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About the Conference

The 4° ICHSS 2014 is organized by MCSER-Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research in cooperation with the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Montenegro and the Academy of Knowledge of Budva. 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 fourth edition of the ICHSS is held in Budva on May 01 and June 01, 2014.

Vision of the conference

The 4° 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; Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Montenegro; Academy of Knowledge –Budva.

Publications

All papers presented in the 4° ICHSS 2014 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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The Impact of Housing and Basic Service Delivery on Low-Income Communities in South Africa: The Case of the northern Free State Region

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Abstract
This article investigates the impact of the provision of housing and basic services on poor communities in the northern Free State (NFS) region of South Africa. Service delivery and housing backlogs in poor communities have led to an increase in violent protest marches throughout the country. Poor communities seem frustrated with the rate of service delivery since the election of the first democratic government in 1994. A community household survey, which included 2 900 households, was conducted in 2013 in the NFS region and included twelve poor communities. The regional result was compared with four selected poor communities in the region, namely Moakeng (Moqhaka Local Municipality), Qalabotjha (Mafube Local Municipality), Tumahole (Ngwathe Local Municipality) and Zamdela (Metsimaholo Local Municipality). The impact of delivery of basic services and housing were analysed regarding poverty levels, as well as the relationship between the concepts of poverty and service delivery. Results of the survey indicate that 75.9 percent of the households reside in formal subsidised houses with high levels of ownership but a relatively low average monthly household income of only R1 458 ($140/month) relating to high levels of poverty. Only 35.6 percent of all households surveyed are of the subjective opinion that local government delivers quality services. More detailed results per specific area are analysed and discussed in the article. The results could play an important role in development policy formulation and policy adjustment. The results should also be taken into account in the formulation of local economic development (LED) plans for the areas under investigation with a focus on the benefits of housing delivery and associated basic services. Improved service delivery must be promoted by means of improved coordination between all spheres of government.

Keywords: service delivery, housing provision, local government, poverty, northern Free State region

1. Introduction

After twenty years of democratic government, South Africa still faces endemic levels of unemployment, poverty and inequality as identified in the National Development Plan (NDP) (Republic of South Africa, 2011). “Endemic and wide spread poverty continue to disfigure the face of our country. It will always be impossible for us to say that we have fully restored the dignity of all our people as long as this situation persists” (Mbeki, 2006). More than 50 percent of South African households live in poverty, and in most cases, these households lack the basic services required to live a quality life. According to Statistics South Africa (2014), the poverty level in 2009 was 56.8 percent, which has decreased from 57.2 percent in 2006. Housing and basic services play a vital role in meeting the basic needs of poor communities. Housing provides the security required for a household to function and is a requirement for alleviation of poverty (Mamba, 2006).

In 2005, Clark and Qizilbash did a study in poor areas of South Africa and respondents were asked what basic needs are most required to survive by poor households. As a result of the survey, basic needs were ranked. Subsequently, housing ranked the highest priority, followed by food, water, jobs, income, clothes, education, health care, electricity, safety, transport, family, sanitation, and infrastructure. As could be expected, luxury activities such as sports, recreation and leisure activities were not ranked as high-level priorities for the poor (Clark & Qizilbash, 2005).

Huge backlogs related to housing and basic services still exist in South Africa due to mainly the apartheid history. In 1994, with the establishment of democracy in South Africa, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was released as a guiding policy document. Already then, the provision of basic infrastructure was identified as a key priority for the reconstruction of the county and improvement of quality of life (ANC, 1994). Post-apartheid development policy in South Africa has focused on the effective and efficient delivery of basic services, especially to those that historically have been deprived of services such as water, sanitation, housing, electricity and health services (CSIR, 2012). Housing is seen as one of the main basic needs for survival of the poor. Service delivery since 1994 has been impressive, taking into account the massive backlogs, with the implementation of a number of pro-poor policies such as
housing subsidies, and free basic water and electricity.

However, urbanisation has left large urban communities without basic services (Alexander, 2010). President Zuma's government is fully aware of the importance of providing and resolving these backlogs. In his State of the Nation Address (SONA) in 2011, he stated that although many poor people have received services, many are still waiting for housing and basic services (Zuma, 2011). Government has to create an enabling environment for all, including for the poor, to allow access to opportunities through the provision of housing and basic services. Access to such services is still lacking, especially in rural areas. The South African housing policy states that all citizens should have access to basic services, irrespective of their locality (Mamba, 2006).

Due to the unresolved service delivery backlogs, the number of protest actions has increased drastically over the last few years in South Africa. From mid 2013 up to end of April 2014, the country had an average of approximately four anti-government protests a day, and most protests are violent in nature. The country seems to be witnessing the development of a protest movement of poor communities showing their anger and frustration at the service delivery performance of government. Since 1994, living standards of all communities have improved through massive service delivery projects, but according to the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), this has led to a theory of rising expectations. The service delivery improvements have led to increased living standards but unemployment has increased. The poor communities are still poor and caught up in a vicious cycle of poverty. A mindset with applicable expectations. The service delivery improvements have led to increased living standards but unemployment has increased. The poor communities are still poor and caught up in a vicious cycle of poverty. A mindset with applicable policy amendments is needed. The unemployed are now looking at government to provide jobs, which is not a pure government function (SAIRR, 2014). The eradication of poverty is also one of the key priorities of the South African government. Various government policies have been introduced to improve the welfare of poor households, including access to housing and basic services (SAIRA, 2010).

This article aims to investigate the impact of the provision of housing and basic services on poverty in a typical, poor South African township. The geographical focus of the article is on the poor communities in the northern Free State (NFS) region of South Africa. Approximately 2,900 poor households were interviewed as part of the qualitative section of the research.

2. Conceptual Background

The provision of housing for low-income communities has a vital role to play in allowing households to function, and is essential for human development. Housing provides both environmental services such as clean water and energy, and locational services with access to opportunities and social facilities (Marais, 1998; Stewart, 1997). Housing with basic services improve the physical welfare of the poor, assist with entrepreneurial activities, builds an asset base, allows privacy, strengthens social relations, status improvement, and control over the local environment (Pynoos, 1973). Housing with basic services also has an impact on the quality of parenting and social factors. Homelessness can lead to problems such as illness, neglect, injuries, family separation, and impaired academic functioning (Crowley, 2003).

According to Harber (2009), service delivery as a concept is not neutral. Service delivery includes a host of assumptions, policies and promises. Governments make election promises on service delivery, which in most cases, they cannot achieve. Government needs to deliver, and communities need to receive, services. The World Bank (2003) recognises there is no template for successful service delivery, but places the overall responsibility of making services work on the state, especially for poor communities.

"Poverty reduction is not only about meeting our basic needs, it’s about participation, influence and power" (Sundqvist, 2009). Poverty is defined as a failure to achieve certain minimum basic needs or capacities (Sen, 1999). Shaffer (2008) defines poverty as the deprivation of material requirements for the minimum acceptable fulfilment of basic needs. The existence of poverty is a multi-dimensional problem, which includes the meeting of basic needs (SPI, 2007).

Poverty entails more than a lack of income, as it exists when an individual or household has inadequate access to income, jobs, infrastructure and basic services. Poverty is caused by a combination of variables including social, economic, spatial, environmental and political factors (Muller, 2003). Recent poverty alleviation strategies have focused on the provision of basic needs rather than merely attempting to raise incomes (Tomlinson, 2007). Poverty could be measured in many ways, and individuals may base their self-perceived subjective poverty on a number of factors, which may include lack of access to basic services, lack of access to land and housing, poor health facilities, lack of income and employment (Statistics South Africa, 2012a).

Housing delivery and transfer of ownership to the poor is seen by De Soto (2000) as a strategy to lift people out of poverty and giving them access to assets. Allocation of assets leads to the opportunity of entrepreneurship and the creation of wealth. Table 1 is a summary of important developmental and service delivery data for South Africa, the Free State province and the NFS region, which forms part of the Free State. Low levels of human development (HDI) and
literacy still exist, although these have improved slightly over the last 20 years of democracy. The levels of inequality are still relatively high if compared to most African and developing countries. The level of service delivery is relatively high and in general, the levels of service delivery are better in the NFS region than in the rest of the province and South Africa.

Table 1: Key developmental and service delivery data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>Free State Province</th>
<th>Northern Free State (NFS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HDI</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gini-coefficient</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy levels</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>74.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households connected to sewer systems</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>78.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households receiving weekly refuse removal services</td>
<td>Na</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households connected to piped water</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of households connected electricity</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Global Insight (2012) and StatsSA (2012b)

In South Africa, a total housing backlog of 2.1 million units exists, affecting approximately 12.5 million people. The Department of Human Settlements is responsible for housing provision for the poor. People with an income of less than R3 500 ($333.00) per month can qualify for housing assistance by means of a housing subsidy. The NFS regional housing backlog was 40 000 units in 2000 and reduced to 34 000 in 2010. A total of 83.1 percent of all housing units in the study region consist of formal housing (Republic of South Africa, 2014; Housing Development Agency, 2012).

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research approach

The approach followed was first, a literature review, which served as the theoretical basis of the research and secondly, a quantitative household survey in poor communities, as part of the empirical component of the research. Findings and recommendations were deducted from the literature review and the empirical phases of the research.

3.2 Sample

A quantitative research approach was used to collect data by means of a community household survey in the NFS region during January 2013. The region is located in the Free State province and directly south of the Gauteng province. The Vaal river forms the northern boundary of the region. The region is also known as the Fezile Dabi District Municipal region and includes the local municipalities of Mafube, Metsimaholo, Moqhaka and Ngwathe, as well as the regional authority known as the Fezile Dabi District Municipality. The region could be described as a rural region with major rural towns such as Sasolburg/Zamdela, Parys/Thumohole, Kroonstad/Moakeng and Frankfort/Namahadi. The household survey focused on twelve poor communities in the NFS region and approximately 2 900 households were included.

For the purposes of this study, four of the twelve poor communities were compared in terms of housing delivery and basic services. The four communities Moakeng (located adjacent to Kroonstad), Qalabotjha (located next to Villiers), Thumohole (located near Parys) and Zamdela (located next to Sasolburg). As a rule, a 10 percent sample was selected per poor community. Households in the study area were selected randomly from the various areas. In the analysis of the survey, households were compared in terms of level of poverty, income, housing delivery and subjective perceptions regarding basic service delivery. The results for the total region, as well as for the households in the four selected communities are presented.

3.3 Instrument and procedures

Primary data were collected by means of a questionnaire, which was developed based on a comprehensive literature review. The questionnaire comprised various sections, which include demographics, income and expenditure, perceptions of government service delivery, life satisfaction, skills levels and employment aspects of poor people.
Specific questions regarding this article include the type of housing, housing ownership, housing subsidy received and subjective perceptions regarding basic services as provided by the specific municipality.

3.4 Ethical considerations

Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, the specific ward councillors and local community leaders were approached with a request to conduct the study in the area. After permission was granted, potential participants were approached. In addition to a verbal explanation of the purpose of the study, they were also provided with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study. Once informed consent was obtained from the participants, the procedure to complete the questionnaire was outlined. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. They were also informed that participation was voluntary and they could withdraw at any stage from the study without any repercussions.

3.5 Data analysis

The survey data were captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 software package. Descriptive statistics were used to report on the data. Pearson’s chi-square test was applied in order to determine the existence of significant differences between the two groups in the study area (households below the poverty line and households above the poverty line).

4. Results

4.1 Poverty status

The poverty status of households was calculated using the international US$2 per day, per person, poverty line. To establish a poverty line for individuals in the household, the $2 was multiplied by 30 (average number of days in a month) and then by the exchange rate of R11.00 to $1. The monthly poverty line for an individual was calculated and set at R660 ($62.90) per month. Of all the households in the NFS region, 74.2 percent are classified as below the poverty line, while 25.8 percent of households are classified as above the poverty line. The average income per household was established at R1 458 ($140) per month, which confirms the relative low-income levels in the study area. It should be mentioned that even the households above the poverty line are just marginally above the poverty line and are mostly poor. Therefore, the total study area is regarded as a poor area. Table 2 provides a summary of the poverty lines in the study area. Poverty levels are high in the study area within the communities as surveyed. The Qalabothla community had the highest poverty levels with 81.3 percent of households below the poverty line, while Zamdela had the lowest poverty level of 65 percent of all households below the poverty line.

Table 2: Poverty lines in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Percentage of households below poverty line</th>
<th>Percentage of households above poverty line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>79.3</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates household size and income levels per household in the study area. The average household size in the study area is 3.8 people per household. Household size and poverty levels are related, and this relationship is evident from tables 2 and 3. Larger households relates to higher levels of poverty. For example, the Qalabothla community had the largest household sizes on average of 4.1, and also the highest levels of poverty in the study area. Qalabothla had the lowest average income per person at R316 ($30.10) per month while Zamdela had the highest income levels at R484 ($46.10) per person per month.
Table 3: Household size and income per household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Number of households included in survey (n)</th>
<th>Household size</th>
<th>Average household income ($ value in brackets)</th>
<th>Average income per person ($ value in brackets)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>2921</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>R 1 458.00 ($140.20)</td>
<td>R 393.68 ($34.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>R 1 297.00 ($124.70)</td>
<td>R 316.34 ($30.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>R 1 170.00 ($112.50)</td>
<td>R 325.00 ($31.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>R 1 696.00 ($163.10)</td>
<td>R 484.57 ($46.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>R 1 496.00 ($143.85)</td>
<td>R 383.59 ($36.83)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Housing provision

According to StatsSA (2012b), urban formal housing comprised of 28.2 percent for the total NFS region, compared to 68.3 percent for urban informal housing. The study area, comprising of only poor communities, had higher levels of formal housing due to the housing subsidy scheme for the poor. Table 4 indicates housing types and ownership per area. Overall 75.9 percent of households reside in formal dwellings and only 19.0 percent in informal dwellings (shacks) in the study area. Qalabothla had the highest percentage of people living in formal housing units, mostly due to the housing subsidy system for poor households, as it is the poorest community in the area.

Table 4: Housing type and ownership in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Housing type</th>
<th>Housing ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal house</td>
<td>Shack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>87.3</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates the relationship between housing type and poverty lines. A total of 73.1 percent of households below the poverty line reside in formal housing, while 83.9 percent of households above the poverty line live in formal housing. A total of 20.9 percent of households living below the poverty line reside in informal structures, while only 13.6 percent of households above the poverty line live in shacks. A significant statistical difference exists between the households living below and above the poverty line with regards to the type of housing with a chi-square of 37.72 and a p value of 0.000. The Qalabothla area is the only area that did not show evidence of the difference between the two groups.

Table 5: Housing type and poverty lines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Households below poverty line with formal housing (%)</th>
<th>Households above poverty line with formal housing (%)</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>73.1</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>37.72</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>7.178</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>7.868</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>9.710</td>
<td>0.084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates the relationship between property ownership and poverty lines. A total of 83.3 percent of households below the poverty line have ownership, while 89.7 percent of households above the poverty line have property ownership. A total of 16.6 percent of households living below the poverty line have no property ownership, while only 10.1 percent of households above the poverty line have no property ownership. A significant statistical difference exists between the households living below and above the poverty line with regards to property ownership with a chi-square of 59.58 and a p value of 0.000. The Tumahole area is the only area where no significant difference was recorded between the two groups.
Table 6: Property ownership and poverty lines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Households below the poverty line with property ownership (%)</th>
<th>Households above the poverty line with property ownership (%)</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>59.58</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>90.2</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>24.51</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>33.139</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>1.666</td>
<td>0.948</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 indicates the relationship between housing subsidy received and poverty lines. A total of 38.7 percent of households below the poverty line received housing subsidies, while 46.5 percent of households above the poverty line received housing subsidies. A total of 61.3 percent of households living below the poverty line did not receive housing subsidies, while only 53.5 percent of households above the poverty line did not receive housing subsidies. A significant statistical difference exists between the households living below and above the poverty line with regards to housing subsidy received with a chi-square of 29.08 and a p-value of 0.000. For the study area, significant differences exist between the two groups, but for individual areas the relationship between housing subsidy and the impact on poverty levels are not clear.

Table 7: Housing subsidy received and poverty lines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Households below the poverty line with housing subsidy (%)</th>
<th>Households above poverty line with housing subsidy (%)</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>29.08</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>1.779</td>
<td>0.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>40.302</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>18.196</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Service delivery

This section of the research analyses the subjective perceptions of the poor communities in the study area, with regard to service delivery by the various municipalities in the region. Table 8 provides information on the subjective perceptions of poor households in the study area on service delivery. Generally, households are of the opinion that poor service delivery exists in the study area. A total of 51.0 percent of households are of the opinion that poor services are provided while only 35.6 percent feel that service delivery is good. The communities of Zamdela and Tumahole are most dissatisfied with service delivery in the area. These two communities are characterised by ongoing violent protest action focused on poor service delivery in the area by the municipality.

Table 8: Subjective perceptions of service delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Subjective perception of households: Local government is providing good services delivery (%)</th>
<th>Subjective perception of households: Local government is providing poor services delivery (%)</th>
<th>Uncertain (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 provides an indication of which basic services are most lacking in the study area. The overall perception of poor households is that housing is most lacking, followed by water, electricity and medical services. The individual communities have similar perception of which services are most lacking in their areas. Housing has been prioritised as
the highest rated basic need in the study area.

Table 9: Basic services most lacking in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Basic service lacking most (subjective household perception) (%)</th>
<th>Basic service lacking second most (subjective household perception) (%)</th>
<th>Basic service lacking third most (subjective household perception) (%)</th>
<th>Basic service lacking fourth most (subjective household perception) (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>Housing (27.7%)</td>
<td>Water (20.1%)</td>
<td>Electricity (18.3%)</td>
<td>Medical access (10.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>Water (37.7%)</td>
<td>Medical access (17.4%)</td>
<td>Housing (14.5%)</td>
<td>Parks and recreation facilities (12.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>Electricity (33.2%)</td>
<td>Medical access (14.7%)</td>
<td>Sewer (13.9%)</td>
<td>Housing (11.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>Water (45.2%)</td>
<td>Housing (20.1%)</td>
<td>Electricity (14.1%)</td>
<td>Medical access (8.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 indicates the relationship between perceptions on service delivery and poverty lines. A total of 35.3 percent of households below the poverty line are satisfied with service delivery, while 37.1 percent of households above the poverty line are satisfied with service delivery. From the above it is clear that no significant statistical difference exists between the households living below and above the poverty line with regards to perceptions on service delivery, with a chi-square of 5.938 and a p value of 0.430.

Table 10: Perceptions of poor and non-poor households in relation to service delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Service delivery perceptions of households below the poverty line indicating good service delivery (%)</th>
<th>Service delivery perceptions of households above the poverty line indicating good service delivery (%)</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>5.938</td>
<td>0.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>9.580</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>1.938</td>
<td>0.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>4.071</td>
<td>0.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>1.866</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 gives an indication of the perceptions of households in relation to which component of service delivery the study are lacks the most. Significant differences exist between the perceptions of households below and above the poverty line, with a chi-square of 51.530 and p-value of 0.000. For households below the poverty line, housing is the service most lacking, followed by water, electricity and sewerage. For households above the poverty line, electricity is most lacking followed by housing, water and medical access.

Table 11: Perceptions of service delivery components most lacking in relation to poverty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Service delivery component most lacking for households below the poverty line (listed in order of priority, top four services only)</th>
<th>Service delivery component most lacking for households above the poverty line (listed in order of priority, top four services only)</th>
<th>chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All poor communities in study region</td>
<td>Housing, water, electricity, sewer.</td>
<td>Electricity, housing, water and medical access.</td>
<td>51.530</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qalabothla</td>
<td>Water, medical access, housing and parks.</td>
<td>Water, housing, medical access and parks.</td>
<td>14.470</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moakeng</td>
<td>Housing, education, electricity and water.</td>
<td>Housing, water, electricity and sewer.</td>
<td>21.35</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamdela</td>
<td>Electricity, medical access, housing and sewer.</td>
<td>Electricity, sewer, medical access and parks.</td>
<td>29.84</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumahole</td>
<td>Water, housing, electricity and sewer.</td>
<td>Water, housing, electricity and medical access.</td>
<td>13.092</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Discussion

In theory, the provisions of housing and basic services for the poor assist with poverty alleviation and wealth creation. In South Africa, a massive service delivery programme has been implemented. Although significant backlogs still exist, the programme, in coordination with a social-welfare programme, has resulted in improved quality of life for the poor. These safety net programmes were necessary due to the legacy of apartheid, but government has not placed enough focus on job creation and has left poor communities in a vicious cycle of poverty. Housing and basic services are key basic needs components, but does the provision thereof impact positively on poverty reduction?

In the study area, the more rural communities are poorer than the more urban communities, which are located closer to the economic hinterland of the Gauteng province. For example, the Qalabothla community is the poorest of the four communities included in this article. This community is located more than two hour’s driving time from the centre of Gauteng province. In comparison, the Zamdela community has the highest average income per household and is located less than one hour’s drive from central Gauteng.

Results of the survey indicate that the majority of households have received housing and basic services in the study area. More households living above the poverty line than households living below the poverty line in the study area reside in formal subsidised housing. This indicates that housing delivery can assist in poverty alleviation and be part of a local economic development strategy. Housing allows for household security and ownership of physical assets. For poor households, the allocation of assets leads to the creation of wealth and security. The results show that provision of housing for the poor, through subsidies, is necessary and has an impact on poverty reduction.

Although the study area has been part of a large scale basic services roll-out programme, the majority of the households are of the opinion that service delivery is of poor quality. Only 35 percent of all households interviewed are of the opinion that good quality basic services are provided. Consistent with the results of the study by Clark and Qizilbash (2005), which indicated that housing is the main basic need for the poor, housing is the basic need and service provided by government that is most lacking in the study area. Other essential basic services that are also lacking are water, electricity and medical services.

No significant differences were found in the survey between households living below the poverty line and households living above the poverty line regarding receptions of service delivery by local municipalities in the area. The two groups of households have however, different perceptions regarding which basic services lack most in their specific communities. Households living below the poverty line focus more on basic essential services, while households living above the poverty line focus more on higher level services such as electricity and medical services.

6. Recommendations and Conclusions

This study has found that housing provision and service delivery can have a positive impact on poverty levels and should be used as a strategy as part of a local economic development (LED) plan as was also confirmed by De Soto (2000). Benefits of housing delivery to the poor are multi-dimensional. It allows beneficiaries access to assets and wealth creation, can create jobs through construction and maintenance, allows for skills development, provides decent shelter as part of a basic needs approach, it is usually accompanied by infrastructure, facilities and basic services, and allows poor people dignity. The provision of housing can serve as a safety net and the improvement of the quality of life for poor communities. Good service delivery, including housing and basic services, remains central to the actualisation of a meaningful life and a quality of life for residents of poor communities. Improved services are linked to an increase in the dignity of the poor (Nleya, 2011).

Policy reforms are required with a paradigm shift from the delivery of large scale free basic services to job creation and deregulation of the local economy (SAIRR, 2014). The pace of basic service delivery and momentum must be maintained, but needs to be accompanied with rapid economic growth at no less than 5 percent per annum (compared to the current growth rate of 2.0%). Government’s economic development policies contradict the overall goal of increased economic growth and stand in the way of higher growth rates. Some policies are hostile to investment and entrepreneurship such as the Employment Equity Act, the Labour Relations Act and the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) regulations. Reforms are needed to focus on deregulating the economy to remove the constraints on development and investment (SAIRR, 2014).

According to Fjeldstad et al. (2005), government, and especially local government, has specific problems regarding service delivery. Improvements are required concerning the following aspects at the local government/municipal sphere. Capacity needs to be increased regarding strategic planning focused on LED, housing and service delivery. The different powers and functions allocated to the different spheres of government need to be re-evaluated. Local government has...
been struggling to deliver basic services over the last decade. For example, LED is a local function, but are regarded as a luxury by most municipalities and are therefore not sufficiently budgeted and planned for. Housing delivery is on the other hand a provincial function, but most people blame municipalities for lack of housing provision. Improved public participation will assist in improved communication and will allow the public to understand better the process and functions. Closer cooperation is required between municipalities and provincial authorities. Municipalities should use service delivery and infrastructure development as a poverty reduction strategy and use service delivery as a safety net for the very poor. Local government, as the sphere of government closest to the people, has to play a significant role in the needs assessment of local communities, and the planning, provision and maintenance of basic services. It is also local government’s duty to identify basic need gaps in poor areas, and to provide for such needs.

According to Gumbo (2014), the housing delivery process for low-income communities needs re-evaluation due to the slow and complicated process. It should be changed from the traditional process of from planning, to service provision, to construction, to occupation, to the proposed process of starting with planning, then allowing occupation on an informal basis, then construction of formal housing and lastly, the provision of basic services.

Municipalities should improve on the process of integrated planning by ensuring that the poor section of the community has access to services and economic opportunities by means of effective spatial planning actions.

In conclusion, the aim of the article was to investigate the impact of housing provision and service delivery on poverty. It is interesting to note that both housing and basic service delivery improves the level of poverty, but it also improves the quality of life of poor communities. However, housing and basic service delivery without job creation will not lead to a substantial reduction of poverty.

References

ANC see African National Congress.
CSIR see Council for Scientific and Industrial Research.
SAILR see South African Institute of Race Relations.
SAIRR see South African Institute of Race Relations.
SAIRR see South African Institute of Race Relations.
SALGA see South African Local Government Association.
SPII see Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute.
StatsSA see Statistics South Africa.
Survey data. (2013). Results of a community survey conducted amongst households in the northern Free State region, January 2013 coordinated by D.F. Meyer.
With or Without a Computer? Do You Want to Play with Me?

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Abstract

The new technologies are increasingly crucial in all areas. The computer and other technological devices, the communication and information systems, can bring us great benefits, facilitating and streamlining many of our common tasks and activities. We highlight the importance of computer in learning and, particularly, in leisure/recreational activities. In what extent children prefer to play, and communicate, via computer, tablet or other device? Do they easily dispense technological means, choosing to play in social interaction and direct contact? Do they prefer to be at home, at school, at the park or in another natural environment? We intend to verify the importance that children attribute to the computer and how they like to use it, either in the context of learning, retrieving information, doing homework, or in recreational terms. The major objective of this work is to verify to what extent the computer is important in the personal, emotional and social development of children, by the way they use it in their duties, games and daily interactions. We conducted an exploratory study with a population of boys and girls, attending the first four years of schooling. Data were collected within the scope of focus groups and individual interviews. Most children consider that the computer is significant both in study as in the interaction with friends, and many prefer to be online, playing games or exploring virtual worlds, than being offline, doing any sport, talking or hanging out with friends, in outdoor activities. The way children represent and use the computer, help us to better understand the risks they run and the benefits that virtual worlds offer.

Keywords: Children, computer, internet, playing, learning, information, social networks, social interaction, games.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, children use the computer as an essential tool for their well-being and fun, navigating in virtual worlds with ease and practical sense, in search of knowledge, emotions and experiences.

What we want here is to assess whether children prefer a life in contact with nature, with other children and without a computer, or if on the other hand, prefer to spend all the time they can in front of a computer, searching for information or participating in online games, many times with violent or inappropriate contents for their age group, running various risks, particularly in social networks.

The way children look at the computer and what it relates to this machine, may help us to better understand both the risks children run as well as the benefits that virtual worlds can provide them, and the reason for their choice.

Panqueva (1997) argues that, contrary to what many educators think, fun is not childish. Between six and twelve years old children are in the middle of their cognitive, personal and social development (e.g. Oliveira, 2008). They are very curious with the modern information and communication technologies that surround them. Sometimes we can even speak of an obsession of children which reveal an extra motivation for the use of computers, consoles, tablets, mobiles and other objects of technological nature.

The traditional model of education, centered in the figure of the teacher - responsible for the transmission of knowledge to the student - despite fulfill their role, it is unlikely that it can form professionals which may be able to respond to all the challenges in the new global scenario (Kuri, 1998). It is up to us adults, the task of guiding the use of the computer and assures that children are using it in an assertive way.
1.1 School in Portugal

Since a long time the role of the school is no longer a mere transmitter of knowledge. Today, it is imperative that students realize what means to learn, being more independent, learning to apply the knowledge in new contexts, and developing a love of learning. Educating is more than imparting knowledge: we must teach students the way how they can learn, in order they may feel prepared for a lifetime of learning (Harb et al., 1991).

Students should regard the school as a place where they can learn and acquire skills in order to develop adequate competences in social, personal and cognitive terms. The school should be the place where students, with teacher's assistance, can build their knowledge and acquire new skills, becoming increasingly independent. Nowadays, children have access to all kinds of information and the truth is that is through technological means that they can search for everything they want or about what they feel curiosity. Thus, the teacher must have to open the classroom to new technologies, making the teaching process more interactive, attractive and interesting for their students, fostering their interests and preferences.

Computer use in the classroom should be seen as a very important aid for the cognitive development of students, without exceeding the teacher's role. The computer allows the use of educational methods more dynamic, interactive and attractive, arousing in the students the desire to seek for diverse information, and to participate effectively on their own process of teaching and learning (Lima, 1996).

1.2 E-learning

Distance education constitutes a paradigm shift compared to traditional classroom education. Students and teachers also have to make changes in their roles. The responsibility of the students about their learning, increases, and it require a more active stance. Meanwhile, teachers become facilitators of the process, by ensuring conditions for students to achieve their goals.

In distance education, with or without some classroom time, students usually are part of a heterogeneous group that may be dispersed, in geographical and temporal terms, with students living with different economic, social and cultural situations (Scapin, 1997). The capacity of learning and the knowledge of each student may also differ. The teacher has to know and respect these differences. A problem often stems from the fact that students are accustomed to classroom teaching, and can feel great difficulty in studying from their own individual effort. But the teacher can foster motivation and help students develop skills involving independence and initiative.

A system of distance education success involves the interaction between teachers and students, between students and the learning environment, and between students themselves. However, distance education cannot be seen as a substitute for traditional classroom education (Nunes, 1994). Both forms of education are needed, and when combined, they complement each other to provide better results (e.g. Moran, 1994).

2. Objective

The main objective of this study was to evaluate to what extent the computer is important in social and emotional development of children (playful part of children's life).

3. Method

We conducted an exploratory study with a population of fifteen boys and girls, between nine and twelve years old, attending the first four years of schooling. Data were collected within the scope of two focus groups and individual interviews.

Some of the questions under discussion were the following:

- If you have the opportunity to choose, do you rather play with friends on the computer, or without a computer - in direct/personal contact?
- If you are in direct contact with colleagues/friends, do you prefer to be at home, in the street, in the park, in the playground, in the garden or another natural environment... where...?
- Do you prefer to play on the computer, tablet, cell phone, playstation or other electronic device?
- Do you usually play online? How often?
- Do you prefer to chat/talk/communicate with friends directly (in person) or through a computer, tablet, cell phone, playstation or other device?
What are the software/programs you use to communicate with others through the computer (facebook, skype, google, etc)?

Could you dispense the usual technological means, in your day-to-day, preferring instead to play or interact (directly) with your colleagues/friends?

Do you prefer to be on the computer or being in contact with nature (eventually, walking in a natural ambient)?

Would you rather be alone on the computer or with someone else?

If you are accompanied, who would you choose to be with you?

And who sits with you, more often, on the computer?

How do you use the computer? To play, study, watch videos, conduct research, or...?

How much time do you spend on average, daily, on the computer? Alone or accompanied? If accompanied, then, by whom?

Do you like to study and do homework on the computer?

To what extent do you think the computer will help you learn?

What represents the computer for you?

Can you easily imagine yourself living without using the computer regularly?

Do you have a cell phone?

Do you have net access and do you surf the net with your cell phone?

Next, we will focus our attention particularly in some of these questions.

4. Main Results

After analyzing and categorizing all responses, in terms of thoughts, ideas and opinions expressed by the participants in this focus group (N = 15), we established the main categories or dimensions resulting from these analyses. The findings for these dimensions are summarized on Tables 1 to 18. In each table, we show the main subcategories we have found for the respective category or dimension, the results within each subcategory - in terms of frequency and percentage - and also the results obtained according to the sexual group or gender (boys ♂ and girls ♀).

Table 1 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension

If you have the opportunity to choose, do you rather play with friends on the computer, or without a computer - in direct/personal contact?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Play without computer</th>
<th>Play with computer</th>
<th>Play with friends</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33 %</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many children prefer to play on the computer - whether they play alone or play with some friend - than play with friends, offline (cf. Table 1). In this respect, girls differ from boys because they give greater importance than boys, to be with friends, and play with them. Boys, in particular, give greater emphasis to the computer and do not disassociate this machine from his playful side, associated with several games, both those playing online, in interaction with other players, as to other types of games. When speaking with these young people, we easily verify that the entertainment component is undoubtedly the one to which the boys give a stronger importance. However, when faced with the possibility of playing without a computer, young people prefer to be on the street or play in the park with friends rather than staying at home or going out in the garden (cf. Table 2).

Table 2 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension

If you are in direct contact with colleagues/friends, do you prefer to be at home, in the street, in the park, in the playground, in the garden or another natural environment?...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Being home</th>
<th>Being on the street</th>
<th>In the park</th>
<th>In the garden</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27 %</td>
<td>54 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td>46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34 %</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The children who like to spend more time at home, they wish, where possible, use the computer or rather the
playstation, in the case of boys - to play all kind of games (cf. Table 3). From our group conversation with these children,
also stressed out the pleasure for playing online – games which are often war games, strategy games, platforms or
sports. Girls tend to choose lighter games than boys, and they use the tablet more often than boys do. These results also
lead us to admit that most students usually are alone when they play on the computer. About half of the students referred
they just play on the weekend. It is clear that boys like to play more than girls - preferably every day, if they can. In fact,
there is only one boy who says he does not usually play online, but we do not find any girl who admits to play every day
(cf. Table 4).

Table 3 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you prefer to play on the computer, tablet, playstation, cell phone or other electronic device?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Playstation</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Tablet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47 %</td>
<td>40 %</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you usually play online? How often?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1x /week</th>
<th>Weekend</th>
<th>Everyday</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47 %</td>
<td>53 %</td>
<td>100 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Girls prefer, clearly, speak personally with their friends, while boys prefer to use the computer, particularly Facebook, to
chat with friends. Girls, more than boys, favor direct contact with friends, face to face, or through a video chat. If girls are
using the computer also like to use Google, with frequency, and Skype (cf. Tables 5, 6).

Table 5 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you prefer to chat/talk/communicate with friends directly (in person) or through a computer, tablet, cell phone,
playstation or other device?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Talk in person</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
What is the software/programs you use to communicate with others through the computer (Facebook, Skype, Google,
etc)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Facebook</th>
<th>Google</th>
<th>Skype</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Children, especially boys, reveal a sort of dependence on the computer and technological means, not dismissing these
means in their day-to-day, unlike girls. Girls prefer touring or being in contact with nature - preferably with some friends -
than staying home to play online (cf. Tables 7, 8).
Table 7 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Could you dispense the usual technological means, in your day-to-day, preferring instead to play or interact (directly) with your colleagues/friends?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Maybe</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you prefer to be on the computer or being in contact with nature (eventually, walking in a natural ambient)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Play on computer</th>
<th>Being in touch with nature</th>
<th>Wander</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the boys we spoke to, all like to be alone on the computer. Rather, most girls like to stay accompanied. When we ask them to tell us whom they prefer to stay, they answer they like to be with the father or mother; their siblings are also a good alternative (cf. Tables 9, 10).

Table 9 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Would you rather be alone on the computer or with someone else?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Alone</th>
<th>Accompanied</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>54 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
And who sits with you, more often, on the computer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Father/Mother</th>
<th>Brother/Sister</th>
<th>Cousin</th>
<th>Grandfather</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As already noticed, the boys want to use the computer mainly to play. Instead, most girls like to use the computer principally to study, in benefit of their learning process. However, the majority of young people in our sample agree that the computer really helps to learn, so they like to study, search for information and do the homework with the computer. However are the girls who best recognize the significant role of the computer in the process of teaching and learning (cf. Tables 11, 12, 13, 14).

Table 11 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
How do you use the computer? To play, study, watch videos, research, or…?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Play</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Everything</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
To what extent do you think the computer will help you learn?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Help me to learn everything</th>
<th>Help me to search for information</th>
<th>Help me on homework</th>
<th>Does not help</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>5 33 %</td>
<td>2 13 %</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>5 33 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>10 66 %</td>
<td>3 20 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
What represents the computer for you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Search</th>
<th>Play</th>
<th>Learn</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Life</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>2 13 %</td>
<td>5 33 %</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 13 %</td>
<td>4 27 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>2 13 %</td>
<td>7 46 %</td>
<td>4 27 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you like to study and do homework on the computer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>7 46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>8 54 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>15 100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In accordance with what has already been determined (cf. Table 7), the boys seem to depend more on the computer than girls, because no boy can imagine to live without a cybernetic machine. In any case, 80% of our young respondents make use of the computer, on average, one hour per day, and would have difficulty living without being able to use regularly (cf. Tables 15, 16).

Table 15 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Can you easily imagine yourself living without using the computer regularly?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7 46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5 34 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12 80 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
How much time do you spend on average, daily, on the computer?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>30m /day</th>
<th>1h/day</th>
<th>1h30m/day</th>
<th>Just on weekend</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>3 20 %</td>
<td>4 26 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>54 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>4 26 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>4 27 %</td>
<td>8 52 %</td>
<td>2 14 %</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, it should be added that most of these children have a mobile phone and uses that technology frequently to access the Internet and social networks (cf. Tables 17, 18).

Table 17 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension
Do you have a cell phone?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>6 40 %</td>
<td>1 7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>3 20 %</td>
<td>5 33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>9 60 %</td>
<td>6 40 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 18 – Main sub-categories associated to the category/dimension

Do you surf the net through your cell phone?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♂</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40 %</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♀</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>46 %</td>
<td>53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Technology is everywhere and in almost everything. Nowadays we barely could survive without technologies, information and telecommunication. In fact, over time, computer use became increasingly common. It is something with who we have to live in the most diverse contexts, situations and circumstances. Through the Internet, we can transcend the physical space, meet and talk with people far away without leaving home, writing text with moving images and peculiar sounds, look to an infinite range of photos, draw and at the same time, listening to music or watching videos, shopping, establish relationships in virtual communities, participate in chats, consult the bank statement, pay bills, ... or simply read some news in real time. Anyway, work and play are mixed up in cyberspace.

The computer is present in the lives of modern child and can sometimes affect the construction of their identity. In the beginning, the child sees the computer primarily as something that allows you to play and have fun. Over time, and as his identity is developing, the child look at the computer as an important resource for their learning and as an essential working tool, in the near future.

The technologies and computers can greatly foster the process of teaching and learning. The problem in Portugal is that the introduction of computers in education has generated resistance and created controversies that undermine the proper introduction of these means, and the possible beneficial consequences, in terms of education (e.g. Almeida, 2001; Mercado, 2002; Moraes, 2000; Oliveira, 2008; Valente, 1993). Initially some teachers felt insecure, not only by the need to adapt to new situations and invest in their training, but also by the fear of being replaced by machines.

However, there has been an effort integrate and generalize, in the classroom (in addition to the traditional means of teaching), the use of IT tools, educational software, audiovisual and multimedia technologies, and virtual platforms - using e-learning - in order to improve conditions of education and provide students with good learning conditions, raising their attention and autonomy. The teacher's role is also to relearn how to learn, and change qualitatively. More than an expert in the learning process, the teacher should encourage the development of skills, skills, intelligence, attitudes and values.

In this study we found that children enjoy using the computer and feel more motivated to learn when the computer is part of their daily lives. Between 9 and 12 years old, children very often use the computer with entertainment purposes (playing online, browsing through social networks, viewing videos and photos), and most of the time they are alone and with no adult support.

Indeed, all young people interviewed by us, use computers in different situations, namely to do their homework. However, while boys overestimate the playful function of the computer, and the computer as a tool to play online (with other friends with whom they communicate online, frequently through Facebook), girls prefer, when possible, have a direct or personal contact with friends, enjoying the opportunity to walk and be in contact with nature, using the computer, preferably to make some research for information and to study (targeting their learning). Most consider that could not live well without a computer, and this is much more noticeable, particularly, in the case of boys. Socialization is also increasingly done through virtual means, with all the implications that might ensue.

We all need to become more attentive to the signs of the times, as fathers and as teachers. Future teachers may undertake specific training in order to know how to correctly use all the potential that a computer has. They can thus better monitor their students and make teaching and learning more engaging and interactive, helping the children in their development.

References


Exploring the Possibilities for Quality Improvement:
An Internal Customer Perspective

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Abstract

Surveys of service quality are usually based on the analysis of external customers’ expectations and perceptions, neglecting the attitudes and expectations of internal customers. However, internal customers have a very important role in the service quality system, especially in the service industry. In higher education, the role of internal customers is particularly important. Service quality in higher education depends mainly on the competences and performance of the faculty. Accordingly, the main goal of this study is to explore internal customers’ perceptions of service quality in higher education and to define possible quality improvements. Higher education service quality is analysed using a modified SERVQUAL instrument, adjusted for the higher education context. Exploratory factor analysis is used to define key service quality dimensions. Furthermore, the results are compared based on personal and institutional characteristics. In addition, this study includes an analysis of faculty satisfaction with the working environment and working conditions at higher education institutions. The results provide useful information for the management of higher education institutions, which can be used in the design and customization of quality plans aimed at fulfilling the needs and expectations of their internal customers.

Keywords: service quality, internal customer, customer satisfaction, higher education, Croatia

1. Introduction

Service quality is usually related to customer satisfaction. The most important customers of an organization are its external customers or consumers. However, the role of internal customers is equally important, especially in the service industry. Internal customers, or employees, may have significant impact on the service provisioning results and external customers’ satisfaction.

The human interrelationships that shape customers’ expectations and perceptions dominantly affect quality (Behra & Gundersen, 2001). More engaged faculty and students are important determinants of education quality (Newswier & Borrego, 2009). Faculty engagement and commitment create a culture and an environment that encourage student involvement. Faculty who challenge their students to solve more complex problems and who collaborate with students on their projects create an environment that encourages student involvement and, consequently, improve student learning outcomes. The behaviour of the faculty shapes students’ approach to learning, which then affects students’ outcomes (Nelson Laird et al., 2008). The faculty’s service quality perceptions and job satisfaction influence students’ satisfaction and results. Therefore, it is important to measure and strive to improve internal customer satisfaction.

The aim of this paper is to explore how faculty perceive service quality and to examine the level of their satisfaction with their job and working environment. The findings of the study provide valuable insight into quality improvement initiatives for HEI management.
2. Literature Review

In the higher education system, the role and responsibility of faculty is very important. Their behaviour and attitudes affect the HEI results (Ryan et al., 2011), and their approach to teaching affects students’ approach to learning (Trigwell et al., 1999). Job satisfaction drives faculty’s effectiveness and attitudes. Satisfied faculty are more involved in teaching and extracurricular activities, creating a favourable environment for the development of positive faculty-student interactions. Moreover, faculty satisfaction is related to students’ engagement, results, cooperativeness, promotion, and research publication (Rosser, 2004). Therefore, faculty satisfaction is a significant determinant of HEI service quality and students’ learning outcomes.

