatory abilities of phraseological units are different from the combinatory abilities of regular language. This means that elements of idiomatic units can combine only with particular elements. Phraseological units are expressions which have been used over time so frequently that they lose their special features and which many speakers are familiar with. Furthermore, they are characterised by paradigmatic fixity, as elements part of phraseological units are not substitutable in the same place in a particular context.

Word-groups known as phraseological units or idioms are characterised by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image. The term "idiom" is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is, to the ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components. There are many scholars who regard idioms as the essence of phraseology and the major focus of interest in phraseology research. The structural criterion also brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups. Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. (Ginzburg, R.S./ Khiedel, S.S./Knyazeva, Sankin, A.A., 1999)

Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions. First of all, restriction in substitution. As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. At the same time, in free word-groups substitution does not present any dangers and does not lead to any serious consequences. The second type of restriction is the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit. In a free word-group such changes can be made without affecting the general meaning of the utterance. In the phraseological unit to carry coals to Newcastle no additional components can be
introduced. Nor can one speak about somebody having his heart in his “brown” boots. (Ginzburg, R.S./ Khiedel, S.S./Knyazeva, Sankin, A.A., 1999) In fiction, such variations of idioms created for stylistic purposes are not a rare thing. In oral speech, phraseological units mostly preserve their traditional structures and resist the introduction of additional components. The third type of structural restrictions in phraseological units is grammatical invariability. A typical mistake with students of English is to use the plural form of fault in the phraseological unit to find fault with somebody (e.g. The teacher always found faults with the boy). Though the plural form in this context is logically well-founded, it is a mistake in terms of the grammatical invariability of phraseological units. A similar typical mistake often occurs in the unit from head to foot (From head to foot he was immaculately dressed). Students are apt to use the plural form of foot in this phrase, thus, erring once more against the rigidity of structure which is so characteristic of phraseological units. Yet again, as in the case of restriction in introducing additional components, there are exceptions to the rule, and these are probably even more numerous. One can build a castle in the air, but also castles. (Ginzburg, R.S./ Khiedel, S.S./Knyazeva, Sankin, A.A., 1999) It is generally known that word-groups may be generally described through the pattern of arrangement of the constituent members. The term ‘syntactic structure’ (formula) implies the description of the order and arrangement of components as parts of speech. These formulas can be used to describe all the possible structures of English word-groups. We can say, e.g., that the verbal groups comprise the following structural formulas: V+N (to build houses), V+prp+N (to rely on somebody), V+N+prp+N (to hold something against somebody), V+N+V (inf.) (to make somebody work), V+ V (inf.) (to get to know), and so on. The structure of word-groups may be also described in relation to the head-word, e.g. the structure of the same verbal groups (to build houses, to rely on somebody) is represented as to build +N, to rely + on + N. In this case it is usual to speak of the patterns of word-groups but not of formulas. The term ‘pattern’ implies that we are speaking of the structure of the word-group in which a given word is used as its head.

The interdependence of the pattern and meaning of head-words can be easily perceived by comparing word-groups of different patterns in which the same head-word is used. Regarding English and Albanian language, verbal phraseological units with a dependent structure occupy a prominent place. It is the first component in these phraseological units which conveys the meaning of the whole phrase. While the other components give the phrase semantic exactness. A characteristic feature of the English verbal phraseological units is nowadays the use of monosyllabic verbs which denote different actions such as be, get, look, put etc. In addition, some verbal phraseological units have constant dependence of the elements. In most cases, the second constituent may be the name of animal real actions or imagined ones based upon the real relations among men, as in: die like a dog/fight like a lion.

The second component may be a thing, or another type: be like a gas - meter/have a head like a sieve. Other verbal phraseological units are never used to denote man’s actions or state, as in: spread like wildfire/spring up like mushrooms. The construction of the components with constant variants is extended. It is the word “like” which enlarges its scope of variants.