Faculty satisfaction consists of the level of their satisfaction with students, colleagues, and management (Rosser, 2004). Among faculty, a high level of satisfaction with their students is related to their overall job satisfaction. Other determinants of faculty satisfaction include earnings, working conditions and regulations, and job security. Ryan et al. (2011) showed that the most significant determinants of faculty job satisfaction are the job itself, earnings, relations with management, quality of and relations with students, and institutional culture and climate. Chen et al. (2006) developed an employee satisfaction model for higher education that includes the following concepts: HEI vision, respect, motivation and feedback, management system, earnings and benefits system, and working environment. They found that employees in higher education are focused on high earnings and a fair promotion system. Snipes et al. (2005) concluded that job satisfaction includes satisfaction with management, job, earnings, promotion opportunities, colleagues, and customers.

Rosser (2004) stated that the perceived quality of the working environment has a significant influence on faculty satisfaction and consists of individual characteristics, job-related issues, and satisfaction. These constructs affect faculty behaviour and their decision to leave or keep the job. Chang et al. (2010) examined whether the support provided to the faculty influenced their effectiveness. In their study, support for the faculty consisted of teaching resources, administrative support, and expert support. Effectiveness was measured using a course design, strategies for teaching, technology in teaching, class organization, interpersonal relationships, and an examination system. The authors confirmed a positive but weak relationship between perceived faculty support and teaching effectiveness.

Evidently, faculty satisfaction has a very significant influence on HEI service quality and students’ results. Previous studies showed a positive effect of faculty satisfaction on faculty effectiveness and behaviour (Rosser, 2004). These attitudes and behaviours shape the organizational culture at the HEI. The faculty culture, including their roles and expectations, affects students’ learning and engagement (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). This culture moderates students’ perceptions of their outcomes, knowledge, and practical skills. According to some studies, faculty have the most significant influence on students’ study experience (Umbach & Porter, 2002).

Snipes et al. (2005) conducted research on 351 employees and 8667 customers of higher education to determine the specific aspects of job satisfaction with the most significant impact on perceived service quality. Their results showed that managerial efforts related to internal customer job satisfaction, such as perceptions about the job, may have the most significant influence on service quality compared with other satisfaction aspects. Earnings, potential awards, and operations have lesser influence on service performance compared with internal aspects of faculty satisfaction. Thus, the results indicate that faculty who are more satisfied with their customers provide a higher level of service quality. From the management perspective, to improve service quality employment, the selection of candidates should focus on those who are more customer-oriented.

Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009) pointed out that faculty satisfaction leads to higher quality in tangible aspects. Moreover, faculty satisfaction positively affects two quality dimensions: academic and access. These two dimensions include the attitudes, behaviour, and competencies of the faculty and are closely related to their satisfaction. Furthermore, faculty satisfaction moderates the behaviour and effectiveness of faculty and consequently influences students’ results (Rosser, 2004). Faculty behaviour can influence the following students’ results: intrinsic motivation (Chang et al., 2010), active and collaborative learning (Wolf-Wendel et al., 2009), engagement and results (Chang et al., 2010; Kember, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005), and students’ satisfaction (Trivellas & Dargenidou, 2009). Faculty satisfaction moderates the attitudes and behaviours that significantly shape students’ behaviours and engagement and simultaneously affect the quality of the higher education service.

3. Research Method

3.1 Survey instrument

Service quality is usually measured with the SERVQUAL (service quality) instrument. This instrument measures a
customer’s expectations and perceptions by using 22 items for each variable (Parasuraman et al., 1985). The analysis of the SERVQUAL results divides service quality into five dimensions: tangibles, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, and empathy. Critics of this approach argue that it is not necessary to measure expectations because these are already included in customer’s perceptions (Grönroos, 2001). Thus, based on the perception-only approach, the SERVPERF (service performance) instrument was developed. This instrument is a modification of SERVQUAL and includes only 22 items related to customer’s perceptions. Some researchers have shown that SERVPERF is a better instrument for measuring service quality (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Firdaus, 2006b), whereas others have demonstrated that both instruments are valuable and useful (Bayraktaroglu & Atrek, 2010; Brandon-Jones & Silvestro, 2010; Brocado, 2009).

Based on the service performance paradigm, Firdaus (2006a) developed an instrument for measuring service quality in the higher education context, which is called HEdPERF (higher education performance). This instrument consists of 41 items that measure five service quality dimensions: nonacademic, academic, reputation, access, and study programmes. Because HEdPERF has proven to be reliable instrument for measuring higher education service quality, it was used for the purpose of this study. The instrument items are presented in Appendix 1. Along with the questions in the HEdPERF instrument questions, the research questionnaire included items related to satisfaction with job and with working environment. These items were modified according to Snipes et al. (2005).

3.2 Sample

The survey was conducted by using an online questionnaire administered in all HEIs in Croatia from May to October 2012. In total, 821 academic staff from 93 HEIs answered the questionnaire. At that time, there were 133 HEIs in Croatia. Thus, most of the HEIs in the country were included in the research. Of the 821 respondents, 44% were males and 56% were females. Almost all of the respondents (95%) were full-time employees at the HEIs and came from public HEIs (90%). Regarding work, the respondents were from the fields of social science (31%), technical science (24%), humanities (13%), biomedicine and health (9%), biotechnology (9%), natural science (9%), interdisciplinary studies (3%), and arts (2%).

3.3 Methods

Principal component analysis (PCA) on the HEdPERF items was done with PASW Statistics 18. A Likert scale with values ranging from 1 to 7 was used, with 1 representing complete disagreement with the statement and 7 indicating complete agreement with the statement. Principal component analysis was used to define key service quality dimensions in Croatian higher education based on faculty perception. Prior to implementing the PCA, we checked the suitability of the collected data for factor analysis. After inspecting the correlation matrix, we found the existence of a large number of correlation coefficients equal to or more than 0.3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin criteria, with a value of 0.963, and Bartlett’s test, which was shown to have a statistical significance of 1%, supported the suitability for factor analysis of the data collected through the survey.

The second part of the analysis included structural equation modelling based on the partial least squares (PLS) algorithm. All estimations in this study were conducted with the SmartPLS 2.0 software (Ringle et al., 2005). Estimations were conducted on mean-centred data by using the path weighting scheme. Pre-modelling activities included a thorough explorative data analysis. PASW Statistics 18 was used to check the normality of the data and to calculate other descriptive statistics. This analysis enabled an examination of the relations between perceived service quality dimensions and faculty satisfaction with job and with working environment.

4. Analysis and Results

Principal component analysis revealed the existence of five components. The solution with five factors explained 60.95% of the total variance in faculty perception of service quality. To interpret the solution with five factors, an oblique rotation of factors was implemented, given that the correlation matrix of the components showed a correlation with individual absolute values of 0.3 or above. The factors selected in the analysis were: academic, which included the accountability of academic staff at HEIs; nonacademic, which included items related to the accountability of nonacademic staff at HEIs; facilities of the HEI; access, which included counselling services and service approachability and reliability; and reputation of the HEI.
Table 1. Results of the PCA analysis – Service quality dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service quality dimensions</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Nonacademic</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Access</th>
<th>Reputation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explained variance</td>
<td>42.96</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>4.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (standard deviation)</td>
<td>5.56 (0.94)</td>
<td>5.31 (1.19)</td>
<td>4.39 (1.15)</td>
<td>5.36 (1.06)</td>
<td>4.92 (1.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of items per factor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, all service quality dimensions have a Cronbach’s alpha value above 0.7. The alpha values were also calculated for satisfaction dimensions. For faculty job satisfaction, the alpha value was 0.89; for faculty satisfaction with work environment, it was 0.79. Faculty perceived the academic dimension to be the most satisfying attribute of service quality, followed by access and the nonacademic dimension. HEI facilities and reputation were the worst-performing dimensions. The factor structure is slightly different from that in the original research conducted by Firdaus (2006a). According to the results shown in Appendix 1, faculty connected many items related to the study programmes with the HEI reputation, whereas facilities were separated from reputation. Moreover, some items that were included in the access dimension in the Firdaus research were included in the academic dimension.

Table 2. Results of the PLS analysis – model fit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Redundancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonacademic</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working environment</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We then assessed the reflective measurement model (Table 2). The composite reliability (CR) scores for the reflectively identified exogenous and endogenous constructs indicated high internal consistency. The average variances extracted (AVE) were close to or exceeded the cutoff value of 0.5, thus indicating sufficient convergent validity. Furthermore, the constructs met the Fornell-Larcker criterion of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2009). An examination of the absolute standardized outer loadings further revealed a sufficient level of indicator reliability. Although not all the loadings exceeded the cutoff value of 0.7, scores above 0.5 can be considered acceptable when the respective constructs are measured by other indicators as well (e.g., Chin, 1998).

Table 3. Results of the PLS analysis – path coefficients and significance testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Sample</th>
<th>Sample Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T Statistics</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic -&gt; w.e. satisfaction</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access -&gt; w.e. satisfaction</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>6.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities -&gt; w.e. satisfaction</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonacademic -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonacademic -&gt; w.e. satisfaction</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation -&gt; w.e. satisfaction</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w.e. satisfaction -&gt; job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>16.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 shows the path model and relationships in the proposed model, and Table 3 provides information about the significance of the proposed relationships between focal variables. The results indicated statistical significance for most of the proposed relationships. All four service quality dimensions were shown to affect faculty satisfaction with the work
environment. The strongest influence existed between working environment satisfaction and access, reputation, and nonacademic dimension, whereas the relationship between other service quality dimensions and working environment satisfaction was weak. Overall job satisfaction was positively related to HEI reputation, access, and nonacademic dimension. Job satisfaction had no significant correlation with facilities and academic dimension. However, these influences may be indirect, moderated by faculty satisfaction with the working environment. Among the service quality dimensions, the most important determinant of job satisfaction was institutional reputation, followed by access and the nonacademic dimension. Overall job satisfaction was driven mostly by satisfaction with the work environment.

Figure 1. Relationships between service quality and faculty satisfaction – path diagram

There are several limitations to this study. First, the results of the study refer to the Croatian higher education system and cannot be generalized to other populations. Moreover, the study is based on the subjective assessment and perceptions of faculty, which may have an impact on the results. For example, faculty might have assessed the academic dimension with the highest ratings because it is related to their responsibilities, performance, and competencies. Third, this study includes an assessment from only one customer group in the higher education system. More relevant conclusions can be drawn if assessments from other customer groups (e.g., students, graduates, administrative staff, and employer representatives) are included.

5. Conclusion

Internal customers are a very important link in the service quality chain. In the higher education system, the role of internal customers is especially important. Their behaviour and approach to work may affect students’ results and satisfaction. Moreover, their research activities and scientific achievements increase the HEI reputation. Satisfied faculty are a source of competitive advantage because only satisfied employers can achieve excellent results. Therefore, it is extremely important to evaluate faculty satisfaction and perceptions about higher education service quality.

In this study, faculty assessed the academic, access, and nonacademic dimensions as the most satisfying, whereas facilities and reputation received the lowest ratings. However, faculty related some access items with the academic and nonacademic dimensions, and study programme items were included in the reputation dimension. Another surprising result was faculty’s assessment of facilities and reputation. The HEI infrastructure and facilities depend on institutional strategy and budgetary constraints, and faculty cannot initiate changes in this service attribute. However, faculty have a significant amount of freedom in creating and reviewing study programmes. Keeping this in mind, the management of Croatian HEI must encourage faculty to regularly monitor and update their courses.

To enhance service quality, managers in the Croatian HE system should focus on improving facilities and building up institutional reputation. Given the decreasing government funding due to the poor economic situation of the country, HEIs can seek other funding sources through cooperation with industries and business communities. This cooperation may have a positive effect, not only in obtaining investment in facilities but also in enhancing the HEI reputation and faculty satisfaction. Moreover, increased marketing activities are needed at Croatian HEIs in order to emphasise the good practices that are being implemented.

All service quality dimensions have significant positive impact on faculty satisfaction. The key drivers of faculty
satisfaction are institutional reputation and access, and satisfaction with working environment. A stimulating working environment has a higher influence on overall faculty satisfaction. Accordingly, the HEI management needs to ensure good working conditions and encourage collaboration and teamwork. The implementation of proposed service quality initiatives may help the management of Croatian HEIs to achieve their quality management goals and improve their performance. Furthermore, enhanced faculty satisfaction will positively influence their reputation (which was one of the lowest-performing service quality dimensions). To conclude, by focusing on the satisfaction of internal customers, institutions may achieve their service quality goals and improve their reputation and performance.

References


Wolf-Wendel, L., Ward, K., & Kinzie, J. (2009). A Tangled Web of Terms: The Overlap and Unique Contribution of Involvement,

**Appendix 1. Rotated Component Matrix – Service quality dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service quality dimension</th>
<th>Nonacademic</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Reputation</th>
<th>Access</th>
<th>HEI facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The administrative staff communicates well with students.</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrative staff shows a positive work attitude towards students.</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrative staff provides caring and individual attention.</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When a student has a problem, the administrative staff shows a sincere interest in solving it.</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquiries/complaints are dealt with efficiently and promptly.</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When the staff promise to do something by a certain time, they do so.</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrative staff has good knowledge of the systems/procedures.</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration offices keep accurate and retrievable records.</td>
<td>.712</td>
<td>.335</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The opening hours of administrative offices are convenient for students' needs.</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrative staff is never too busy to respond to a request for assistance.</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.317</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff shows a positive attitude towards students.</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff allocates sufficient and convenient time for consultation.</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When a student has a problem, the academic staff shows a sincere interest in solving it.</td>
<td>.786</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff deals with students in a caring and courteous manner.</td>
<td>.768</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff communicates well in the classroom.</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff provides feedback about students' progress.</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff are highly educated and experienced in their respective fields.</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff has the knowledge to answer students' questions related to course content.</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are treated equally and with respect by the staff.</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.330</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff ensure that they are easily contacted by telephone.</td>
<td>.350</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff respects the student's confidentiality when (s)he discloses information to them.</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.433</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are given a fair amount of freedom.</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution offers highly reputable programmes.</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution offers a wide range of programmes with various specialisations.</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution offers programmes with a flexible syllabus and structure.</td>
<td>.669</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution runs excellent-quality programmes.</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class sizes are kept to a minimum to allow personal attention to students.</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution's graduates are easily employable.</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students feel secure and confident in their dealings with this institution.</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>.463</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution has an ideal location with an excellent campus layout and appearance.</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution operates excellent counselling services.</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.385</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution has a professional appearance/image.</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.432</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution encourages and promotes the setting up of a students' union.</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services are adequate.</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution has a standardized and simple service delivery procedure.</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.349</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution values feedback from students towards improving its service performance.</td>
<td>.379</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.497</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution provides services within a reasonable/expected time frame.</td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The hostel facilities and equipment are adequate.</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic facilities are adequate.</td>
<td>.709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational facilities are adequate.</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The academic staff is never too busy to respond to a student's request for assistance.</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Tourist-Environmental Assessment of Përmet District, Traditional Food Processing and the Typical Products of the Area

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Abstract

The district of Permet is situated in the southeast of Albania and has a surface of 929 km2. The town of Permet is also known as the Town of Roses. Permeti district is located within the bay of a valley permeated by Vjosa river and is surrounded by high mountains with special flora and fauna of the zone. Worth mentioning are also the huge natural parks of great interest, like the Fir Trees of Hotova and the sources of hot sulphurous water. Apart from these, there are also numerous monuments of great historic values, including many churches, monasteries of the Byzantine period, archaeological ruins and remnants of the Turkish rule (castles, bridges, etc.). Another aspect that makes this valley special is the typical agro-alimentary characteristics. The typical agricultural products of the zone are of high quality; we can especially point out the viticulture, arboriculture (specifically the cherry), aromatic and medical plants and agricultural and livestock products are of top quality. Wine and rakı of Permet have always been ranked among the best of their kind in Albania. Well-known are also the other typical products of the zone, like cheese, meat, oregano, jams, etc. This study intends the activation of local institutions and the involvement of agro-alimentary and touristic actors aiming at the use of the economic capacity of the district of Permet with main objectives being:

- The establishment of a consortium for touristic promotion and the stimulation of traditional products.
- The increase of the quantity of production, the standardization and improvement of agro-alimentary safety.
- The promotion of agro-alimentary products and the assessment of the territory in the touristic aspect.

Keyword: agro-alimentary, consortium, promotion, touristic aspect, standardization

1. This Study Aims to:

- Identification of tourist capacities - environmental area.
- Sensitization of locale institutions, private investors, agro-tourism and food factors.
- Creation of a consortium for tourism products and promoting traditional products.
- Recognition of promoting historical items, cultural and artistic and putting them at the service of the local community.

2. Materials and Methods

- Description, analysis.
- Add source archaeological and historical character
- Add geo-morphological character
- Information with traditional character for agricultural products and livestock products.
3. Results Expected

To sensitize civil society on topics related to the environment, promoting the development of tourism through the landscape assessment of the territory.

Laying the idea of establishing a consortium for the promotion, highlighting the values of the territory's tourism products typical of the area.

4. Introduction

District Përmet and city of the same name and is known as the city of roses pour in south-eastern Albania with an area of 929km2.

Introduced mainly in the beautiful valley of the River Vjose, surrounded by high mountains covered with beautiful forests and pastures with abundant flora and fauna, with special values with stunning views of landscapes. Large rocky massifs and steep, sources canyons that descend from the mountains in Vjose river, creating the waterfalls and scenic views to the curative springs are another characteristic of Kesa area.

Agricultural products and livestock area which belongs to the special taste while the processing of dairy products, meat, grapes, fruit, vegetables are the best of the country and constitute one of the oldest activities in this area tradicionalel.

Circle Bazaar is rich with numerous monuments, historical character as churches and monasteries of the Byzantine period between said, archaeological ruins, remnants of Ottoman bridge tower etc.. Residents of this area are well known for high vitytin tradition of hospitality, their wealth musical with songs, dances and beautiful melodies. Generosity and peaceful nature of the residents of this area to save as mentioned above that have so vexed our great Renaissance singing originating from this area constitute a complete ensemble offers a natural tourist and deserves to be studied, recorded and mobilized in the service of the local community.

5. Evaluation Tutistiko-Ambiental

As illustrated above Permetit district lies mainly in the valley where through a rocky seventh among high mountains after mbburon Vjose river flowing from the mountains to the neighboring state of Pindi Greek and inserted into our territory at the border crossing of three bridges Çarçovë.

Vjosa is the main river of the area. He crosses Premeti with a length of 58km and comprises the main axis of the extent of his or words pour JAIME circle between two massive mountain ridges father-Nemërçkë Dhëmbel Trebeshina-south-petëndim with a length of about 60 km and in ver-east ridge of Dangëllisë with a length of 57 km. On both sides of the valley lie vast areas of virgin favorable climate, temperatures range from 7-8 degrees Celsius in winter to New 27-28gradë in summer, fresh air, sun hours worth of water resources the ubiquitous offer very favorable conditions for hiking and tourism.

Up to 800m elevation shrubs or herbaceous plants dominate in areas kullotsore. The forests consist mainly of oak trees, beech, oak and pine. Hanging lie big massive alpine pastures with a host species that goes up to 120 between them excel species such as marjoram, sage, tea etj.që estimated a very high level from all directions. In these diverse pastures verojnë a large number of livestock that produce significant amounts of products such as milk and meat, which are noted also for its high quality and unique taste.

The rich fauna and diverse is another indication of the wealth of beauty that offers Përmet areas where the very nature of residents hunting with correct criterion has to survive a multiple host species adorn nature of this area. Meet mammals brown bear, wolf, fox, wild boar, squirrel, rabbit, wild fauna without forgetting the pride of deer which can dash in meadows and valleys in the depths of the forest. In rocky massif (Nemërçkë) GER goat found among birds can mention predators like eagles, cuckoo, owl, but the owl and rare species such as crows, blackbirds Wild also face the turtle, Wood Pigeon, Partridge and slippers beautiful mountain.

6. Historical Data

Josë upper valleys mentioned in the writings of authors antic (Aos, Aous.) Data from research arkeolqijike (simply excavations Archaeological survey) show that such valleys have been inhabited since of history.
Are known in the valley as some historical monuments like the cave dwellings Bënjës, medieval prejhistoriqe Piskovës tumuli, Grabovë, Rapckës, Këlcyra antiketë fortifications, Kuqarit, Byzantine churches of bualin or Kosinës and post-Byzantine of the Bënjës Leusës.

**Fig Nr 2:** Byzantine Church of Kosinës After Byzantine church of the Bënjë

In tests made by methods known spatial recent past but also information proved to be a high potential heritage values material. Based on territorial characteristics as slope, visibility, sunshine height above sea level landmarks tend to settle on similar terms geo-morphological (by GIS spatial analysis and digital models of heights) indicates what njëkoshme of unique features, in thus Përmet area offers great opportunities for green tourism as a whole mountain and culminating with special items with which this area is very rich and that their promotion is an enterprise with a future.

7. **Fir Tree Hotova**

It is located in the north-east of the city of Përmet. National Park Bredhi i can undoubtedly be termed as natural lungs southern Albania. It is a massive mbrekullueshëm with a stretch of 1,200 hectares consisting mainly of fir Macedonian Frasher lying area about 35 km from the city of Përmet, switching on there is done through roadways and paths Frasher-Përmet early pedestrian routes which Dangëllisë connect with Dishnica area and Përmet city. Introducing the depth of the forest becomes easily foristradë means there is a wide range of sources with cold water, nature and fresh air is a lot of pastër Aktualisht no local service and recreational facilities to break.

Villages near the park that can be visited are the birthplace of three brothers Frashëri Frashëri Renaissance. There
you can visit their home lidjes and famous Bektashi Teke Frashëri.

Bredhi i relics regarded as one of the most important Mediterranean plant and is one of the largest parks in the Balkans except Maqedonas. Aty spruce and fir finds some types sycamore.

Animal world is very rich, are all species Përmet area, where the most conspicuous brown bear, deer, wild boar.

Fig Nr 3: Fir tree Hotova

8. Fir Tree Petranit

Located in the upper valley Vjosë. There is a small area of 1 ha particularity is that the fir trees grown here are developed in an atypical area to wander. The user is in the south-east of the city of Përmet 12 km away. Characteristic of this area are the earliest settlements 2000 years ago along with thermal water springs, canyons, caves typically form an ecological system of environmental values.

9. Waters Thermal of Bënjë

As recognized by the name of Bënja’s thermal baths are located 14 km from the city of Përmet. They consist of six sources stemming from the massive cliffs on both sides of the river Lengaricë. Way to go on these natural resources is through vehicular route con-Petran-Bënjë. Based sulphurous waters have very high curative effects of which four sources used for chronic rheumatism, another for diseases of the stomach and a skin disease which is used in pools baltore. Bënja’s thermal waters have been used in years 60-75 to more effectively but currently they are damaged and used today so disorganized from city residents and needy Përmet from other regions of the country with a personal organization.

10. Bënja’s Canyons or What is Called "Canyons Ram Bridge"

It is located 200 m from thermal sources on both sides of the river Lengaricë. Begin with a height 30 m, width 2m by subtracting the first verse comes canyons being increased to up to 150 m and width 12 m thus becoming one of the most typical canyons thing that has attracted the attention of local and visitor foreign

Fig Nr 4: Këlcyra Gorge or paradise of 1001source
Mountains these monuments ever created by nature when placed with their greatness, facing each other in terms of their form more complete natural wonders such as the mouth of Këlcyra.

Gorge begins with Këlcyra iron bridge Dragot a symbol of high technology construction in this area, where the river bed Vjose close secede from the rocky great depth of turbulent water flow and continues to the north-east to at the entrance to town Këlcyra.

**Fig Nr 5: The Bridge of Dragot**

Slightly above the bridge Dragot stream through a narrow river valley Zagories which discharges into waters Vjose mount crystal Gjirokastra (Zagories) and mount them to Malshovës above all the gorge from both sides of the river flow Vjose multiple sources with abundant flow and inexhaustible source to the so-called black water.

**Fig Nr 6: Sources at the mouth of Këlcyra**

11. **The Black Water Source**

With the arrival of spring and the melting of snow immediately emerge out the natural beauty of the valley's resources of
fresh chilled to create beautiful waterfalls flowing over Vjose mountain massif Malshovës, heavy shadows at the foot of each source beets and pine forest cultured front ensemble create a really attractive. At the top near the Këlcyra “black source of water” as they call for his purity of mind as they say here that provides the depth from which flows from the mountains of water that creates the impression of dark.

Gorge tourist guide appropriate Këlcyra it easy harrihet roadway that runs through the valley, are close distances which gives the opportunity to use throughout the year but especially in the spring, summer and fall. Starting Dragot bridge located near any source environments with high level where visitors can find traditional dishes with agricultural and livestock products produced from virgin nature such as milk and meat to poultry meat and other animal obtained by hunting wild.

12. City of Përmet

The small town of Përmet by size but not by culture traditions and history under the name of the legend as a symbol of inherited perpetuate an ancient hero named Prem. Përmet City or rightly called as the city is known for roses and flowers have the feeling that its citizens face in its entirety, starting with the flowers that adorn parks everywhere, Uncle, Gardens and Bazaar apartments. Përmeti appear as a town green and quiet, thanks to the smooth character of self Bazaar. Hospitality is a virtue as citizens of Përmet are outstanding production of the housewives Bazaar as most fruit jam, plum with pink essence, nut cakes that are unique to the taste, as well as the variety of wines famous raki, but the city is known for Përmet historical houses feature gates, streets paved with typical arched bridges kallrëm in its suburbs etc.. Outside edge Vjosë is so-called natural monument stone city.

Fig Nr 7: The stone city

13. Conclusions

District Përmet opportunity presents powerful resources to promote environmental and tourist-posting of which remains an enterprise with a future.

For this need:
- Improve guides for visiting and facilitate their recognition.
- Improved road infrastructure.
- Ncitja investment to create conditions for visitors, tourists and vacationers.
- Promote special infrastructure in countries curative.
- Promotion and highlight these values through studies remains a problem that deserves continued attention.
The Conceptual Model of Time Management

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Abstract

During the last decades, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of time in today's global and rapid society. The paper analyzes the causes, importance and benefits of time management. Time management can be defined as behaviours that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities. People have individual perceptions of time and different skills to realize themselves in time. The analysis of the main time management techniques, their features and application possibilities is presented in the paper. Based on the analysis of scientific literature, the authors propose a conceptual model illustrating the importance of time planning and benefits of efficient time use on individual and organizational level. The presented model consists of the following 3 major components: the problems for individuals and organizations; time planning typology and techniques; benefits for individual and organization. It can be stated that great influence on time management is done by surrounding environment, personality type and motivation.

Keywords: time; time planning; time management; time management techniques; conceptual model.

1. Introduction

Time is a unique resource in that everyone is given an equal amount – 24 hours each day. How we invest that gift is a major factor in how we feel about our life. Time goes by at the same rate no matter what are we doing. We can’t speed it up or slow it down. Unlike the other resources that we can manage, there is no way to control time. The best we can do is take charge of ourselves in the framework of time, investing in those things that matter most.

One of the core issues almost everyone struggles with these days is time management. Time management is not about finding an extra hour or two in the day; it’s about using the time we have more judiciously. Good, effective time management is a core skill, a career skill that everyone needs both to be able to perform in a current job and to enhance career prospects (Forsyth, 2010). Time management is the act or process of planning and exercising conscious control over the amount of time spent on specific activities, especially to increase effectiveness, efficiency or productivity. It is a meta-activity with the goal to maximize the overall benefit of a set of other activities within the boundary condition of a limited amount of time.

The interest in time management is not so new. The problem of how to manage time was already discussed in the 1950s and 1960s. Drucker (1967) and other authors proposed methods on how to handle time issues on the job. They suggested simple remedies such as writing work plans down on paper (so-called “to-do lists”) in order to increase job performance. At the same time, they recognized that planning tasks and activities does not always lead to the completion of planned work, especially when time pressure is high. Insights were given into time-consuming activities, changing time expenditure, and increasing workday efficiency by teaching people how to make a daily planning, how to prioritize tasks, and how to handle unexpected tasks. Many books and articles were written to convey these and similar ideas to managers, promising them a greater effectiveness while using less time. Over the years the focus of time management publications and training courses has shifted from managers as the major target group to a broad audience of working people (Claessens et al., 2007). According to Orlowski & Yates (2002), the temporal dimension of work has become more important because of expanding global competition and increased demands for immediate availability of products and services. Garhammer (2002) has pointed at the increased pace of life shown in doing things faster, contracting time expenditure and compressing actions. The increasing salience of time is reflected in theoretical as well as practical publications (Claessens et al., 2007). A number of authors discussed the need for better incorporating time in theoretical models and research designs (Ancona et al., 2001; George & Jones, 2000; Wright, 2002). Others focused on the ways in
which people in organizations manage their time, and on ways in which these efforts can be improved (Arkhangelskij, 2007; Bly, 2010; Forsyth, 2010).

Effective time management is clearly a factor in job performance and thus can contribute to an organization’s profitability. Engaging in time management, particularly planning behaviours, can also contribute positively to group performance (Janick & Bartel, 2003; Burt, et al., 2010). Furthermore, poor time management has been associated with high stress and strain emotional exhaustion and health issues (Peeters & Rutte, 2005).

This study aims to explore a theoretical conceptual model illustrating the problematic of time management.

2. Research Methodology

Research methodology is based on a comparative analysis and synthesis of the scientific literature and graphical representation. Analysis of scientific literature revealed the importance of time management, basic time management technologies and their features. Based on literature analysis and synthesis, the authors provide the conceptual model, illustrating time management.

3. Findings

3.1 Definition of time management

There is no agreement on the definition of time management in the studies. The term “time management” is quite misleading. Strictly speaking, time cannot be managed, because it is an inaccessible factor. Many authors agree that time management involves the process of determining needs, setting goals to achieve these needs, prioritizing and planning tasks required to achieve these goals. Definitions of time management by different authors are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Definitions of Time Management by Different Authors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition of time management</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Techniques for managing time.</td>
<td>Jex &amp; Elacqua, 1999; Davis, 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A technique for effective time use, especially having enough time to accomplish the tasks required</td>
<td>Slaven &amp; Totterdell, 1993; Orpen, 1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clusters of behaviours that are deemed to facilitate productivity and alleviate stress.</td>
<td>Lay &amp; Schouwenburg, 1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and allocating time.</td>
<td>Burt &amp; Kemp, 1994; Francis-Smythe &amp; Robertson, 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The degree to which individuals perceive their use of time to be structured and purposeful.</td>
<td>Strongman &amp; Burt, 2000; Sabelis, 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways to assess the relative importance of activities through the development of a prioritization plan.</td>
<td>Kaufman-Scarborough &amp; Lindquist, 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviours that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities</td>
<td>Claessens et al., 2007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen, the definitions provided above vary. After the analysis of different definitions and approaches in this study, the definition provided by Claessens et al. (2007) is taken as a basis. Claessens et al. (2007) define time management as “behaviours that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities”. This definition highlights that the use of time is not an aim in itself and cannot be pursued in isolation. The focus is on some goal-directed activity, such as performing a work task or an academic duty, which is carried out in a way that implies an effective use of time. These behaviours comprise:

- Time assessment behaviours, which aim at awareness of here and now or past, present, and future and self-awareness of one’s time use, which help to accept tasks and responsibilities that fit within the limit of one’s capabilities.
- Planning behaviours, such as setting goals, planning tasks, prioritising, making to-do lists, grouping tasks which aim at an effective use of time.
- Monitoring behaviours, which aim at observing one’s use of time while performing activities, generating a feedback loop that allows a limit to the influence of interruptions by others.
Time management may be aided by a range of skills, tools, and techniques used to manage time when accomplishing specific tasks, projects, and goals complying with a due date.

The major themes arising from the literature on time management include the following:

- Creating an environment conducive to effectiveness;
- Setting of priorities;
- Carrying out activity around those priorities;
- The related process of reduction of time spent on non-priorities.

### 3.2 The Main Time Management Techniques

There can be found different time management techniques presented and analysed in scientific literature. After analysis of the research works of Lakein (1973), Hink & Ginevičius, (2006), Bakanauskienė & Petkevičiūtė (2003), Stoškus & Petukienė (2008), Ferriss (2007), Tamoševičienė & Rimkevičienė (2011), Zimmermann (2010), Raymond (2008), Bly (2010), Burt et al. (2010) the main time management techniques are presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The Main Time Management Techniques](image)

#### 3.2.1 ABC analysis

A technique that has been used in business management for a long time is the categorization of large data into groups. These groups are often marked A, B, and C—hence the name. Activities are ranked upon these general criteria:

- **A** – Tasks that are perceived as being urgent and important;
- **B** – Tasks that are important but not urgent;
- **C** – Tasks that are neither urgent nor important. (This list could also include tasks that are urgent but not important.)

Each group is then rank-ordered in priority. To further refine priority, some individuals choose to then force-rank all "B" items as either "A" or "C". ABC analysis can incorporate more than three groups (Lakein, 1973). ABC analysis is frequently combined with Pareto analysis.

#### 3.2.2 Pareto analysis

This is the idea that 80% of tasks can be completed in 20% of the disposable time. The remaining 20% of tasks will take up 80% of the time. This principle is used to sort tasks into two parts. According to this form of Pareto analysis it is recommended that tasks that fall into the first category be assigned a higher priority.

The 80-20-rule can also be applied to increase productivity: it is assumed that 80% of the productivity can be achieved by doing 20% of the tasks. Similarly, 80% of results can be attributed to 20% of activity. If productivity is the aim of time management, then these tasks should be prioritized higher (Ferriss, 2007).

#### 3.2.3 The Eisenhower Method

This method is said to have been used by U.S. President Dwight D. Eisenhower, and is outlined in a quote attributed to
him: “What is important is seldom urgent and what is urgent is seldom important”. The Eisenhower method helps to decide which action you should or shouldn't do. It aids you to divide actions into one of four categories. Using this method, all tasks are evaluated using the criteria important/unimportant and urgent/not urgent and then placed in according quadrants in an Eisenhower Matrix, also known as an "Eisenhower Box" or "Eisenhower Decision Matrix".

- Important/Urgent quadrants are done immediately and personally (e.g., crises, deadlines, problems);
- Important/Not Urgent quadrants get an end date and are done personally (e.g., relationships, planning, recreation);
- Unimportant/Urgent quadrants are delegated (e.g., interruptions, meetings, activities);
- Unimportant/Not Urgent quadrants are dropped (e.g., time wasters, pleasant activities).

3.2.4 POSEC method

POSEC is an acronym for Prioritize by Organizing, Streamlining, Economizing and Contributing.

The method dictates a template which emphasizes an average individual's immediate sense of emotional and monetary security. It suggests that by attending to one's personal responsibilities first, an individual is better positioned to shoulder collective responsibilities.

Inherent in the acronym is a hierarchy of self-realization which mirrors Abraham Maslow's "Hierarchy of needs".

1. Prioritize - Your time and define your life by goals.
2. Organize - Things you have to accomplish regularly to be successful (Family and Finances).
3. Streamline - Things you may not like to do, but must do (Work and Chores).
4. Economize - Things you should do or may even like to do, but they're not pressingly urgent (Pastimes and Socializing).
5. Contribute - By paying attention to the few remaining things that make a difference (Social Obligations).

3.2.5 The ALPS (ALPEN) method

The method allows planning a day in a very effective manner and stands for:

- A: to write down Tasks, Schedules and planned activities
- L: to assess duration of each activity
- P: to include buffer times for each task
- E: to make decisions meeting the priorities
- N: to recheck all the time

It is recommended usually to plan covering only 60% of the time. 40% should be reserved as a buffer.

3.2.6 Time management systems

Time management systems often include a time clock or web based application used to track an employee's work hours. Time management systems give employers insights into their workforce, allowing them to see, plan and manage employees' time. Doing so allows employers to control labour costs and increase productivity. A time management system automates processes, which eliminates paper work and tedious tasks.

The variety of personal digital assistants (PDAs) and computer-based time planner systems are available today. No matter what you do, in whatever field, digital time management systems that you can tap into or load onto your personal computer help to organize every part of your life (Tracy, 2013).

3.3 The Conceptual Model of Time Management

Time management has tended to be viewed as an individual responsibility. According to Dodd & Sundheim (2005), people who practice good time management techniques often find that they:

- are more productive,
- have more energy for things they need to accomplish,
- feel less stressed,
- are able to do the things they want,
- get more things done,
• relate more positively to others, and
• feel better about them.

People have individual perceptions of time, different skills to realize themselves in time and use different time management techniques. Their choices depend on the personality type, motivation, level of self-discipline and surrounding environment.

The literature offers many procedures that are suggested to enhance ability to manage time or more precisely manage the completion of tasks in an efficient and timely fashion (Burt et al., 2010). They have argue that time management research needs to develop a broader theoretical framework which captures both the context within which time management operates, and organizational time related objectives.

Time management training has frequently been suggested to increase an employee’s perceived control of time (Claessens et al., 2004), which in turn will decrease work strain (Jex and Elacqua, 1999), and increase job performance.

Based on the analysis of scientific literature authors of the paper propose a conceptual model illustrating the problematic of time planning and efficient use. The model consists of the following three major components: the problems for individuals and organizations; time planning typology and techniques; and benefits for individual and organization (see figure 2).

![Figure 2. The Conceptual Model of Time Management](image)

No business and activity in general can afford to have wasted time at work, especially when growth and results are directly tied to how productive employees are. There are many time wasters that really eat into your time if you allow them to. To free up your time it is necessary to identify those time wasters, decide what you want to do about them and then take action. There is quite a big variety of the main time wasters discussed in the literature and empirical surveys. Summarising it can be stated that lack of planning, prioritising and focus; interruptions; talking with the co-workers; lack of delegation; non-work related Internet surfing; not saying ‘No’; and useless meetings are the most common and biggest time wasters.

An important role plays personality type and personal motivation for time management. Time management environment may mediate the relationship between time management competencies and perceived control of time. Positive time management environment should make it easier for employees to engage in time management behaviours which may increase their perceived control of time.

An organization can also provide support for time management through the development of management systems and policy, such as planning sessions, job descriptions, and performance appraisal systems, which will all help deliver the
information and structure necessary for employees to manage their time. Furthermore, a culture which emphasizes “time values”, where the importance of time to operations and the delivery of services is formally recognized may also help. This may be partly achieved via the encouragement of co-worker interaction and the communication of the importance of key time management related dimensions, such as jointly setting priorities, goals, task time requirements and schedules. Positive effects of time management can be examined on perceived control of time, job performance, balanced work load, work-family interference, job satisfaction, stress minimization and health.

4. Concluding Remarks

Effective time management is an important factor in job performance and thus can contribute to an individual and organization’s results. Furthermore, poor time management has been associated with unperformed jobs, low quality of work, high stress, strain, and emotional exhaustion. Time management can be defined as behaviours that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities. These behaviours comprise time assessment behaviours, planning behaviours, and monitoring behaviours.

Proposed conceptual model consists of three major components: the problems for individuals and organizations; time planning typology and techniques; and benefits for individual and organization. Important role for time management play personality type, personal motivation and surrounding environment. Positive effects of time management can be examined on perceived control of time, job performance and job satisfaction, stress minimization and health.

References


Mesoeconomics of Development of the Oil and Gas Extraction Region

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Abstract

The article describes the actual methodological issues of the economic mesosystem modernization based mainly on the region with the raw specialization and the oil and gas industries focus. The theoretical and statistical analysis of social and economic regional development during the last years is maintained. The unsolved problems in this area are identified, and anti crisis measures are suggested. The peculiarity of social-economical development of Tyumen region as the oil and gas exploration region and the directions of increasing the competitiveness of mesoeconomical system are determined. Suggested approaches can be applied for reforming the system of the regional governing, developing regional and social policies.

Keywords: Development, mesoeconomics, region, Russia.

1. Introduction

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, Russia reserves mainly raw specialization in the international division of labor. The country has a nonprogressive economic structure that painfully depends on the global situation with a clear dominance of its oil and gas sector as the main driver of economic development. The current situation is largely determined by the lack of systematic and coordinated interaction among the subjects of socio-economic development and strategic orientations of this development.

This problem is particularly acute for key oil and gas production regions that serve as primary abutment local formations and future growth drivers both for Russian economy at large and the neighboring communities. The Tyumen region, which is the focus of this research, is certainly among them.

The objective of the article is to determine strategic vectors, conditions and factors of the macro-economical regional system development, taking into consideration the following factors:

− peculiarity of the region which is the main oil and gas region of the country;
− peculiarity of the regional governing system;
− current regional policy of the Russian Federation.

In particular, the project is focused on:

− determining peculiarities of the current economical development and movement of the regions (a turn in the economic growth of Russia: archaism or development);
− evaluating the efficiency of the current regional policy and its implementation in the regions’ development strategies (strategies of exploration versus strategies of development);
− identifying the main drivers and barriers for the strategic development of regional mesosystems (factors of “primary” and “secondary” nature).

2. Methodology

Recently both the idea of development relating to the Russian economy and the distinctness of the strategic benchmarks of this development are called into question in the scientific community. Declarativity of the mapped out modernization and innovative development strategy under the conditions of real economical recession, political policy preservation, mythologization of public conscience coupled with strengthening of propaganda efforts testify to the arkaization of Russian public life, disclose counterintuitive transformation when “the old and the new switched places”, as a result the guidepath also exchanged – instead of pressing forward “we go back”.

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According to Kleyner (2011), the post-crisis period gives us a lesson which consists “in need of changing not so much the course as the “style” of Russian economic movement. Fundamental strategic mission is moving from oscillatory, zigzag, back and forth economy motion, which is typical of Russia, to another kind, with a development concept underneath”.

It also fully refers to the regions, because mesoeconomic systems play the role of “specific conductors, moderators and amplifiers” of modernization initiatives for the Russian economy and the Russian society. Let us denote this strategic task as “mesoeconomy of development”.

Let us prove that the current situation of political destabilization and economic stagnation is defined not so much by the lack of financial, material, intellectual and information resources (in all their significance) as by lack of both consistent and coordinated interaction of subjects of social and economic development, including regional level, and strategic benchmarks of this development.

Firstly, it is possible to diagnose the occurrence of the regional crisis in Russia, which is shown in economic, political, and the sociocultural relation. Indeed, the 2012-2013 monitoring showed that the regional economy is close to stagnation. Zero industrial production in 2013 and adverse external environment for the export sector played their negative part. According to Zubarevich (2014), in January-October 2013 the budgets income decreased in third of Russian regions, moreover the maximum recession was shown in the main oil and gas production region – the Tyumen region (-28%). In almost ¾ regions the welfare expenses behavior was in arrears of budget expenses behavior in general. The regional budgets gap more than doubled and made 700 billion rubles during 2013. This deprives the regional authorities of the status of active and strong player in the economic area. As a result, the regions are not capable to solve social problems and problems of their own development by means of internal revenue sources mobilization. Thereby the main priority of regional policy in the economic domain – transition from budget payments to self-development of the regional economy – is called into question.

Economic powerlessness is accompanied by the loss of political influence and “weight” of regions, their opportunities and abilities to participate in the state and political administrative decision making. Figuratively speaking their influence area starts to “wind down” in the economic, sociocultural, political relations in the first place. The existing political system does not provide conditions and effective instruments for the accommodation of interests of different “center – regions” system levels.

The deficiency of new management mechanisms is compensated by imitating western samples, mechanical transferring them to the Russian ground in the form of “reforms” of various kinds which are not simply inorganic, but often destructive for the traditional vital environment of local communities. These multidimensional recessionary displays at the mesoeconomic level of the country allow to diagnose the oncoming of “axiological and cultural crisis”, consisting in the inability and impossibility of regions to independently carry out the role of “designing their own future”, to be engaged in their own development.

This, first of all, bears record to inefficiency of the existing regional policy, indicates that its priorities are not created and its tools work inefficiency. In spite of the fact that in the middle of 2000 in the “Strategy of development of Russia till 2020” there was a section on regional growth for the first time, the regional policy as a factor of development plays a limited role: in oil and gas extraction regions the implemented strategy is rather reclaiming than development.

3. Results

It is conventional to point out a dangerous trend of the increase in the gap between the center and districts, between macro-and micro-systems in Russia. Thus, regions differentiation by production per capita, indicating regional plant concentration, comes to 34 % according to Gini index. In the Russian regional space 10% of Russian population make a third of gross domestic product of the country whereas other 10% in regions with the smallest productivity, limit their contribution to gross domestic product up to 3,5%.

GRP per capita corrected according to the price level for Tyumen region with autonomous districts is 4 times greater than the Russian average, for Moscow – 1.8 times greater, only 17 regions have GRP per capita higher than the average. A quarter of all-country population lives in these regions. However, nearly 2/3 of regions do not differ greatly according to the level of development – the difference is in the range between the average and its half. 2/3 of Russians live in them. GRP per capita less than 75% of the average can be observed in 45 Russian regions.

Differences between regions on economic conditions lead to significant differences in social conditions. The highest HDI score among Russia’s regions has traditionally been recorded in Moscow, and the lowest score in Tyva Republic. Despite the fact that this indicator is a more comprehensive measure of well-being, the variation among the regions is driven to a large extent by differences in income per capita as differences with regard to life expectancy and
education are small. Regional differentiation of the HDI has almost unchanged since 2002: “a little over 20% of Russia’s population live in relatively prosperous regions (including 8% in Moscow), about 10% in outsider regions, and more than two thirds live in regions with an average level of human development” (UNDP 2013, p.138).

Since regions are open systems, it is better to compare not GRP (as it is redistributed by the federal authorities), but income per capita. Analysis of this indicator in 2012 showed that the inequality among Russian regions is significantly less as maximum to minimum ratio equals to 4.7 (in 2007 – 8.9). Taking into account regional differences in price levels, the maximum exceeds the minimum at least about 3 times. Regional differentiation in incomes and per capita GRP decreased in 2002-2012 due to the Government’s large-scale redistributive policies, and social inequality declined more sustainably.

Figure 1. The interdependence of GRP per capita and money income per capita, 2012

Figure 1 shows a weak relationship between GRP and income per capita, with a higher level of production leads to a higher level of income, but in a declining power. This dependence explains why the regions are so different in terms of production, closer in terms of per capita income. This may be due to the fact that the calculation is based on the GRP and production data to a large extent depends on the location of the formal entities. The value added of resource extraction regions is distributed and used in other parts of the economy, mostly in the capital.

Dynamics of regional disparities in Russia can be considered using the Theil index, which allows us to decompose the rate of total inequality into two components reflecting interregional (caused by differences in average income between regions) and intra (observed within each region) economic inequality. Inequality within regions is more important fact in determining national levels of inequality than differences between regions.

Russian regions present the entire range of possible indicators of economic inequality, which is observed in the world, starting from the level of Latin American and ending level of some European countries. While income growth has also been accompanied by rising inequality and, except for Moscow, where the polarization of the population by income has declined. Rudenko (2011) proves the interdependence of economic growth and changes in income inequality in the Russian regions. The lowest differentiation is observed in depressed regions and consistent with its size in Croatia or Spain. The highest differentiation of income, comparable with the situation in Latin America, is observed in the leading regions with high level of life – in Moscow and the Tyumen region (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. The interdependence of money income per capita and the level of inequality, 2012
According to Zubarevich (2014) “the problem is not in disparity itself but in its negative influence on modernization of conditions and style of life. Large gap between several leaders and huge “median zone” slows down spatial spreading of innovations, since only one quarter of Russians live in places where resources for modernization are available.” The oil- and gas-rich area of the Sakhalin Region and Moscow together accounted for 25 per cent of all foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows in 2010-2012. Along with these two regions, Moscow, Tyumen, Vologda, Kaluga Leningrad, Omsk, Bryansk regions, St Petersburg (ten regions) accounted for 67 per cent of all FDI inflows over the same period. The concentration of the banking sector is also leading to disparate access to finance. According to Deutsche Bank (2009) “Moscow accounted for 31% of total loans and 50% of total deposits at the end of December 2008”.

Therefore, the process of economic regionalization could be one of the major sources of social contradictions and conflicts in Russia, which is able to present a challenge to the sustainability of public administration in the next few years.

The Tyumen region, showing impressive dynamics of development, is more and more on the periphery, which means the part of the country that lives not for itself, but for serving the interests of the center. The presence of strong corporate players in the oil and gas regions leads to an actual substitution of the regional policy by corporate strategies in the regions of presence. The share growth of vertically integrated oil companies in the regional economy correlates with a decrease of their attributable return. Thus, the existing institutional system no longer provides the conditions and effective instruments for the accommodation of interests of different “center – regions” system levels. In relation to oil and gas extraction regions the option of a neocolonial policy of the center is realized.

The world experience says that a national economy can only be effective if it takes into account the peculiarities of the regions’ development and relies on the following competitive advantages of those. Thereby the development and support of the regional mesoeconomic systems processes, as well as identifying the key factors and conditions of their development, especially applied to the traditional economics with a dominant raw specialization and the dominance of the oil and gas industries in their structure, acquire a special role.

On the one hand, the oil and gas sector itself is a problematic area of the economy because it is the source of the “resource curse” and the source of the extensive growth. On the other hand, a system modernization of the economy on the basis of innovations can only be possible and realizable if it is based on the oil and gas sector. This contradiction actualizes the problem of the meso-economic development unique model formation. On the one hand, it would have the essential characteristics of the innovation economy, giving an incentive to the development of the new and advanced technologies. On the other hand, it would ensure an effective integration of the oil and gas sector in this model and transformation of the sector into a high-tech and knowledge-intensive sphere, solving the problem of its susceptibility to the new technologies. And finally, it would take into account the basing area features of the modern oil and gas companies and the regional specific of the habitat and residence.

Special mention in this regard should be made of the specificity of settlement structure and the scheme of urbanization for the oil and gas extraction regions with intensive environmental management, particularly the problem of social and economic development of regions with high concentration of monotowns. Expert estimates confirm that in modern Russia monotowns are one of the key elements of the city network and make about 45% of total number of the cities. Thus, the problem of monotowns becomes nation-wide. The Ural federal district should be noted among the regions characterized by the prevalence of monoprofile settlements, containing critical mass of monotowns – about 62% of city structures of the region and, in particular, the Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Area, where 55% of the population live in monotowns. Thus, the region comes to the first positions by the relevance of the non-diversity problem solving, imbalances of development, development of urgent measures and instruments of sustainable development of monotowns and their transfer to the innovative grounds.

Russia’s WTO membership makes this problem actual due to the risks that should be first of all projected on monotown locations. According to the Ministry of Regional Development of the Russian Federation, there are 355 monotowns in Russia with the population about 16 million people that regard current diversification programs of development and economy modernization on the innovative grounds in order to prevent the major crisis phenomena.

Besides, the resolution of economic development contradictions of “North” and “South”, social and economic binding of northern and southern territories, optimization of two keypoints – natural resources production on the one hand and an agribusiness industry on the other – is an acute problem for the Tyumen region.

These complex development problems cannot be solved without an essential change and reforming of the existing institutional system, change of the development ideology itself. The “demodernization mechanisms”, certainly, prevail until now. Among the factors determining the vector and conditions of the economical growth of the Tyumen region the dominating ones are of endogenous determinants, which are connected with natural conditions and natural resources of development. An institutional system negatively affects the development of the regional economic systems and it becomes the main barrier of their scientific and technical modernization. The factual development of the regions is mainly
based on their own competitive advantages with a maximal consideration of the local peculiar endogenous factors of
growth (factors of “primary nature” by Krugman P.). Whereas the institutional factors, which are of the “secondary nature”,
are highly politicized – they do not fulfill their stimulating function and do not provide an economical growth. At the same
time, these factors influence and change the representation of the “primary nature” factors.

Realization of capital-intensive mega-projects on the territories of oil and gas exploitation should not be
accompanied by simplification of its economics. On the contrary, it must lead to its complexity level growth along with
improvement of the regional subjects’ interaction, and to an increase of multiplication effects and a degree of localization
on territories.

4. Conclusion

Fuel and energy industry should become a linking element of the whole system and a basic structure of scientific and
technical modernization based on the resource advantages, with a reasonable balance of development priorities. The
transformation of “governing colonization” practice should be supplemented with deregulation and decentralization with a
simultaneous growth of the centre's role in development of a common scientific and technical policy in oil and gas
regions.

Finally, the trajectory planning of the Tyumen region development as a leading oil and gas extraction province of
Russia, claims multifaceted, triune approach to design the regional mesoeconomic system, providing the emerging
interaction of three components: social (preservation of social and cultural subsystems' stability in the region), economic
(enancement of regional aggregate reserves usage) and ecological (preservation of ecological subsystems' ability to
restore). Thus, regional growth is understood as “development without destruction”. This logic is focused on the
achievement of coherence between scientific and technological breakthrough, natural resources exploitation, the
directions of investments, distributions of income and growth of quality of living of the population in the area, development
balance of all components of region elements and subsystems.

References

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Examining the Relationship Between Selected Human Resources Practices in Professional Sport Coaching

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Abstract

Sport in South Africa has grown into an attractive mega-industry that employs many people. Among the different human resources in a sport organisation is the professional sport coach whose job is multi-faceted. The coach plays an important role in helping the sport organisation in achieving its goals and objectives. Management of professional sport coaches requires human resource managers to implement a range of human resources management functions. Among these are recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, job security and labour relations. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the aforementioned functions in sport coaching. The study utilised a quantitative research approach. Four hundred questionnaires were administered to professional sport coaches drawn across from all nine provinces of South Africa. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version-22). Frequencies and percentages were used to report on the demographic variables and Pearson correlations were used to examine the relationship between the selected human resources management functions. A positive practical relationship with a large effect was found between recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, labour relations and with a medium effect with job security. A positive practical relationship with a medium effect was found between training and development, compensation and a large effect between training and development, job security and labour relations. A positive statistical significant relationship was found between compensation, job security and labour relations. The results indicated that all functions need to be considered in the management of professional sport coaches.

Keywords: Training and development, recruitment and selection, labour relations, job security, compensation

1. Introduction

Mega sports events hosted by South Africa (SA) have increased tremendously during the past decade. These events have many effects on the host region. Among these are increased international attention, increased interest in tourism, increased employability, increased participation and spectatorship of sport (Green & Chalip, 1998) which has resulted in sport in South Africa growing into an attractive mega-industry that employs many people. Among the different individuals employed by a sport organisation is the sports coach who is considered as one of the primary employees in a sport organisation (Chelladurai, 1999). The sports coach provides an important service, namely coaching which is a multi-faceted job. In carrying out this function the coach plays an instrumental role in helping the sport organisation in achieving its goals and objectives. Sports coaches, similar to other employees who offer a service, are responsible to project the image of an organisation or team and ultimately needs to ensure satisfaction of the consumer (fans, sponsors and spectators) (Kelliher & Perrett, 2001). In addition to being motivators, educators, trainers and leaders, professional sport coaches also take on managerial functions such as planning, directing and controlling the activities of their athletes or teams towards the concrete objective of winning (Watson & Tharpe, 1990). Taking into account the significant role that sport coaches play in an organisation, human resource managers at sport organisations are required to implement a range of human resources management functions related to recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, job security and labour relations in the management of coaches.

2. Recruitment and Selection

One of the key functions of human resources managers is to ensure that the right pool of employees are strategically placed within the organisation so that the organisation gains, maintains and sustains its competitive advantage in the market in which it operates. This function involves the recruitment and selection of capable employees who will play important roles in the success of the organisation. According to Bridges and Roquemore (1996) no activity is more important in managing human resources than recruitment and selection. It is therefore imperative that human resources managers adopt proper procedures when recruiting and selecting personnel (Cushway, 1999). Regardless of the
prevalence of effective job designs and impressive organisation charts, no aspect of any organisation will work well if positions are not filled with competent employees since they are the ones that make the organisations’ systems work (Chelladurai, 1999).

Recruitment is described as the process of locating, identifying and attracting a pool of capable people to apply for identified vacancies in an organisation (Bratton & Gold, 2007) while selection is described as the process through which human resources managers review the qualifications of applicants for specific jobs and hire those that appear most qualified to do a particular job (Bridges & Roquemore, 1996). Among the different ways in which recruitment is done are: advertising, job centres, employment agencies, walk-in and professional associations (Sisson & Storey, 2000).

3. Training and Development

The differentiation of skills, knowledge and motivation of the workforce in organisations has been receiving increased attention due to the highly competitive environment in which they operate (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Differentiation can be achieved through the training and development of personnel. Goldstein and Ford (2002) refer to training as a systematic approach to learning so that individual and organisational effectiveness is achieved. It is an attempt to improve the current or future employee performance by increasing an employee’s ability to perform through learning by changing his/her skills and knowledge in an activity or range of activities (Cushway, 1999). Training is normally short term and is done to achieve a specific objective. Development, on the other hand, is normally longer term, and refers to providing employees with the abilities that an organisation will need in the future (Gomez-Mejia, Balin & Cardy, 1988). It refers to learning opportunities designed to help employees assist the personal growth of employees (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). It is an activity that helps to maintain and improve professional competence and to promote effective performance at work. The aim of effective development is to provide a profession where members are fully trained and competent to perform the tasks expected of them throughout their careers (Surujlal, 2004).

Sport organisations have come to see sport as a means of generating revenues. As a result the coach is called upon to perform different functions. On a managerial level the coach plans, organises, directs and controls the activities of his charges towards the concrete objective of winning (Surujlal, 2004). He/she has the responsibility of providing athletes the opportunity to realise a range of technical, physical and moral excellence (Hardman, Jones & Jones, 2010) as well as educating athletes to develop physically as well as psychologically in the sporting domain. In this role the coach is expected to impart technical, tactical and life skills, including coordinating and guiding athletes in the implementation of these skills (Martens, 2004:vi). In order to develop the skills and abilities, knowledge and wisdom to be receptive, have insight, as well as to be spurred on by an emotional dedication to sport, the self and others (Le Roux, 2007) coaches would require training in the short run and development opportunities over the long term. Coaches thus need to be taught the basics skills like teaching, communicating, motivating and supervising. They should also update their knowledge and skills continuously in order to stay abreast in a complex, competitive and ever-changing sport environment (Mohammadi, Izadi & Salehi, 2011).

4. Compensation

One of the ways of motivating, satisfying and recognising employee outputs is by compensating them appropriately (Surujlal, 2013; Barber & Bretz, 2000). The cornerstone of a compensation package is best viewed as the employees’ perceived value of the package. In this regard it is the balance between the rewards that sports organisations offer and the expectations set in exchange for those rewards.

Bratton and Gold (2007) view compensation to be all financial, non-financial and psychological rewards employees receive for performing their jobs. Chelladurai (1999) differentiates between two types of rewards that compensation encompasses, namely intrinsic- and extrinsic rewards. While intrinsic rewards take on an intangible form (e.g. enjoyment), extrinsic rewards take on a tangible form (e.g. salaries, office space, equipment). Apart from the huge cost of facilities is the cost of salaries for a sport organisation (DeSchriver & Mahoney, 2011). According to Gerhart, Rynes and Fulmer (2009) the compensation package is the largest single cost for the average company with employee wages accounting for 60 to 95 percent of average company costs.

A key challenge that faces human resource (HR) managers in sport organisations is how to structure their compensation packages so that not only the employee but also the organisation benefits. In the absence of tangible outputs, it becomes difficult to determine a compensation package for a professional sport coach. Sports organisations offer a wide variety of compensation and reward programs, which need to be customized to reflect the unique business conditions and challenges of the sports industry. Sport organisations need to ensure that the compensation packages are...
market-related if they desire to recruit and retain competent sport coaches. The compensation package that are determined for sport coaches depends on many factors which include the performance of the coach in terms of the matches/competitions won, number of athletes successfully coached and the resources provided to the coach to perform his job (Surujlal, 2013).

5. Job Security

One of several issues which sport coaches in sport organisations face regularly is job security (Chelladurai, 1999). In the corporate sector, well performing employees are almost guaranteed a job for life (Burke, 1998). This is, however not the case with regard to sport coaches. With most of the professional sport coaches in the South African sport industry on a contract, a coaching job for life is non-existent (Surujlal, Singh & Hollander, 2005). In corporate organisations job security needs are satisfied for many employees in an organisation by job continuity (no layoffs), a grievance system (to protect against unfair dismissal) and an adequate insurance and retirement benefit package (for security against illness and the provision of income in later life) (Griffin, 1990), but job continuity for professional sports coaches in sport organisations is not guaranteed. The objectives of the sport organisation, organisational structure, skills of the coach, talent of the team, competence of the assistant coach/es and the win/loss record of the coach are some of the factors which determine how long a coach lasts with a sport organisation.

Singh (2001) posits that security in sport coaching lies in the hands of the coach. The author suggests that coaches should rely mostly on their own ability, regardless of the number of assistants on the staff; have complete faith in the players in the team and have faith in assistant coaches, in that they are dedicated enough and possess sufficient knowledge to do an outstanding job of imparting skills and attitudes necessary for excellence in an athlete. Any shortcomings in the afore-mentioned areas may contribute to the job insecurity of the coach. Almost two decades ago, Van Zijl (1984) argued that fluctuating achievements impacted negatively on the job security of coaches and that problems associated with job security and continuity were influenced by the success achieved by the team. A similar situation persists with most professional coaches currently being appraised on their win/loss record (Surujlal et al., 2005).

In sport organisations in South Africa most sport coaches are employed on a fixed term contract. This has a negative impact on the job security of sport coaches.

6. Labour Relations

Clegg (1979) describes labour relations as the rules governing employment together with the ways in which the rules are developed and changed, interpreted and administered. It may also be viewed as the relationship between employees and employers. It attempts to explain the practical, everyday problems that arise in the relationship between employers and employees (Ackers, 1994).

Labour relations has become a powerful specialisation within human resources management in many organisations with almost every workplace having its own ‘contracts manager’ and shop steward (Ackers, 1994). With employment legislation becoming more standardised and more restrictive (Lipiec, 2001), there is an increasing awareness of labour relations, coupled with the continuous pursuit of higher productivity and profits in most organisations resulting in a change in the attitude of South African workers.

The introduction of the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) sought to alleviate many of the labour issues at sport organisations. The Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) (LRA) assists sport organisations by clarifying the law so that human resources managers and coaches are certain about their rights and obligations, ensuring that all coaches are treated equally by the law. It also provides a voluntary system of collective bargaining with minimum interference by statute and courts, for simplified dispute procedures, bringing the South African labour law into line with international labour law standards and complying with the labour relations provisions in the constitution. Advocates of employee involvement argue for labour/management relationships that make unions ‘partners’ in the organisation’s success and regard them as ‘critical partners’ in helping the organisation achieve its objectives. The union also assumes responsibility for quality, thus creating opportunity for more systems thinking and more problem solving. These relationships also help create a climate in which employees participate in many of the important decisions. In the absence of union support for employee problem solving and union/employee participation in improvement groups, there is a danger that employees will not trust the process (Bowen, Lawler & Edward, 1992).
7. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between labour relations, recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, and job security in professional sport coaching.

8. Methodology

8.1 Design

In addition to a literature review of human resources management a quantitative research approach was used for the study. According to Malhotra (2004), this approach allows for a large number of representative cases to be used, the data collection is structured and quantifiable, and the data analysis is statistical in this approach. Such an approach also eliminates possible subjectivity of judgment (Rozina & Matveev, 2002).

8.2 Sample

The target population of the study comprised professional sport coaches at sport organisations in all nine provinces in South Africa. In the context of this study, a professional sport coach is a person who possesses a body of knowledge in a particular sport and imparts such knowledge to his/her athletes. The coach’s main source of income is through sport coaching (Surujlal, 2004).

A list of sport organisations affiliated to the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC) formed the sampling frame of the study. A non-probability convenience sampling method was used to recruit the sample for the study. Four hundred and fifty sport coaches from different sports from all nine provinces in South Africa were invited to participate in the study. Two hundred and thirty eight (n=238; response rate=53%) questionnaires were completed and returned.

8.3 Instrumentation and procedures

A two-section questionnaire was developed based on a comprehensive literature study. Section A of the questionnaire requested respondents to provide demographic information such as gender, age, highest level of professional qualification, number of years of experience, main code of sport and the province in which the respondent worked. In Section B of the questionnaire responses to questions pertaining to human resources management were requested. Items in the scale were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 expressing strongly agree and 5 expressing strongly disagree. The questionnaire was pre-tested with coaches before the main survey to identify and eliminate problems relating to ambiguity and grammar as well as to ascertain its content validity. According to Sudman and Blair (1998) this helps to affirm that the questionnaire captures the information sought by the researcher.

The questionnaires were administered in the following ways: hand delivered, posted or e-mailed to potential participants. A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire explaining the purpose of the study as well as informing the participants that their participation in the study was voluntary. They were also informed that they would remain anonymous at all times and that the data would be treated confidentially and reported in aggregate.

9. Data Analysis

The data were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS –version 22). Descriptive statistics were used to report on the demographic data and correlations and regressions were used to analyse the relationship between recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, job security and labour relations in professional sport coaching.

10. Results

The demographic profile of the participants is provided in Table 1. More male (n=160; 67%) than female coaches (n=77; 32%) completed the questionnaire. Most coaches were in the age bracket 26-35 years of age (n=97; 41%) followed by those in the 36-45 years age bracket (n=74, 31%). The majority of the coaches had either a Level 1 or Level 2 coaching qualification (n= 65%).

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Table 1: Demographic profile of the Study Population (n=238)

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<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of completed years of professional coaching experience</td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-25 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-30 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 years and more</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing responses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Recruitment and selection</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Training and development</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>13.58</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Compensation</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.24**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Job security</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>21.91</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.48**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Labour relations</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>21.68</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.66**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As reflected in Table 2 all the Cronbach coefficients are 0.6 and above which are acceptable due to the exploratory nature of the study (Kim & Kim, 1995).

The strength of the relationship between the selected HR practices was measured using the guidelines suggested by Cohen (1988). According to Cohen (1988) the strength of the relationship can be measured as follows: ± (0.5 to 1.0) = large; ± (0.3 to 0.49) = Moderate; and ± (0.1 to 0.29) = small. It is evident from Table 2 that a practical significant relationship with a medium effect exists between recruitment and selection, training and development and compensation of coaches. A practical significant relationship with a large effect exists between recruitment and selection, job security and labour relations. Only a statistical significant relationship exists between training and compensation of sport coaches. A practical significant large effect exists between training and development, job security and labour relations of sport coaches. A practical significant medium effect exists between compensation and job security of sport coaches. A practical significant large effect exists between job security and labour relations.
Table 3: Multiple regression analyses with labour relations as a dependent variable and recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation and job security as independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>∆R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruitment and selection</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>128.58</td>
<td>.607</td>
<td>.369</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruitment and selection</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>54.81</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td>.495</td>
<td>.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruitment and selection</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>9.85</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>-3.33</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruitment and selection</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>37.81</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td>.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>-5.35</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p Statistically significant at p < 0.05

The results in Table 3 indicate that recruitment and selection predicts Labour Relations in Model 1. Model 1 accounts for 37% of the variance in Labour Relations and is significantly fit of the data ($F_{(1,220)} = 128.58$, $p < 0.05$). The adjusted $R^2$ (0.36) shows some shrinkage from the unadjusted value (0.38) indicating that the model may not generalise well. In terms of the individual predictor it could be reported that Recruitment and Selection ($β = 0.61; t = 7.31; p < 0.00$) predicted a positive Labour Relations. In Model 2, adding Recruitment and Selection and Training and Development the statistical significance decrease in the prediction of variance in Labour Relations ($F_{(1,219)}, p < 0.01$, $∆R^2=0.13$), accounting for approximately 13% of the total variance. More specifically, it seems that significant predictors of positive relationship are Recruitment and Selection ($β = 0.47; t =-2.13, p < 0.00$) and Training and Development ($β = 0.38; t =-7.40; p < 0.00$). All variables in Model 2, VIF values are below 10 or alternatively tolerance values are well above 0.20, indicating no multicollinearity in the data. In Model 3, by Compensation being added to this step only 2% of the total variance is explained. Taken together, it seems that significant predictors of Labour Relations are Recruitment and Selection ($β = 0.52; t =-6.47; p < 0.00$), Training and Development ($β = 0.41; t =8.03; p < 0.00$) and Compensation ($β = - 0.17; t =-3.33; p < 0.00$). In Model 4, Job Security was added to this step. By adding Job Security it did not statistically significantly influence the model, which explains 7% of the total variance. It seems therefore that Recruitment and Selection ($β = 0.36; t =6.47; p < 0.00$), Training and Development ($β = 0.22; t =3.88; p < 0.00$), Compensation ($β =- 0.27; t =-5.35; p < 0.00$) and Job Security ($β = 0.43; t =6.15; p < 0.00$) influence Labour Relations to an extent.

11. Discussion

The results of the study indicate the important role that recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation and job security plays in determining labour relations practices in sport organisations in South Africa. The stepwise regression analysis (Table 3) reflected that the largest predictor of labour relations is recruitment and selection. This implies that if the recruitment and selection processes are proper, the organisation is unlikely to face any labour-related issues. It is therefore imperative that sport organisations adopt proper procedures when recruiting and selecting personnel (Cushway, 1999). The selection process in an organisation can have a significant impact not only on the output in an organisation but also on labour relations practices, turnover and retention of employees. The recruitment and selection process must comply with the provisions made by the government (e.g. the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) and Employee Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998). Deviance from this Act may have serious consequences such as staff dissatisfaction, go-slow or strikes.

Training and development also predicted labour relations positively. The dynamic nature of sport organisations and the increasing demands placed on sport coaches compel HR managers in sport organisations to address issues such as training and development so that sport coaches are not only capable of doing their job but also provides the organisation with a competitive edge. Effective and efficient management and implementation of training programmes reduces learning costs, increases performance and overall productivity, increases job knowledge and extends employees’ range...
of skills (Surujlal, 2013).

Uncertainty in the job situation influences job security of sport coaches negatively and may influence labour relations. Sport organisations should, therefore, take proactive measures to ensure that the job security needs of sport coaches (e.g., a grievance system to protect one against unfair dismissal; retirement packages for provision of income in later life) are met.

Compensation was found to be a negative predictor of labour relations. This implies that if compensation is not viewed as fair to employees, it is likely that labour related issues may surface. It is therefore important that the compensation system should be fair and clearly indicate how outputs are measured and rewarded (Surujlal, 2004). Employees should be able to see justice in the compensation offered. Sport organisations which operate in an increasingly competitive environment should ensure that their compensation packages are competitive and market-related if they wish to attract and retain good coaches.

12. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between selected human resources practices. Given that the HR function in sport organisations today is more integrated and strategically involved, it is difficult to ignore the inter-relatedness of human resources practices such as labour relations, recruitment and selection, training and development, job security and compensation. Professional sport coaches who are an integral part of the human resources at sport organisations play a vital role in contributing towards the achievement of organisational goals. Therefore implementation of human resources practices should be efficient and consistent so that labour relations issues do not hinder the progress of a sport organisation.

References


The Impact of a Monolingual Medium of Instruction in a Multilingual University in South Africa

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Abstract

This paper investigates the impacts of a monolingual medium of instruction (MOI) in a multilingual university in South Africa. It offers a critical examination of the different effects (both positive and negative) this may have on learning and of course academic performance of the students. It further examines why the students may or may not prefer the selected medium of instruction and the effect this has on their learning abilities. Hence the analysis of these different views would inform and improve the teaching and learning in the classroom at higher education level as the lecturers would be informed of the outcomes thus leading to different strategic approaches that would be used in teaching and learning. In addition, the paper presents the factors that appear to play a role in shaping the students' ideologies and attitudes towards English, a language used as a MOI across most if not all universities in South Africa and which many of the students appear to find difficult to use in academic learning. The findings from this qualitative study are examined using studies on language ideologies by Kroskrity (2000) and language policy and planning by Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) and Brumfit (2006).

Keywords: South Africa, University, language ideologies, language policy, medium of instruction, language attitudes, English, multilingualism, socio-political factors.

1. Introduction

South Africa is a multilingual country with an extraordinary diversity of races, groupings, languages and landscapes that characterises this country. It has the most diverse and accommodating language policy in the world (Bamgbose 2003). South Africa has eleven official languages, and a significant number of minority languages. Despite the large number of official languages, English is the dominant language in South Africa (Dyers 2008) and as a result, many parents do their best to ensure that their children are educated in English. Besides the eleven official languages, there are a number of other African languages spoken in SA. Other SA languages covered by the constitution are: Khoi, Nama and San languages, South African Sign Language (SASL), Arabic, German, Greek, Gujarati, Hebrew, Hindi, Portuguese, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu. There is also one pidgin: Fanagalo, which was used largely in the mining industry (Allmann 2009), but now appears to be in decline owing to the negative sentiments around its continued use. South Africa also has different varieties of English influenced by social class, level of education and region. For example, in the city of Cape Town we find Cape Flats English, spoken in Cape Town and its surrounding areas (McCormick 2000). There is also South African Indian English (Mesthrie 1992), spoken mainly, but not exclusively, in the province of Kwa-Zulu Natal, and Black South African English (BSAE) (Da Silva 2008). English is also used in many merged or blended varieties like Tsotsitaal and Hip-hop language (Williams 2012).

SA therefore has no single culture as a result of this diversity, and the new SA is thus marked by multiracialism and multiculturalism. Although SA has eleven official languages, English is understood across the country and is the language of media, politics, business and serves as the lingua franca of this country (Beukes 2003).

1.1 An Overview of the Language Policy in South Africa (SA)

Beukes (2008) provides a very comprehensive overview of the developments of language policy in South Africa. The colonial era, dating from the settlement of the Dutch in SA in 1652 to the period of British rule and the establishment of the Union of SA, showed scant respect for the indigenous languages of South Africa. During the apartheid era, when the country was ruled by the Afrikaner Nationalists, the indigenous languages became part and parcel of a strategy to divide and rule the black majority in the country. The Afrikaner nationalists, obsessed with racial stratification, emphasized what they saw as the links between ethnicity and language, especially in their creation of small separate ‘homelands’ for each black ethnic group, like Transkei for the Xhosas, Zululand for the Zulus and Bophuthatswana for the Tswanas. Separate language boards were created for each indigenous language, and quite a lot of work was done on developing dictionaries
and literature in these languages, which were used in especially primary education and other homeland domains. (Standard) Afrikaans and English were the only official languages in this period, and other varieties of these languages, e.g. Cape Flats Afrikaans, Black South African English or South African Indian English, had little or no status apart from being markers of ‘Coloured’, ‘Black’ or ‘Indian’ identity.

According to Beukes (2008) a serious attempt was made to address the subordinate situation of the indigenous languages when the country became a democracy in 1994. In order to promote linguistic diversity in South Africa, the Department of Arts and Culture organized a national conference on language, which led to the establishment of the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB). This Board was formed to promote broader multilingualism, aid the development and wider use of all the eleven official languages as well as the Khoi, Nama, and San languages and the South African Sign Language. The national Department of Education developed the Language in Education Policy (LiEDP) that stressed multilingualism to promote diversity and build a non-racial SA.

The language policy in SA as said earlier is regarded as the most accommodating policy in the world (Bamgbose, 2003) as it gives room for 11 official languages, of which nine are African languages. The two official documents that constitute the framework for language planning in SA are the Constitution and the SA Language Bill. The South African Constitution (1996 No. 108.6) stipulates:

(1) The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isizulu.

(2) Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.

(a) The national government and provincial governments may use any particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned; but the national government and each provincial government must use at least two official languages.

(b) Municipalities must take into account the language usage and preferences of their residents.

(3) The national government and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must regulate and monitor their use of official languages. Without detracting from the provisions of subsection (2), all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably.

(4) A Pan South African Language Board established by national legislation must-

(a) promote, and create conditions for, the development and use of-

(i) all official languages;

(ii) the Khoi, Nama and San languages; and

(iii) Sign Language; and

(b) promote and ensure respect for-

(i) all languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu; and

(ii) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

However, since its inception, the SA National Language Policy has been criticized for not fulfilling its lofty aims (Webb 2002; Beukes 2008). Although the policy is accompanied by a clear Implementation Plan, progress has been slow. English, the default lingua franca of this country, has in fact become the dominant language of the country, particularly as it is favoured by politicians and businesses (Abongdia 2013).

The main SA languages, according to Webb (2002), are rooted in the political history of the country. He contends that English today is a very prestigious language, followed by Afrikaans to a lesser degree in certain parts of the country, while the indigenous languages have very little educational and economic value. For many speakers of these languages, according to Webb, the indigenous languages are seen as symbols of “uneducated, traditional, rural, culturally backward people with lower mental power” (Webb 2002: 8). Paradoxically, this is not the case with Afrikaans as it is the only language that is competing with English in SA (Kamwangamalu 2000, and Abongdia 2013) at the official level. Webb views English and the Bantu languages as holding opposite positions and concludes that English can be used for discrimination and manipulation, as it is a vehicle for the struggle of power between the different socio-economic groups (Webb 2002: 8). He therefore suggests a language policy that should be developed in a way that it can facilitate rather than impede development in all the domains.

Beukes (2008) is of the opinion that the government lacks a commitment to its own policy because language matters are being relegated to the background. She argues like Pennycook (2000) and Ricento (2000) that language policy and planning are contextually determined and for it to be implemented, note should be taken of the social, cultural and economic interest benefits to its citizens. She goes further to say that traditionally the language policy activities
followed the top-down approach model where people in authority take decisions for groups with little or no consultation with those who use the language.

However, it should be noted that the use of local languages in formal education has been highly problematic in sub-Saharan Africa (Abongdia 2013). Mother-tongue instruction is permitted in primary grades, but the implementation of this policy is not yet common in many African countries, with the exception of Malawi, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Mozambique, Cameroon, Mozambique and South Africa. In Cameroon, there is no clear cut rule to guide the implementation of the mother tongue medium of instruction. However, it runs across the first three years of schooling (Trudell 2007). In the case of SA the indigenous languages are used in the first three years of schooling and later used/learned as a school subject (Stroud 2004). One of the main reasons Trudell (2007: 561) puts forward for this practice is “…the perspectives and desires of the stakeholders in the education process who reside in the local community: teachers, parents, community leaders, school authorities, and children themselves. Responding to their particular historical, social, and economic context, these stakeholders have developed their own perspectives on the nature and outcome of formal education as well as beliefs about the utility and proper place of the local language”. This means that mother-tongue instruction is not used in all areas in the country, but mostly in local communities depending on the agreement of the stakeholders residing in these communities/localities.

Most national policy makers and community level educators often hesitate to replace education in official languages with education in local languages. Trudell (2007: 553) also argues that the national level of adaptation of mother-tongue education is not only impeded by pedagogical aspects but also by political and social factors that have a powerful role when language and educational issues are under consideration. On the other hand, the implementation of mother-tongue education in the African community contexts is more of a local endeavour and is greatly influenced by the values and beliefs of those community members (Abongdia 2013).

1.2 Language policy of the University of the Western Cape

The University of the Western Cape is the focal points of this study. This university was established by an Act of Parliament as an ethnic college for “coloured” students in 1959. It was opened as a University College (mainly aimed at training high school teachers) in 1960, raised to the status of a full university in 1970 and gained its autonomy in 1983 through the University of the Western Cape Act. In 1982, it began the process of transforming itself into an internationally recognised university with a reputation for excellence in teaching and research. Due to its experience in the liberation struggle, UWC is aware of a distinctive academic role in helping to build an equitable and dynamic society. Today it has a diverse student and staff population.

The 2003 language policy at this university aims at “ensuring equity, social development and a respect for South Africa’s multilingual heritage” (UWC Language Policy 2003). The language policy “attempts to guide institutional language practice so that it furthers equality, social development, and a respect for our multilingual heritage” (Language Policy Preamble 2003). The policy outlines which languages will be used by the institution in terms of language of teaching and learning, assessment, access to academic and professional discourse, promoting multiculturalism, and language of internal and external communication. The main language used at the institution is English, followed by Afrikaans and isiXhosa. The choices of these languages were guided by the fact that these are also the official languages of the Western Cape Province. It is logical that tertiary institutions should promote the most used languages in their provinces.

It is worth noting that the policy makers worked from the premise that the university is multilingual and that there was a need for a common language which in this case is English. Given the multicultural nature of the university, lectures are delivered in English, the exception being the different language departments like the departments of Xhosa, Afrikaans and Nederlands and other foreign languages. However, lecturers of other departments who are competent users of Afrikaans and Xhosa are “encouraged to use the language in addition to English if it is going to ease understanding” (UWC Language Policy 2003). Students are also allowed to use the language in which they are most competent in discussions during tutorials but must give feedback in class only in English. Lecturers and tutors are also encouraged to use the students’ first language during consultation if they are competent speakers of that language. As for assignments and tasks, students are expected to use only English apart from the departments of Afrikaans, Xhosa and other foreign languages. Therefore, English is the MOI at UWC and can be seen as the dominant language in class (lectures and tutorials). A fuller analysis of this policy is provided in Chapter 8 of this study.

2. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Theoretically and conceptually, this paper interrogates the notions of language policy, language ideology, and medium of
instruction within the context of the late-modern era and globalization. Blakledge (2005:32) contends that language ideologies “are positioned in, and subject to, their social, political and historical contexts”, and are inscribed in many “chains of discourse” (ibid: 209). Language policy is one of these discursive chains, and cannot be divested from the politics and history of either the country or institution which draws up such policies (Abongdia 2013). Given their centrality to this paper, the writer commence with an examination of some of the definitions of the concepts language ideologies and language policy.

Irvine (1989:255) defines ideologies as “the cultural system of ideas about social and linguistic relationships, together with the loading of moral and political interests”. This definition emphasizes the ‘moral and political interests’ that underpin societal ideologies, and shows that ideologies cannot exist outside of the power relationships in any society. This is further emphasized in Fairclough’s definition of ideologies (2003:9) as:

“representations of aspects of the world which contribute to establishing and maintaining relations of power, domination and exploitation. They may be enacted in ways of interaction (and therefore in genres) and inscribed in ways of being identities (and therefore styles)”.

It is the contention of this paper that ideologies about language are an integral part of ideologies in other domains of human activity such as the creation of language policy. Irvine and Gal (2005:35) see language ideologies as “the ideas with which participants and observers frame their understanding of linguistic varieties and mapped such understandings onto people, events and activities that were significant to them. These ideologies are not only held by the immediate participants in the local sociolinguistic system but also by observers like linguists and ethnographers, who have put in place, boundaries between people and languages”.

This definition emphasizes how ordinary people understand the role of different language varieties, and link this understanding to their perceptions of, and responses to, the speakers of such varieties. In addition, the definition also shows how people perceive and interpret the role of language in major events that affect their lives (e.g. political speeches, dealing with government departments and other state institutions like hospitals) as well as the ways in which particular language varieties impact on their daily activities (e.g. at work, in schools and universities and places of worship).

All the above definitions are framed by Kroskrity’s (2000: 8-21) four intersecting dimensions of language ideologies. According to him (his italics):

- “…language ideologies represent the perception of language and discourse that is constructed in the interest of a specific social or cultural group”;
- “…language ideologies are profitably conceived as multiple because of the multiplicity of meaningful social divisions (class, gender, clan, elites, generations, and so on) within sociocultural groups that have the potential to produce divergent perspectives expressed as indices of group membership”;
- “…members may display varying degrees of awareness of local language ideologies”; and lastly
- “…members’ language ideologies mediate between social structures and forms of talk”.

The first dimension reveals how people’s notions about languages are rooted in their social experiences and often tied to their political and economic interests. This dimension comes out strongly in studies conducted by Lippi-Green (1997), Cameron (1995) and Milroy and Milroy (1998) on the type of language-based discrimination that takes place in the United States and Britain against marginalized social groups who do not speak the ‘standard’ language. In the setting of South Africa English dominates the other official languages. In view of this, Blommaert (2006) argues that language ideologies are not attributed to one person or located in a particular site (political party/government) but it penetrates the whole fabric of societies or communities and results in normalised, naturalised patterns of thought and behaviour. Thus ideology is seen as common sense, the naturalised activities that sustain social relation and power structures and the patterns of power that reinforce such common sense (Bourdieu 1991).

Kroskrity’s second dimension reveals that social experiences are not uniformly distributed but differ in terms of the divisions in particular societies. Men and women, older and younger people, for example, may have very different perceptions, beliefs and attitudes about language. In this way, different ideologies can become contentious within the same group and lead to tensions between what are often state-endorsed dominant ideologies and their opponents. In South Africa, for example, we find contrasting views on the perceived shift towards English from Afrikaans and Xhosa depending on the area in which respondents live and the particular social class they belong to (Dyers 2008a and 2008b; Anthonissen and George 2003).
At the core of the third dimension is how conscious members of a society are about their attitudes towards languages. Kroskrity contends that those who are most conscious of their ideologies are the ones likely to be most vocal about the value of different languages. But ordinary people’s ideologies are more likely to be reflected in their actual language usage – the languages they prefer to use as opposed to the languages they avoid using (Kroskrity 1999: 19; Dyers 2008b).