- verbs may be reciprocal, as in: blow like a grampus/puff like a grampus
- nouns may be reciprocal, as in: live like a lord/live like a prince; work like a horse/a slave

These similes are used for man’s actions or to describe one’s state. The number of verbs in verbal phraseological units in English which have got more than one component with constant dependency of elements is greater than in the Albanian language, as in stick to somebody like a leech/stick to somebody like wax or treat somebody like a lord/like dirt/like a dog. All these expressions are used to describe man’s actions or state. What they have in common is their structure with “like” but the substituting elements are not synonyms. Yet, this type of verbal phraseological units can be employed even for expressions like fit somebody like a glove.

Having considered only such verbal phraseological units the second component of which consists of only one word, but there are still other phrases having even two words as the second constituent. We can provide examples both in English and in Albanian: agree like cats and dogs, take to something like a duck to water and in Albanian: u bë si pulë e lagur; ia bëri kurrizin më të butë se barkun.

In other verbal phraseological units, the interdependence of elements is only temporary, as in live by one’s wits. The word - groups of this type function as verbs in a sentence and as such they have some verbal characteristics. One of them is that they denote objective relations. Their structure, being very complicated, can start with simplest pattern: verb + noun as in eat crow or raise Cain - up to mixed types with various elements in between. The verb may be transitive and the nouns may appear with/without the definite article.
There are certain cases, it is true, where the vulgar Saxon word is refined, and the refined Latin vulgar, in poetry – as in Sweat and perspiration; but there are vastly more in which Latin bears the bell. (James Main Dixon, English idioms, 24)

Në fillim ai s’i dha rëndësi kësaj çështje. E dinte që kishte të bënte me një grua konservatore. Po, me kohë, filloi të vriste mendjen. Dhe, kur vendosi se do të ishte më mirë, për çdo rast, të mos shihej më në shtëpinë e tyre, ndjeu përbrenda një lloj brengë… “Këto s’janë shenja të mira, mor çunak”, mendoi me vete. (Shefqet Musaraj, Para agimit, 34)

In English language, the indefinite article is also used:
The uneasiness of the Forsyte family has been justified by the simple mention of the hat. How impossible and wrong would it have been for any family, with the regard for appearances which should ever characterise the great upper middle-class, to feel otherwise than uneasy. The author of the uneasiness stood talking to June by the further door; his curly hair had a rumpled appearance as though he found what was going on around him unusual. He had an air, too, of having a joke all to himself. (John Galsworthy, The Forsyte Saga, 7)

In verbal phraseological units in Albanian, the verb may be followed by a noun, which in contrast to English is not preceded by an article.

Heshtje. Nga jashtë u dëgjua një këngë: këndonte peshkatari që kish mbaruar së shkarkuar peshkun. Ata të dy mbajtën vesh dhe e dëgjuan gjer në fund. Së u sha nga këngë e peshkatantar, u dëgjuja një cëcëmë cëri që endej nêpër oborr dhe çukiste me sçep fijet e barit midis mrasave. (Mitrush Kuteli, Vepra letiare 3, 100)

A transitive verb can be followed by a plural noun:

“Do you know, there appears to me to be really immense merit in that work?” and, in short, that people of condition had absolutely taken pains to bring him into fashion. (Charles Dickens, Little Dorrit, 251)

Two plural nouns can be used in the structure of verbal phraseological units after a transitive verb (V+ N+N):

They didn’t guess what was going to happen, of course; still, they had their suspicions of the Wild Wood animals. Now I come to the most painful and tragic part of my story. One dark night – it was a very dark night, and blowing hard, too, and raining simply cats and dogs - a band of weasels, armed to the teeth, crept silently up the carriage-drive to the front entrance. (Kenneth Grahame, The wind in the willows, 254)

Ju keni të drejt, moj shoqeni, po, gjersa ne vetë nuk e kemi mbledhur mendjen t'i shtrohemis, pa menduar orë e çast si e qysh të lorgohemi nga fshti, me anë martesash në qytet s'kemi sy e qafe të kritojmë qytetarkat si për shembull gruan e kryetarit, që nuk duan të vijnë në fshtat. (Jakov Xoxa, Juga e bardhë, Vol. II, 30)