In his fourth dimension, he shows how people use their ideologies about language as a bridge between their ‘sociocultural experience and their linguistic and discursive forms as indexically tied to features of their sociocultural experience.’ In other words, people are quite selective about the features of language and the role of particular languages in society when expressing their language ideologies. Certain features stand out, for example “I don’t like the sound of that language/language variety – it sounds too coarse/common/disrespectful” or “My language cannot be used at university level”. In the first example quoted here, the language or language variety has somehow become associated with unpleasant social experiences and in the second example there is recognition of the absence of ‘my language’ in a tertiary setting. A good example of this dimension is Swigart’s analysis of the harsh criticism by the Senegalese Francophone elite of former President Abdou Diouf’s speech to the nation in Urban Wolof, one of the local Senegalese languages, instead of French (Swigart 2001).

Ideologies about language are of course not about language alone, but reflect issues of social and personal identity (which includes social status), and are reflected in actual linguistic practice – how people talk, what they say about languages, the language choices they make for themselves and their children, and what they regards as important and essential languages for both survival and advancement in terms of employment opportunities and social standing. These issues of social and personal identity are reflected in Weber and Horner’s (2012:16) definition of language ideology as the “cultural system of idea and feelings, norms and values, which inform the way people think about language”. Of relevance to this paper are the five major language ideologies listed by Weber and Horner (2012: 16-20).

There is a bilateral relationship between language ideologies and attitudes on the one hand, and language planning and policy on the other. Planning languages and writing language policies are strongly influenced by the prevailing language ideologies and possibly more personal attitudes of those who are directed by governments to do this kind of work (Abongdia 2013). At the same time, she argues that language planning and subsequent policies put in place can also influence people’s language ideologies and attitudes as well as their social practices.

Language planning is defined by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997: 3) as “a body of idea, laws, and regulations (language policy), change, rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities. To put it differently, language planning involves deliberate, although not always overt, future oriented change in systems of language code and/or speaking in a societal context”. According to Mühlhäusler (2000), languages are not isolated systems but interact with other systems outside linguistics such as culture, politics, and environment.

Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) define language policy as "an effort by someone with or claiming authority to change the language practice (or ideology) of someone else". Within the language policy, the policy maker has some level of authority over those expected to follow its requirements. They make reference to Ager (1996) who sees language policy as obtaining power rather than distributing it. When creating a language policy, the question to be answered is: for whom is this policy intended? And who are the policy makers? Spolsky and Shohamy think that if language policy aims at changing language practice, then there is a need to study not just policy making but the implementation and evaluation of the policy as well. For policy to be analysed, it becomes very important to evaluate its impacts. It is important to note that sometimes the statement of the policy can be more important than its effective implementation.

Brumfit (2006) in his contribution to language policy says that all humans are born with the ability or capacity to acquire a language(s) that they are exposed to. They have no genetic links to a particular language. He further notes that thresholds are found both between and within languages with liminality as a characteristic of contemporary language use. Liminality is a situation where people shift from (and eventually lose) their original identity, role and positions. This happens as the liminal person moves from one place to another dropping and acquiring new values (Pavlenko and Blackledge 2004 and Turner 1982). Turner (1982) further says that languages are constructed just like identity depending on the political, individual or group needs/choices. The name of a language depends on the particular social group, thus it should be seen as a social act. Many of the world’s languages have the names of particular ethnic groups they are associated with, e.g. isiXhosa as the language of the Xhosa speech community in South Africa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati etc.

Brumfit (2006:36) in his research on language policy in Europe argues that “policy making is normally aspirational and symbolic”. What is significant about a policy is what is excluded more than what is included, and what is considered desirable to the policy makers. Conversely, Brumfit thinks that a policy might run the risk of not being practical and not

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meeting the needs of the people. “People’s individual repertoires are modified, changed and widened because of language contact as a result of the permeability of language boundaries, and such extended repertoires frequently find no reflection in language policies” (Brumfit 2006: 37). The wish to extend these repertoires is based on rules put in place by those of the language(s) that one wishes to add to one’s repertoire. Such extended repertoires can be seen in people’s use of the many cross-border languages of Africa as well as the heteroglossia (Bakhtin 1981) so prevalent in its multilingual cities.

Brumfit (2006: 39) further sees multilingualism and multi-dialectalism as having always been the norm for most people, and views policy as a way of controlling or managing linguistic diversity. In this regard, he refers to English as the default language for international communication but acknowledges the need to provide support for minority languages. Brumfit is critical of monolingual, monocultural speakers of English, and argues that they should be made to see foreign languages as means of expanding their repertoires. Thus, language policy for him should help to “reduce the negative effects of people hiding behind a language if it acknowledges the permeability of languages in all directions” (Brumfit 2006: 40). Language is “the Epiphenomenon in power relations” that can easily be used to define group and individual identities (Brumfit 2006: 41), and he sees the naming of languages as political and not linguistic in nature, given that individuals speaking the same language use different lexicons, syntactic features, cultural codes, accent, as well as tone of voice. In addition, language rights are often promoted over individual rights.

However, while policies may ostensibly suggest that they are instruments of language rights, as in the case of SA, individuals generally do not have the right to use the language they are most comfortable in (irrespective of its official status) but have dominant languages of power imposed on them. Given this reality, Brumfit (2006) concludes that policy makers should make it clear that language policies are political, rather than linguistic instruments. He further argues that it is not easy to convince people to accept a more open-ended view of their language capacities and repertoires.

According to Baldauf and Kaplan (2006:8) language policy and planning occur in an environment circumscribed by language ideologies arising from “historical and material situations; from socio-political and historical frameworks of power caused by discrimination and nation building”. They posit that language in education is one of the major areas where the language policy of a country is seen. Like Brumfit (2006), Baldauf and Kaplan think that there is a discrepancy between the language policies put in place and actual practices in reality. Instead they contend that most policies are “diametrically opposed to reality” (2006: 9), driven by political rather than linguistic forces. This is in line with Kamwangamalu (2000) who says that there is a mismatch between language policy and language practice in South Africa, where official policy promotes multilingualism, but practices are shifting towards English monolingualism in all higher domains of use. The next section provides more evidence of the political and ideological nature of language policies in South Africa.

3. Methodology

Methodologically, the study required an analysis of the linguistic and political background of South Africa and how it relates to the establishment of the University of the Western Cape and its language policy. Furthermore the language policy of the University of the Western Cape had to be analysed within the context of the dominant ideologies in the country as well as the ideologies of those who drafted the language policy. Finally, a cross-section of the populations (approximately 5% of the total population) at the university had to be sampled qualitatively in order to determine the current ideological positions with regards to how effectively the policy was being implemented, and the impact it has on learning.

3.1 Data Collection

The data for this study was collected through the use of open-ended questionnaires completed by students and lecturers, as well as individual interviews conducted with purposefully selected lecturers, students and major stakeholders such as deans of faculties and administrators. In addition, a substantial amount of time was spent observing the research site and recording of these observations in daily field notes.

The study was conducted with the third year BA students and lecturers at the University of the Western Cape, stakeholders and administrators. The study made use of 80 participants: 12 lecturers, 5 stakeholders, 60 students and 3 administrators. The students consisted of 34 coloureds (people of mixed ancestry, predominantly bilingual in English and Afrikaans), and 26 blacks (22 isiXhosa first language speakers, two isiZulu and two Setswana first language speakers). A further breakdown of actual home language (HL) use among the coloureds students revealed that 26 indicated Afrikaans as their HL, 4 indicated English as HL while a further 4 indicated both English and Afrikaans as their HL. Naturally the
research population also spoke different varieties of these languages, particularly urban, blended varieties.

3.2 Data Analysis

The qualitative data consisted of:

- An analysis of the language policies of the university;
- Written responses to a set of open-ended questions which formed part of the main questionnaire;
- Transcribed individual and focus group interviews and
- Field notes which contained observations as well as some participant responses and group discussions.

These four sources of qualitative data was analysed by using Content Analysis (to uncover the different themes in the data), and Critical Discourse Analysis (to unpack the relationships between the various forms of discourses and both abstract and concrete structures of power).

In addition, careful note was taken of the respondents’ tone of voice in the interviews and the manner in which the information was transmitted: passively, happily, angrily or passionately. To ensure that the emotions were well captured, the researcher personally transcribed the interviews, in order to capture the facial expressions, movements and body language of her respondents.

4. Findings

4.1 An analysis of the language policies of UWC

In analysing the language policy of UWC, note was taken of whose interests are served by these policies as well as what these policies seek to promote and or deny within the social, political and economic structures of both countries.

The South African Constitution (1996 No. 108.6) includes the following two key stipulations as part of the new democratic dispensation in South Africa, with its focus on national reconciliation and redress:

1. The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu.
2. Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.

The language policy of the University of the Western Cape (2003) is contained in a document formally approved by the University Council, and clearly attempts to capture the spirit of these two stipulations in the Constitution. This can be seen in its aims of “ensuring equity, social development and a respect for South Africa’s multilingual heritage” (Preamble of the UWC Language Policy, 2003). However, English and Afrikaans are the dominant home languages of the student population, as the following breakdown of the 2010 registration statistics (the year in which this research took place) reveal:

- English/Bilingual English and Afrikaans-speaking: 57.3%
- isiXhosa: 24.7%
- Afrikaans: 14.9%
- Other SA lgs: 6.3%
- Foreign lgs: 4.9%

This is clearly a factor that may diminish any urgency to do more to promote the use and development of formerly marginalised languages like isiXhosa at this university.

4.2 Some extracts from lecturers

- English speakers are being taught in their language and thus have a significant advantage over other. But most students who enrol at UWC do not speak English as their first language.
- For some, it affects them positively and for others negatively as their first official language is probably Xhosa or Afrikaans.
- Some yes and others no since we have 11 official languages and we have students from all kinds of backgrounds and almost each one having his/her own official language.
4.3 Some extracts from students

- It has a huge effect, it determines whether students will pass or not, because if they struggle they might not pass (Xhosa L1 student).
- English is the main language that is being used and with that you find students that come from Bantu education being disadvantage; the other official languages are not used (Xhosa L1 student).
- The main language is English and this means that the students with poor background in English may have problems grasping concepts (English L1 student).
- It affects the students both negatively and positively. Negatively, because not all students are comfortable with English. Positively, because English is a global language and we must learn it somehow (Afrikaans L1 student).
- I think it is one of the contributing factors of failure for non-English speakers (Xhosa L1 student).

Looking at the above extracts, it is evident that the use of English only medium in a multilingual institution affects students’ academic performance both positively and negatively. This leaves the students with both a positive and negative attitude as the students depending on their sociolinguistic backgrounds. Furthermore, the MOI on paper does not tie with practice. This is because the students are not assisted in the other Western Cape languages (Afrikaans and isiXhosa) by lecturers and tutors who are competent users of these languages. As a result, a range of language ideologies are revealed because of the monolingual MOI.

4.4 The hierarchy of languages ideology

This has to do with the belief that some languages have a higher status than others (Weber and Horner 2012:16). English is seen to be higher in status than the indigenous languages.

4.5 The one-nation one-language ideology

Milroy and Milroy’s (1999) notion of one-nation-one language is still present, according to Anchimbe (2007), because most African countries followed the European blueprint in the design of their language policies.

5. Conclusion

Given the multilingual and multicultural nature of the university, lectures are delivered in English, the exception being the different language departments. Lecturers of other departments who are competent users of Afrikaans and Xhosa are “encouraged to use the language in addition to English if it is going to ease understanding” (UWC Language Policy 2003) however this is not happening. It should be noted that the policy contains a number of ‘escape clauses’ like ‘where practicable’, ‘if desired’ and ‘if it is practicable to do so’, that could be used to justify a lack of direct action to implement the policy.

Taking the historical, socio-political and demographic factors of UWC into account, it was inevitable that the writers of this policy might have been subjected to a number of conflicting ideologies. One of these ideologies is the ‘common sense assumption’ (Tollefson 1991:11) that English should be the main medium of instruction and communication on this campus. At the same time, the policy also appeared to be informed by a number of ideological assumptions about multilingualism in South Africa held by, e.g. Heugh (1995) and Alexander (1989; 2000). Although the UWC policy was written by people holding their own ideologies about the advancement of multilingualism in South Africa, the policy eventually privileged English, with two other languages, Afrikaans and isiXhosa (expected) to play ‘supporting’ roles. Ideologically, therefore, although the policy may have striven for linguistic pluralism, in practice it promotes linguistic assimilation (Cobarrubias 1983:63), and there is a very clear hierarchy of languages at this institution.

6. Acknowledgement

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Quantitative Analysis of the Elements of Interpersonal Trust of Poles

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Abstract

Interpersonal trust is a crucial element of the social trust and contributes essentially to economic growth. Various studies show that the level of interpersonal trust in Poland is relatively low what is an unfavorable situation. This paper aims at giving a statistical insight into interpersonal trust elements distinguished in the European Social Survey which can be described as trustfulness, helpfulness and fairness. These three components are considered with respect to some socio-economic characteristics as gender and age. As the dataset used in this study comprises both metric and non-metric variables several analytical methods are applied to explore the structure and nature of relationships. Additionally, the analyses are supported by appropriate data visualization techniques.

Keywords: interpersonal trust, statistical analysis

1. Introduction

Various studies indicate that interpersonal trust plays an important role in a societal and economic sense. An overview given by Morrone et al. (2009) describes possible positive relationships between interpersonal trust and many economic and social aspects. The lack of trust can contribute negatively to progress and development of the societies. In this context, the situation in Poland seems very unfavorable since the level of the interpersonal trust is relatively low what is proved by diverse surveys: World Value Survey (see Morrone et al. 2009, p.12), Social Diagnosis (see Czapinski & Panek, 2013, p.286), Zaufanie społeczne (2012, p.2). Interpersonal trust is also an issue taken into account in the European Social Survey in which three elements of it may be distinguished: trustfulness, helpfulness and fairness. The relations among these three elements are considered by Grzeškowiak (2014). This paper is an extension of previous work in which additional features are taken into consideration.

Main objective of this study is to analyze three components of interpersonal trust of Poles defined as: trustfulness, fairness and helpfulness in respect with such factors as gender and age. A general hypothesis which is put forward claims that the level of interpersonal trust may be affected by gender and age.

Hence, the main objective is accompanied by some specific objectives as:

– identification of the direction and strength of association between gender or age and interpersonal trust components,
– evaluation of the degree of influence of gender and age towards the perception of interpersonal trust.

2. Data Source and Research Methods

The analyses are based on data from the last wave of European Social Survey (Wave 6 concerning year 2012), namely the answers to three questions reflecting components of interpersonal trust:

– “Would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can’t be too careful in dealing with people?”
– “Do you think that most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance, or would they try to be fair?”
– “Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful or that they are mostly looking out for themselves?”

The respondents assessed their attitude on an eleven point Likert scale, for which extreme values were formulated in the survey as follows:

– “You can’t be too careful” (0) to “Most people can be trusted” (10)

This paper uses European Social Survey data: ESS Round 6: European Social Survey Round 6 Data (2012). Data file edition 1.1, Norwegian Social Science Data Services, Norway – Data Archive and distributor of ESS data.

In this paper abbreviations for the three abovementioned questions are used, especially on figures, respectively: trustfulness, fairness, helpfulness.

The other data considered in this paper are two descriptive features, i.e. gender and age. It should be underlined that the analyses are carried out on the basis of mixed type data:

- nominal (gender),
- ordinal (attitudes towards interpersonal trust),
- ratio scale (age).

what requires particular procedures of the analysis. The analytical methods applied in this study include:

- various visualization techniques adequate to measurement scales,
- chi-square statistics to verify the independence between categorical variables,
- contingency coefficient to evaluate the associations between nominal variables,
- Kendall’s tau-b coefficient as well as Goodman and Kruskal gamma coefficient to assess the associations between ordinal variables,
- Quetelet indexes to detect the category-to-category degree of influence (Mirkin, 2001),
- nonlinear canonical correlation analysis to represent the relationship between two sets of variables.

Most visualization techniques are accessible in R program:

- matrix visualizations using colour intensity and pie representation (see Friendly, 2002), applied to depict contingency tables, are made by functions available in corrplot package (Tei, 2013),
- barcode plots revealing granularity of data, used to show relationships between age and attitudes given in ordinal scales are done with application of barcode package (Emerson, Green & Hartigan, 2012),
- conditional density plots (see Everitt & Hothorn, 2009, pp. 37-38) showing relationships between age and attitudes given in ordinal scales by surface and colour A are derived through vcd package (Meyer, Zeileis & Hornik, 2013).

Only records containing all data are taken into consideration giving the sample size N=1844.

3. Raw Data Visualizations and Categorization

Visualization techniques are useful to gain a general insight into data allowing to reveal certain patterns and regularities. Preliminary visual representation of the raw data showing relations between interpersonal trust components, gender and age are given in Figure 1 and 2.

Figure 1. Visualization of raw contingency tables: gender and 0-10 scale answers to questions representing interpersonal trust components

Source: own elaboration with R, corrplot package

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Figure 2. Barcode visualization of relationships between age and 0-10 scale answers to questions representing interpersonal trust components

Source: own elaboration with R, barcode package

Figure 1 represents the frequencies in contingency tables cells by the colour intensity. The stripes in Figure 2 represent the occurrences of categories corresponding to certain age. Domination of neutral category (5) can be recognized easily as well as low number of answers corresponding to the high evaluation. As the eleven-range Likert scale was applied it might be reasonable to join some categories for further analysis. The categorization is done as follows:
- A answers 0-1, i.e. extremely negative attitude,
- B answers 2-4, i.e. negative attitude,
- C answers 5, i.e. neutral attitude,
- D answers 6-8, i.e. positive attitude,
- E answers 9-10, i.e. extremely positive attitude.

Other visualization methods are applied to depict categorized data: matrix visualizations with pie charts (Friendly, 2002) and conditional density plots (see Everitt & Hothorn, 2009, pp. 37-38). They are shown on Figure 3 and Figure 4, respectively.

Figure 3. Visualization of contingency tables: gender and categorized answers (A–E) to questions representing interpersonal trust components

Source: own elaboration with R, corrplot package

Figure 4. Conditional density plot visualization of relationships between age and categorized answers (A–E) to questions representing interpersonal trust components

Source: own elaboration with R, vcd package
Both visualizations reveal that there might be some associations between socio-economic factors as gender or age and attitude to interpersonal trust. Moreover the patterns of association are slightly different for the three considered components. Some quantitative measures are applied in the next paragraph to evaluate the phenomena.

4. Evaluation of Associations Among Non-Metric Data

Several methods are applied to assess associations among considered categorical variables. Chi-square statistic is used to verify if there are dependencies between gender or age and responses to questions about interpersonal trust. As chi-square statistic depends on the number of observations it is not suitable to measure the strength of association, so other specific coefficients are calculated, namely contingency coefficients for a combination of nominal and ordinal variables and Kendall’s tau-b as well as Goodman and Kruskal gamma coefficients for ordinal variables. The computational formulae of these coefficients are well-known in statistical analysis and can be found for example in Everitt (1992, pp. 57, 62-63). The contingency coefficient lies between 0 and 1, where 0 occurs in case of independence and bigger values suggest a stronger association. Kendall’s tau-b and Goodman and Kruskal gamma proposals take into consideration the ordinal character of variables by distinguishing concordant pairs of observations with rankings in the same direction and discordant pairs with rankings in the reverse direction (Everitt, 1992, p. 62). Additionally Kendall’s coefficient includes also observations tied to both variables. Both coefficients can take positive and negative values showing the direction of association. They are equal zero in case of independence and their absolute value does not exceed 1.

It is necessary to categorize age to measure the relationships between this variable and other ordinal variables. The categorization is done in such a way that three approximately equinumerous groups are derived, i.e.:

- lower age interval (up to 34 years);
- medium age interval (35-55 years);
- upper age interval (56 years and more).

Chi-square statistic and association coefficients are given in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1. Associations between interpersonal trust components and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Chi-square statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Contingency coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trustfulness</td>
<td>7,013</td>
<td>0,135</td>
<td>0,062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>11,658</td>
<td>0,020</td>
<td>0,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness</td>
<td>3,791</td>
<td>0,435</td>
<td>0,045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own computations

Table 2. Associations between interpersonal trust components and age (categorized)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Chi-square statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Kendall’s tau-b coefficient</th>
<th>Gamma coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trustfulness</td>
<td>27,703</td>
<td>0,001</td>
<td>-0,057</td>
<td>-0,081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>32,491</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,009</td>
<td>0,013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness</td>
<td>31,357</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>-0,050</td>
<td>-0,072</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own computations

The chi-square statistics show that in case of gender only one component is significant (fairness), but all components are related with age substantially. However, the degree of association is rather weak. Older Poles tend to evaluate better the fairness than the younger generations. On the contrary, they find people less trustworthy and less helpful. Women are inclined to assess the fairness of others significantly higher than men. It must be kept in mind that the associations among the variables are very poor and perhaps a special measure would reflect better differences in contingency table cells.

Another way to analyze contingency tables was proposed by Quetelet who recommended absolute and relative indexes measuring "local" degree of influence of one category to another by comparing conditional and marginal probabilities (Mirkin, 2001). In this paper a formula representing relative change in probability is applied (Mirkin, 2001):
where: p(i/j) – conditional probability (given that category j occurs), p-i+ – marginal probability of category i.

The values of the indexes are given in Table 3 and in Table 4.

Table 3. Quetelet indexes (%) reflecting the influence of gender towards categorized answers (A–E) to questions representing interpersonal trust components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Trustfulness</th>
<th>Fairness</th>
<th>Helpfulness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-3.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>-10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>-12.0</td>
<td>-7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own computations

Table 4. Quetelet indexes (%) reflecting the influence of age towards categorized answers (A–E) to questions representing interpersonal trust components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Trustfulness</th>
<th>Fairness</th>
<th>Helpfulness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lower</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-25.4</td>
<td>-2.0</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>-9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-5.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>-10.4</td>
<td>-8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>-28.4</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: own computations

Quetelet indexes reveal various patterns on the influence of gender and age towards three interpersonal trust components. Generally, the indexes are higher in case of age as compared to gender what confirms earlier findings. There are some particular results worth underlying:

– category "female" is positively related to high assessment of fairness and helpfulness (categories D and E),
– category "male" is strongly positively related to very high evaluation of trustfulness (category E),
– category "lower age interval" is negatively related to extreme categories (A and E) and positively related to more moderate opinions (B and D),
– category "upper age interval" is related to more polarized opinions (categories A and E),
– category "medium age interval" is positively related to negative and neutral attitudes to fairness as well as to a very high assessment of trustfulness.

All considered indicators show that there are some differences in perception of the interpersonal trust components with respect to gender and age, but the degree of associations is low.

5. Combining Things Together – A Multivariate Approach

In this study two sets of variables are considered. The first one corresponds to opinions about interpersonal trust, the second one comprises such factors as age and gender. Relationships between pairs of variables are discussed in paragraphs 3 and 4. This part of the study attempts to combine all variables together and carry out the analysis for all of them simultaneously. As the variables are non-metric and constitute two sets of different nature nonlinear canonical correlation analysis (see Meulman & Heiser, 2001) is chosen to determine and visualize the associations among categories. Two dimensional solution is proposed for the analysis giving a representation on a plane (Figure 5). The first coordinate represents approximately 52% of captured relationship and the second coordinate about 48%. Unfortunately, the actual fit of the solution is rather poor (55.6%) so the results seem not very informative.
Figure 5. Results of nonlinear canonical correlation analysis

Source: own computations with IBM SPSS Statistics 21.

However, some general conclusions can be drawn. There is a strong contrast between upper age category and other age categories. This is combined with evaluation of trust. The position of points lying in upper left and lower right parts of the plot reflect relationships of gender and to some extent fairness and helpfulness. Older people tend to present extremely negative attitude to interpersonal trust. Women evaluate helpfulness and fairness higher than men.

6. Conclusions

Different types of data visualizations give an opportunity to show the overall relations in datasets. Such presentations which are less detailed as tables with particular numbers allow to recognize some underlying patterns immediately. Visualization techniques give a general insight into data patterns and are very useful when analyzing socio-economic data.

Chi-square statistics allow to infer that there are significant relations between age and interpersonal trust components. No such evidence can be found when regarding gender – a significant dependence occurs in case of the element "fairness" only.

Although chi-square test reveals significant dependences, association measures indicate that the strength of them are very weak. There is a positive relationship between age and component "fairness" and negative dependence between age and attitude to trustfulness or helpfulness. The degree of influence of gender and age category on the interpersonal trust elements may be evaluated by Quetelet indexes. According to them the influence is much stronger in case of age than in case of gender.

A multivariate approach, i.e. nonlinear canonical correlation analysis gives an interesting opportunity to visualize the associations among all variables taken together and grouped into sets but due to poor fit is rather not reliable in this case.

All results obtained in this study indicate that there is no one universal pattern of the relations between gender or age and three interpersonal trust components. Moreover, even if associations exist they are rather weak.

7. Acknowledgments

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This paper uses European Social Survey data: ESS Round 6: European Social Survey Round 6 Data (2012). Data file edition 1.1, European Social Survey Norwegian Social Science Data Services, Norway – Data Archive and distributor of ESS data.
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Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction and Its Relationship on Career Development Among Nursing Staff within a Public Hospital in South Africa

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Abstract

South Africa has a dual health system, namely, the public sector that includes government health institutions, serving mostly the lower income population and the private health sector that serves those who can afford care from their own income. The public sector is responsible for 82 percent of the population and only accounts for 40 percent of the government health expenditure. The private sector accounts for less than 20 percent of the population, it consumes 60 percent of the health expenditure. The purpose of this study was to evaluate job satisfaction levels among nursing staff within a public hospital in Southern Gauteng. A quantitative research method was utilised and a questionnaire was distributed to collect data from nursing staff (n = 259) within a public hospital in Southern Gauteng. The factor analysis procedure resulted in three factors that were pertinent to nurses’ job satisfaction, namely policy and supportive environment, job outcomes and benefits and rewards. The regression analysis showed that benefits and rewards are key predictors of career development among the nurses. Planning and development interventions are essential in these areas of the nurse’s workplace so that the levels of job satisfaction among nursing staff within the public hospital can be enhanced. The study adds value to the hospital as a benchmark since it is the first study of this nature to be conducted at the institution.

Keywords: Nurses, job satisfaction, public hospital, resource adequacy, workload.

1. Introduction

South Africa has a dual health system, the public sector that includes government health institutions, serving mostly the lower income population and the private sector that serves those who can afford care from their own income. The public sector is responsible for 82 percent of the population and only accounts for 40 percent of the government health expenditure whilst it accounts for less than 20 percent of the population it consumes 60 percent of the health expenditure(Health Systems Trust: Annual Health Review, 2005 ). The public sector is often labelled as ‘under resourced’ and ‘unable to meet its tasks of providing accessible and affordable health care’. It threatens the public health capacity to offer good care and to meet the needs of patients (Shields & Ward, 2001). These results in a decrease in productivity and morale of the staff which could be attributed to the amount of pressure placed on them. An unsupportive environment and increased workloads further adds to their dissatisfaction (Sims, 2003).

Data show that from 2004 to 2009 there were 155 484 nurses practicing in South Africa at a rate of 437 nurses per 100 000 of the population, which compares favourably with the world health organisation minimum of 200:100 000 (Hall, 2004). But not all of the nurses are practicing as nurses per se, as some are working in administrative positions. This means that the rates are not a true reflection of the actual number of nurses involved with patient care (Pillay, 2009a). This is of serious concern, since the public sector is responsible for the health of 82 percent of the South African population. A significant number of nurses are also leaving South Africa (Kekana, Blaauw, Tint &Monareng, 2005). The loss of nursing staff coupled with the uneven distribution of those that remain has the potential to undermine health care delivery in South Africa. High levels of turnover of nurses and reduced staff levels have a negative effect on the
performance and quality of health care (Needleman, Buerhaus, Mattke, Stewart & Zelevinsky, 2002). This results in a
decrease in morale and productivity of those remaining, and it increases pressure on those that remain, which, in turn,
contributes to work dissatisfaction and further increase nurse’s employment turnover.

2. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what
one perceives it is offering, influenced by the person’s unique circumstances such as needs, values and expectations
(Daulatram, 2003). Job satisfaction is a complex function of a number of variables. A person may be satisfied with one or
more aspects of his/her job but at the same time may be unhappy with other things related to the job (Ghazali, Shah,
Zaidi & Tahii, 2007). There are different aspects to job satisfaction: job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job
situation; job satisfaction is determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations; and it represents several
related attitudes such as those prompted by the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-worker
integration (Moodley & Coopoo, 2006). Essential to the concept of job satisfaction are the attitudes, emotions and feelings
about a job and how these attitudes, emotions and feelings affect the job and the individual’s life (Carrim, Basson &
Coetzee, 2006).

Willem, Buelens and De Jonghe (2007) define job satisfaction in two categories; from a global approach and from
factors approach. Global job satisfaction is defined as the feeling and emotions employees generate based on their work
experiences or job environment (Lepoko, Bezuidenhout & Roos, 2006). Job satisfaction from a factors approach
emphasises the employee’s attitude to rules, colleagues and the organisational environment (Pietersen, 2005).

Vroom (1964; 1995) found that job satisfaction was directly related to the perceived reward outcomes in the form of
pay, promotion prospects, interaction with co-workers, opportunity to influence decisions, and employees control over
their work. He developed a subtractive theory on the motivation to work and is of the view that job satisfaction is inversely
related to the discrepancy between what an individual needs from the job, and what is supplied by the job in terms of
needs. The traditional model of job satisfaction focuses on all the feelings that an individual has about his/her job
(Malliarou, Sarafis, Moustaka, Kouvela & Constantinidis, 2010).

3. Job Satisfaction in the Nursing Profession

When properly motivated, people can achieve their own goals, by directing their own efforts toward accomplishing
organisational goals. Nursing staffs’ job satisfaction is on the decline worldwide (Cowin, 2002). Nursing shortage is on the
increase globally and the reasons being, job related factors such as low pay, abuse on nurses by demanding patients,
lack of appreciation from doctors, work pressure, work environmental related issues, and lack of opportunities for
advancement. These are some of the main reasons why nurses are not satisfied with their jobs. Therefore nurses with
low job satisfaction levels find it difficult to provide quality patient care (Pietersen, 2005).

The nursing profession involves intellectual activities that can be learned. It is practical and can be taught, and it
has a strong internal organisation of members who have a desire to help others. Nurses are an integral part of general
practice medical teams, with a role which encompasses general treatment room duties, nursing duties and chronic
disease management. Other factors associated with problems in the recruitment and retention of nurses include job
dissatisfaction and perceived work ability, a concept which includes commitment to education and training, employment
history, relationships with colleagues and managerial support (O’Donnell, Jabareen & Watt, 2010).

Job satisfaction is very important in the lives of nurses. It is seen as an essential aspect of their work and it should
be attended to very consciously. This is important considering the nature and the uniqueness of their work, which
involves a huge amount of stress (Alam & Mohammad, 2010). Secondly the job satisfaction of nurses has a great impact
on patients’ care and the good delivery of health service. Evidence suggests that poor job satisfaction, on the other hand,
contributes to absenteeism and turnover (Cavanagh, 1992). Patient care, the environment, balanced work load, relations
with co-workers, personal factors, salary and benefits, professionalism, cultural background of the nurse and career stage
are categories that emerged as other major influences on job satisfaction (Donna, 1999).

The purpose of this study is to establish the factors that influence job satisfaction and its relationship among
nursing staff within a public hospital in Southern Gauteng.

4. Research Methodology

A research design is the deliberately planned arrangement of conditions for analysis and collection of data in a manner
that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy of procedure (Sellitz, Wrightsman& Cook, 1981). The study made use of a quantitative research design. Quantitative research designs primarily involve the analysis of numbers in order to answer the research question or hypothesis (Sousa, Driessnack&Mendes, 2007). The survey method was used to determine appropriate data through distributing questionnaires. The survey method is less time consuming; it requires little training to administer and it can preserve anonymity (Leedy&Ormrod, 2005).

4.1 Target Population

The research was restricted to public hospital in Southern Gauteng. The population of the study was obtained from the human resources department. Currently, the population comprise N = 517 nurses.

4.2 Sampling

A probability sampling technique was used in this study. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), in probability sampling the odds of selecting a particular individual are known, and can be calculated and the selection of a person from the population is based on some form of random sampling (Gravetter&Forzano, 2003). A simple random sampling design was used. The hospital human resources employees’ database was used as a sample frame, from which the sample was drawn.

4.3 Instrumentation and method of data collection

Data was gathered using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into three sections, section A consisted of a biographical questionnaire to gather information regarding age, gender and race. Section B gathered information regarding nurses’ job satisfaction. Section C gathered information on factors influencing job satisfaction. The response was measured using a Likert type scale where 1 = very dissatisfied and 5 = very satisfied. The questionnaire was pilot-tested on a sample of 25 nurses, to assess the feasibility of the questionnaire. A cross sectional design was used. Cross-sectional studies are carried out at one time or over a short period (Preedy&Waltson, 2009). They are usually conducted to estimate the prevalence of the outcome of interest for a given population, and data can also be collected on individual characteristics and the advantage of cross sectional studies is that in general they are quick and cheap (Levin, 2006). Of the 259 questionnaires distributed, 244 completed questionnaires were collected, with 15 respondents not returning their questionnaires.

5. Reliability and Validity

A total of 17 questions were used to gather information regarding factors influencing job satisfaction. The internal consistency of the 17 items was 0.92 which was considered satisfactory (Malhotra, 2011). Face validity was assessed through a review of the questionnaire by four academics in organisational behaviour studies and the manager of the hospital. In addition, a pilot study among 25 nursing staff was conducted who were employed at the hospital. Minor changes were made to the questionnaire. Convergent validity was assessed through the computation of correlations among the variables used in the study. The results of the correlation analysis are reported in Table 1. Policy and supportive environment, job outcomes and benefits and rewards showed strong positive inter-correlations (p<0.1) thus providing evidence of convergence among the constructs. Predictive validity was assessed through linear regression analysis, which showed that approximately 36% of the variance in career development could be accounted by satisfactory policies and a supportive environment, job outcomes and benefits and rewards.
Table 1: Correlations – Job satisfaction factors and career development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>PSE</th>
<th>JO</th>
<th>BR</th>
<th>CD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy and supportive environment (PSE)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.581**</td>
<td>.604**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job outcomes (JO)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.581**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.556**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits &amp; Rewards (BR)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.604**</td>
<td>.556**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career development (CD)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.412**</td>
<td>.376**</td>
<td>.612**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

6. Results and Discussion

Factor analysis was performed to find the latent variables, because the data contained numerous variables and the researcher needed to reduce the number of variables into interpretable factors. The variables with similar characteristics are grouped together in order to reduce the large number of variables to a small number of constructs which can be used for analysis (Williams, Onsman & Brown, 2010). The variables were analysed using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as an extraction method; orthogonal (varimax) rotation with Kaiser normalisation. All factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were retained (Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006). The proportion of variance, eigenvalues and scree test were techniques used to establish the number of factors to be included (Esmaeili & Shokoohi, 2011) in the factor matrix.

Table 2 reports the initial results. Three (3) factors with eigenvalues >1 explained 58.89% of the total variance among the final 17 item instrument. Tinsley and Tinsley (1987) reported that often “less than 50% of the total variance is explained by a factor solution” and noted that “an analysis in which the factors explain only 30 to 40% of the estimated common variance, leaves an alarming amount of common variance unexplained”.

Factor 1, is labelled policy and enabling supportive environment comprised five variables which loaded onto this factor and accounted for 40.52% of the explained variance. The items that loaded onto this factor related mainly to the nurses participation in decision-making, control over job tasks, fair organisational policies and management support. High performance in the healthcare setting does not only involve the effort of nurses, physicians, and other ancillary providers, but also a collaborative management team, working in synergy with nurses to attain organisational goals (Upenieks, 2002). The results are supported by Stachota, Norman, O’Brien, Clary and Krukow (2003) who assert that a reason nurses leave or change employment, is that they are not happy with the support they receive from management. In a study undertaken by Cortese, Colombo and Ghislieri (2010) it was revealed that supportive management has a significant influence on job satisfaction. According to Stamps and Piedmont (1986:18) “nurses work within the system of teams and shifts and are supervised by a hierarchy of nursing authority”. The findings are also consistent with the study of Sun, He, Wang and Li (2009) who found the work environment as one of the factors causing the most dissatisfaction among nurses.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics, reliability and factor loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and variable description</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Item-total correlation</th>
<th>α value</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy and supportive environment (PSE)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE16(Management support)</td>
<td>2.488</td>
<td>1.1915</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td>0.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE16(Decision-making)</td>
<td>2.635</td>
<td>1.2415</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE17(Attend workshops)</td>
<td>2.660</td>
<td>1.2015</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE9(Policy)</td>
<td>2.664</td>
<td>1.1119</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSE8(Control over job tasks)</td>
<td>3.164</td>
<td>1.2230</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.643</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job outcomes (JO)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JO4(Job enjoyment)</td>
<td>2.955</td>
<td>1.2966</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JO5(Job content)</td>
<td>3.086</td>
<td>1.2945</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JO1(Stimulating work)</td>
<td>3.139</td>
<td>1.1851</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JO3(Challenging work)</td>
<td>3.203</td>
<td>1.2022</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JO2(Apply own ability)</td>
<td>3.283</td>
<td>1.1538</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although some nurses may have other senior nurses below them, they remain the “lynchpin of supervisory practices at a particular work unit” (Shaw, Heyman, Reynolds, Davies & Godin 2007:368). It has been reported that unfriendly working hours policies negatively impacts on job satisfaction and nurses working long hours would be less satisfied with their jobs (Savery & Luks, 2000) compared to those working less hours (Al Jenaibi, 2010). These finds are further supported by Shrestha and Singh (2010) who, in their study, found that a large number of respondents were dissatisfied with their hours of work. Improvement of working conditions should be achieved via effective regulation of working hours (Gerber, 2008). In addition, the mean value of PSE8, control over job tasks, ($\bar{x} = 3.16$) show that nurses often do not have control over their jobs. Krapohl, Manojlovich, Redman and Zhang (2010) affirm that employees who have control over their job may develop a sense of ownership and may use this as a measure to determine or evaluate their jobsatisfaction.

Factor 2, is labelled job outcomes comprised seven variables which loaded onto this factor and accounted for 7.93 % of the explained variance. The items that loaded onto the factor primarily related to resource adequacy, remuneration, development opportunities, the nurse’s enjoyment with the job, being given challenging work, and an opportunity to apply their knowledge in the work environment. A job that allows an individual the ability to apply their knowledge can be expected to lead to job satisfaction, which is why people with high personal growth are more satisfied when given responsibility to decide their own work methods (Gruneberg, 1979; Latham, 2007). According to Lacy, Arnoth and Lowitt (2009) an organisation which provide opportunities for growth, movement and access to challenges and increase in knowledge and skill was found to constitute a key for positive motivation and job satisfaction. Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton’s (2001) study lend support that employees’ satisfaction with their jobs is subject to there being stimulating work; further affirming Herzberg’s motivational theory which holds that jobs that do not offer achievement and stimulating work do not provide satisfaction, whereas those offering achievement and stimulating work, provides motivation and hence increased satisfaction. Employees’ satisfaction with their jobs is influenced by the nature of the work that allows for application of own ability (Pillay, 2009). The mean value of J06, ability to utilise their skills ($\bar{x} = 3.28$) and J05, challenging work ($\bar{x} = 3.26$), and J07, simulating work ($\bar{x} = 3.13$) seem to become central elements for nurses.

Factor 3, is labelled benefits and rewards comprised seven variables which loaded onto this factor and accounted for 8.40 % of the explained variance. The items that loaded onto the factor primarily related to the nurses staff adequacy and resources, fair remuneration, developmental opportunities, rewards in general and retirement benefits. Hospitals have to create conditions that enhance nurses' ability and motivation to develop and make the most constructive use of their talents and experiences (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Lack of access to empowering work structures such as resources is likely to lead to frustration (Mbindyo, Gilson, Blauuw & English, 2009). Remuneration is viewed as an important factor for nurses (Salimaki & Jamsen, 2010), as a perceived lack of it prevents nurses from concentrating on those aspects of the job which are potentially fulfilling (Mudor & Tooksoon, 2011). Fair and good compensation is an important element in making sure that capable people are in place and that desired results are achieved (Dubinsky, Greengarten, Grossman, Hundert, Sawatzky & Whittaker, 2008). Janssen, De Jonge and Bakker (1999) further provides support that rewards influence nurses’ job satisfaction, their level of professionalism, their performance and their resistance to burnout. Extrinsic work values such as fringe benefits are considered to be important in job satisfaction (Al-Doski & Aziz, 2010). Restrictions and limited availability of benefits promote frustration and dissatisfaction. It also emerged that health workers appreciate small benefits that are relevant to their motivation (Mathauer & Imhoff, 2006). The mean value of BR1, retirement benefits ($\bar{x} = 3.16$) show that nurses post-retirement areessential to them in order to cope with later years in their lives.

In accordance with the procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to further examine reliability and convergent and discriminant validity of the multi-item construct measures using AMOS 7.0. Overall acceptable model fit was indicated by goodness-of-fit index (GFI) $\geq$ 0.80, adjusted goodness-of fit index (AGFI) $\geq$ 0.80, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values $\leq$ 0.08, incremental index of fit (IFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and comparative fit index (CFI) values $\geq$ 0.90 and Chi-square degrees of freedom $\leq$ 0.08, incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and comparative fit index (CFI) values $\geq$ 0.90 and Chi-square degrees of freedom $\leq$ 0.08.
freedom ratio (CMIN/DF) value < 3. Recommended statistics for the final overall model assessment show acceptable fit of the measurement model to the data: CMIN/DF = 1.724, GFI = 0.918; AGFI = 0.890; IFI = 0.942; TLI = 0.930; CFI = 0.941; RMSEA = 0.055.

A linear regression analysis was performed using the enter method. Policy and supportive environment, job outcomes and benefits and rewards was entered into the regression equation as an independent variable and career development was entered in the model as a dependent variable. The model summary is reported in Table 3. The regression model indicates that approximately 36% of the variance in career development can be explained by job satisfaction. In terms of the beta weigh ($\beta=0.546$) benefits and rewards contributes significantly ($t=8.045; p<0.000$) towards career development among nurses. The correlation analysis (Table 1) show a high level of correlations between benefits and rewards ($r=0.612$) indicating that nurses who are given sufficient benefits and rewards are more likely to progress in terms of their careers.