A pronominal form may be present in the dative case in Albanian referring to a direct or an indirect object which is not part of the idiomatic expression. The noun which is a component of the idiomatic expression may be singular or plural:

Po s‘mbajtët dor verën, num mban dot as ngjallët e dhjamur qillonë të gjolit të Naforës, o myzeqar!... – tha Pavuloja. – Ngjalla nuk do dhalla... Ha ngjala e pi dhalla, si në Myzeqe, të fryhet barku dhe të bèn llëng-lëng, si matarja e qemështit në kurizin e labit që shet bulmet nëpër Naforë. Gjersa na i paska vënë syrin në karnavale një vajze të vetme, pa motër e vëlla, ai duhet të hyjë dhëndërr brenda e të bëhet naforiot, se nuk ia isp njeri nuse... (Jakov Xoxa, Lulja e kripës së egër, 211)

Gurija priste me tmer e krupë se ç’dohet më tej. Ah, sikur të kish një pus aty pranë, një greminë, që të hidhej, të vdiste... Vetëm të ndodhje sa më larg këtij divani të butë, larg Xheladin Beut të rrezur, të lemerishëm, që e shërëngonte, gufonte, kafshonte. Mirëpo ndërkaq beut i që shuar zjarr i rrezur një çast më parë në damarët e fryrë. Ju prënë këmbët, u zverdh, u ngrys dhe e largoi vetë, duke e kqyrur me ca sy të skuqur, të kërcyer. (Mitrush Kuteli, Tregime të zgjedhura, 147)

Some other common patterns in English are:
• verb + adjective + noun
  eat humble pie
• verb + definite article + noun in genitive
  grind the faces of the poor
• verb + pronoun (indefinite possessive) + noun
  pull somebody’s leg
• verb + a + adjective + noun + noun in genitive
  show a clean pair of heels
• verb + one’s + own + noun
  have one’s own way
• a whole sentence as in:
  kill the goose that lays (laid) the golden eggs.
• give + somebody + noun
  give somebody the cold shoulder
• verb in the infinitive
  have other fish to fry

In many cases they are used only in the negative form, as in: not to lift a hand. The negative particle not may pertain to
the second element as well: see no farther than one’s nose. In
Albanian, the negative particle nuk just as the English
one not is often used:

nuk shtihet në dorë
nuk e prishi gjakun
nuk çan kokën
nuk shkel në dërrasë të kalbur

But in the English group of verbal phraseological units not is part and parcel of the word group. Whereas in Albanian nuk
may or may not be used as the sentence may be in negative or in the affirmative, as in kot e prishi gjakun ai or s’e prish
gjakun kollaj Shaqoja jo!

Other verbal phraseological units have substituting variants, especially variants of the verbs, as in: accept something at
its fare value or take something at its fare value. Many examples could show the fact the verbs have got so many
synonyms as their counterparts, like - achieve one’s end – where the verb achieve can be replaced by
‘attain’/’gain’/’secure’ one’s end:
“i must tell you that if you use such methods you’ll never gain your ends”.

Various prepositions are part and parcel of different structures in the verbal phraseological units. The most common
patterns are:

• verb + preposition + noun:
  a light on the lure
  appear before the footlights
  appeal to the country

• verb + preposition + one’s + object:
  arrive at one’s finger ends
  attend upon somebody’s leisure
  beam in one’s eye
The same phraseological unit may take two different prepositions having no change in the meaning, as in: anchor one’s hope in – anchor one’s hope on. The position of the preposition is not stable within one and the same expression in English:

see on which side the bread is buttered
see which side the bread is buttered on
see which side the bread is buttered

The following are the most common and frequent prepositions which enter into collocation with various phraseological structures:

about: have a millstone about
above: Keep one’s head above water
according to: cut one’s coat according to one’s cloth
against: knock one’s head against a brick
at: take the tide at the flood
before: put the cart before the horse
by: take the bull by the horns
from under: cut the ground from under somebody’s feet
in: take one’s life in one’s hands
into: knock somebody into the middle of next week
off: carry somebody off his feet
on: hit the nail on the head
out of: take the words out of somebody’s mouth
over: throw one’s cap over the wind mill
to: add fuel to the fire
under: think under fire
up: have something up one’s sleeve
upon: cast one’s bread upon the waters
with: take a hard line with someone
without: make an omelette without breaking eggs

The Albanian language does not lag behind in this respect, too.

në: e la në baltë
nëpër: merr nëpër gojë
me: e bëri me shëndet
nga: heq nga mendja
ndër: i ra ndër këmbë

The verbal phraseological units expressing adverbial relations are few in English, fewer than in Albanian:

be up one’s neck in something
dance on a volcano
drag in by the head and shoulders
fall between two stools.

In Albanian, vij vërdallë, vij rrotull etc:

Ja, këto gjëra i vinin vërdallë në kokë së bijës së Nures, atje në mëzhdën që ndante arat e Gjatollinjve nga arat e Gjomadhëve. Vruogi ballin, rrah te mbushë me zhubra, po më kot: sepse zhubrat e sjellin yetet e jo dëshirat. (Mitrush Kuteli, Tregime të zgjedhura, 74)
They often take a direct object as in:

Bota, e zbardhëlyr nga shënditjet e faqes së kënetës, i erdhi rreth e rrotull, si rrotë mullirë, mbytur në atë pahun e imtë e të artë të miellit. Mblodhi fuqitë që i kishin mbetur, i mbërtheu me dhëmbë në nofullat e shtrënguara, që të mos i shkonin huq, dhe, duke i dhënë vërtëk shpatullës, e vërtiti beun, në kënetë dhe vetë, i lehtësuar në shpinë e në zemër u mbështet të këmbëve. (Jakov Xoxa, Lumi i vdekur, Vol. II, 84-85)

The verb within the structure of the phraseological unit may be in the passive:

Dëgjo, bujer, - i tha, - kontratat i ke zotrote, nuk i kemi ne. Zotrote ke fitimet, pra zotrote paguaj gjobat. Me ne s’ke kontrata. Po të mos kesh leverdi, na dëbon menjëherë, siç bëre atë motin e krizës. Ty s’të bëhet vonë për ne. As mua. (Mitrush Kuteli, Vepra letrare 3, 387)

It is typical of the verbal phraseological units in English to replace the noun in the genitive with the ‘of phrase’, like: bang something into somebody’s head – bang something into the head of one.

In some verbal phraseological units there also exists the possibility of the verb substitution as a result of synonymy. The same happens with the adjectives. In the following examples, the noun is replaced by other nouns which are not synonymous, yet they denote all one and the same notion:

- bring one’s eggs to a fair/fine/wrong/pretty market
- bring one’s hogs to a fair/fine/wrong/pretty market
- bring one’s goods to a fair/fine/wrong/pretty market
- bring one’s pigs to a fair/fine/wrong/pretty market
- come to a fine/pretty mess

Moreover, the verbal phraseological units have found their way in the everyday speech; for instance, the verb ‘care’ in ‘not to care a fig/a rap/a snap’ is always used in its negative form. An adjective may often serve as an attribute to the nouns – not to care a damn rap or not to care a damn rap to it. The numeral, too, can be used in colloquial phrases, as well as in Standard English:

- care two hoots/pins/straws
- carry two faces under one’s hood

Concluding remarks

Word-groups and phraseological units possess not only the lexical meaning, but also the meaning conveyed mainly by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. A certain parallel can be drawn between the meaning conveyed by the arrangement of morphemes in words and the structural meaning of word-groups. It can be recalled that two compound words made up of lexically identical stems may be different in meaning because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the stems. As we saw from the corpus-based examples above not only the order but also the substitution of one of the elements in both languages may lead to semantic differences or to entirely different phraseological units.
References


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 Ghavamie, 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 shows 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 shows 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 struggling 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
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 is 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 (reporting of )

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 specialist 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.

Reference