### Table 3: Regression analysis-Job satisfaction factors and career development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy &amp; supportive environment</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job outcomes</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits &amp; Rewards</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.546</td>
<td>8.045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R= 0.606 R² = 0.367 Adjusted R² = 0.359 F = 446.411*Sig at 0.05 level

The regression analysis also confirms such association whereby rewards and benefits were shown to be a very strong predictor to career development. Policy and supportive environment and job outcomes seem to be low predictors of career development among nurses. According to Pillay (2009b:8) “the general dissatisfaction of public-sector nurses with their careers and the career opportunities available to them is a further measure of demoralization of nurses and offers some substantiation of the dissatisfaction associated with working in the public sector”. “Inherent in the benefits of continuing professional development for the health care professional is the benefit to the health care user and the employing organisation of empowered health care provider. Empowerment relates to the sense of self worth and competence that comes from having the skills and abilities to carry out the required job, skills which are acquired through a process of continuing professional development” (Richards, 2007:29). “In order to give quality care, nurses need development and empowerment. Improving professional practice and enhancing nurses’ clinical competence through ongoing education may increase retention and job satisfaction and help ensure a stable workforce” (Mokoka, Oosthuizen, & Ehlers, 2010).

The study of Negussie (2012:111) further “revealed that there is direct and positive relationship between rewards and nurses’ work motivation. On the other hand, nurses perceived that their organizations are not offering the right amount of rewards and this has created low-level work motivation for them”. In the study by Mokoka, Oosthuizen and Ehlers (2010) “nurse managers identified the importance of monetary and non-monetary rewards in order to increase retention. Monetary rewards were mainly competitive salaries, performance bonuses and scarce skills remunerations. Non-monetary rewards included extended leave, promotions and creating facilities for child care and recreation. Participants viewed salary as the primary source of job dissatisfaction amongst professional nurses, and also did not think that messages of encouragement and congratulatory notes recognising good performance would make any difference to motivate nurses”.

### 7. Limitations and Implications for Further Research

Since this study identified factors that influence job satisfaction among nurses in one hospital only, the study should be extended to nurses from other hospitals in the same region or in a larger area nationally which may reveal additional factors influencing job satisfaction among nurses. The sample may not necessarily reflect the pattern of the factors affecting job satisfaction across the spectrum of the population of nurses. Further research could be conducted to find various aspects of the job that can be used to increase nurse’s job satisfaction. It will be meaningful to conduct a future study, to examine the reasons why nurses chose to become health care workers. The questionnaire used, requires further development, as it was developed specifically for this study. The questionnaire needs to be used in studies with larger sample sizes in a different area to test the validity and reliability.
8. Conclusion

The findings of this study showed that benefits and rewards are key predictors of career development among the nurses. Planning and development interventions are essential in these areas of the nurse’s workplace so that the levels of job satisfaction among nursing staff within the public hospital can be enhanced. The study will also add value to the hospital as a benchmark as it is the first study of this nature to be conducted at the institution.

References


~ 85 ~
The Subject of Rural Areas in Croatian Daily Newspapers

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Abstract

The mediatization of countryside has multiple effects on sociocultural, economic and political life of rural population. By spreading various and valuable information, the media can contribute to the awareness and education of rural population and accordingly immediately influence the development of rural communities. At the same time the media can significantly contribute to the knowledge of urban population about the importance of rural spaces and in this way contribute to wider global social affirmation of rural population. It is widely known that the printed media, unlike any other, offers the higher level of written subject analyticity. Therefore, the aim of this research is to find out the number of articles on the topic of village, their subjects and the purpose of publishing based on the example of daily Croatian newspapers. The research has been conducted on three national and two regional newspapers in Croatia, published in February and March 2012. The method of content analysis was used and the unit of analysis was newspaper article. The research proved the rare appearance of rural subjects. Only 111 of the total number of newspaper articles are of the rural thematic. Furthermore, there is no significant difference in the number of articles on the countryside topic published in national or in regional newspapers. In addition to that, it has been noted that national newspapers deal with issues of general national interest, while regional cover more local subjects connected with daily life. When considering countryside topics, the journalists of national newspapers tend to have sensationalist approach, on the other hand the articles of regional newspapers reflect the balance in intonation. That is the reason why non-sensational topics on countryside are less present in the daily national newspapers. As a consequence they are at the margins of media space.

Keywords: countryside, rural development, media

1. Introduction

A country promoting information among their citizens improves its own social development (Yadava, 1995). A key role in this process is played by the media, serving as an instrument for building democracy and as a tool for achieving important social changes (Yadava, 1995). Countries which set rural development as one of priorities can therefore achieve one with the help of media, being the catalyst of changes in rural areas. Mediatization of rural areas has multiple effects on political, economic and sociocultural life of rural population (Örs, 2008). Media can contribute to the awareness and education of rural population by spreading various and important information, and therefore immediately influence the development of rural communities. At the same time, media can have a significant influence on keeping the urban population up-to-date about the importance of rural space. Development journalism supports the role of media in this. The task of development journalist is to build a bridge between the rural and the urban (Šačić, 2003). Media are able to spread the voice of rural groups by giving importance to local subjects and in this way contribute to defining rural population as rightful citizens, and not as second-class citizens (Yadava, 1995). Accordingly, media has the power to contribute to bigger social affirmation of rural population.

We are familiar that printed media, in comparison with all the other media, make possible for a reader, as well as for a researcher, to get a bigger degree of analyticity of the event/subject written. Former scientific research on the content analysis of Croatian daily newspapers did not give attention to the topic of village in media. In this research we will deal with how much the topic on rural area is present in Croatian newspapers. The aim is to investigate how much space the Croatian newspaper editorships dedicate to the topic of village and how they perceive it. In other words, if they
promote social awareness through articles on the importance of rural development, or the purpose of these topics given is to achieve sensationalism, attracting reader’s attention.

2. The Aim and Hypothesis of Research

Rural areas cover 91,5% of the territory of Croatia. About three quarters of the population lives in mostly rural and intermediate regions (Ministry of Agriculture, 2008). This should point out the importance of rural areas in the national development of the country. Therefore, the countryside thematic should be very much presented in media space of Croatian newspapers. The aim of this research is to find the number of articles on village, their topics and purpose of publishing, on the example of Croatian newspapers.

This work is based on the following assumptions:

H1: Rural thematic is presented in regional newspapers more than in national newspapers.

H2: Rural thematic in Croatian newspapers is rarely present and mostly only then when creating sensationalism.

H3: Articles on rural topic were not credibly written.

3. Sample and Method of Research

Survey conducted by agencies GFK and PULS has shown that the most influential newspapers in Croatia are the following: Večernji list (38%), Jutarnji list (27%), Slobodna Dalmacija (11%) and Novi list (6%) (Dragojević, Kanižaj & Žebec, 2006). Above mentioned newspapers have the highest reach, which marks the total number of readers who read and not necessarily also buy the newspapers. Congruently mentioned, sample covers three national (Jutarnji list, Večernji list and Vjesnik1) and two regional newspapers (Slobodna Dalmacija and Novi list) published in February and March 2012. We consider that the newspapers publish sensational topics in the beginning of the month, whereas less important topics at the end of the month. Newspapers published from the thirteenth to the twentieth of the month were analyzed due to objectivity. Analyzed were news editions published in Zagreb. Entertainment and sport sections were not included in the analysis, as well as feuilletons and similar enclosures which do not cover rural thematic.

The method of content analysis was used in the research. The analysis unit was a newspaper article chosen according to the occurrence of key words in the text (village, rural, agriculture, fishery, traditional, farmer, fisherman). According to the analysis, first we detected the position of an article on a newspaper page, type of article, intonation of article and article thematic. For the simplicity of defining context of village, the articles were sorted out in the following thematic units: agrarian politics, rural economy, criminal activity, accidents and local subjects2. Credibility of article is estimated according to the analysis of text authorship, number of sources and cited statements in the article. Regarding the cited statements, the attention was especially paid to the usage of quotation marks and delivering opposite opinions.

4. Results of Research

There were 111 articles on the topic of village in the analyzed newspapers. The largest number of articles was published by Slobodna Dalmacija (40), followed by Večernji list (27). Vjesnik published 17 articles and Novi list 16 articles. The least number of articles was published by Jutarnji list (11). The newspaper profile contributed in great extent to the frequency of rural topics. Slobodna Dalmacija contains local columns (covering the towns of Zadar, Šibenik, Split and Dubrovnik, as well as their rural communities and the islands of Dalmatian archipelago). Večernji list is the national newspaper with long tradition of publishing and the aim of reporting about all the main events in the country. These include events of rural thematic. Jutarnji list is the newspaper with the most highlighted semi-tabloid format, so the emphasis is on the entertaining content and sports events, while the serious topics are set on the first few pages.

4.1 Position and type of newspaper articles

Position of article on a newspaper page is one of the key indicators of how editorship evaluates the topic. According to the survey, editorships of the analyzed newspapers chose to locate potentially sensational events on the front page. Rural thematic article was positioned only once on the front page, in the newspaper Večernji list with the articles about...

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1 Although of modest publisher, Vjesnik has been used as a sample while their pages still hold the criteria of quality journalism. According to Croatian media experts, these are the most serious Croatian newspapers, with influence in political and diplomatic circles of Croatia. Moreover, these are the only newspapers not characterized by semi-tabloid format.

2 Thematic unit local subjects refer to topics about only specific village or rural region.
economy issues in agricultural sector. However, the results of research (graph 1) showed that the majority of analyzed articles were positioned on the most read part of the page. The articles are mostly positioned in the upper part of the page, and then in the lower right part of the page. This was entirely contributed by the events from the period of analysis: milkmen protests due to low purchase price of milk, as well as disputes of Croatian fishermen with Slovenian government in the Bay of Piran.

Graph 1. Position of articles on rural topics in daily newspapers

Type of article shows the prevailing forms of reporting in newspapers. The results of research (graph 2) show that editing politics of newspaper prefer neither interviews nor reportages, but the advantage is given to the reports in the form of short news (up to ten lines) or to half-page articles. These articles are often accompanied by photographs which will attract reader’s attention.

Graph 2. Type of article on rural topics in daily newspapers

4.2 Topics and intonation of newspaper articles

According to the results of research (table 1), national newspapers cover rural issues of national interest, while regional newspapers cover mostly local topics related to everyday life. Accordingly, regional newspapers give greater attention to local topics related to rural area of the region where the newspaper comes from.

Table 1. Article topics in daily newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Agrarian politics</th>
<th>Rural economy</th>
<th>Criminal activity in village</th>
<th>Accidents in village</th>
<th>Local topics/events in village</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jutarnji list</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Večernji list</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vjesnik</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slobodna Dalmacija</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novi list</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intonation of article is considered to be a crucial element when creating the image of village in media space of the
newspapers. Intonation is calculated by coefficient of imbalance. The research showed that the rural thematic in Croatian newspaper is presented in the negative tone (table 2). The negative tone is prevailing in Jutarnji list followed by Večernji list. Furthermore, Novi list and Slobodna Dalmacija contain mostly neutral tone towards rural topics. The analysis of thematic units showed that political topics have prevalingly negative tone which is the reflection of crisis in agricultural sector. Local topics have prevalingly positive tone due to events of entertaining character or to positive examples of successful agriculture reflecting brighter side of Croatian village. Only the thematic unit of accidents has neutral tone, being the part of accidents section where the journalist reports are based on information coming from the media announcements.

Table 2. Content analysis according to the intonation of article

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic of the article</th>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jutarnji list</td>
<td>Večernji list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agrarian politics</td>
<td>1 (0)</td>
<td>4 (-0,75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural economy</td>
<td>6 (-0,83)</td>
<td>11 (-0,64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal activity in village</td>
<td>0 (-)</td>
<td>3 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents in village</td>
<td>1 (0)</td>
<td>2 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local topics/events in village</td>
<td>3 (0,33)</td>
<td>7 (0,57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11 (-0,36)</td>
<td>27 (-0,22)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Credibility of articles

Opinion of a reader created about an event depends on journalist’s ability to deliver information through an article. In other words, news credibility demands a journalist’s professionalism and knowledge about the subject he/she is reporting. Interpretation of a journalist can be appreciated in such an extent that some readers are buying a newspaper primarily because of a particular journalist or their column. For that reason is the authorship of a text an important segment in news credibility. The results of research (graph 3) show that the largest number of authorial articles were published in Slobodna Dalmacija, followed by Večernji list. Agency news, published by Croatian news agency (HINA), were represented in small number. Editorial texts were insignificantly present and they appear in each thematic unit.

Graph 3. Author of newspaper article

Further detail authorship analysis showed that the only journalist following a rural thematic was a Vjesnik journalist. However, an engagement of a journalist for a specific subject, i.e. for milkmen protests, was noticed in Slobodna Dalmacija and Večernji list as well. Even more detailed authorship analysis focuses on the signature of an author. The articles were mostly signed with full name and surname, less frequently only with initials of both name and surname (graph 4). In Večernji list the authors leave their initials as signatures, especially in articles where they report on the subject of milkmen protests. Probably the author was assigned to report on likely unfamiliar subject, and gave his/her initials to avoid the possible criticism for the inadequate event interpretation. Furthermore, according to the analysis articles of local thematic signed with initials complete the newspaper page as a form of censorship. Since their title and content do not send clear message, one can conclude that they serve for distracting reader’s attention from the more important article (so called story correspondence).
Due to professionalism, a journalist has to refer in the article to at least two independent sources. Article consisting of news coming from one source is defined as propaganda or a journalist’s review on the event (Malović, 2007). Our analysis showed that authors mostly rely on one source of information with the exception of Jutarnji list, consisting of articles without given source. Vjesnik and Slobodna Dalmacija use three and more sources equally (graph 5). Since Vjesnik is currently the Croatian newspaper with highest reputation, its editorship pays great attention to the quality of articles. Slobodna Dalmacija published the largest number of articles on rural thematic in the analyzed period, expectedly all the articles were of good content quality. However, even though the source is published, the element which diminishes the credibility of articles is the identification of a source by a journalist. When creating news, the journalists do not know, do not have enough time or they are not allowed to identify or use all the sources. The analyzed articles are mostly based on human sources of information, small number on secondary sources, and not a single one of them on primary sources of information. We can assume that journalists do not enjoy complete freedom of reporting. The result is a superficially processed topic and an article of low quality.

Vacillation between journalism ethics and race for profit makes it difficult for editorship to achieve balance between a responsible journalist and news which gains profit (Poler Kovačić, 2001). As a result, journalists use, among other, quotations to prove the credibility of articles. According to the results (table 3), one person is the most frequently cited several times. Then follow texts without quotations. There is the least number of texts with three or more people cited. Content analysis proved that Croatian editorships prefer literal citing of individuals with the usage of quotation marks. This is especially evident when expressing contradictory opinions. Semi-tabloid format of Croatian newspapers indicates summed-up delivery of events whereas the quality of event interpretation is in the background.

3 Phases in source identification of a research process are possible to describe like concentration circles: outer circle consists of secondary sources of information (news archive, online information), whereas in the inner circle are the primary sources of information (Obad, 2004).
Table 3. Use of quotes in newspaper articles on rural topic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>No quotes</th>
<th>One person quoted</th>
<th>Two persons quoted</th>
<th>Three or more persons quoted</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jutarnji list</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Večernji list</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vjesnik</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slobodna Dalmacija</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novi list</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusion

The research has shown a modest presence of rural topics. There were 111 articles on rural thematic in the newspapers in the analyzed period. According to the analysis, there were no significant differences in the number of articles on rural thematic in national when compared with regional newspapers. Therefore we couldn’t confirm our first hypothesis that regional newspapers cover rural topics more than those focused on the entire country. However, it has been noted that national newspapers deal more with rural issues of general national interest, while regional cover more local topics related to everyday life. Journalists of national newspapers tend to escape to sensationalism when covering rural topics, on the other hand articles in regional newspapers show balance in intonation. This is the reason for rare presence of non-sensational topics in more circulated national newspapers, which do not find interest in everyday positive rural topics. Therefore they are on the margin of those media. Thereby we can confirm our second hypothesis, according to which, the rural thematic in Croatian newspapers is neglected, except in the case they contribute to sensationalism.

Furthermore, the research results prove poor level of quality of articles with rural thematic. The newspaper articles are mostly signed by authors, but the content of articles mostly has informative character. Authors rarely use more than one source of information, and literal citing prevents deeper and personal critical interpretation of the events. It diminishes credibility of written text and shows on journalist’s insufficient knowledge about the topic they cover.

The village issue in general is rarely scientifically researched in Croatian media framework. According to research it may be concluded that in spite of significant role media can have/has in developing rural areas, the thematic of village is in Croatian newspapers on the margin. This is completely contrary to the importance of rural space for national, social and economic development of Croatia. If rural thematic was more inserted into printed and public media without sensationalism, it would contribute to better affirmation of Croatian rural space and diminish quite often negative connotations about village, the rural and rural population. It is especially important that Croatian daily newspapers (as well as other media) give more space to countryside, which would reduce their highly urban content profile. That would be a step forward towards the aim of equal development of rural and urban spaces in Croatia.

References


Exploring the Relationship Between Human Resource Practice, Organisational Support, Social Support, Performance and Intention to Leave of Teachers

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Abstract
This research was conducted to examine the relationship between human resource practice, organisational support, social support, performance and intention to leave of teachers in South Africa. Three hundred teachers at different schools were invited to participate in this research. Using a quantitative research approach, six standardised questionnaires, including a Biographical Questionnaire, a Human Resource Practice Scale, Organisational Support Scale, Social Support Scale, Performance Scale and Intention to Leave Scale were used. The findings revealed that a positive practical significant relationship with a medium effect exists between human resource practices, organisational support and intention to leave, but a negative practical significant relationship exists between human resource practices and intention to leave of teachers. Furthermore, a positive practical significant relationship with a large effect was found between organisational support and social support, but a negative practical significant relationship with a medium effect exists between organisational support and intention to leave.

Keywords: teachers, human resource practice, organisational support, social support, performance, intention to leave

1. Introduction
A school where the values and focus of the school management centre around enhancing the pupils’ knowledge and life skills, where the staff members accept, support and encourage one another, and where the principal is leading and protecting his/her teachers and managing the school as a well-oiled machine, is a challenging issue for teachers, school principals and governing bodies, and has also attracted the attention of researchers. School management/support, in its broadest sense, is defined as a satisfactory level of involvement or “fit” between the governing body, school principal and teachers. If teachers know that their principal is supporting and protecting them, they have more courage and more self-confidence in executing their task.

This study is an attempt to contribute afresh with a new perspective to the field of human resources and behavioural sciences, with specific reference to organisational and social support in school systems. A school should maintain its multi-functional purpose. Teachers are not only in the teaching profession because of their knowledge of the subject – they are subject specialists, educators, psychologists, parents, and examples for the pupils who sit in front of them. If teachers are being viewed as multi-tools, the principal and the school system should be a pocket in which the multi-tools are stored. This study has challenged the participating teachers to reflect on their own teaching praxis experience, and the school support systems and their influence on their performance.

Teachers often expressed their lack of confidence in the organisational and social support system. A scoping study that was carried out to test the initial research framework presented preliminary evidence that teacher’s experience that nobody is willing to give them constructive critique or support (Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2014).

In a working paper on teachers, one teacher’s response to the question, “Convey your experience as a teacher”, was:

Just as a rock climber without the necessary protection ropes will feel, I had a similar feeling regarding my teaching experience at the participating school. We were thrown in at the deep end and we had to climb “for our lives” – it drains me emotionally, it was a total shock, and in the end it was an extremely bad experience. If there are no ropes that you can use to pull yourself up or to ground yourself with, you are going to fall – and it happened to me. Without the support of anybody to help or pull one up, you have to struggle on your own and you have to start climbing from the bottom.
again. I was exhausted and wished that my stay at the school would come to an end. I could not focus on the pupils, neither on my work; my only focus was to survive. I had to use all my power to overcome the circumstances. I missed the whole learning experience because I was personally drained and experienced everything negatively (Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2014, p. 4).

Previous research clearly states that teachers consistently deal with growing challenges in their working environment such as pupils’ problems, a substantial workload, insensitive administrators, the school management, parents’ expectations (Ishak, Iskandar, & Ramli, 2010), discipline problems, and lack of recognition and support (Darling-Hammond, 1997).

2. Education and Teachers in South Africa

The World Economic Forum ranked the South African education system 133rd out of 142 countries in the world (ILO News, 2012). The education system failed to achieve basic standards of literacy and numeracy for grade three and grade six. "Poor education lies at the root of most of South Africa's problems, including unemployment, poverty and inequality," it said in a statement by the FW de Klerk Foundation (IOL News, 2012: para. 2)

Two factors that play an important role according to the FW de Klerk Foundation in determining the failure or success of the education system depends on the quality of the principals and the teachers (IOL News, 2012). Ultimately, challenges facing the system is to produce the right kind and number teachers for South Africa. When many skilled teachers leave the profession, it is time to investigate the reason. Perhaps the most critical statistic presented by the National Planning Commission (NPC) is the poor performance of teachers (NPC, 2011). There are teachers in schools who teach an average of only 3.5 hours per day. However, no employee deserves the torture of having to show up for a job that is physically, mentally and emotionally draining.

3. Human Resource Practice, Perceived Organisational Support and Social Support

The employment relationship between the parties is seen by the employees as a reciprocal exchange relationship that reflects relative dependence and extends beyond a formal contract. Human resource practice plays an essential role in helping employees form their attitudes and behaviours (Joarder, Sharif, & Ahmmed, 2011; Meyer & Smith, 2000).

A critical problem for human resource practice is employees’ intention to leave the organisation, as the organisation experiences a loss of talent, and it also brings about the additional costs of recruitment and training (Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006). When employees experience a positive perception of human resource practice, they believe in the social exchange relationship between them and the employer (Joarder, Sharif, & Ahmmed, 2011; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997; Lee & Bruvold, 2003).

Embedded in a social exchange theory, greater organisational support is anticipated to result in greater affective attachment to the organisation (Shore & Wayne, 1993). Organisational support is described as to what extent employees perceive their employer to be concerned with their health and well-being (Grant-Vallonea & Ensher, 2001), and how much the employer cares about their employees and values their contribution to the organisation (Allen, Armstrong, Riemenschneider & Reid, 2008; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Recent publications mention that school management systems (institutions) need to give institutional/organisational support to teachers by creating career opportunities, promotions, training and development courses and workshops, autonomy, job security and fair labour practices, adequate resources in the classroom and role-modelling (Chiang & Hsieh, 2012).

Joarder, Sharif and Ahmmed (2011) mention that organisational support theory is a supportive action from supervisors that results in increased positive organisational support. Employees who feel positive, feel more obliged to their employer and repaying the employer by achieving its goals, and also feel more committed, which reduces their intention to leave (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Nasurdin, Ramayah and Beng (2008) found that human resource practice have a positive significant effect on perceived organisational support.

Supervisors are seen as agents of the employer. Employees who experience that supervisors social support them and they treated them fairly experience positive organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). However, it was found by Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenbergh, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) that a negative relationship exists between supervisory social support and turnover of employees, but studies by Billah (2009) and Abeysekera (2007) did not find any significant relationship between supervisory support and employees’ intention to leave the organisation.
4. Human Resource Practice and Performance

Chiang and Hsieh (2012) explains that job performance means that an employee meet job performance expectations and standards, deliver quality work and are effective in their job. A strong relationship are found between human resource practice and performance (Huselid, 1995). Batt and Colvin (2011) explains that in the last two decades theory and evidence on the relationship between human resource practice and performance has expanded significantly, but a lack of research still exists.

Organisational and human resource researchers found that organisational support is a significant predictor of performance. A positive correlations was found by Miao (2011) and Riggle, Edmondson and Hansen (2009) between organisational support and job performance. Chinomona and Sandada (2014) explains that there is still a lack of a conceptual model that show the relationship between organisational support, job satisfaction and performance in the education sector. Amin (2012) found supervisory support are predictors of performance.

According to theory higher expectations are created by extensive performance monitoring systems and this may lead to higher intention to leave rates (Batt & Colvin, 2011). Research indicate that employees who are high and low performers are more likely to leave the organisations than average performers (Trevor, Gerhart & Boudreau, 1997).

5. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between human resource practice, organisational support, support by supervisors, performance and intention to leave of teachers in South Africa.

6. Methodology

6.1 Sample and procedure

For the purposes of this study, the researchers followed a quantitative design. Data were collected via a cross-sectional design questionnaire. It was explained to the respondents that this research was voluntary and that the results would be treated with strict confidentiality. Three hundred teachers at different schools were invited to participate in this research. The response rate (i.e. usable questionnaires returned) was 74.46% (n=224). The characteristics of the participants are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of study population (n=224)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (1)</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (2)</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>33.9</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>24 years and younger (1)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25–35 years (2)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20.9</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36–45 years (3)</td>
<td>77</td>
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<td></td>
<td>46–55 years (4)</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>31.7</td>
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<td>56 years and older (6)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
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<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Grade 10–2 (1)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Diploma (2)</td>
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<td>41.1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree (3)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-graduate degree (4)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Less than 1 year (1)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2–5 years (2)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6–10 years (3)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11–20 years (4)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 21 years (5)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing values</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the population was female teachers (62.1%), with 41.1% having a diploma. A total of 41.1% of all the participants had a diploma, while approximately 22.8% had a degree. Only 1.7% of the teachers were employed for less than 1 year.

6.2 Measurement instruments

6.2.1 Control variables

In this research, we controlled for the following variable of teachers: gender (1=female, 2=male); age (1=24 years and younger, 2=25–35 years, 3=36–45 years, 4=46–55 years, 6=56 years and older); qualification (1=Grade 10–12, 2=diploma, 3=degree, 4=postgraduate degree), and tenure (1=less than 1 year, 2=2–5 years, 3=6–10 years, 4=11–20 years, 5=more than 21 years).

6.2.2 Human resource practice scale

Human resource practice was assessed using Guest and Conway's (2002) eight items. The items focus on employees' experiences over the previous 12 months regarding opportunities to participate, attempts to make the job interesting and varied, training and development, performance appraisal, equal opportunities practice, harassment, and performance-related pay. The scale reads as follows: 1=yes; 2=no, and 3=do not know.

6.2.3 Perceived organisational support scale

A short version of the five-items scale of Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990) was used to measure organisational support. These items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The items reads as follows: “My organisation really cares about me” and “My organisations strongly considers my goals and values”.

6.2.4 Social support scale

A five-items scale from Van der Doef and Maes’ (1999) measure of social support by supervisor was used. Examples of items are as follows: “My supervisor is helpful in getting my job done” and “My supervisor pays attention to what I am saying”.

6.2.5 Performance scale

The six-items scale Perceived Performance by Abramis (1994) was used. This is a self-rated scale that reads: “In your own opinion, how well did you fulfil the following tasks?” e.g. “Finish things on time”, “Take responsibility” and “Devote yourself to work”. A five-point scale was used: 1=very badly to 5=very well.

6.2.6 Intention to leave scale

Price's (1997) questionnaire was used to measured intention to leave/quit. The questionnaire consists of four items, with a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree).

7. Data Analysis

SPSS' (2014) version 22 was used to do descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. We furthermore used Cronbach’s alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation to determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires used in this study. Regression analysis was performed to determine the interaction effects between the variables.

8. Results

We first examined the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire. As reflected in Table 2, organisational support, social support by supervisors and performance show normal negative distribution scores. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient varies between 0.62 to 0.87. According to Hatcher (1994), a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient less that 0.60 is acceptable in the
social sciences.

**Table 2:** Mean, standard deviations (SD), skewness, kurtosis and Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human resource practice</td>
<td>13.91</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>9.89</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson correlations in Table 3 show that a positive practical significant relationship with a medium effect exists between human resource practices and perceived organisational support. This is support by Nasurdin, Hemdi and Guat (2008) findings that human resource practice have a positive significant effect on perceived organisational support. We also find a negative and practical significant relationship exists between human resource practices and intention to leave of teachers. Furthermore, a positive practical significant relationship with high effect was found between organisational support and social support by supervisor, but a negative practical significant relationship with a medium effect exists between organisational support and intention to leave.

**Table 3:** Pearson correlation between human resource practice, organisational support, social support by supervisor, performance and intention to leave

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Human resource practice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Organisational support</td>
<td>0.32**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social support</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Performance</td>
<td>0.15*</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
<td>0.23**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Intention to leave</td>
<td>-0.35**</td>
<td>-0.36**</td>
<td>-0.47**</td>
<td>-0.21**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stepwise Multiple Regression analysis was performed to see if organisational support, social support by supervisor, performance and intention to leave predict human resource practices. As seen in Model 1, positive organisation support predicts human resource practice for teachers. Model 2 shows that organisational support and social support by supervisor predict positive human resource practices. When adding Model 3 performance it did not show any statistically significant prediction of human resource practices. In Model 4, intention to leave was added. In this model, it is clearly seen that only social support by supervisor predicts positive human resource practices, and intention to leave predicts negative human resource practices. When teachers experience negative human resource practices, they have a greater intention to leave the school or teaching profession.

**Table 4:** Multiple regression analyses with human resource practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>10.77</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>19.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>33.27</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>0.04*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>0.05*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>12.51</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>7.47</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational support</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social support</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intention to leave</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: p < 0.01
9. Discussion

The Department of Basic Education reported that more than four hundred teachers resigned nationally in the first quarter of 2013 alone. Parliament was briefed on the department's performance for the first quarter. The focus persisted largely on department-led objectives that included the expansion of resource materials and national school improvement initiatives – the portfolio committee raised questions about why so many teachers were leaving the profession so early on in the school year (eNews Channel Africa, 2013).

This study explores the phenomena of education decline and the reasons why teachers may be leaving the profession in South Africa. Tables 2–4 integrate the findings of the variables of interest between human resource practice, organisational support, social support by supervisor, performance, and intention to leave concerning teachers in South Africa. The aim of these findings is to integrate all these variables and give a more comprehensive picture of the determinants of supply and demand for teachers in South African schools. Based on the interpretation of these findings, the following recommendations are given to the Department of Basic Education and the relevant parties:

- The Department of Education needs to ensure that effective support structures are established for teachers in order for them to focus on teaching.
- The classroom environment, job security and job satisfaction should be improved. To improve the attractiveness of teaching as a career, specific incentives and initiatives for teachers should be provided.

10. Conclusion

The researchers' conclusion from these results is that this study can make a difference in human resource practices, organisational and social support in school management systems, and the knowledge and skills that disappear when teachers leave the school system/classroom due to their negative experiences.

Data in this study suggests that indeed South Africa's quality of education requires a lot of fixing, specifically regarding the relationship between human resource practice, organisational support, social support, performance and intention to leave of teachers.

References


Food Insecure Household Coping Strategies: The Case of a Low Income Neighborhood in South Africa

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Email: Wynand.Grobler@nwu.ac.za

Abstract

Food security can be defined as a state in which all people in a household have at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life. In the last decade household food insecurity in rural and urban areas has been associated with several negative health and nutrition outcomes. The questions which arise are thus: How do food insecure households in urban areas cope with food insecurity? To what extent do they limit food intake as a coping strategy? A quantitative research method was deployed and a stratified random sample of 300 was used to collect data in Bophelong, a low income neighborhood in South Africa. The Coping Strategies Index (CSI) and Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) were used to measure the food security status of the households. The CSI Raw Score and HFIAS Score was then calculated and the correlation with different coping strategies determined. The study found that households did use coping strategies in order to mitigate shortages of food. Additionally, it revealed that as CSI scores/HFIAS scores increased, the reliance on consumption coping strategies by households increased. This indicates a high level of food insecurity. Spearman's correlation indicates that food limiting strategies correlated significantly with the cumulative CSI scores and HFIAS scores of households. The study concluded that urbanization and the resultant effects of unemployment, poverty, and ultimately, food insecurity, remain a challenge to policymakers. There may be an urgent need for the development of a more comprehensive food security strategy, focusing on urban as well as rural areas in South Africa.

Keywords: Food Security, coping Strategies, urban food insecure, food insecurity

1. Introduction

Food security is defined by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID, 1992) as a state in which all people in a household have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet dietary needs for a productive and healthy life. Food security, in this context, comprises the availability of and access to food, as well as the utilization of food. South Africa can be considered as food secure at the national level, but recent studies indicate that there is food insecurity at the household level (Manyamba, Hendriks, Chilonda and Musaba, 2012; Kirkland, Kemp, Hunter, and Twine, 2011). In the 1990s researchers indicated that poverty and food insecurity will probably shift to urban areas (UNICEF, 1994; De Haan, 1997; Moser, 1996). In this regard, South Africa was not an exception as a significant number of households in low income urban areas in South Africa are food insecure (Oldewage-Theron, Dicks, and Napier, 2006). Although it is well-documented that there was progress in eradicating food insecurity in South Africa (Sampson et al, 2004; Booyzen, 2004), households in low income urban areas in South Africa are still food insecure. The Income and Expenditure Survey of 1995 (STATS SA, 1995) found an urban food poverty rate of 27 percent and a rural poverty rate of 54 percent amongst households in South Africa. In 2008 the South African Social Attitude Survey found 20.5 percent urban food insecurity and 33.1 percent rural food insecurity (HSRC, 2008).

The poor living in urban areas may become increasingly food insecure as a result of demographic and economic challenges associated with urbanization (Ravallion, 2002). Access to food and expenditure on food may depend on whether households in urban areas have enough income to purchase food (Behrman & Deolher, 1988; Hoyos & Meveden, 2009) In this regard, researchers indicated that food availability may not be the only condition for food insecurity, especially if households lack financial or productive resources to acquire food (Migotto, Gero and Kathleen, 2006; Adato & Basset, 2012; Miller, Tsoka and Reichert, 2011; Manyamba et al, 2012). The implication of this is that food insecurity in urban areas may require a different approach to eradicate urban food insecurity.

The questions that arise against this background are thus: How do food insecure households survive in urban areas? What strategies do households use to mitigate food shortages? To what extent do they limit food intake as a coping strategy in urban low income areas? Therefore, the objectives in this study were, firstly, to determine the extent of food insecurity in a low income neighborhood, and, secondly, to analyze the different coping strategies as reported by households. The research aims to expand the general understanding of food insecurity at the household level in urban areas.
2. Literature Review

The concept “food security”, together with the understanding of poverty, has evolved since the World Food Conference in 1974, and the debate surrounding food insecurity has shifted to the household level (Maxwell, 1996). The measurement of food insecurity presents many challenges. Assessment methodologies differ from qualitative to quantitative methods (Migotto et al., 2006) and several studies have provided insight into the experience of households with regard to food insecurity. This includes feelings of anxiety over food shortages, perceptions that food is of insufficient quantity, perceptions that food is of insufficient quality, reported reductions of food intake by households, reported consequences of reduced food intake by households, and negative feelings surrounding the socially unacceptable means to obtain food (Radimer, Olson, and Campbell, 1990; Radimer, Olson, Greene, Cambell and Habicht, 1992).

To measure food insecurity, Migotto et al., (2006) identifies five general types of methodologies namely, measuring undernourishment, measuring food intake, measuring nutritional status, measuring food access in terms of income, and measuring vulnerability. In this regard, the Funded Food and Nutritional Technical Assistance (FANTA) project established by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), has developed the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), which has been validated cross-culturally (Deitchler, Baalard, Swindale and Coates, 2010). In this study it is the intention to use the HFIAS as part of the analyses to identify food insecure households and to determine the correlation coefficient with coping strategies used by households.

Coping Strategies (CS) are defined by Snell and Staring (2001) as all strategically selected acts that individuals and households in a poor socio-economic position use to restrict their expenses or earn extra income to enable them to pay for basic necessities and not fall too far behind society’s level of welfare. Strategically selected coping acts can be divided into “coping strategies” (mechanisms to deal with a short-term insufficiency of food) and “adaptive strategies” (long term changes in the way which households and individuals acquire sufficient food or income) (Davies, 1993). Davies (1993) distinguishes further between “income soothing” and “consumption soothing” strategies. Income soothing strategies attempt to reduce food insecurity through income diversification, and consumption soothing strategies attempt to limit consumption of members of a household. Coping strategies used as a measure/indicator of household food security were previously used by other researchers (Christaensen and Boisvert, 2000; Maxwell, Ahiadeke, Levin, Armarr-Klemesu, Zakariah, and Lamptey, 1999). A number of household level strategies for dealing with insufficient food were identified by other researchers, which include: short term dietary changes; reducing or rationing consumption; altering household consumption; altering intra-household distribution of food; increased use of credit; increased reliance on wild food; alteration of crop and livestock production patterns; and sales of assets (Corbett, 1988; Frankenberg, 1992; Davies, 1993).

This study is based on the coping strategies proposed by Maxwell and Caldwell (2008). A similar study done by Mjonono, Ngidi and Hendriks (2009) indicated that households did indeed employ coping strategies to mitigate food shortages in rural areas in South Africa. Maxwell and Caldwell (2008) distinguish between immediate and short term alteration of consumption patterns and longer term alterations of income earnings or food production patterns. Research indicated that short term consumption strategies may be an accurate indicator of acute food insecurity and can also be seen as predictive of how households perceive the future in terms of food insecurity of the household (Christaensen and Boisvert, 2000; Coates, Frongillo, Rogers, Webb, Wilde and Houser, 2006; Maxwell et al, 1999).

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Background of the Study Area

Data for this study were collected in Bophelong, a low income neighborhood in the Vaal area of Southern Gauteng, a province in South Africa. The total number of residents living in Bophelong is estimated at 37 779, with an estimated number of households of 12 352 (STATS SA, 2011). The unemployment rate in the Vaal area increased from 33.0 percent in 1991 to 50.4 percent in 2000, and 48.4 percent in 2010, indicating that almost half of the economically active population (those willing and able to work) of the Vaal were unemployed in 2010. In 2010, 39.3 percent of all households in the Vaal were living below their respective poverty lines (96 351 households) with an average shortfall of R615 per household per month (Slabbert and Grobler, 2011).

A study done by Slabbert and Sekhampu (2009) indicated that 66.3 percent of the residents of Bophelong are poor. Bophelong were chosen for this study because of the high unemployment and poverty rate in the area.
3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Sample and Data collection

A quantitative research method was used and a random sample of 300 households was interviewed using the face-to-face method, during September 2013. All fieldworkers were trained and were able to explain the questions to respondents in their home languages. The questionnaire was developed to gather information on socio-economic status of households, food security and coping strategies used. The statistical package, SPSS Version 21 was used to do the statistical analyses.

3.2.2 Measuring Instruments

The validated Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) and validated Coping Strategy Index (CSI) were used as instruments. The Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) was used to determine food security status of households. The HFIAS, a nine-item food insecurity scale developed by the USAID FANTA project measures anxiety about food supply, followed by questions about food quality, questions on food quantity, and, lastly, questions on going to sleep hungry or going all day and night without eating (Deitchler et al, 2010). The HFIAS score is then calculated as a continuous measure of the degree of food insecurity (access) in the household in the past four weeks (30 days). The score adds up to a maximum score of 27 for a household if food insecure and a minimum of 0 when the household is food secure.

The Coping Strategy Index (CSI) proposed by Maxwell and Caldwell (2008), adapted for South African urban areas, was used to identify the coping strategies used by households in the low income neighborhood. The CSI calculation includes four distinct steps, namely: identify the different coping strategy behaviors, determine the frequency of strategies used, determine the severity and weighting of strategies used and, finally, scoring/combining of frequencies and severity. The frequency is measured ranging from “never’ (0) to “every day” (7), and the severity from “most severe” (4) to “least severe” (1). The CSI raw scores, the more food insecure the household is. Spearman’s correlation coefficients were used to calculate the correlation between HFIAS Score/CSI Score and coping strategies used by the different households. In other words, which coping strategies are used when the HFIAS Score or CSI Score increases for an individual household?

4. Results and Discussion

The objective of this study was to determine the food insecurity status of households in a low income urban neighborhood and to identify the coping strategies used to mitigate food shortages. An overview of descriptive statistics of the sample is given in Table 1. The minimum household size in the sample is 1 and the maximum household size is 17, with a mean household size of 4.35 members per household. The minimum age of the head of a household is 18 and the maximum age of a head of a household 99, with a mean age of the head of the household of 49.20 years. The minimum years of education of the head of the household are 2 years and the maximum number of years of schooling is 17, with a mean number of years of schooling of the head of the household is 10.20 years. The minimum income of a household in the sample is R 100.00 and the maximum income R 16 000.00 per household, with a mean income per household of R 3 210.07. The mean HFIAS Score is 12.17 and the maximum score 27. The minimum CSI Score is 0, and the maximum CSI Score of a household is 118 with a mean of 26.26.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HH Size</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Head</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>49.20</td>
<td>13.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Head</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Income</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16000</td>
<td>3210.07</td>
<td>3033.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFIAS Score</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSI Score</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>23.53</td>
<td>26.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The HFIAS Scale was used to identify the food insecure households. The categories of food insecurity of households are shown in Table 2. It is shown in table 2 that 56.67 percent of the households in the sample are severely food insecure.
Table 2: Food security status of grant recipient households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Insecurity Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food secure</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild food insecure</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately food insecure</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Severe food insecure</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>56.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survival strategies used by households in the sample is shown in Table 3, and visually depicted in Figure 1. Households in the sample mostly sourced their food from purchases. Only 15.2 percent of the households indicated that they maintain a food garden. The coping strategy indicated by most of the households in the sample is to rely on less expensive commodities, followed by buying only necessities, sticking to budget (dietary change strategies), limit portions, and to skip meals at mealtime (rationing strategies). This is in line with the findings of Oldewage-Theron et al, (2006), in an urban area.

A total of 166 households or 54.6 percent of households in the sample indicated that they rely on less expensive food more than once a week. A total of 56 households (19.0 percent) indicated that they skip meals more than once a week, while 4.4 percent of households skip meals more than three times a week. A total of 30.9 percent of the households in the sample (91 households) limited portions size of meals more than once a week. A total of 40 households or 13.6 percent of households in the sample limited portion consumption of adults in order for small children to eat at least once a week.

Only 18 households or 6.1 percent of the households in the sample sent household members to beg for food, etc. A total number of 85 households or 28.8 percent of households borrowed food or rely on help from family or friends. In terms of food rationing strategies (consumption soothing), 126 households in the sample (37.7 percent) limited portion size at meal times and 90 households (28.8 percent) skip meals.

Table 3: Survival strategies used by households in Bophelong

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you adopted any of the following means for survival</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>3-6 days / week</th>
<th>1-2 days / week</th>
<th>Not more than once/ week</th>
<th>Never happened</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Rely on less expensive commodities.</td>
<td>32(10.8)</td>
<td>21(7.1)</td>
<td>108(36.6)</td>
<td>20(6.8)</td>
<td>114(38.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Purchased food on credit</td>
<td>1(0.3)</td>
<td>12(4.1)</td>
<td>63(21.4)</td>
<td>14(4.7)</td>
<td>205(69.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Skip meals</td>
<td>2(0.7)</td>
<td>11(3.7)</td>
<td>43(14.6)</td>
<td>29(9.8)</td>
<td>210(71.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Limited portion size at meal times</td>
<td>13(4.4)</td>
<td>22(7.5)</td>
<td>56(19.0)</td>
<td>20(6.8)</td>
<td>184(62.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Buy necessities</td>
<td>20(6.8)</td>
<td>20(6.8)</td>
<td>123(41.7)</td>
<td>12(4.1)</td>
<td>120(40.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stick to budget</td>
<td>7(2.4)</td>
<td>16(5.4)</td>
<td>88(29.8)</td>
<td>21(7.1)</td>
<td>163(55.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Maintain a food garden</td>
<td>2(0.7)</td>
<td>1(0.3)</td>
<td>42(14.2)</td>
<td>12(4.1)</td>
<td>238(80.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Borrowed food, or rely on help from a friend or relative</td>
<td>1(0.3)</td>
<td>7(2.4)</td>
<td>77(26.1)</td>
<td>9(3.1)</td>
<td>201(68.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Sent household members to eat elsewhere</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>3(1.0)</td>
<td>19(6.4)</td>
<td>8(2.7)</td>
<td>265(89.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Restricted consumption of adults in order for small children to eat</td>
<td>7(2.4)</td>
<td>11(3.7)</td>
<td>22(7.5)</td>
<td>12(4.1)</td>
<td>243(82.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Sent households members to beg</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>18(6.1)</td>
<td>6(2.0)</td>
<td>271(91.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Gathered wild vegetables</td>
<td>1(0.3)</td>
<td>2(0.7)</td>
<td>25(8.5)</td>
<td>7(2.4)</td>
<td>260(88.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 shows the survival strategies used by households in the sample at least once a week and three times and more per week.

~ 103 ~
When comparing the mean of the different coping strategies reported by households, the highest mean of 1.9153 days is indicated for relying on less expensive food, followed by 1.6881 for buying necessities, and 1.1051 for sticking to budget. The lowest mean was recorded for members sent to beg (0.1424), sending members to eat elsewhere (0.2068), and maintaining a food garden (0.3898).

The CSI raw score, HFIAS Score and Income level correlations with coping strategies used by households are shown in Table 4.

The results in the study indicated that as the CSI and HFIAS scores increase, households relied more on consumption coping strategies (Rationing Strategies and Dietary Change Strategies). This is in line with a similar study on rural food insecurity by Mjonono (2009) on coping strategies in South Africa.

Weaker correlations were found in the case of the HFIAS Score, which may be attributed to the fact that the HFIAS relies more on perceptions with regard to household food insecurity. Spearman’s correlation showed that food insecurity coping strategies were correlated significantly with CSI raw score, as well as HFIAS Scores. The study indicated that as CSI Scores/HFIAS Scores of households increase, households in this urban area rely on consumption soothing strategies (rationing and dietary change) such as relying on less expensive food, skipping meals, limiting portions sizes at meal times, and restricted consumption by adults in order to provide more food for smaller children.

Table 4: Coping strategy index (CSI) / HFIAS Score correlations with survival strategies used by households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations with survival strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Correlation with CSI Score</th>
<th>Correlation with Income</th>
<th>Correlation with HFIAS Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Rely on less expensive commodities.</td>
<td>1.9153</td>
<td>2.23065</td>
<td>0.784**</td>
<td>-0.273*</td>
<td>0.330**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Purchased food on credit</td>
<td>0.7017</td>
<td>1.26404</td>
<td>0.515**</td>
<td>-0.211**</td>
<td>0.323**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Skip meals</td>
<td>0.6203</td>
<td>1.23921</td>
<td>0.617**</td>
<td>-0.232**</td>
<td>0.326**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Limited portion size at meal times</td>
<td>1.1288</td>
<td>1.89441</td>
<td>0.818**</td>
<td>-0.292**</td>
<td>0.383**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Buy necessities</td>
<td>1.6881</td>
<td>1.97201</td>
<td>0.731**</td>
<td>-0.104</td>
<td>0.228**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stick to budget</td>
<td>1.1051</td>
<td>1.60329</td>
<td>0.566**</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Maintain a food garden</td>
<td>0.3989</td>
<td>0.93708</td>
<td>0.120*</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Borrowed food, or rely on help from</td>
<td>0.6949</td>
<td>1.16430</td>
<td>0.447**</td>
<td>-0.141*</td>
<td>0.352**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a friend or relative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Sent household members to eat elsewhere</td>
<td>0.2068</td>
<td>0.70563</td>
<td>0.337**</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
<td>0.200**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Restricted consumption of adults in</td>
<td>0.5424</td>
<td>1.46527</td>
<td>0.746**</td>
<td>-0.224**</td>
<td>0.286**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order for small children to eat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Sent households members to beg</td>
<td>0.1424</td>
<td>0.49494</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>0.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Gathered wild vegetables</td>
<td>0.2508</td>
<td>0.79846</td>
<td>0.456**</td>
<td>-0.082</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P=Sig (2 tailed results)
* Sig. at p<0.05 (5 % level of significance)
** Sig. at p<0.01 (1 % level of significance)

Strong positive correlations (1 % level of significance) between CSI and rely on less expensive food (r=0.784, p<0.001), buying only necessities (r=0.731, p<0.001), limit portions at meal times (r=0.818, p<0.001), restricted consumption by adults (r=0.746, p<0.001), skipping meals (r=0.617, p<0.001), sticking to budget (r=0.566, p<0.001) and purchasing food on credit (r=0.515, p<0.001) as coping strategies were found. A weak positive correlation (5 % level of significance) were
found for maintaining a food garden (r=0.120, p<0.005) while no significant correlation were found for sending family members to beg.

A positive correlation (1 % level of significance) between HFIAS Score and relying on less expensive food (r=0.330, p<0.001), purchasing food on credit (r=0.323, p<0.001), skipping meals (r=0.326, p<0.001) and limiting portions at meal times (r=0.383, p<0.001) as coping strategies were found. Non-statistically significant correlations were found with maintaining a food garden and sticking to budget.

A weak negative correlation (significant at 99 percent level) between the level of income of households and the following coping strategies: buying less expensive food (r=-0.211, p<0.001), purchasing food on credit (r=-0.211, p<0.001), skipping meals (r=-0.232, p<0.001), limiting portions (r=-0.292, p<0.001) and restricting consumption by adults (r=-0.224, p<0.001) exist. This is an indication that as income of households increase they rely less on these coping strategies.

The positive correlations between consumption soothing strategies and CSI Scores and HFIAS Scores are an indication that food insecure households in urban areas restrict consumption with negative health consequences in urban areas. This underlies the argument that food insecure households in urban areas, to a large extent, depends on sufficient income, specifically in urban areas.

5. Conclusion

This study investigated the food security status of households in a low income urban neighborhood. The Coping Strategy Index (CSI) and Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) score were used to determine the status of households. Spearman’s correlation coefficients were used to determine which coping strategies were used by food insecure households. The results showed that food insecurity in this urban low income neighborhood is at a scale that needs more attention in terms of analyses. As Maxwell (1998) argues “many governments in sub-Saharan Africa persist in thinking about urban food insecurity in terms of aggregate food supply to the cities, rather than the ability of poor households in urban areas to purchase food”.

The results showed that households in urban areas opt for rationing of food and dietary changes. This is a very critical issue as it is associated with negative health consequences. Owing to the lack of available land in urban settings, urban food insecurity may pose a bigger challenge to policy maker’s then rural food insecurity. The solution to this may be a comprehensive food insecurity strategy framework by government with a focus on urban areas.

The results reported by this study can be seen as a contribution to the growing body of knowledge on urban food insecurity. It is suggested that policymakers consider developing a comprehensive policy framework focusing on urban food insecurity.

References


A Corpus-Based Study of the Structure of University Lecture Introductions

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Abstract

Unlike written academic genres such as research articles and research article abstracts, spoken academic discourse has less extensively been researched. Having that in mind, the present study investigates the structure of a corpus of lecture introductions. Applying Swales’ genre-centered approach (1981, 1990), which has mainly been employed in written genres analyses in the field of English for Academic Purposes, the question whether this subgenre consists of component structural units is to be answered as well as how these units are linguistically represented. This paper is based on the analysis of eight university lecture introductions in linguistics constituting a part of the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus. The results of the study reveal that English lecture introductions are highly structured. More precisely, they are composed of internal moves and steps performing appropriate communicative functions and signalled by distinctive linguistic features. The findings obtained could lead us to a conclusion that familiarity with the lecture introductions framework is a crucial element in better listener’s comprehension of the rest of the lecture.

Keywords: lecture introductions, genre analysis, academic discourse, structure, move, step

1. Introduction

The number of research articles on different genres of written academic discourse is constantly increasing. What these academic papers have in common is the influence and subsequent application of Swales’ pioneering work and the first full-scale structural patterns analysis of RA1 Introductions (Holmes, 1997, p. 322). It has been particularly influential in research studies on text generic structure and its distinctive linguistic features in the field of English for Academic and Professional Purposes. When it comes to English for Academic Purposes, this method has mainly been applied to the analysis of written discourse, i.e. to other equally significant academic papers on various written genres such as: Dudley-Evans’ analysis of introduction and discussion sections in dissertations (1986) and his and John’s analysis of RA results sections (1988), as well as articles tackling rhetorical structure and different linguistic aspects of RA abstracts (Graetz, 1985; Huckin & Olsen, 1983; Swales, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Bhatia, 1993; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Santos, 1996; Posteguillo, 1996; Huckin, 2001; Martín-Martín, 2003; Samraj, 2004; Živković, 2010).

Unlike written academic genres, spoken academic discourse has less extensively been researched. “Little research so far has been based on the analysis of the lecture as a genre, identified in terms of its communicative purpose within the context of a particular discourse community and its characteristic content and style (Thompson, 1994, p. 173)”. More precisely, “surprisingly little work has been done on analysing the discourse structure of academic lectures, when compared with other academic genres such as the research article” (Flowerdew, 1994, p. 15). Only a few structural analyses of lectures were carried out back in the 1970s (Cook, 1975; Montgomery, 1977; Murphy & Candlin, 1979; Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981) which applied the model of primary school classroom discourse developed by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975. However, a single genre-based study of lectures was performed in the 1990s (Thompson, 1994) that presented the results of investigation into the generic characteristics of one aspect of lecture discourse – lecture introductions.

Taking the above-mentioned into consideration as well as Benson’s view (1994, p. 181) of lectures as the central ritual of the culture of learning, it is obvious how important and necessary it is to conduct research into this genre. The aim of the paper is to show how a piece of spoken academic discourse can be analysed with the help of the approach taken by Swales (1981, 1990) and later followed by Thompson (1994). Therefore, attention will be focused on outlining the rhetorical structure of lecture introductions and further examining and presenting its typical linguistic features in order to provide a model which could be of use in planning lectures on the part of teachers as well as lecture comprehension on the part of students.

1 An abbreviation standing for the phrase Research Article.
1.1 Move and Step as Key Terms in Genre Analysis

In an attempt to determine the structure of lecture introductions this paper follows the genre-centered approach introduced by Swales and his core definition (1990, p. 58) of a genre as of:

“a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style”.

To put in other words, specific discourse communities use genres as their communicative events having distinctive structural patterns. In a similar way academic discourse community explores genres with appropriate rhetorical structure performing relevant communicative functions. Therefore, the structure of genres, for example lecture introductions, is composed of constituent structural units known as moves and steps (discussed in section Results and discussion). A move can be described as a “functional term that refers to a defined and bounded communicative act that is designed to contribute to one main communicative objective, that of the whole text” (Lorés, 2004, p. 282). Moves as segments of texts can be further divided into a number of (one or more) smaller component structural units known as steps that are signalled by specific linguistic features and that contribute to the overall author’s aim.

In this respect the present study aims at determining which structural units constitute the structure of lecture introductions in linguistics. Having in mind that academic lectures can be put under the category of planned speech according to the dichotomy everyday/unplanned – planned speech (Savić, 1993, p. 47), the starting hypothesis that the lecture introductions under study display specific structuredness can be proposed and tested. On the whole, our goal is to provide an answer to the question if it is possible to find robust structuredness in lecture introductions.

2. The Data and Method of Analysis

The current paper is based on the analysis of a corpus of eight academic lecture introductions in the field of linguistics. Seven lectures have been taken from The British Academic Spoken English (BASE)2 and one lecture from The Spoken British National Corpus. The transcripts of the lectures were published online; therefore, we were not able to alter their original form. The boundary between lecture introductions and mediostructure of lectures has been drawn on the basis of boundary markers or discourse units such as ok, now, right, right so, as well as the combination of discourse markers and filled pauses such as erm now, er okay (Sinclair & Culthard, 1995). For practical and analytical purposes the lectures analysed have been marked as EL1 – EL8 and these codes will be used in giving examples and illustrations throughout the text. The precise details of the corpus are given in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title [department]</th>
<th>no. of words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Collaborative Learning [CELTE (Centre for English Language Teacher Education)]</td>
<td>7,473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dictionaries [CELTE (Centre for English Language Teacher Education)]</td>
<td>8,965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Historical linguistics [Linguistics]</td>
<td>8,256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Syntax [King’s College London]3</td>
<td>6,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Research Methodology: Vocabulary [CELTE (Centre for English Language Teacher Education)]</td>
<td>8,826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Using video tapes in ELT [CELTE (Centre for English Language Teacher Education)]</td>
<td>5,097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Corpus – Lectures

The main method we will apply in this article is Swales’ genre analysis perspective. Even though genre analysis framework has been adopted in only one research article regarding lectures so far, carried out by Thompson in 1994, the

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2 We have asked and obtained permission to use the Corpora as an object of our more extensive research for PhD thesis. The BASE Corpus consists of 160 lectures and 40 seminars recorded in a variety of departments (video-recorded at the University of Warwick and audio-recorded at the University of Reading). It contains 1,644,942 tokens in total (lectures and seminars). Holdings are distributed across four broad disciplinary groups, each represented by 40 lectures and 10 seminars. (taken over from http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ai/research/collect/base/).

3 Taken from the Spoken British National Corpus, http://www.phon.ox.ac.uk.
institutionalised nature of lectures (Goffman, 1981, p. 165) allowed for this method to be followed in our research as well. We must add that we use Thompson’s article as a starting point in our analysis, but we have borrowed terminology of moves and steps from Swales (1981, 1990).

3. Results and Discussion

The analysis of the lecture introductions has shown that they are composed of two moves named according to their rhetorical functions. According to the lecturers’ communicative aim the first move is marked as set up lecture framework, where the lecturer “sets up the framework of the lecture as a textual object, giving information about the topic, scope, structure and aims of the lecture” (Thompson, 1994, p. 176). Therefore, it consists of the following steps:

Move 1: Set Up Lecture Framework
Step 1: Announce the topic
Step 2: Indicate scope
Step 3: Outline structure
Step 4: Present aims

The second move is labelled differently again in accordance with the lecturers’ communicative goal. This move takes into consideration the content of the lecture, i.e. puts topic in appropriate context by using minor structural units. Move 2 is composed of the following steps:

Move 2: Put Topic In Context
Step 1: Show importance / relevance of topic by digression or c. by using the pattern “general – specific” or d. by relating “new” to “given”
Step 2: Refer to earlier lectures
Step 3: Exemplification

3.1 Move 1: Set Up Lecture Framework

The move set up lecture framework proves to be highly significant considering the fact that it occurs in all the analysed lecture introductions. It embodies various steps which the lecturers choose to frame their lecture introductions, creating a “mental map for the audience to rely upon as they listen to the rest of the lecture” (Thompson, 1994, p. 176). These steps enable the audience to see the direction the lecture will take, or structure the lecture is composed of, or even what scope or aim of the lecture will be.

The first step announce the topic accounts for 62.50% of lecture introductions and aims at introducing the audience with the topic or title of the lecture, as is the case in the following example:

(1)… So today I’m going to talk about notions of structure or … about sentence structure and logical form (EL7)

As it can be seen, the boundary marker so frames the beginning of the lecture. The lecturer starts speaking using the I perspective, which suggests what Brown and Levinson (1987) call negative politeness or the lecturer’s need to distance himself/herself from the audience. Other linguistic signals that mark this step are the adverb of time today and the communication verb talk indicating performance, followed by the announcement of the topic, occupying the rheme position.

Step 2 indicate scope represents one of the ways that enable lecturers to establish the framework of their lectures. This step is non-obligatory, being the part of 37.5% of lecture introductions. What characterises this step is that the lecturer gives information about how much time s/he will devote to various parts of the lecture, implementing common linguistic features such as aspectual verbs (start, go) and lexical items showing length (briefly, very quick, quickly).

(2) Right er okay well I’ll start because er I’m going to have to go very quick today…(EL8)

The lecturers decide to use the step outline structure in 62.50% of the corpus analysed, confirming the mandatory status of this structural unit in the first move. It describes the structure of the lecture where the lecturer lays out its component parts, using clear lexical signals – verbs indicating an aspectual meaning move on, or structure show, and adverbs pointing to sequence such as then.

(3) Er I thought I would show this week some ways in which that had been put into use as a means of research by
students… and then I thought…I'd show you er I'd move on to show you some research… (EL7)

Present aims marks the fourth metalinguistic step employed by the lecturers in 25% of cases, pointing to its optional internal position. The lecturers outline the aims they want to achieve and they use typical signals of this step - nouns aim, reason or verbs aim, want. The step is illustrated by example 4:

(4) Now the reason that we have this session is actually because a few years ago…(EL2)

3.2 Move 1: Put Topic in Context

In comparison to metadiscursive function of the first move, which is to provide information on the lecture discourse itself, the move put topic in context deals with the content of the lecture. This move has proved to be obligatory in the analysed lecture introductions with the occurrence of 87.50%. The results obtained demonstrate that this move embodies three steps, i.e. lecturers choose between three ways of making students more familiar with the topic.

Show importance / relevance of topic represents the first step composed of four substeps. Their frequency is flexible, meaning that some of them are obligatory and some optional. By selecting digression as the first substep, the lecturers direct students’ attention to providing appropriate context for a topic. The succeeding example illustrates this substep, where the lecturer tries to attract students' attention and make them interested in the topic by telling them about a situation connected with dictionaries which is the theme of the current lecture:

(5) I'll start off by telling you about a situation that I was in a few years ago where I was interviewed for local radio they they asked me to come along to the radio studios in namex er to talk about words and er when the interviewer started asking me questions I realized that what he really wanted to know was er who decides which words go into a dictionary and he had an idea that there was such a thing as the dictionary and that this contained all the correct words in English and that if a word wasn't in the dictionary then it wasn't a proper English word and you couldn't use it proper-, you if you used it you were wrong er that's quite a common belief in Britain… (EL3)

The second way of defining the thematic context of a lecture is the use of model “general – specific” (ex. 6). On that occasion the lecturer opens his/her lecture with a general statement and illuminates its particular aspects in indefinite number of specific statements:

(6) (general statement ) er we play i-, in Britain we play a lot of er games which involve checking words in dictionaries (specific statement 1) Scrabble do you do you know Scrabble ss: yeah nf1271: (specific statement 1) yeah i-, it's quite a common game and it (specific statement 2) to resolve arguments it's necessary to look in a dictionary and (specific statement 3) people always say look in the dictionary as if there was only one (EL1)

In contrast to McCarthy’s “general – specific” model (1991: 158), our model is not finished with the repetition of the general statement given at the beginning of the example 6. The reason for this situation lies in the fact that the lecture introduction subgenre is in question and therefore, the general statement cannot be expected to be repeated at the end.

Relating “new” to “given” is the last substep found during the analysis of lecture introductions. It accounts for 25% of the corpus examined. Although it has an optional status, it appears to be very important in terms of shared knowledge or experience in genre analysis. This way the lecturer draws students’ attention to a new topic in already familiar context, which can be illustrated by example 7:

(7) So point one a reminder something that I keep saying, knowledge of language is knowledge of a bod a body of rules that assign phonological, syntactic and semantic properties to words and sentences. (EL6)

The second step dealing with the context of the lecture is marked as refer to earlier lectures. More specifically, the lecturers remind the audience of the previous lectures in order to make a connection between the information students are familiar with and the topic of the lecture in progress. It is clearly signalled by mental verbs, for example, recall or aspectual verbs introduce and time adverbs such as last week (ex. 8):

(8) I thought what I'd do today having introduced to you last week the idea of er measuring vocabulary (EL7)

Exemplification as the last step in this move tends to occur in lecture introductions mostly after other steps such as announce topic in the metadiscursive move set up lecture framework. Examples that have been found in the corpus are...
explicit and clearly introduced by nouns such as example or instance:

(9) Here right and I've got three examples of er research students here in CELTE who have used er the yes-no test format as part of their research. (EL7)

4. Conclusion

The results presented have confirmed the hypothesis that lectures introductions exhibit a specific type of structure. Although it has been stated in introduction that little of the research conducted by applied linguists has dealt with spoken academic discourse from the genre analysis perspective, this paper has shown that lecture introductions are structured and can be analysed from the point of view most commonly employed in written academic discourse. The genre analysis of the structure of lecture introductions points to the conclusion that their structure is composed of moves, steps and substeps. As a starting point in our analysis we used Thompson's model (Thompson, 1994) and found certain similarities and differences. Akin to her results, we have also found two moves in the corpus of eight lecture introductions in English. The main difference refers to the fact that we have discovered three substeps within the step 1 of the second move show importance / relevance of topic. In addition, the second move in our corpus has an additional step named exemplification which is not a constituent part of Thompson's lecture introductions framework.

On the other hand, the conclusion that emerges from the present study is that there is no rigid and linear sequencing moves pattern. The model exists, but unpredictable order of the moves and steps is imposed. Namely, the steps in the first move set up lecture framework are found to be mixed with the steps of the second move put topic in context. Therefore, it is not uncommon to see that the lecturer opens his/her lecture with the step outline structure, framing the lecture as an object, and afterwards uses a digression as a way to put topic in context. One possible reason for this event is “the variation to be expected in spoken genres when compared with written genres"(Swales, 1990, p. 182). This cannot be applied to exemplars of written academic discourse. In the case of RA abstracts the author has enough time to look at his/her paper for several times if necessary, which implies that s/he has greater control over this type of written genre. On the other hand, even though lectures are perceived as members of a planned speech category, the lecturer may happen to deal with making new statements, digressions and decisions, provoked by students’ sudden and unplanned statements, which can result in changing the structure planned in advance. Such situations point to the fact that lecturers cannot have complete control over lectures as types of spoken discourse compared to any other piece of written discourse.

References


Police Interrogation: Repeating as a Way of Challenging and Expressing Scepticism

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Abstract

Using the method of Conversation Analysis this paper explores an interactional technique of challenging or expressing scepticism in the context of police interrogation. The sequence starts with questioning officers’ turns, following which suspects produce answers which are evasive, invoke honesty, give resistance or try to obstruct the line of interrogation. The detectives treat these kinds of answers from the suspects, among other ways, by means of full or partial repeats of the received answer. The repeats have some properties of repair initiation as they indicate that there is some sort of trouble with the received answer, however, since they express detectives’ scepticism and non-acceptance of the received answer, rather than looking into repairing the trouble, they have a potentially damaging effect. This technique of the detectives, used to undermine the suspects’ position creates a general atmosphere of intimidation, which is revealed through suspects’ post-repeat turns. Responses to such detectives’ turns can be defensive, the defensiveness being expressed by no response from the suspect, a number of defensive elements in the response turn design, overlapping, defending the initial position and so on.

Keywords: Interrogation, suspect, questioning officer, repeats, scepticism, challenging

1. Introduction

This paper deals with an interactional practice which occurs with some regularity in the police interviews with suspects. The practice is realized through the linguistic device of repetition; more precisely, it is a repetition by the questioning officer of the response provided by the questioned party. The way this phenomenon works is that the detective asks a question, the suspect answers, but as the detective finds this answer unsatisfactory in certain way, he repeats a part or the whole of the received answer in order to challenge it and potentially have the suspect review it.

Repeats can be associated with the repair phenomenon as one of the devices for doing repair is repetition of a part of the previous turn. Repair is usually described as an interactional device which indicates some kind of trouble, a problem in speaking, hearing or understanding the talk (Schegloff, 2000). In the following extract, taken from Schegloff et al. (1977) Al repeats a single lexical unit from the previous turn, thereby signalling that Ken has committed some kind of error:

Extract 1
01 Ken: ‘E likes that waider over there,
02 Al: Wait-er?
03 Ken: Waitress, sorry,
04 Al: ‘At’s bedder
Taken from Schegloff et al. (1977, p. 377)

Al is, therefore, trying to fix the trouble, and in order to do so, he signals that there is a problem by means of the linguistic device of repetition. As one can see, in line 03 Ken registers Al’s repair initiator, repairs ‘waiter’ into ‘waitress’ and resolves the trouble. A similar non-acceptance of the received answer is also found in the repeats studied in this paper. When the detectives repeat what the suspect has said, they are not accepting the received answer as having been a valid one. However, what is different about these repeat sequences is that the suspect never gets to repair whatever is indicated as repairable.

2. Data and Methodology

The method I am applying is Conversation Analysis (CA). The interactional encounters used in this research include interviews with witnesses, damaged parties (for example a person reporting financial fraud), interviews with suspects who have admitted to their participation in a criminal activity and ‘true interrogations’ with parties suspected of having committed some crime, but who hold a position of innocence. There are 24 interviews ranging in length from 2.28 to
61.01 minutes.

3. The Repeats Phenomenon

In the example to follow one can trace the basic features of the phenomenon. Extract 2 below is taken from a factory theft interview. Some expensive parts went missing from a factory and the detectives are questioning different factory workers as they believe that some of them might be involved.

Extract 2

01 Dt1: IMAŠ i BRAFTa >da ti<RAdi ta[m. ] Do you have a brother who works there?
02 Sus: ["imam"]-imam"< I have, I have
03 (0.1)
04 Dt1: IMA:š jel? You have, do you?
05 (0.2)
06 >kako z<OVE¿ What is his name?
07 (.)
08 Sus: Dra°gan°
09 (1.0)
10 Dt1: ra>DI L< On. Does he work?
11 (0.3)
12 Sus: >sad je NA ODmor<, He is on holiday now
13 (0.7)
14 Dt1: >NA Odmor je<, He is on holiday?
15 (3.6)
16 Dt1: što je ↑piTA: On da- da napušti posa¿ Why did he ask about quitting the job?

The detectives are here questioning the suspect, a mechanic in the factory, about his brother who works in the same factory in which the theft took place. There are two instances of repeats in this extract (lines 04 and 14), and the suspect does not get to respond to either of these. Because the repeat in line 04 has a tag ‘jel’- ‘is it’, I will focus on the repeat in line 14 which is simple and more straightforward in form.

Although the detectives are familiar with the fact that the suspect has a brother and that the brother works in the same factory as the suspect (this gets to be revealed in line 16 when Dt1 asks ‘Why did he ask about quitting the job?’) they still question the suspect as if they do not have any of the information. After the suspect confirms he has got a brother in line 02, Dt1 produces a repeat of his answer ‘IMAš jel?’ which already signals that the ‘brother topic’ will be given a special treatment. Then, following a (0.2) pause in line 05, Dt1 moves on to the name of the brother, and in line 10 he inquires if the suspect’s brother works. In line 12 the suspect states that his brother is on holiday. One can note that this response is non-elliptical in form, which indicates that the suspect has analyzed the detective’s prior turn as some kind of trouble. Following this indication of trouble, the detective produces a repeat ‘he is on holiday?’ in line 14 which, as one can note, is quite simple - the ‘now’ is omitted from the original suspect’s turn and the auxiliary ‘je’ is postpositioned.

Following the repeat, the detective leaves a space of (3.6) for the suspect to respond, but as the suspect does not find that a response is a relevant next, the detective pursues questioning. One can note that position-wise, the repeat from line 14 occurs in the third turn slot, after the detective has received an answer to his ‘question’ in the first position. By doing the repeat, Dt1 indicates that he has considered the received answer and has found it in some ways unacceptable. In line 16 Dt1 displays more explicitly why he has found the response to be unacceptable - the suspect has not mentioned the fact that the brother wants to quit his job (which is already familiar to Dt1), the dissembling of which might be an indication of the brother’s culpability.

Having in mind the above given example, one can represent the basic repeat sequence in the following way:

Dt: question
Sus: answer
Dt: partial/full repeat of the suspect’s answer

More precisely, the first speaker asks a ‘question’ (an interrogative or any other form that requires an ‘answer’ as a second pair part). The second speaker provides an answer as an appropriate SPP. In third position, then, the first speaker does some kind of repetition of the received answer.

Next to this basic repeat format, there are instances in which after repeating or partially repeating the suspect’s answer, the detective produces some additional material in the same turn. The repeat in extract 3, line 07 is a case in
point.

Extract 3

01 Dt1: phhhh niti je bilo što sumljivo. kami ↓ ni;je phhhh nor was there anything suspicious, yeah right
02 (0.4)
03 Sus: a okle sam zna¿? Ko je zna¿? And how could I know? Who knew?
04 (0.8)
05 Sus: °((swears))°
06 (1.0)
07 Dt1: ko je znali ste VI: Bogo mi Who knew, you knew by God.

Extract 2 is taken from an interview with another suspect in the previously mentioned factory theft case. In line 01
the detective accuses the suspect, a security guard in the factory, that he knew something about the organization of the
theft before the theft took place. The detective does the accusation in an indirect way, by ‘Nor was there anything
suspicious, yeah right’, implying that something must have been suspicious. The suspect
too defends himself in an
indirect way, by a double interrogative construction ‘And how could I know? who knew?’ in line 03, followed by some
swearing in line 05. In line 07 Dt1 does a partial repeat of the suspect’s answer in line 03 - ‘Who knew?’ and then he adds
a new element ‘you knew for sure’. The repeat and the appended element together reinstate the accusation, previously
made in line 01.

Looking across the different types of interviews in my data set, what becomes evident is an asymmetric distribution
of the repeat phenomenon. It, first of all, emerges that the technique is utilized primarily by the detectives. The
interlocutors in the ‘subdued’ position, i.e. the suspects/witnesses do not use it as often, and in those cases when they
do use it, the technique serves to counter challenge the open accusations from the detectives.

Another observation is that the phenomenon occurs only in those interviews in the data set in which the questioned
party is treated as a suspect. The technique does not occur in the interviews with those interlocutors who are treated only
as witnesses, when citizens report a crime, nor in those cases in which the questioned party has admitted to their
participation in a criminal activity. This uneven distribution strongly suggests that there is a contesting quality to this
technique and that it is primarily used to facilitate some more dramatic activities, such as the activity of doubting. A similar
undermining repeat practice can be found in trials, in cross-examinations of witnesses (see Drew, 1992, the case of a
rape trial).

4. Repeats - Sequence Pattern

There are two principal sequential patterns of repeats and to each of them there is a variation, represented as patterns
1(a), 1(b), 2(a) and 2(b) below. This makes four communicational strategies that the speakers can follow.

Pattern 1(a):
Dt: ‘question’
Sus: answer
Dt: repeat of the suspect’s answer
Sus: response to the repeat

A variation on the first repeat pattern can be presented as follows:

Pattern 1(b):
Dt: ‘question’
Sus: answer
Dt: repeat
Sus: no response on the part of the suspect

The second interactional pattern can be represented as follows:

Pattern 2(a):
Dt: ‘question’
Sus: answer
Dt: repeat of the answer + next component
Pattern 2(b):
Dt1: ‘question’
Sus: answer
Dt1: repeat of the answer
Dt2: next component

So far, I have shown possible variations of the repeat sequence pattern. The repeats’ turn design can vary itself. These turns could either be full repeats, the fullness of the repeat reflects the fact that they echo the core of the received answer, but do not copy discourse markers such as ‘well’ or similar, and they almost invariably transpose personal pronouns or person reference morphological markers. Partial repeats copy only a part of the answerer’s turn.

5. Suspects’ Initial Responses

In the previous section I mentioned the fact that suspects’ initial (repeated) responses can either be short or elaborate. Another feature of these responses is that they are non-elliptical in form. One can note that in the two extracts below, the highlighted suspect’s responses are different in form. In extract 4, the response in line 03 is non-elliptical, non-elided, it is longer in form while it could have simply been a ‘yes’ or ‘no’.

Extract 4

01 Dt1:ra>DI L< On. Does he work?
02 (0.3)
03 Sus: >sad je NA ODmor<,He is on holiday now
04 (0.7)
05 Dt1: >NA Odmor je<.He is on holiday?

On the contrary, about twenty lines into the interview (Extract 5), the response in line 03 has an elliptical marker ‘yes’ + addition.

Extract 5

01 Dt1:a Eš čuo Ti: za to:. and did you hear about that?
02 ()
03 Sus: °eS:am kako nije: sam ( )° Yes, of course ( )
04 Dt1: >čuo si za to.<You have heard about it?

In his work on the structure of responding, Raymond (2000) shows how the omission of the overt ‘yes’ or ‘no’ in response to ‘questions’ does special interactional work. Raymond states that by answering ‘yes’ or ‘no’, speakers are complying with the terms of a FPP. By contrast, by omitting these markers in their response, speakers indicate they do not accept the terms of the FPP.

Thus, in extract 4, responding by ‘he is on holiday now’ to Dt1’s inquiry in line 1 the suspect is signalling his noncompliance with the terms of the received question. First of all, saying ‘no’ would mean that the brother is unemployed, which would be untruthful. As the brother is on holiday, saying ‘yes’ would also in certain way be untruthful, so the suspect goes for the option ‘he is on holiday now’, ‘now’ indicating a contrast between a current and past/future state. The resistance of the suspects’ initial responses can be seen in other examples. There is certain evasiveness in each of them: they are non-conforming and they claim a lack of knowledge about the crime they are being asked about. They can also be claiming non-involvement or invoking honesty. The described interactional techniques seem to be used by the suspects as to avoid their incrimination by the interrogators.

6. Repeats – Expressions of Scepticism

As already intimated, repeats can be associated with the repair phenomenon as one of the devices for doing repair is repetition of a part of the previous turn (Schegloff et al., 1977; Schegloff, 2000). Other functions of repair by means of repeating are confirming or re-asserting the original version of the trouble source (Schegloff et al., 1977) and confirming the allusions by speakers in a more knowing position (Schegloff, 1996). Although sequentially different, a parallel can be made between the repeats in Schegloff’s work and those treated in this chapter: they both appear in third turn positions and they both deal with something that is not overtly said – Schegloff’s confirming repeats deal with the information conveyed inferentially; the repeats produced by the questioning officers in my data set with the information the suspect
knows but resists to convey. By repeating a part or the whole of the suspect’s answer the detectives imply that the suspect is not quite telling the truth.

Repeats can be seen as sceptical simply by the virtue of being repeats. However, sometimes there is an extra component added to the repeat, which supports and makes the challenge more direct and obvious. In extract 6, one could see that in lines 01 – 10 the suspect tries to slow down and block a particular line of interrogation (note lines 3 and 10).

Extract 6

01 Dt1: A JESte li se >sretali u kafanu? < reci mi And were you seeing each other in the tavern, tell me
02 ( )
03 Sus: m: (0.1) KAd. Mmmm When?
04 (0.5)
05 Dt1: PRIje no je ON Before he
06 (0.7)
07 Sus: n:e[: ] No
08 Dt1: [u]RADIO šta je uradio. did what he did
09 (0.8)
10 Sus: m:::::: °ne sna:m.(0.1) < ne sjeća se. >°Mmmm I don’t know, I don’t remember
11 (0.8)
12 Dt1: >NE sjećaš se< ( . ) >oli da t JA< podšetim. You don’t remember? Shall I remind ya’?

In line 11 comes a longish pause and in line 12 the detective does the first undermining move, by producing a repeat ‘You don’t remember?’. The detective undermines the received answer by showing scepticism concerning the truthfulness of the received response. The attached interrogative ‘Shall I remind ya?’ intensifies the repeat which precedes it and expresses the challenge more overtly. While the repeat challenges by being sceptical, it does not provide any evidence for being such. The attached interrogative essentially shows the detective’s epistemic position on which he based the challenge: the detective knows, presumably from the witness statements, if the suspect was meeting the other party in the tavern. ‘Shall I remind ya?’ is also heard as somewhat ironic. It almost serves as a transition from ‘unsaid’ to ‘said’ for it introduces an even more challenging story which reveals the details of the ‘tavern encounters’.

7. Suspects’ Defensive Response to Repeats

Conversation analysts hold that whatever a certain interactional device does in communication is best displayed in the way the interlocutors respond to it. Essentially, at the heart of CA is the fact that interlocutors constantly convey their understanding or analysis of what the co-participants said. The occurrence of a FPP requires an appropriate SPP. SPP necessarily displays how the speaker has analysed the first to which it responds. If a speaker responds to a FPP with an inappropriate SPP, the FPP speaker can see that he/she has not been properly understood and this opens a possibility for the FPP speaker’s repair in the third-turn position. Sidnell (2010, p. 67) states: ‘...participants in conversation look to a next turn to see if and how they have been understood. As analysts we can exploit the same resource. This is sometimes called the next-turn proof procedure’. Applying the next turn proof procedure, one can note that a considerable degree of defensiveness is displayed in the recipients’ responses to the repeat turns, i.e. they are perceived as aggressive, damaging devices.

As already mentioned, the suspect does not respond verbally to some of the repeats, no matter whether they stand on their own or they have an additional element attached. This can be noted in the already analysed extract 7 below.

Extract 7

01 Dt1: iMAŠ i B RAta >da ti< RAdi tajmo. } Do you have a brother who works there?
02 Sus: ["imam ] imam<° I have, I have
03 (0.1)
04 Dt1: IMA:š je? You have, is it?
05 (0.2)
06 >kako z< OVE< What is his name?

Note that there is no verbal response after the repeat and the additional element in line 04 above. There is a (0.2) pause in line 05 in which the suspect had a chance to come in. However, there is no attempt from the suspect to respond, unless he responded with a nod.
As well as not responding to repeats, suspects can express resistance to the work done by the repeat in a more active fashion. In the following example, the detectives are questioning a factory security guard (the factory theft case).

Extract 8

01 Dt3: =a šTA ĆEmo AKO POLigraf KAže da LAžeš.=What shall we do if the polygraph shows that you’re lying?
02 =šta Onda >da radimo< °s tobom° What shall we do with you then?
03 ( )
04 Sus: °ne znam° I don’t know
05 (0.4)
06 Dt3: ne Zna:š¿= You don’t know?
07 Sus: =okele >ja ne znam Bogomi šta ja znam<, How? I don’t know by God, what do I know?

After the suspect states that he does not know what would happen if the polygraph shows that he is lying, Dt3 does a repeat of ‘You don’t know?’ in line 06. Note how the suspect has analysed the repeat: the suspect’s response in line 07 is latched, there is no time between the detective’s repeat and the suspect’s response to it. Then, the design of the suspect’s turn gives away defensiveness. The suspect treats the repeat as containing the proposition ‘you know’, i.e. as accusing him of lying, so he first does a direct negation of this proposition. He then produces an additional TCU ‘what do I know?’, an unanswerable challenging wh-interrogative, which also carries the implication ‘I don’t know’. This double rejection of the detective’s implied accusation very much contributes to the response being perceived as defensive.

Repeats can follow and support other openly challenging turns. In such cases, the suspect can understand repeats as a way of reinstating an open challenge from the preceding talk. Suspects can overlap as a response to a repeat turn; they can also claim inability to be precise, which leaves them an option of not giving any definite response.

8. Conclusion

In this paper I have dealt with an interactional technique of challenging or expressing scepticism concerning the suspect’s answer by the questioning officer. Looking at the suspects’ initial answers to which the detectives respond by means of a repeat, one can note that they are in some way non-straightforward or detectives find them in some way unacceptable. These answers are non-elliptical, non-elided, claiming not to know or not to remember, they are evasive, invoking honesty, giving resistance and trying to obstruct the line of interrogation.

The detectives treat these kinds of answers from the suspects, among other ways, by means of a full or a partial repeat of the received answer. This is sometimes supported by a supplementary which tends to make the challenge expressed by a repeat more explicit. One has seen that the repeats have some properties of repair initiation as they indicate that there is some sort of trouble with the received answer and as, in a way, they are striving to reset the sequence and have the received answer amended. However, repeat sequences cannot be taken to be quite the same as repair. Since repeats express scepticism and non-acceptance of the received answer, and they have a potentially damaging effect, they unlike real repair, most often involve no repair on the suspect’s initial answer. Instead, the suspect sticks to the previously taken position.

This technique of the detectives, used to undermine the suspects’ position does create a general atmosphere of intimidation. This could be noted in the suspects’ post-repeat turns. An examination of how suspects respond to the repeat turns has shown that they perceive them as threatening. We have seen how their responses to such detectives’ turns can be defensive, the defensiveness being expressed by no response from the suspect, through a number of defensive elements in the response turn design, overlapping as to take over the turn, holding the same position since the suspects can perceive the repeat turns as reinstating the prior accusations and so on.

References

Transcription Key

[ ] square brackets overlapping talk
= equals sign no discernible interval between turns (also used to show that the same person
continues speaking across an intervening line displaying overlapping talk
< "greater than" sign "jump started" talk with loud onset.
(0.5) time in parentheses intervals within or between talk (measured in tenths of a second)
(·) period in parentheses discernable pause or gap, too short to measure
Characteristics of speech delivery:
  . period closing intonation
  , comma slightly upward "continuing" intonation
  ? question mark rising intonation question
  ¿ inverted question mark rising intonation weaker than that indicated by a question mark
  ! exclamation mark animated tone
  - hyphen/dash abrupt cut off of sound
  : colon extension of preceding sound -- the more colons the greater the
      extension
  ↑↓ up or down arrow marked rise or fall in intonation immediately following the arrow
  here underlining emphasized relative to surrounding talk
  HERE upper case louder relative to surrounding talk
  "here" degree signs softer relative to surrounding talk
  >this< speeded up or compressed relative to surrounding talk
  <this> slower or elongated relative to surrounding talk
  hhh audible outbreath (no. of "h"s indicates length)
  .hhh audible inbreath (no. of "h"s indicates length)
  (h) audible aspirations in speech (e.g., laughter particles)
  hah/heh/hih/hoh/huh all variants of laughter
  ( ) empty single parentheses transcriber unable to hear word
  (bring) word(s) in single parentheses transcriber uncertain of hearing
  ((coughs)) word(s) in double parentheses transcriber’s comments on, or description of, sound: other audible
  sounds are represented as closely as possible in standard orthography,
  e.g., "tcht" for tongue click; "mcht" for a lip parting sound
The Political Culture of European Women in the Twenty-First Century

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Abstract

The relationship between women and politics continues to provoke discussions and is increasingly being addressed as a problem of democracy and not of women only. This research will deal with analyzing the relationship between political education and women, as well as the importance of educating to politics; the reason why there is need of developing in individuals and in women particularly the sense of individual and collective responsibility and the awareness of their rights in the common good, in order to teach them that the delegation people carry out through elections is of a representative and not an of a intellectual kind. In fact, despite significant successes in the growth of women’s presence in education, employment and cultural life, we realize that the political participation of women is still very low. We will try to sensitize the public opinion on this issue, and change a political culture that still considers the man a legitimate protagonist of state management.

Keywords: women, policy, education, citizenship, culture.

1. Introduzione

La politica è un ambito in cui la presenza femminile è ancora molto scarsa; tuttavia, le donne che hanno frequentato i luoghi della politica, in qualità di capo di governo, hanno lasciato il segno tanto da essere soprannominate Ladies di ferro.

Il rapporto tra donne e politica continua a far discutere e viene sempre più affrontato, come problema della democrazia e non solo delle donne. Il taglio sociologico, consente – grazie anche all’ampiezza del materiale esaminato e proposto nel quadro di una problematica che resta aperta, senza vincoli ideologici e senza risposte conclusive – un approccio attento all’attualità della questione così come emerge nella vicenda politica odierna con i suoi dibattiti, i suoi condizionamenti, le sue delusioni. Al fondo di questa rivendicazione c’è più che un sacrosanto legittimo diritto soggettivo: c’è l’utopia della ricomposizione, nel progetto politico collettivo, delle sfere d’interessi dell’umanità, il riconoscimento del valore storico–politico chiave, per il disegno del futuro, dei problemi demografici e di quelli affettivi, del benessere quotidiano e dell’organizzazione della vita (Nicola, 1983: 11).

Nonostante, negli anni più recenti, la partecipazione politica delle donne abbia subito trasformazioni significative sia in merito alla quantità che alla qualità della partecipazione politica, diversi studi continuano a sottolineare che il network relazionale degli uomini continua ad essere non solo più esteso di quello delle donne, ma anche di più spiccata rilevanza politica. Tenuto conto del più basso livello di informazione politica e di un limitato senso di efficacia, per le donne l’inserimento in gruppi e strutture organizzative, anche se a carattere non specificamente politico, incrementa il senso di sicurezza nell’affermazione delle proprie opinioni ed incentiva la partecipazione politica, dal voto all’impegno attivo. La maggiore dipendenza dagli intermediari politici sarebbe la conseguenza di una bassa fiducia nella propria capacità di elaborare opinioni politiche autonome e della necessità di essere rassicurate. Questo bisogno di rassicurazione, che spesso fa capo a gruppi ed organizzazioni, ancora dominati da figure maschili, evidenzia il persistere del cosiddetto “gap di indipendenza”.

La questione della scarsa presenza femminile nei luoghi di decisione politica è un dato che, a sessant’anni dall’acquisizione del diritto elettorale da parte delle donne, è sintomo di una sconfitta per la stessa democrazia e lascia aperto il problema del riequilibrio della rappresentanza e della realizzazione di una democrazia effettiva e non dimezzata.

2. Emancipazione Femminile e Cultura Politica

Il Femminismo è stata la prima forma di identità pubblica che le donne, prima un’agguerrita minoranza, poi in gruppi
sempre più estesi, si sono date a partire dalla fine del 1600. A quell’epoca si accese una acanita disputa in merito alle capacità e al ruolo sociale delle donne. Il problema era all’ordine del giorno: le trasformazioni economiche, sociali e politiche avevano posto le premesse di una più ampia e consapevole partecipazione delle donne alla vita politica, artistica e culturale, eppure molte di loro conducevano ancora una vita grama e mortificante, escluse dai livelli alti dell’istruzione e da ogni ruolo significativo e conseguate, vita naturale durante, o al matrimonio o alla clausura.

Bisogna però aspettare fino alla Rivoluzione Francese (1789) per trovare documenti significativi sulla figura della donna. In Francia troviamo Olympe de Gouges (1748-1793), con “La dichiarazione dei diritti della donna e della cittadina”, del 1791. L’intento della Dichiarazione era di rendere consapevoli le donne dei diritti che venivano loro negati e di chiederne quindi la reintegrazione afinché anche le donne divenissero delle cittadine a tutti gli effetti. La donna, secondo la Dichiarazione, nasce libera ed ha gli stessi diritti dell’uomo. Le distinzioni sociali possono essere fondate solo sull’utilità comune (art.1) (Santucci, 2004); i diritti naturali sono la libertà, la proprietà, la sicurezza e soprattutto la resistenza all’oppressione (art. 2); tutte le cittadine devono essere ammesse ad ogni dignità, posto e impiego pubblici secondo le loro capacità, e senza altre distinzioni che quelle delle loro virtù e dei loro talenti (art.6); la donna deve poter esprimere liberamente i suoi pensieri e le sue opinioni (art.11) (De Martino-Bruzese, 1994: 181-183). In Inghilterra, proprio nello stesso periodo, c’è Mary Wollstonecraft (1739-1797), autrice di un’opera intitolata “Rivendicazione dei diritti della donna”, (1792), che intende collocare le istanze di liberazione e di parità sociale e politica delle donne nel contesto del più generale programma illuministico dei diritti dell’uomo. Le donne devono uscire dalla loro gabbia dorata della “femminilità”, che è l’altra faccia della emarginazione e della subordinazione; la donna deve acquisire l’ideale della ragione, rivolgendosi al suo stesso sesso; non più amanti seducenti ma mogli “affettuose e madri razionali”. Le donne devono coinvolgersi pienamente nel progetto illuministico e riformatore: istruzione, diritti politici, responsabilità personale, parità economica, razionalità e virtù, libertà e felicità, sono questi gli ideali della Wollstonecraft, che giunge anche a proporre, provocatoriamente, una “castità” femminile demistificatrice dei rapporti ambiguì con l’uomo. La mente femminile è stata relegata dalla tirannide maschile in un limbo di fatuità a cui le donne, per lo più, si sono adattate. Ma le donne oggi devono sapere che ai diritti che esse reclamano corrispondono dei doveri e che la ribellione contro il dominio maschile deve svolgersi in nome di valori universali, quali quelli emersi col pensiero moderno. Intelletto, virtù e libertà sono i tre volti della ragione illuminata che la Wollstonecraft. ha posto come principi del suo pensiero. Il suo fine è la creazione di una “nuova civiltà” in cui l’umanità sia virtuosa e felice (Wollstonecraft, 1977).

In Italia il movimento per i diritti delle donne nacque in ritardo rispetto ad altri paesi; quando la rivoluzione industriale, cominciò ad occupare come forza lavoro anche le donne, si posero problemi quali l’orario di lavoro, da conciliare con il lavoro casalingo, e la tutela della maternità. Si formarono, così, dei gruppi femminili che all’inizio erano formati per lo più da donne della borghesia. In seguito si unirono a loro anche movimenti di donne socialiste. Pioniere del movimento per i diritti della donna furono, tra le altre, Anna Maria Mozzoni, con il suo libro autobiografico “Una donna ed Anna Kuliscioff”.

Il vero e proprio femminismo nascerà però solo nell’Ottocento. L’orizzonte etico e politico del femminismo ottocentesco è stato quello dell’egalitarismo fra i sessi e della emancipazione giuridica ed economica della donna. Nel corso dell’Ottocento le femministe si sono comunque impegnate, oltre che su obiettivi specifici, anche su tematiche riguardanti i diritti umani e civili in senso ampio: le lotte per la libertà di pensiero e di associazione, per l’abolizione della schiavitù, del voto alle donne e della pace nel mondo. Negli Stati Uniti ci fu Lucretia Coffin Mott (1793-1880), riformatrice sociale e predicatrice “quacchera”, impegnata sui temi della abolizione della schiavitù, del voto alle donne e della pace nel mondo.

Nella seconda metà dell’Ottocento il segno politico del femminismo cambiò in seguito ai processi di inurbazione e di industrializzazione che si svilupparono tanto in Europa quanto negli Stati Uniti. Non solo donne colte e altolocate ma anche donne del ceto operaio e piccolo-borghese furono coinvolte dal movimento socialista e da quello femminista che individuarono finalmente una strategia specifica per affrontare la “questione femminile”.

Negli Stati Uniti ci fu Lucretia Coffin Mott (1793-1880), riformatrice sociale e predicatrice “quacchera”, impegnata sui temi della abolizione della schiavitù, del voto alle donne e della pace nel mondo.

In Inghilterra si formò la “National Society for Women’s Suffrage”, diretta da Lydia Becker, e la "Ladies National association" di Josephine Butler, impegnata anche per una regolamentazione se non abolizione della prostituzione.

In Francia ricordiamo, Hubertine Auclert (1848-1914), che propose nel 1879 un salario per le casalinghe e si fece promotrice di uno sciopero fiscale delle donne fino alla concessione del diritto di voto. Nel 1904 fu protagonista di un episodio di cronaca che la rese ancora più celebre: nel corso di una ennesima manifestazione femminista, strappò una copia del Codice Napoleonico, di cui in quei giorni si celebrava l’anniversario, per le sue inique disposizioni, a detta della Auclert, in materia di diritto privato.

Dobbiamo però aspettare la metà degli anni ’60 di questo secolo quando nacque il Movimento di Liberazione della Donna come espressione delle contraddizioni del ruolo sociale femminile nei paesi del capitalismo avanzato (Europa e...
USA); L’inserimento economico ai bassi livelli del sistema, sfruttamento del lavoro domestico, uso consumistico dell’immagine femminile, educazione repressiva, estraneità delle donne ai partiti politici tradizionali, esigenza di nuovi valori.

Durante questo periodo, precisamente nel 1963, apparve negli Stati Uniti un saggio di Betty Friedan, “La mistica della femminilità” (Betty Friedan, 1963), in cui sosteneva che nella società americana si era giunti al punto di massima tensione fra la realtà della vita femminile e l’immagine della donna proposta dai mass media e dalla cultura ufficiale. Secondo la Friedan, a partire dagli anni ’40 era stata proposta una “mistica della femminilità” cioè un modello di vita e di felicità femminile organico e chiuso: amore, figli, marito, casa, acquisti, vestiti ecc. che finalmente entrava in crisi. Il dibattito si arricchì nel 1969 con la pubblicazione de, “La politica del sesso” di Kate Millet (Millet, 1979). Con questo libro si inaugurò la tendenza specificamente radicale del nuovo femminismo, una tendenza sessista e separatista che univa, alla fine analisi culturale e letteraria, il programma di una opposizione radicale contro la società, intesa anzitutto come società maschile e patriarcale. La Millet fece esplicitamente diventare l’azione del Femminismo una lotta contro un potere per un altro e diverso potere, per cui il fine del movimento non era più quello della parità, bensì quello della eccellenza della donna, della sua superiorità: era un femminismo della differenza, un femminismo che si qualificava soprattutto come movimento intellettuale.

Ven’anni dopo le prime manifestazioni di piazza e di lotte vincenti sul divorzio e l’aborto, il femminismo è ancora vivo, pur essendosi trasformato, nella cultura e nella riflessione politica delle donne (De Leo, Taricone, 1999: 265).

Il femminismo radicale è diventato, di fatto, a partire dagli anni ’80, un femminismo della complessità, un femminismo sistemicom. Ma il fatto di essere diventato un femminismo colto, e per certi versi esoterico, non è stata la sola trasformazione. Da movimento di massa, da movimento sociale, è diventato una rete di piccoli gruppi: questo ha consentito un affinamento della elaborazione teorica ma forse ha fatto perdere posizioni sul piano politico, mentre i “diritti delle donne” sono diventati una sorta di luogo comune dell’agenda politica di tutti i partiti.

La sfida tentata dal movimento politico delle donne in Italia, di cui l’Unione Femminile Nazionale ha rappresentato l’espressione più articolata e matura, era in definitiva quella di assumere consapevolmente la parzialità di un soggetto escluso ad ogni livello dalla totalità di un progetto di cambiamento – le donne – come misura e paradigma universale della trasformazione.

Una simile prospettiva sarebbe stata sostenibile però soltanto se le donna fosse stata preparata a viversi come soggetto autonimo, che non assumesse il metro maschile per guardare al proprio ruolo nel mondo, ma che misurasse finalmente su se stessa (Buttafuoco, 1992: 27).

3. La Partecipazione Politica e Sociale delle Donne

Nonostante le donne, nel secolo scorso, abbiano acquisito i diritti politici, non sono riuscite ad entrare a far parte in misura consistente delle istituzioni rappresentative. Questo fenomeno coinvolge tutti i Paesi del mondo indistintamente. I motivi di tale fenomeno sono diversi e legati sia alla crisi della rappresentanza, sia a dei fattori socio-culturali. Si tratta di sensibilizzare su questo tema l’opinione pubblica, e modificare una cultura politica che, ancora oggi, considera l’uomo il legittimo protagonista della gestione dello Stato.

In più, occorrono delle misure concrete che promuovano la partecipazione politica delle donne. In primo luogo il sistema elettorale di tipo maggioritario, che di per sé tende ad escludere forze politiche minori, come ad esempio, anche i giovani, che oggi si trovano ai margini della politica. Nelle strutture politiche di base, come i partiti ed i sindacati, non essendo le donne presenti in misura considerevole, non si crea un movimento politico al femminile, capace di costituirsi come punto di riferimento per le elettrici e le elette.

Inoltre, l’assenza delle donne dalle organizzazioni partitiche primarie, priva la candidata alle elezioni, di un appoggio morale e politico durante la campagna elettorale.

Il contatto con delle realtà, come la scuola, gli ospedali, la parrocchia, maturato durante la propria esperienza personale di figlia, moglie e madre, ha dato alle donne una singolare capacità di analizzare la società, per capirne i problemi e tentare di risolverli, spesso con successo. Mostrando un forte senso di responsabilità civica, le donne hanno scelto altre sedi politiche in cui operare.

A livello locale, in Italia, la presenza femminile è decisamente consistente, soprattutto se confrontata con i dati relativi al Parlamento; cresce moderatamente il numero delle donne presenti nelle Regioni e nelle Province, mentre nei Comuni si registra una significativa partecipazione femminile. È opportuno fare delle considerazioni sul perché le donne siano politicamente più presenti a livello locale, piuttosto che a livello centrale.

Nelle indagini recenti sulla partecipazione politica, almeno secondo gli indicatori prescelti, l’Italia risulta, essere il paese europeo nel quale la differenza tra uomini e donne è maggiore: lo scarto diminuisce decisamente tra i più giovani,
ma è ancora consistente (Inglehart, 1988: 420-422).

L’accesso sempre più massiccio ai gradi alti della formazione scientifica e professionale è stato un fattore di messa in evidenza sempre più ampia della qualità della presenza femminile nella società e del rilievo dell’apporto che le donne possono fornire allo sviluppo civile del'Italia. Ciò non è avvenuto senza fatica e senza incontrare ostacoli (Papa, 2010: 153). È sempre più chiaro che ovunque le donne abbiano intrapreso un percorso di formazione che doveva portarle a esiti professionali impegnativi e di responsabilità, ciò non poteva avvenire che pagando prezzi più alti, sensibilmente più alti rispetto agli uomini.

Tuttora comunque non c’è ancora la consapevolezza che la partecipazione della donna alla politica può portare quel pragmatismo e quella concretezza tipicamente femminile e la determinazione nel perseguire gli obbiettivi, con uno spirito di sacrificio e di dedizione al bene comune, in quanto meno preoccupate rispetto agli uomini della ricerca di posizioni di potere per una pura gratificazione personale, infatti le donne costituiscono la metà degli esseri liberi (Aristotele 1955: 60). La presenza delle donne in politica, in un ambito ancora prettamente maschile, potrebbe favorire perciò dei cambiamenti fondamentali sia a livello metodologico, sia nei contenuti del dibattito.

Una democrazia fondata sulla cittadinanza duale, di donne e di uomini, soggetti entrambi di diritto di cittadinanza e di rappresentanza. Non una quota da recuperare per le donne ma una garanzia di presenza al 50% tra candidate e candidati che, in modo alternato, devono comporre le liste elettorali, pena l’irricevibilità della lista stessa. Ed è questo l’altro aspetto sostanziale della proposta di legge, perché, finalmente, si rimette la politica tra uomini e donne sul piano pubblico, del confronto, e non la si costringe più nella strettoia del privato, della lotta tra i sessi. Perché non vi possono essere efficaci politiche a favore delle donne senza le donne protagoniste delle scelte. Perché non si promuove empowerment “in nome” delle donne ma “con” le donne (Donno, 2010: 148).

Avere più donne nelle assemblee elettive significa poter offrire uno stile di governo, a tutti i livelli, capace di interpretare i diversi bisogni e offrire risposte diversificate a tutti, uomini e donne, con una più aderente rappresentazione della realtà. Perché nessuna differenza sarà mai un valore se la realtà che ci circonda viene descritta e interpretata con un solo colore, un solo sguardo, da un solo sesso (Donno, 2010: 148).

4. Le Donne in Europa: Gli Strumenti della Politica delle Donne

Per analizzare il ruolo e la posizione delle donne europee nelle istituzioni politiche, è opportuno un breve cenno storico, partendo dall’acquisizione del diritto di voto, essendo, la storia politica femminile, recente.

Alla fine del XIII sec., le donne europee non godevano dei diritti civili né politici, concessi solo a frange ristrette della popolazione.

Infatti, prima di ottenere il diritto di voto e di eleggibilità sul piano cantonale e federale, le donne potevano esprimere il loro impegno politico solo nell’ambito di organizzazioni femminili e associazioni professionali. In alcuni paesi, potevano, inoltre, fare parte di commissioni scolastiche, commissioni per la pubblica assistenza, consigli ecclesiastici e parrocchiali e qualche altra autorità politica. Anche le prime donne che ricoprirono cariche politiche comunali o regionali a cavallo tra gli anni Sessanta e gli anni Settanta si erano cimentate in tali consensi prima di avventurarsi sulla scena pubblica.

Nel 1971, quando le donne entrarono finalmente nella politica federale, incominciò anche la loro avanzata nelle funzioni di partito, nei parlamenti, negli esecutivi e in altre cariche politiche. Nel confronto europeo, la presenza femminile in Consiglio nazionale si situa oggi, con il 23.5% conseguito alle elezioni federali del 1999, nella fascia mediana: percentuali più elevate si riscontrano nell’area Scandinavia e nei Paesi Bassi (da tre 36% e il 42.7%), nonché in Germania (30.9%), Spagna (28.3%) e Austria (26.8%). Nonostante i progressi compiuti e benchè costituiscano la maggioranza della popolazione residente e dell’elettorato, le donne svizzere sono tuttora decisamente sottorappresentate a tutti i livelli politici.

I paesi nordici si situano tutti tra i primi dieci in graduatoria: negli ultimi cinque anni le prime 4 posizioni sono costantemente occupate da Islanda, Norvegia, Finlandia e Svezia (Global Gender Gap Index 2010), mentre la Danimarca si colloca al 7° posto. I primi 4 paesi si trovano tra i primi 20 nel sottotitolo della partecipazione e delle opportunità economiche e ottennero nuovamente i primi 4 posti nel sottotitolo della partecipazione politica. Nei paesi nordici, infatti, la partecipazione femminile alla forza lavoro è tra le più alte al mondo e le differenze di salario nei confronti degli uomini sono tra le più basse al mondo, anche se non è ancora stata raggiunta la piena parità salariale. Le politiche di questi paesi includono congedi di paternità obbligatori in associazione a generosi congedi di maternità, incentivi e programmi di rientro post-maternità. In alcuni paesi il congedo può durare anche un intero anno: in Norvegia il congedo dura 46 settimane con una indennità pari al 100% dello stipendio, o 56 settimane con l’80% dello stipendio; in Svezia il congedo dura 480 giorni, con una indennità calcolata sulla base dello stipendio per i primi 390 giorni (l’80% dello stipendio, entro
un tetto massimo) e una indennità fissa negli ultimi 90 giorni; in Danimarca dura 52 settimane all’80% dello stipendio (con un tetto massimo). I programmi di rientro post-maternità islandesi hanno fortemente contribuito a posizionare il paese al primo posto nel Global Gender Gap Index: in Islanda vi sono il diritto legale di tornare al lavoro dopo la nascita del figlio e un sistema capillare di asili nido e scuole materne offerto da parte dei principali comuni. Le donne hanno inoltre molte opportunità di raggiungere posizioni di potere, anche perché i paesi nordici hanno adottato politiche di promozione della leadership femminile. Per quanto riguarda la partecipazione delle donne alla politica, i paesi nordici furono tra i pionieri del diritto al voto femminile e negli anni ‘70 i partiti politici norvegesi, svedesi e danesi hanno introdotto quote rosa su base volontaria, con un conseguente aumento della partecipazione politica femminile. Oggi i paesi nordici hanno percentuali di partecipazione politica femminile che si attestano tra le più alte al mondo, sia per quanto riguarda la percentuale di donne in parlamento (45% in Svezia, 43% in Islanda, 40% in Norvegia e Finlandia, 38% in Danimarca), sia per ciò che concerne il numero delle donne ministro (63% in Finlandia, 53% in Norvegia, 45% in Svezia e Islanda, 42% in Danimarca).

Tab. 1 - Classifica mondiale della presenza femminile nei Parlamenti nazionali (2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Lower or single House</th>
<th>Upper House or Senate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Elections Seats Women</td>
<td>% W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>9 2008 80 45</td>
<td>56.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>9 2010 349 157</td>
<td>45.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>4 2009 400 178</td>
<td>44.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>1 2008 614 265</td>
<td>43.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>4 2009 63 27</td>
<td>42.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>6 2010 150 61</td>
<td>40.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>3 2007 200 80</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>9 2009 169 67</td>
<td>39.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6 2010 150 59</td>
<td>39.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>10 2009 250 98</td>
<td>39.20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

Recentemente, il tema relativo alla partecipazione politica delle donne, è diventato molto attuale; l’UE ha intrapreso una serie di iniziative (sondaggi, indagini, dichiarazioni di principio, iniziative legislative), coinvolgendo anche i singoli governi nazionali, e le donne continuano ad essere sottorappresentate nelle posizioni che comportano responsabilità politiche ed economiche, anche se la percentuale è aumentata nel corso degli ultimi dieci anni. Il tasso di occupazione delle donne anse se è in crescita deve ancora aumentare per raggiungere l’obiettivo fissato dalla strategia Europea 2020.

5. Come Aumentare la Partecipazione Femminile in Politica

Varie sono le cause della bassa presenza di donne in politica. Innanzitutto la mancanza di tempo penalizza le donne per la difficoltà di conciliarne le richieste con l’attività di cura della famiglia e della gestione della casa. Il problema diventa più grave quando a ciò si aggiunge la scarsità di mezzi economici che limita anche la possibilità di intraprendere campagne elettorali onerose e costose.

Per le donne il passaggio dal particolare al generale è essenzialmente passaggio dalla donna alle donne: dall’idea di se stessa come inerme per destino, alla scoperta di sé e delle altre insieme come oppresse (Gramaglia 1968: 179-201).

La minore partecipazione politica delle donne ha cause multiple. Alle donne incombono, per esempio, quasi interamente le responsabilità famigliari e, pertanto, dei doveri sociali che le rendono meno disponibili per una carriera politica. Le donne accedono anche meno facilmente alla politica perché generalmente occupano posizioni meno alte degli uomini nella vita professionale e sono meno bene rappresentate nelle lobby economiche.

Quanto alle possibilità di profilarsi sulla scena politica, non hanno ancora modelli o una tradizione a cui ispirarsi. E infine molte donne preferiscono impegnarsi nelle istituzioni extraparlamentari o svolgere attività di volontariato in campo sociale o ecclesiale.

Ma è soprattutto la percezione della distanza tra il proprio mondo e quello della politica a tenere lontane le donne da questa attività: tanto le donne enfatizzano il valore della concretezza, della necessità di misurare le proposte, di confrontarsi, costruire, lavorare per obbiettivi, tanto la politica appare loro uno spazio autoreferenziale, in cui si esercitano.
poteri e veti incrociati e di cui non sono chiari né gli obbiettivi, né le regole, né i luoghi di espressione (Zajczyk, 2007). 

Anche il fattore temporale viene individuato da Gelli come un elemento che rende difficile alle donne l’accesso alla dimensione politica, nel senso che “manca una storia, mancano modelli di azione e di interventi/cambiamenti sulla realtà sociale ai quali le donne individualmente ed in gruppo possano fare riferimento. Manca la memoria di un potere che è esercizio della politica (Gelli, 2009). Nell’individuazione dei fattori che in altri paesi hanno ostacolato alle donne l’accesso alla politica ed alle istituzioni, Gelli, accanto alla “religione cattolica con influenza più o meno diretta sul modello della femminilità e del ruolo della donna in famiglia; al sistema maggioritario di voto” colloca al primo posto il “ritardo nella concessione del suffragio”.

6. Conclusioni

Abbiamo visto che finora pregiudizi di tipo culturale hanno, infatti, relegato la donna all’ambito familiare oppure sono stati affidati loro ruoli mutuati dalla vita domestica e di scarsa rilevanza strategica. Per invertire questa tendenza bisognerebbe partire da una sorta di educazione e di sensibilizzazione sulle pari opportunità per l’uomo e la donna. Bisogna avviare iniziative volte a modificare una cultura, in cui l’uomo è considerato ancora il protagonista della gestione della repubblica ed attuare modalità di sensibilizzazione per favorire l’accesso alla politica di quella metà dell’umanità che, in quanto alla pari degli uomini, deve avere gli stessi diritti in nome di una rappresentanza più equilibrata e nel rispetto dei principi di democrazia e di uguaglianza.

Il compito più difficile è quello di promuovere attraverso azioni di sensibilizzazione una nuova cultura che riconosca i valori e l’indispensabilità del contributo delle donne nei processi decisionali. Deve essere un’azione volta non solo a favore delle donne, ma anche e soprattutto rivolta alle donne, perché prendano coscienza del ruolo che devono assumere nelle istituzioni.

La grande rivoluzione consiste innanzitutto nel modo di pensare delle donne, nel coraggio di presentarsi con la loro specificità, invece di fare propri i vecchi modelli maschili, mascolinizzando i propri comportamenti, nell’abbandonare lo scetticismo e nell’incominciare a prendere coscienza delle loro qualità e potenzialità con l’audacia, la convinzione e la capacità di cogliere le nuove esigenze e di agevolare il cambiamento.

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Middle and Junior Managers’ Perceptions of Perceived Organisational Support in the South African Soccer Domestic Leagues

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Abstract

The concept of perceived organisational support has attracted considerable interest as an attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee loyalty and dedication to the organisation. The same organisational principles are applicable sport organisations like soccer clubs since their ultimate success depends to a great extent on their human resources. It is important for soccer clubs to attract and retain staff with adequate skills to enhance the brand and image of the club. The purpose of this study was to compare middle and lower managers’ perceived organisational support and demographical information and how they perceive organisational support from the soccer clubs. The study adopted a non-probability convenience sampling method to recruit junior and middle managers in the Premier Soccer League (PSL) in South Africa. Two hundred questionnaires were administered to middle and junior management. One hundred and fifteen (58%) usable questionnaires were returned. Perceived organisational support was assessed by means of the Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire. One-way analysis of variance indicates that there were no significant difference between gender and middle managers, but there are significant differences for lower managers and gender. A significant difference exists between middle and lower managers regarding to their years of experience, age and qualifications and experience of perceived organisational support.

Keywords: Perceived organisational support, middle managers, lower managers, age, gender, qualification

1. Introduction

Sport organisations are consistently encountering significant competition in the face of international competition, increased sport participation, increased sponsorship, increased visibility of sport and greater levels spectatorship. In order to address this immense challenge sport organisations are forced to redirect their attention to what is regarded as one of the most important assets for most organisations – their human resources.

The fact that organisational success is dependent on its employees (Ghani, 2006), makes it necessary for organisations to provide appropriate support to their employees so that their productivity increases. Colakoglu, Culha and Atay (2010) view organisational support as one of the most important organisational concepts that help retain employees in an organisation, because of its potential to increase their job satisfaction, job security and organisational commitment. Organisational support is defined as the degree to which employees perceived that their organisation was concerned with their health and well-being as well as with the reduction of conflict between employees’ personal and professional life (Grant-Vallonea & Ensherber, 2001). Perceived organisational support (POS) is the employees’ view of how much the organisation values their contribution and cares about them (Allen, Armstrong, Reid & Riemenschneider, 2008). The employment relationship is a reciprocal exchange relationship that reveals relative interaction, dependence and extends beyond a formal contract of employment.

Given the dynamic and competitive environment in which organisations operate, it is not surprising that organisations make every attempt to retain competent employees (Colakoglu et al., 2010) to increase their chances of success. The competitive environment, however, often also influences an employee to compare his/her organisation with other organisations as well as compare future positions (Kanaga & Browning, 2007). This process which is used by
employees as a psychological process affects perception of their organisational support.

2. Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

A great deal of research has been conducted on the concept of organisational commitment which is associated with organisational support. Generally employers who recognise dedication and loyalty in their employees tend to be supportive of such employees. Being valued by the organisation can yield such benefits as increased approval and respect, higher pay and more chances for promotion, as well as access to information and other forms of aid needed to better carry out one’s job (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Organisational commitment and perceived organisational support (POS) embodies an attitudinal response to the organisation as a whole (Shore & Tetrich, 1991). It could therefore be argued that POS should also be distinct from employment satisfaction. Employees become attached to an organisation because they consider a beneficial or equitable exchange relationship between their contributions to the organisation and the rewards they receive for service rendered. Therefore, attachment to an organisation is a state that can arise through the accumulation of a series of actions from the organisation.

In recent years, POS has received increased attention from researchers and practitioners in an attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee loyalty and dedication to the organisation. Several studies (e.g. De Croon, Sluiter, Blonk, Broersen & Frings-Dresen, 2004; Hardy, Woods & Wall, 2003; Beehr, Jex, Stacy & Murray, 2000) have highlighted the detrimental effects of stress and psychological distress on individuals and organisations, which include poor physical health, reduced performance, absenteeism, and turnover. In the light of the afore-mentioned it is important for employees to feel that their employers understand the challenges they face and provide support and assistance to help them to integrate work with the rest of their life. Employees have a need to determine whether, and to what extent an organisation recognises and rewards their efforts, support their socio-emotional needs, and are willing to help them on request.

The Organisational Support Theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) suggests that employees' general perception of the extent to which an organisation values their input and cares about their well-being influences their obligation to work towards assisting the organisation to achieve its objectives. In return for a high level of support, employees work harder to help their organisation reach its goals, providing loyalty and effort in return for material and social rewards (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Some of the positive behavioural outcomes associated with POS are increases in in-role and extra-role performance and decreases in withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). Actually, when employees believe that the organisation is committed to them, they consider themselves obligated to be enormously committed to the organisation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986).

Employees may use organisational support to review the potential gain of material and symbolic benefits that would result from activities favoured by the organisation (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Also, employees' belief that the organisation has a general positive or negative orientation toward them that encompasses both recognition of their contributions and concern for their welfare would contribute to their psychological well-being and positive orientation to the organisation.

Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz and Lima (2004) discovered that employees with mentor-support reported relatively higher levels of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, compensation and promotions revealing the potential significance of having a mentor for accomplishing both subjective and objective career benefits. Baranik, Roling and Eby (2010) views supervisory mentors as agents of the organization, therefore the support they provide for employees can be construed as organisational support. Orpen (1997), in agreement, speculated that if a mentor is viewed as a representative of the organisation and support from the mentor is high it may be likely that employees would display increased organisational commitment. In addition, Forret and de Janasz (2005) found that employees with mentors perceived their organisation's culture to be more supportive of work and family than did employees without mentors.

Work-related support from the mentor may promote positive beliefs and attitudes towards the mentor, which in turn contributes to the belief and trust that the organisation recognizes the importance of the employee's well-being. Hence there is a return on investment in terms of productivity and engagement from the employee as a result of POS. Similarly, by preparing an employee for long-term positive organisational experiences, career-related mentoring support is likely to signal to the employee that the organisation is invested in his or her career development, which again should facilitate the development of POS. Johnston (1995) found POS to be a significant predictor of employees' behavioural intentions, implying that high POS will lead to intention to stay and low POS will lead to intention to leave.
3. Business of Sport Organisations Like Soccer Clubs

The soccer industry is rather a labour-intensive industry, mainly because its continued existence is dependent on the availability of exceptional good quality employees. The presence of employees is crucial to deliver, operate, and manage the soccer business/product for survival and for a competitive advantage. In organisations such as soccer clubs advantage is dependent on multiple factors, such as location, facilities, leadership, and management. Equally important is the more tacit capital of organisations, namely their employees, and the support which employees receive from their organisations. Through services, employees become directly involved in the creation of value both for customers (e.g. spectators, fans, sponsors, athletes) and for the organisation (soccer club), thereby having a direct effect on the organisation's market performance.

The concept of organisational support has attracted considerable interest as an attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee loyalty and dedication to the organisation. The same organisational principles are applicable sport organisations like soccer clubs since their ultimate success depends entirely on their human resource. It is important for soccer clubs to attract and retain staff with adequate skills to enhance the brand and image of the club. Soccer clubs are becoming more and more preoccupied with their image since there is increasing recognition that image has the power to influence the behaviour of all those involved with a sporting organisation, its members, event spectators, journalists, sponsors and fans. Indeed, some consider that an image has the potential to impact behavior of consumer and therefore to lead to adjustment in brand equity. Employees are an essential element to anchor organisational image. Hence, it is important that the organisation constantly retains and motivates its employees to preserve its image. The aim of many clubs is to become ‘global football brands’.

With more than two million active players and more than 54 percent of the national population following football, this sport is the most popular and widely practiced sport in South Africa (Saayman & Rossouw, 2008). It is interesting to notice that soccer popularity and success depends highly on human capital acumen. To be successful in delivering their businesses, soccer clubs are required to have capable employees within their structures. Soccer clubs have become avenues for mastering business and change and employees are seen as custodians to carry the responsibility of fundamental ways of conducting business. The potential employees includes chairman of the soccer clubs, directors, team managers, who are responsible for the strategic management of clubs and general employees who are responsible for daily administration of soccer clubs.

Sport has a specific nature that sets it apart from any other field of business activity, because of its important social, educational and cultural functions (Adonis, 2011). Hoye, Smith, Stewart, Nicholson and Westrebeek (2005) noted that sport has evolved from amateur part-time activity to significant industry with organisations and individuals investing money in the sector. Indeed the success of soccer clubs in entirely depends in the manner in which soccer is produced and consumed and the manner in which soccer matches and clubs are managed at all levels. Hence, the significance of management and administration of soccer clubs can be regarded as the application of business and management knowledge to sport activities. The organisation sets the strategic plan through the development of strategies to guide the organisational goals and objectives in order to satisfy the organisational stakeholders. The internal stakeholders include managers, employees, owners and their representatives.

4. Purpose of the Study

The objective of this study is to investigate middle and junior managers’ perceptions of organisational support offered by South African soccer clubs. The organisational support offered by soccer clubs to their employees is of paramount importance because their success is relative to the POS they experience.

5. Methodology

5.1 Research Approach

A quantitative research design was adopted for the current study. Quantitative research involves quantifying data and applying some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra, 2007) to measure behaviour, knowledge, perceptions, opinions or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Furthermore, a quantitative research approach is specific, well structured, and provides avenues for testing validity and reliability (Kumar, 2011).
5.2 Sample

The target population for this study was middle and junior managers of football clubs in the domestic soccer leagues in South Africa. As the domestic leagues are governed by the South African Soccer Association (SAFA), they are deemed to be authentic sport organisations governed by the rules and regulations of SAFA. In the context of this study a junior manager of a soccer club is responsible for the smooth day-to-day running of the club. The junior manager would oversee the players and their requirements as well as perform other player-related functions. On the other hand, the middle manager of a soccer club is a manager to whom the junior managers are subordinate. They would typically also oversee a few departments (e.g. finance, purchasing, sponsorship) in the club. To be eligible to participate in the study the following criteria were applied: managers were employed by their current club for at least one year and spent at least sixty percent of their time performing management functions. A non-probability convenience sampling method was used to recruit participants for the study. A total of 200 questionnaires were administered to the sample. Of these 115 (58%) usable ones were returned.

5.3 Instrument and procedures

Based on a comprehensive literature study on organisational support, a questionnaire was designed. In Section A questions requesting respondents’ demographic information were included. Section B of the questionnaire contained items which focused specifically on the attitudes towards organisation. Items in this section were scored on a 5-point Likert scale anchored at 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (slightly disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (slightly agree), 5 (strongly agree). Section C of the questionnaire comprised items measuring Perceived Organisational Support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Items in this section were scored on a 6-point Likert scale anchored at 0 (strongly disagree), 1 (moderately disagree), 2 (slightly disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (slightly agree), 5 (moderately agree), 6 (strongly agree). One of the researchers who had an extensive network to the management at most of the soccer clubs in the domestic league administered the questionnaires to middle and junior managers at various clubs in the domestic leagues. Two methods of administration were employed. Questionnaires were either e-mailed to potential respondents or hand-delivered to them. In instances where they were hand delivered, questionnaires were collected immediately after they were completed.

5.4 Data analysis

Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS – Version 22). The first phase of the data analysis involved an assessment of the construct validity of the POS. Prior to principal factor analysis principal component extraction was done to estimate the number of factors, the presence of outliers and factorability of the matrices. The eigenvalues and scree plot were studied to determine the number of factors. A principal axis factor analysis with a direct oblimin rotation was conducted to extract the factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed to assess the internal consistency of the scales. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) explains that generally the agreed lower limits for the Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.70. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between perceived organisational support and management level (middle and junior managers).

5.5 Ethical considerations

A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study as well as informing the participants that their involvement in the study was voluntary was attached to the questionnaire Participants were also informed that their responses would be treated confidentially and that they would always remain anonymous.

6. Results

6.1 Demographics

In terms of the demographic composition of the sample more male participants (n=78; 68%) than female participants (n=37; 32%) completed the questionnaire. Of these fifty one (n=51; 44%) were junior managers and sixty four (n=64) were middle managers. Most of the participants (n=91; 79%) had between two and four years’ service at their respective organisations. All participants were 23 years and older. Of these the majority (n=43, 37%) were in the 28-32 year age
group. With regard to their qualifications most participants (n=46; 40%) had a diploma.

6.2  Construct validity

A principal axis factor analysis with a direct oblimin rotation was carried out on the 17 items of the POS. The loadings of items on the one factors, communalities ($h^2$), and percentage of variation explained by each question are reflected in Table 1.

Table 1: Factor Loadings, Communalities ($h^2$) and Percentage Variance for Principal Axis Factor Analysis on POS Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$h^2$</th>
<th>Percentage variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My organisation values my contribution to its well-being.</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>62.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>If my organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My organisation strongly considers my goals and values.</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My organisation would ignore any complaint from me</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My organisation disregards my best interest when it makes decisions that affect me</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>My organisation really cares about my well-being.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>If given the opportunity my organisation would take advantage of me</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>My organisation shows very little concern for me</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>My organisation cares about my opinions.</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible.</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>My organisation is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspection of Table 2 reveals that one factors were extracted, accounting for 62.05% of the total variance in the data. Only item 3 loaded below 0.30 and were removed from the questionnaire.

The descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of the PCQ are reported in Table 2. The information reflected in Table 2 indicates negative distribution scores for POS question 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17. Furthermore, the results in Table 1 show acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients for POS ($\alpha=0.75$).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of the POS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My organisation values my contribution to its well-being.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>-1.43</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If my organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-0.88</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My organisation strongly considers my goals and values.</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-1.53</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My organisation would ignore any complaint from me</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My organisation disregards my best interest when it makes decisions that affect me</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>-0.49</td>
<td>-0.99</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-1.17</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. My organisation really cares about my well-being.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-1.60</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td>-0.98</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-1.47</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. If given the opportunity my organisation would take advantage of me</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My organisation shows very little concern for me</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. My organisation cares about my opinions. 3.57 1.32 -0.01 -1.55 0.70
15. My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work. 3.51 1.54 -0.19 -1.39 0.69
16. My organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible. 3.43 1.70 -0.26 -1.56 0.70
17. My organisation is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability. 3.97 1.70 -0.14 -1.75 0.70

To evaluate the variations in indicators, the length of the histogram plot and the presence of outliers and of extreme scores for middle and lower managers on POS are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows some spread in the mean scores.

**Figure 1**: POS scores for lower managers

**Figure 2**: POS scores for middle managers

One-way ANOVA was performed to look at the differences between lower- and middle manager, demographical information and POS levels.

| Table 4: One way ANOVA differences in POS Levels of Middle and Lower Managers |
|-----------------|-------------|-----------|---|---|
| Item            | Type of manager | Mean | SD | p  | F  |
| Gender          | Lower        | 1.41  | 0.50 | 0.00 | 43.39 |
|                 | Middle       | 1.25  | 0.44 | -   | -   |
| Years of experience | Lower     | 2.53  | 1.22 | 0.00 | 112.41 |
|                 | Middle       | 3.83  | 1.29 | 0.00 | 392.42 |
| Age             | Lower        | 2.76  | 0.91 | 0.00 | 156.88 |
|                 | Middle       | 3.88  | 0.79 | 0.00 | 140.57 |
| Qualification   | Lower        | 1.18  | 0.39 | 0.00 | 20.69 |
|                 | Middle       | 2.28  | 0.98 | 0.00 | 224.14 |

Participants were divided in two groups (lower and middle management) to their gender, years of experience, age and qualifications. Table 4 indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between middle management and gender, but there are statistically significant differences for lower managers and gender. A significant difference exists for both middle and lower managers regarding to their years of experience, age and qualifications to their POS.

7. Discussion

Middle managers in organisations tend to be more mature, experienced and skilled. They have more responsibilities than
junior managers, and are relatively more focused and accountable. This may be a plausible reason why there are no significant differences regarding gender. Junior managers, on the other hand, operate at a much lower level and may be regarded more as ‘trainees’. Given the higher level at which middle managers operate, they are likely to invite higher levels of organisational support. This, according to Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch (1997) is likely to meet individuals needs for approval, esteem, social identity, recognition and rewards. Once these needs are met, there is higher commitment to the organisation.

The differences between junior and middle managers in terms of years of experience, age, qualifications and experience of POS may be attributable to the fact that the organisation values the contributions of middle managers more than that of junior managers. Also, since middle managers are likely to have worked longer for the organisation and have achieved more job experience, it is likely that they would have received higher organisational support which places them under obligation to ‘repay’ the organisation (Shore & Wayne, 1993). In response, the organisation is likely to reciprocate with increased support. Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli (2001) found a relationship between POS and supervisory support and commitment. This suggests that the more supervisory support middle managers enjoy, the more committed they are likely to be. Being at the lowest level of the hierarchy in an organisation junior managers are likely to experience a “diluted” level of organisational support since focus regarding organisational support is mainly attributed to the middle managers.

8. Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to establish the perceptions POS of middle and junior managers. The results indicated differences in the perceptions of junior and middle managers. This may perhaps be due to the positions they hold in the hierarchy of the organisation. Notably, the study also confirmed the relationship between POS and supervisory support and commitment. Employees infer organisational support to the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being and reward such perceived support with increased contribution, performance and loyalty. Organisational support theory holds that in order to assess the benefits of increased work effort, employees form a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and their well-being. Hence, favorable or positive POS is reciprocal as it would increase employee moral obligation to assist the organisation to reach its objectives. This mutual relationship between organisation and employee will bring about return on investment for both the organisation and employees.

References


An Analysis of the Relationship Between Access to Loans and District Poverty Rate in Malawi

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Abstract

Access to credit is one of the important channels that developing countries can employ in the effort to reduce poverty. Literature shows that the countries that have expanded the accessibility of credit and loans to vulnerable households have also registered positive results in poverty reduction. This study investigated the relationship between district poverty rate and access to loans and credit in Malawi. The a priori expectation was that with an increased access to loans for agricultural households, there will be a resultant reduction in poverty. Using panel data from Integrated Household Survey (IHS1) 2 and 3 in a random effects regression model, the results show that there is a relationship between access to loans and poverty reduction with the increase in the former leading to the reduction of the latter. Also literacy rate and access to electricity were used as control variables and were significant factors in the results.

Keywords: panel data, IHS, Loan, Accessibility, Poverty reduction

1. Introduction

The number of poor people in the world remains high as 2015 draws closer. The sub Saharan Africa has the most poor people in percentage terms. Poverty in Malawi like in most Sub Saharan countries remains high amid efforts by government and partner organisation in poverty reduction. The latest national wide figures released in September 2012 under the Integrated Household Survey three, reported poverty to be at 50.7% at national level (NSO: 2012:206) The bigger share of the poor people is found in the rural areas of the country with the poverty rate at 56.6% in the rural areas and 17.3% in the urban areas(NSO:2012:206). It is therefore pertinent and of great importance to continue researching into strategies that would help deal with the poverty situation in the region and the country in particular. This paper looks at the relationship between access to loans and poverty reduction at district level in Malawi. Access to credit is one of the important channels that developing countries can employ in the effort to reduce poverty. Literature shows that the countries that have expanded the accessibility of credit and loans to vulnerable households have also registered positive results in poverty reduction.

2. Literature Review on the Relationship Between Access to Loans and Poverty Reduction

The literature is ubiquitous with strategies to reduce poverty in the developing countries where incidences of poverty are high. And these strategies appear to come from many angles. Access to credit is one of the important channels that developing countries can employ in the effort to reduce poverty. The fact that unemployment is very high in most of these developing countries call for other strategies that do not rely on getting employed only. One area that has a lot of potential is the small and medium enterprises. Literature shows that the countries that have expanded the accessibility of credit and loans to vulnerable households have also registered positive results in poverty reduction. Most households in developing countries like Malawi are agricultural with no formal employment and it make difficult for them to access loans and credits from the formal financial sector. With all the efforts that have been put over the years to reduce poverty, there still remain a lot of people that are stuck in poverty. As part of the poverty alleviation strategy, governments in other developing countries like India (Shastri, 2009) Malawi (Diagne & Zeller, 2001) Ethiopia (Pitamber, 2003) have put in place measures to help poor households to access loans mainly for small enterprise and agricultural inputs. According to Shastri (2009) on arguing for India pointed out that the dynamic growth of the microfinance industry has been promoted not only by market forces but to a greater extent also by conscious actions of national governments, Non-Governmental

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1 Integrated household Survey is a huge comprehensive country wide data collection exercise carried out by the National Statistics Office of Malawi. So far there have been three rounds known as IHS1 IHS 2 and IHS 3
Organizations (NGOs), and the donors who consider microfinance and access to credit by poor households as an effective tool for dealing with poverty. The relationship between access to credit and poverty reduction is therefore a well-documented one in the literature. Other studies that have shown a positive impact of access to credit on poverty reduction include (Bhandari, 2009; Quach, Mullineux, & Murinde, 2005; WorldBank, 2007; Pitamber, 2003) among others. World Bank among the other international organisation has been in the forefront promoting access to loans and credits. In the World Bank report it is argued that financial sector development is consistent with pro poor growth (WorldBank, 2007, p. 99). A study by Shastri (2009) in India looked at the dynamic growth of the micro finance industry and how in recent years there has been a lot of support towards the increasing of loan and credit accessibility of poor households. Also in India, Bhandari (2009) he found that the reduction in poverty is not necessarily associated with the formal banking sector. Using the number of account created in the formal sector as a measure of access to loans he found that there was no significant relationship with poverty reduction. A study in Vietnam by Quach et al. (2005) found that household credit contributed positively to economic welfare of the households. The significant contribution was found on per capita expenditure, per capita food and non-food expenditure (Quach, Mullineux, & Murinde, 2005, p. 1) they further argued that the positive impact found in Vietnam was on both poor and non-poor household.

3. Methodology

The study uses data from Intergrated Household Survey 2 and 3 collected by the National Statistics Office of Malawi. The survey collected data from households on a number of enterprise related aspects. It also collected data on Households access to loans and what the loan was used for. In the literature, as agued by Shastri and Pitamber, access to credit and loans have a positive impact on poverty reduction. This Study uses district poverty rate for the two IHS rounds as a dependent variable and a number of loan accessibility indicators as dependent variables as specified in section 3.2 below. the model uses panel data and was run in STATA using random effects GLS regression.

3.1 Model Specification

The study used random effects model as opposed to fixed effects model. This is because there are a number of weaknesses with the Fixed Effects Model (FEM). Some of the weaknesses in the FEM is that degrees of freedom are lost by including too many dummy variables. an easy way is to account for the differences in the intercepts by putting them in the error term. The random effects model takes that into account. It has a composite of the error term from the individual districts and the one from the model. The intercept used therefore is the mean of all the district intercepts, and the individual errors are a representation of the diversion of the district intercept from the mean intercept. So the REM also known as the ECM is of the following form;

\[ \text{DPR}_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2it} + \beta_3 X_{3it} + \epsilon_i + u_{it} \]

Instead of treating \( \beta_1 \) as fixed, it is assumed that it is a random variable with a mean value of \( \beta_1 \) without the subscript \( i \). And the intercept value for an individual district can be expressed as;

\[ \beta_{it} = \beta_1 + \epsilon_{iti} \]

Where \( \epsilon_{iti} \) is a random error term with a mean value of zero and variance of \( \sigma^2_\epsilon \). so equation (1) then becomes;

\[ \text{DPR}_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2it} + \beta_3 X_{3it} + \epsilon_{iti} + u_{it} \]

\[ \epsilon_{iti} + u_{it} = W_{it} \] Where \( W_{it} \) is the composite error term. The composite error term \( W_{it} \) consists of two components, \( \epsilon_{iti} \) which is the cross-section, or individual district-specific, error component, and \( u_{it} \) which is the combined time series and cross-section error component. The model estimated used the district poverty rate as a dependent variable and a number of loan aspects as independent variables is as follows;

\[ \text{DPR}_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \text{AtE}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{LfA}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{Lf нашей}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{Lf земли}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{Lf птицы}_{it} + \beta_7 \text{Pr}_{it} + \omega_{it} \]

Where DPR is the District Poverty Rate, \( \beta_{1i} \) is the random effects intercept term, and \( \beta_{2i} \) are the coefficients for the independent variables. AIE is access to electricity, LIA is loan for agricultural inputs, LBL is percentage of people with a Loan to buy land LIs is the percentage of people with a loan for business start-up LTI is the percentage of people with a loan for tobacco inputs, Pr is the proportion of people in the district receiving a loan and \( \omega_{it} \) is the random effects composite error term.

To conform the selection of random effects a Breusch Pagan test can be conducted. the random effects model was opted for as opposed to the fixed effects model in this analysis of access to loans and poverty reduction based on the Breusch –Pagan test.
Table 1: Breusch and Pagan lagrangian Multiplier test for random Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poverty rate head count (district)</th>
<th>Estimated results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty rate</td>
<td>286.9433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>88.52743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>187.8661</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test; Var (u) = 0, Chi-bar 2 (0.1) = 11.92, p-value = 0.0003

Calculations from NSO data (IHS2 and IHS 3)

The BP test for the access to loans model had a chi squared test statistic of 11.92 and a p-value of 0.0003 which lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis that variance is equal to 0. The null hypothesis that variance is equal to zero means that there are no random effects and hence not appropriate to use random effects. The results of the test for the model 5 rejects this null hypothesis. This entails that the best model for this panel data set is the random effect model as specified above.

3.2 Results

A number of variables that were used to measure loan accessibility have been used in the model. This helps to capture the variable of interest from all the possible angles. The section below presents the descriptive statistics of the independent variables and also the results from the random regression model as specified in equation (5) above.

3.3 Descriptive statistics

Table 2 below reports the descriptive statistics of the variables in model (5) above. Access to electricity was included as a control variable due to its significant relationship with poverty status. Studies like that by Tchereni (2013) has found a significant positive correlation between access to electricity and being non poor. The fact that most people represented in the sample are based in the rural areas, having access to electricity meant that they also would be able to be engaged in business common in the rural areas like battery charging, phone charging, and selling of cold drinks and hence would be reason enough for these households to seek for a loan. The other variables are directly linked to the objective of the study on the relationship between access to loan and poverty rate at district level. All the variables used are district percentages, for example proportion of people that received a loan shows that on average 10.37 % of people across the districts in Malawi received a loan. The highest percentage that received a loan was 27.3 for Nkhotakota district and the lowest was 1.1% for Mangochi, giving a standard deviation of 5.95.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Obs.</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>66.94</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>93.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to electricity</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>11.117</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for agro inputs</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>23.01</td>
<td>16.31</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion that received a loan</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>10.37</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan to buy land</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for business start up</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>18.90</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for tobacco inputs</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>17.95</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>67.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calculated from NSO data (IHS 1, IHS 2 and IHS 3)

The expectation of a positive correlation between access to loans and poverty reduction is also reflected in these two extreme districts, the head count poverty rate for Nkhotakota is 48 below the national at 54% and that of Mangochi is 73% far higher than the national average. The highest percentage of the types of loans received was 78% for business start-up and it was registered by Mulanje. This however was the percentage of the received loans, and for Mulanje district, the proportion of people receiving loans was just 7.8, hence 78% of these 7.8 % were for business start-up. Table 1 above has the details of the descriptives of all the other variables included in the model.

3.4 Results of the Random effects model
The random effects regression model presented in Equation (5) was run in Stata and the results are as reported in Table 3 below:

### Table 3: Results of the random effects GLS regression for equation 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District/Poverty rate</th>
<th>Coef.</th>
<th>Std. Err.</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>P &gt;</th>
<th>z</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access to electricity</td>
<td>-1.0355</td>
<td>.1385742</td>
<td>-7.47</td>
<td>0.0000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for agric inputs</td>
<td>.0342</td>
<td>.1117921</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propotion receiving a loan</td>
<td>.5032177</td>
<td>.2634521</td>
<td>-1.91</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan to buy land</td>
<td>-1.096321</td>
<td>.5833007</td>
<td>-1.88</td>
<td>0.060*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for business start up</td>
<td>.2229081</td>
<td>.117896</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.059*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan for tobacco inputs</td>
<td>.1118941</td>
<td>.1023866</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constant</td>
<td>54.75106</td>
<td>8.676472</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>0.0000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wald Chisq (6) = 73.65, Prob > chisq = 0.0000

***significant at 1% ** significant at 5% and * significant at 10%

Table 2 above presents results of the random effects regression from equation 1 above. The district poverty rate from IHS 2 and IHS 3 were used as dependent variable. The Chi 2 test for the model has a p value of 0.000 shows that the model is a good fit even at 1% level of significance. Section 3.4 below discusses the results in detail.

#### 3.5 Discussion of the results

The results in Table 1 above shows that Access to electricity proportion of people receiving a loan, getting a loan to buy land and getting a loan for business start-up are significant factors explaining the district poverty rate in Malawi. For example having access to electricity which was used as a control variable, has the expected negative sign which means the more people have access to electricity, the lower the district poverty rate. a unit change in the percentage of those in the district with access to electricity reduces the incidence of poverty in the district by 1.0355 percentage points. this is almost a one to one response. this result is similar to the claim by Dollar and Kraay (2000) where they found that growth reduced poverty at a one to one effect rate.

The number of people accessing loans also produced a negative sign as expected, meaning, as more and more people access loans for whatever reason, the district poverty rate declines. the regression result shows the a unit change in the percentage of people accessing loans leads to a 0.5 reduction in the district poverty rate. This is the same result found by .... and also .... where they found that increasing access to credit and loans to the poor households reduces the incidences of poverty in those countries. related to access to loan are the loan for business start-up and loans to buy land which were also significant at 10 %. a unit increase in the percentage of people accessing a loan to buy land has a - 1.096 reduction effect on the district poverty rate. This is an indication that buying land entails access to land which according to a study by Chirwa et al. (2008) has a direct bearing on poverty. People with access to land in Chirwa’s study were found to have lower probability of being poor as compared to landless people who had a higher probability of being poor. Loans that were taken for agricultural inputs like were not significant even the loans taken particularly for tobacco input. this could be because tobacco is grown only in a few district in the country.

#### 4. Conclusion

The importance of loans in the poverty reduction efforts have been confirmed in the data analysis. The regression results show a negative relationship between district poverty rate and the proportion of people that obtained a loan. This was in agreement with theory and a priori expectation that the more people have access to loans the lower the incidence of poverty. It was also reported under the descriptives that most people obtained their loans for business start-ups. This implies a positive correlation between loans and business being started. It can be concluded from this finding therefore that, if governments are interested in reducing poverty incidences in the districts, there is need to provide more opportunities for loan accessibility. This would in the process reduce the burden of job creation on the part of government as the people are able to start-up businesses.
References

The Balkans in Contemporary Anglo-American Travel Writing

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Abstract

This paper addresses travel writing as a genre pregnant with signifying practices of the culture that has produced it and, thus, significantly reflective of the relation between the two sides of the encounter, which is of a pronounced concern now, when the difference between the ideology of European histories and the exclusive Balkan heritage has to be reconciled. The travel writing about the Balkans produced since the 1990s – during the turbulent decades that witnessed war, political, and financial crises, but also the region’s efforts to stabilize, harmonize, and achieve an access to the European union – likewise reflect a variety of frequently contradictory responses by the travellers. Therefore, we believe that it is a high time to revisit it. This paper will deal with some renowned travellers, Paul Theroux, Robert D. Kaplan, Bill Bryson, Dervla Murphy, but also with texts less familiar to the academic audience.

Keywords: travel writing, the 1990s, postcolonial theory, globalization, salvage writing, cosmopolitanism.

1. Introduction

Because books of travel are not only about the travelled world but also about travelling and, therefore, about the travelling subject, the material assessed here is as much about the West as it is about the Balkans. Apart from the orthodox knowledge that human mind is always intentional and, thus, the “other” is necessarily the mirror and the product of the culture through which eyes see, travel writer Pico Iyer explains that “real travel” is not about discovery but about the travelling subject’s awareness of their own “position in relation to an exterior world,” it is “an activity tied up exclusively with our personal definitions of what makes up self and home” (cf. Graulund 2011, p. 54). Therefore, a detailed research of recently developed material promises to provide additional explanation of the place and the meaning of the Balkans in the contemporary world.

The material I am dealing with witnesses of a variety of travelling styles – in planes, ships, trains, busses, taxis, and bicycles – and of a striking combination of contradictory responses and literary representations; ranging from sympathy and benevolence that seek to redeem the Western “quilt” to moral and political criticism of the recent atrocities; from the allure of the exotic Orient still traceable here to the dismay at the eastern cultural negligence; from the amazing richness of heritage to the appalling poverty of the present; from the adoration of its inhabitants’ nobility to the confusion at their simultaneous emotional deficit. At the same time the narratives range from personal, over unaffected, texts that brim with interviews and historical research, to laconic surveys of what is first at hand; from directly socially and politically committed, over philosophical and hermeneutical meditations, these texts also reach pure impressionist descriptions; from deep insights into the spirit of the place, over superficial notions, to factually incorrect renderings; from elaborate lyrical descriptions over gross descriptions during a busy itinerary, to narrative experiments, etc.

Description of travel is never only a literary event, but also an act of interpretation and, therefore, a political act. It involves complex power relations present in every human community. Moreover, as D. Lisle argues, it is politically interesting because, as it pretends to offer neutral reflections, it actually “mask[s] that process of discursive ordering” (2006, p.13). Illustrating how the travel writing initiates developments of discourses of power and the global policy, David Campbell gives an example of Bosnia:

Rebecca West’s pre-World War II Black Lamb and Grey Falcon influenced in both style and substance Robert Kaplan’s Balkan Ghosts, which in turn was read by President Clinton and others at a critical juncture in 1993 and helped make possible – because of the story of ancient and violent animosities it told – the American reluctance to take action.” (quoted in Lisle 2006, p. 33)

Indeed, while travelling from Nurnberg, via Vienna and Klagenfurt, to Ljubljana, which used to be the western border of the Balkans, Kaplan supposed that once the integration is over, the Balkans would no longer be. The Balkans, though, has been a conglomeration as much of geographical and anthropological differences as of political controversies that have paradoxically shaped the “core” image of the region. Apart from carrying a succession of names, from “Turkey in Europe” to the newest one, the “Western Balkans,” it has been the “Wild East” of Europe (Goldsworthy 1998), Europe
which still is not the Europe, the Europe that once was, noble yet wild. Tracing the creation of the Balkanist discourse, Goldsworthy argues that “the comparative absence of direct economic involvement in the Balkans [...] supported the influence of th[is] imagery” (1998, p. xi). Beside the right-wing perception of the region as “a contagious disease, an infectious sore in the soft underbelly of Europe, best left to fester in isolation,” there is, she claims, the left-wing’s “unconsciously neo-colonial” notion that the Balkan conflicts may “be solved by mature and responsible powers” (p. xi). Apart of this “Scilla of the Balkans, seen as the label of external condemnation,” as Alexander Kiossev calls it, there is also “the Haridba of the Balkans, seen as the name of the internal, ‘native,’ fear and shame” (2002, p.182). As such, the Balkans has also often been a place for the projection of various Western fantasies, from Shakespeare’s The Twelfth Night, over Tennyson’s romantic sonnet “Montenegro” (inspired by the British 19th-century liberal leader W. Gladstone’s passionate speeches about the small country, which he had never visited) and Anthony Hope’s The Prisoner of Zenda (1894), to one of the recent James Bond movies, Casino Royale, filmed in the Czech Republic, but ostensibly set on the Montenegrin coast, which in an uniformed observer forever placed the seed of Monte-Carlian expectations when it comes to Montenegro. As Peter Preston wrote in a paper titled “Imagining Montenegro: from Tennyson to James Bond,” Balkans, in terms of culture in the narrow Mathew Arnold sense, was perceived as a void: there was not Gothic movement, renaissance, neo-Classical revival, no artist whose influence was felt outside of it. Especially so Montenegro, isolated for some centuries, then simply disappearing from political maps, it never allured any of the great travellers who instigated that magnificent impressionist style, such as D.H. Lawrence, E. M. Forster, A. Huxley, Evelyn Waugh, etc. This uncertainty about the reality of the place finally inspired an article in 2007 in the Observer, which discussed the future development of Montenegro’s Adriatic coast as a high class tourist destination, evoking the glorious days when Sophia Loren, Richard Burton and Elizabeth Taylor were among its visitors. It reported that Michael Douglas and Catherine Zeta-Jones are house-hunting near Kotor, where the racing driver Ralf Schumacher owns land. It also remarked that the country’s profile was raised by Casino Royale, which took Daniel Craig as James Bond to play poker and a photograph of Daniel Craig as James Bond is used as an illustration. (Preston 2009, p. 29)

In Montenegro everything is possible still. “Discovering” Kotor, Francis Tapon develops a dream to buy a house on the hill and become a shareholder in the newly opened casino “Maximus”: he will enter through the VIP entrance, will dress Versace, will have free drinks, will be able to invite drinks to “the hottest chicks” and take them later to his Jacuzzi (2012, p. 342), etc. Yet, in front of this very dream-place, a murder takes place: his friend Fritz, who was also a friend of a notorious Mr. Sarić, is killed in the middle of the day in view of everybody.

My reading is mostly grounded in the postcolonial theory, which understands that travelling precedes colonizing, both literally and metaphorically. However, since the term “postcolonial” does not really apply to the Balkans, approached through the prism of Anglo-American narratives, I will be using its prompts to closely address the genre and its limits. As the genre places importance on the idiosyncrasies of the writer (“There is no foreign land; it is only the traveller that is foreign,” R. L. Stevenson said), the culture-bound perspective of the perceiver normally comes into focus of the studies that problematize the “imperial eyes” (M.L. Pratt 1992) of the travellers, i.e. the projections of the (mostly economically and politically) privileged self (of those who can afford travel) onto the reality of the (often inferior, unprogressive) other (Said 1993). Another wave in critical discourse asks: “what happens when the Empire ceases to exist and the ideology of imperialism is brought into disrepute?” Can the new travellers avoid (neo)imperialist discourse or there are new methods of incorporating these (marginal) spaces into the West – such as making them into the escapes from the restrictions of the centre or placing them in a distant past that still keeps the best values of the West (cf. Ivison 2003)? Thus, in the second part of the 20th century, we encounter Westerners still travelling as emmiseries of the Western ideals, but mostly avoiding grand walks of their predecessors and seeking for another, undiscovered, Europe. The opening of the Eastern Europe has urged many a traveller to social and political action (cf. Hulme and Youngs 2002, p. 93). Yet often insisting on its tragic lines (cf. Decker 2009, p.127), the travellers’ eyes are fixed on the poverty stricken local population, the grossness of hotels, the ruins that testify to regional conflicts, the pornography available at the newsstands, etc. (p.140). Moreover, as Graham Huggan argues, globalization effected drastic change in the nature of locality as “a lived experience in a [...] de-territorialized world” (2012, p. 6) and thus of travel writing that has mostly relied on the localities’ exotic anomalies (personal, cultural, national) that has allowed tourists and natives to “perform their identities to each other” (p. 5). This situation gave rise to, what he calls, “responsible tourism,” of which one particular kind is “tourism of suffering,” in which the modern cultures of confession and victimage are brought together in part-therapeutic, part-voyeuristic reminiscences of the traumatic experiences of disaster casualties” (p. 6).

Established pilgrimage in the Balkans, and especially ex-Yugoslavia, in the 1990s encompassed the sites in which atrocities took place or the sites of museum or mythic past. The natural beauties provoke only sporadic impressionist intervals. As Goldsworthy says,
some of the dullest backwaters in the former Yugoslavia have acquired a dubious romantic resonance over the past ten years while reporters searched for the Balkan heart of darkness, in order to return with tales of ‘unspeakable’ horror. The relative anonymity of those parts [...] is another indication of this particular fascination. (2002, p. 29)

It is revealing that on his grand Mediterranean tour, in his The Pillars of Hercules (1995), which title already reflects “the power of the affluent American [...] to dominate vast stretches of geography” (Decker 2009, p. 130) however different or exotic it is, Paul Theroux spends only two pages on Venice and over thirty on Albania as it was in 1993. Goldsworthy gives example of the novelist Joyce Cary who, volunteering to join the Montenegrins in the war against Turkey in October 1912, said that he was afraid “there would be no more wars. And I had a certain romantic enthusiasm for the cause of the Montenegrins; in short I was young and eager for any sort of adventure” (2002, p. 30). However, Montenegro of today, which did not suffer greater calamities in the recent wars, does not provide much allure (except for its wilderness which will be discussed later), Paul Theroux almost does not bother to cross the border from Croatia into Montenegro on his way to Albania. Bill Bryson and Tony White do not even mention it. Even in the academic writing, such as Elizabeth Pond’s 2006 Endgame in the Balkans: Regime Change, European Style, only a couple of pages are devoted to Montenegro under the subtitle “Podgorica/Cetinje” in a chapter titled “Demythologizing Serbia and Montenegro,” and these few pages are almost completely devoted to Montenegrin recent myths: Milo Đukanović’s smuggling and (as it is understood) the half-legal institution of the Montenegrin Orthodox church.

Travel narrative is also significantly determined by public, mostly poor, transportation links that often provoke grudge and subsequent discontent with the visited place. Bill Bryson’s joyful reminiscence of his trip through Yugoslavia is suddenly interrupted by his inability to travel by train from Belgrade to Sofia because all the seats are booked, even in the expensive dream-travel first class couchettes. Unexpectedly, he spends one more day in Belgrade (his previous day being a failure too) unsuccessfully attempting at busses and planes for which reason he starts hating the city. Travelling by trains and busses through a region devastated by war and economic crisis, Theroux moves quickly and thus strongly suggests the right to movement to the modern, rich, technologically advanced, and politically powerful man (cf. Edwards and Graulund 2011). A kind of resistance that grows in him to the somber stations, hotels, bad food, local beggars, etc. makes his observations reductive of the presence and relevance of the Balkan diversity to the old metonymy – “the Balkans.” Yet, being a traveller who travels to write, Theroux knows he must overcome the American expectations of comfort. While he assumes he manages to mask the hegemonic stand in this way, another delicate irony develops in his text: as his book records human violence, poverty, and desperation, it is still the world that “American tourists prefer to see through the eyes of someone else” (Decker 2009, p. 141). For example, the Croatian town of Split, despite its glorious Roman remnants, to Theroux is just “an industrial port, rather horrible-looking, enclosing the tiny ancient town of old Split” (1995, p. 247). While, immediately upon his arrival in Albania, he concludes:

Nothing was right in Durre’s [...] In a filthy and deranged way it all fit together – the toasted trees, the cracked buildings, the nasty earth [...] When the people saw me it was as though they had seen The Man Who Fell to Earth and they ran towards me and screamed for me to give them something – money, food, clothes, my pen, anything. (p. 260)

Travelling in a less harried manner, Kaplan behaves less as an impressionist commentator and more as an analyst of Yugoslavian ethnic and national conflicts, which he understands as “a synecdoche of matters that constitute the vast unfinished business of the twentieth century” (cf. Decker, p. 142). Already in the train from Klagenfurt to Ljubljana he experiences physical entrance into another world embodied in the train bar which suddenly becomes poor, with tin aluminum shank and the hands of male workers holding cigarettes, beers, and Playboys. In a mosaic form, this image is automatically contrasted to the mysterious, almost unsurmisable, icons of the Gračanica monastery, and then again supplanted with the reminiscence to an angry and revengeful monologue on hatred and poverty heard in Albania. The following dissonance of the images and beliefs that he comments on and tries to understand, eventually leads to develop a series of conclusions:

The Balkans were the original Third World, long before the Western media coined the term. [...] Whatever has happened in Beirut or elsewhere happened first, long ago, in the Balkans.

The Balkans produced the century’s first terrorists. IMRO [...] Twentieth-century history came from the Balkans.

Nazism, for instance, can claim Balkan origin. Among the flophouses of Vienna, a breeding ground of ethnic resentments close to the southern Slavic world, Hitler learned how to hate so infectiously. (2005, p. li)

In the extremity of her endeavors, Murphy is bicycling through the region for months and thus subverts the traditional idea that the movement is predominately male. Whenever she cannot use her bicycle, she walks. Once in the Croatian part of Bosnia snow forces her to take a bus to the Muslim part, but when she crosses this superficial border she
confesses to the conductor that she does not have money to pay the ticket and is immediately thrown out of the bus. Avoiding typical tropes of progressive mechanistic civilization, she has an opportunity to observe the places and ordinary people. Often on the road she has to stop to rest and, therefore, provide us with aesthetic observation of the place. On the deserted steep climb from Herzegovina to Montenegro, she notices profound silence, solemn and soothing, [...] broken only by mewing falcons and croaking ravens. And theirs was only movements in all the expanse of harsh beauty: the falcons circling, drifting, gliding, swooping – the ravens being aerobic, tumbling and darting and swerving and soaring, showing off in the springtime. (2002, p. 175)

Yet, despite her biting criticism of militarism as the sole cause of contemporary conflicts and the hypocrisy of humanitarian interventions in the region, nowhere in the Balkans at the turn of the century does she find hot water for bath or shower, so that one wonders if she ever washed herself on that ardent road. She rarely found good food, but Red-Cross or airplane packages served in hotels. Therefore, her writing may still belong to this group of urgent political engagement, both when it comes to gender and to the global politics, or what M. L. Pratt called “planetary consciousness” (1992). Therefore, she still cannot avoid the Western production of knowledge, especially when she comments on the local people surprise to see a grandmother bicycling.

small children giggled unkindly on seeing me pushing Ruairi up that hill to the Simićs’ [...] The minimalism of my luggage sent Mrs Simić into another of her soft-hearted tizzies [...] Five days later, when I was leaving Sarajevo, she beamingly presented me with a carrier-bag containing a pink-and-yellow striped cardigan, a voluminous, flowery summer skirt, two blouses to match and a pair of plastic sandal. My gratitude was genuine; she would never know that her gift was passed on within three minutes to a Gypsy family squatting in a ruin. (135)

Growing awareness of the new globalized and hybridized world produces another twist in the critical discourse. Travel writing, as Hulme and Youngs elaborate, becomes illustrative of “an age in which theories of race and ethnicity [...] are starting to crumble” and the gaze of the traveller “is more likely to be multi-focal” (2002, p. 240). But, when, thus, “the lines of demarcation between Europe and the other are becoming disturbingly blurred” (Carr 2002, p. 81), many a traveller became increasingly anxious that there might no longer be an alternative anywhere (73). It seemed almost impossible to produce again a distinctive otherness of “the rest of the world” (M. L. Pratt 1992, p. 5) and thus to save travel writing, that late-romantic quest for the other. For this reason Helen Carr calls contemporary travel writing “salvage travel writing” (2002, p. 82). The undiscovered beauty, better say wilderness, of the Balkans comes convenient in these efforts. "If your tastes – culinary and otherwise," says an essay, "extend to something a bit different and you’ve a healthy sense of curiosity about an area of which you’ve heard much but know little, go and visit Montenegro while it’s still relatively undiscovered" (Anon 2005). At the same time, after the drama of Montenegrin coast and its mountains, its capital Podgorica, built after the socialist fashion after World War II, to Francis Tapon, and to numerous others, is “a let down” (2012, p. 349). So is the old city of Dubrovnik.

The old city was gorgeous — shiny ramparts against a shimmering sea — but there was nothing to discover. The streets were too polished, the menus too refined. I turned on the faucet in my hotel room and flinched when the water came out hot. [...] but the Peaks of the Balkans Trail isn’t about distance so much as interaction, and with that one bus ride I’d crossed the most obvious border of the trip, the one between traveler and tourist. Despite wandering through a place of such hardship, the trail had introduced me to a rare part of Europe where the very idea of walking freely between worlds is still a gift as sweet and momentous as your first soft drink. A whole new Europe, a gracious and wild one, had come out hot. [...] but the Peaks of the Balkans Trail isn’t about distance so much as interaction, and with that one bus ride I’d crossed the most obvious border of the trip, the one between traveler and tourist. Despite wandering through a place of such hardship, the trail had introduced me to a rare part of Europe where the very idea of walking freely between worlds is still a gift as sweet and momentous as your first soft drink. A whole new Europe, a gracious and wild one, had come out hot. [...] but the Peaks of the Balkans Trail isn’t about distance so much as interaction, and with that one bus ride I’d crossed the most obvious border of the trip, the one between traveler and tourist. Despite wandering through a place of such hardship, the trail had introduced me to a rare part of Europe where the very idea of walking freely between worlds is still a gift as sweet and momentous as your first soft drink. A whole new Europe, a gracious and wild one, had come out hot. [...] but the Peaks of the Balkans Trail isn’t about distance so much as interaction, and with that one bus ride I’d crossed the most obvious border of the trip, the one between traveler and tourist. Despite wandering through a place of such hardship, the trail had introduced me to a rare part of Europe where the very idea of walking freely between worlds is still a gift as sweet and momentous as your first soft drink. A whole new Europe, a gracious and wild one, had come out hot.
with the passengers – often turning around in his seat to address them directly – while simultaneously sweeping us along the edge of ragged roads on the brink of sheer-sided cliffs. I remember pressing my face to the window many times and being able to see no road beneath us – just a straight drop and the sort of views you get from an aeroplane. […] It had been a nearly perfect day and I itched to repeat it now. In a strange way, I was looking forward to the dangers of the mountain road – it was such an exhilarating combination of terror and excitement, like having a heart attack and enjoying it. (1998, p. 125)

Another traveller has “a confession to make.”

Before going to Serbia, I couldn’t have pointed it out on the map. I had a vague idea it was one of those Balkan states that used to be Yugoslavia, and which were the site of bloody civil wars in the 1990s. But I couldn’t have told you if it was by the sea (it isn’t) or that it lies between Greece, Romania and Croatia. It would seem that I’m not the only one. You’d be hard-pressed to find a guide book on Serbia in most shops. There certainly isn’t one anywhere in Heathrow Airport. But the fact that it’s an undiscovered tourist spot is a definite advantage. If you go now, you can enjoy it while it’s still unspoiled. Imagine what Prague was like before it was invaded by stag parties. […] Even better, it’s almost on our doorstep, reached by a plane journey of less than two-and-a-half hours. There aren’t many places so close to home that have had recent experience of armed conflict but which are perfectly safe now. (Anon 2011)

Drawing on a wide canvas of the Balkans, in an attempt to understand the conflicts and contemporary politics, a good part of this writing is written by journalists who are intent in maintaining their credibility (cf. Hulme and Youngs 2002, p. 6) and, therefore, base their conclusions on balancing personal, factual, and historical research. Aiming at an objective picture they come close to investigative reporting (p. 9) interwoven with cultural theories, philosophical meditations, or quotes from historical sources and newspapers. Very often these books include academic apparatuses, such as lists of abbreviations, indexes, bibliography, maps and tables, etc. Besides, most of these travelogues might be also described as the “footsteps genre,” as the travellers develop a kind of dialogue with earlier and better-known travellers, which gives their books academic credibility (p. 97). We often see Kaplan and White reading Rebecca West, for example. However, as a critic says, “this approach to travel, with another’s travel book always in mind, is also a way of not seeing,” (Folks 1999) which significantly disables a genuine response to the place. Furthermore, because the experience of travel is difficult to capture, because the actual travel always happened in the past in the relation to writing, the genre cannot be limited “to true accounts of actual travels” (Sherman 2002, p. 32), it becomes impossible to clearly differentiate an account and what actually happened, because the authors play “with the boundaries between eyewitness testimony, second-hand information, and outright invention” (p. 32). Besides, both authors and readers are aware that travels are “transmitted, and shaped, by textual accounts,” and that, therefore, they require “a secondary journey” (p. 32), the one of recollection, which always displaces meanings and the value of meanings. Therefore, it is not surprising that in spite of serious research that preceding the travel, the records often contain blurred memories and factual errors, sometimes even when it comes to names of the visited places. Saying how he was returning to Kosovo, no longer as a member of a humanitarian mission but as a real traveller, the author writes down how he would be able to “visit the ancient Orthodox monasteries on which Milosevic based his claim that Kosovo was inalienable Serbian territory, and sip macchiato […] in the pavement cafés [sic] of what is no longer Pristina to its inhabitants but Prishtina, capital of an independent nation” (Whitaker 2009, emphazises edited). Tapon recollects hearing the story of the Montenegrin “founding father,” Petar II Petrovic Njegos (with no diacritics), who was born in 1813 in “Njegosi,” instead of (Whitaker 2009, emphasizes edited). Tapon recollects hearing the story of the Montenegrin “founding father,” Petar II Petrovic Njegos (with no diacritics), who was born in 1813 in “Njegosi,” instead of of Njeguši. Entering Nikšić from the direction of Trebinje, Murphy remembers passing by a skyscraper on her left, which has never existed there, and stays in the only hotel in Nikšić, Onogošť, for unbelievable 45 pounds per night. Tony White talks about Jan and Kora Gordon’s “Two Vagabonds in the Balkans, a bizarre account of a bohemian year spent painting landscapes in Bosnia-Herzegovina in the 1920s,” (2006, p. 17) whereas the book is actually called Two Vagabonds Through Serbia and Montenegro and takes place during World War I. Theroux, despite his remarkable affluence, still talks about Serbian Protestantism. Such examples, of course, instigate a question: what expectations will those potential travellers have, who, apart from relying on these books of travel, also must have get familiarized with some academic writing on the region. There are numerous knowing insights in Endgame in the Balkans, Regime Change, European Style, by Elizabeth Pond, but it also provides a map in which the river Miljacka runs through Mostar, while the Neretva is placed in Sarajevo, instead of the other way around. Barbara Korte’s “Facing the East of Europe in Its Western Isles: Charting Backgrounds, Questions and Perspectives,” talks about “the wars of 1991-1998 in Vojvodina, a former autonomous province of Yugoslavia [sic] which witnessed massacres and […] forced migrations, mostly of Hungarian-speaking minorities” (2010, p. 155).

How building of these expectations work can be observed in the following example in which a Western traveller assumes that Croats don’t grow beards because beards are associated with Serbian Ćetniks. That is why, he assumes, that at the Croatian border he was held up for half an hour while unsmilng officials took turns to glare at [his] passport. The photograph shows me with a beard […] I wondered whether they still associated beards with their Serbian former
enemies and suspected me of infiltrating a bicycle into their country” (Clarke 1997). In a long line of visitors to Dubrovnik is the one whom Dubrovnik reminds of Venice, but “on a small scale. The narrow alleys, the loggias, the basilicas, the piazze and, above all, the sense of entering a three-dimensional dream space” (Gusha 2009). With a pity he also observes that “nearly 70 per cent of the old town was damaged” (Gusha 2009) in the war with Serbs.

On the opposite side are the authors who deliberately fail to provide authoritative knowledge, offering instead entertainment. For its famous abandon, lavishness, indulgence, the Balkans saw many a traveller drunk. Once back home, Tony White misses Macedonian wine “T’ga za Jug.” In Split, Bryson does shortly describe Diocletian Palace, but spends 2/3 of the narrative describing his drunken experience, while Dervla Mulrphy often goes back to her hotel “perilously drunk, verging on footlessness” (10). On a recent page in the Guardian one reads:

> Montenegrin enthusiasm for oenology can be dangerous, as they haven’t really grasped the concept of a wine tasting yet. You don’t spit, just glug – and the wine is normally followed by a slug of rakija (brandy). I discovered this to my cost during a visit to irrepressible winemaker Ilija Klisic, which possibly wasn’t the wisest thing to do the day before my first attempt at kayaking. (Novakovich 2014)

However, the travellers of this kind tend to get insights into the region hidden to conventional observers, while, as Bracewell argues, their alleged amateurism and innocent observation paradoxically give them authority over the unbeaten tracks, the ordinary, the random, the truly “authentic” (2005). In an “unconventional guide” to Montenegro, an Australian traveller writes:

> If you’re looking for a new adventure, a change of life […] you need to see the real Montenegro, to meet its people and to experience the true possibilities of what’s available. Forget the maps and guidebooks. You need to get lost in the interior. That’s where you’ll find a classic symphony of pure, mountainous splendour that you won’t see anywhere else on the planet. (Bulatović 2010)

Yet, as various critics agree, even avoiding passing judgments on the inferiorly civilized world comes from a privileged and an elite community (Hollan and Huggan 2003, p. ix). Debbie Leslie makes only a slight difference between the “colonial vision,” as the “continuation of hierarchical global relations,” and the “cosmopolitan vision” of an international community, which assumes some universal standards of civilization, and, forgetting “the privileged perception of global mobility embedded in the genre” (2006, p.11), criticize the relations of dominance and subordination (p. 6). Moreover she insists that it is those who enact a cosmopolitan vision “who are most alarming, for they smuggle in equally judgmental accounts of otherness under the guise of equality, tolerance and respect for difference. […] they simultaneously rearticulate the logic of Empire through new networks, structures and boundaries” (10). Thus, in her view, Bryson’s “playful celebration” of European happily coexisting differences can be “mobilised in the construction of new global hegemones” (p. 10). Travellers are probably aware of the global inequalities, but at the same time they ignore the fact that the act of writing actually “itself engenders contemporary power formations that are as unequal, unjust and exploitative as those forged during Empire” (p. 10). Therefore, Bryson’s efforts “to reveal the funny side of difference might seem like a step in the right direction,” (p. 10) but, Leslie argues, they also “can be used to justify and legitimate new forms of global exclusion, domination and violence” (p. 11). Unlike Kaplan’s and Theroux’s explicit judgments, Bryson’s ‘quirky’ and unthreatening observations are less about judging difference, and more about contrasting the marvellous Europeans with his own infantile, shambolic and ungainly self. But this humour does not neutralise Bryson’s travelogue; rather, it helps to place his production of difference beyond question, for how can the playful celebration of difference be a bad thing?” (p. 13)

A few books are so courageously acquisitive to the generic limitations of travel writing as is Tony White’s Another Fool in the Balkans: in the Footsteps of Rebecca West (2006) and so aware of the inescapable influence of a better known writer. Prepared to cross the border by this “big book of life” (p. 152), as he defines West’s The Black Lamb and the Grey Falcon, and also by a virtual walk from the UK to Belgrade performed by an expatatrie Serbian artist in his art gallery, White travels by train from Zagreb to Belgrade in the company of FAK-YU (Festival alternativne književnosti – Yugoslavia) artists, himself to take part at a short story festival in Belgrade. A long tunnel before the Zemun part of Belgrade effects darkness in the train, diverts his sight from the surrounding nature, allows him time to reflect, and announces his entrance in another zone. But, he is acutely conscious of his privilege to be thus formatted as a traveller through the former Yugoslavia and taken care of by its literary vanguards, so that he assumes a humble pose. Their ex-Yugoslav nostalgia obviously impacts his own perception as he rejects the “universal” truths and points out to the regional potentials of affluence in every sense. His endeavors to avoid the Balkanist discourse and the discourse of the other in general are sometimes presented by poignant comparisons of the localities with gentle memories of his childhood in
Great Britain. All the time he is aware that his main influences are strongly opinionated and regrets to be living in an age in which all the values have crumbled and that one can hardly have a firm stand. He wonders, then, what he himself can make of the trip and the countries he visits, and promises that he will try to avoid “ill-founded” (p. 50) opinions. But he still calls himself “a fool” not only because he hopes he could reach the yet indiscernible truth about the Balkans, but maybe more because he knows that as hard as he tries he cannot avoid an opinion of a highly educated British writer as he is. Therefore, he cannot help asking himself, over and over again, what travel writing is: is it mostly fact, or mostly fiction, or, indeed, only fiction? In this way his book also present an open challenge to the travel writing theory. Longing for a shelter from his own dilemmas, White relies on something that has never lost its dignity – art. He revisits numerous works of art and traces the instances of nobleness and thus, actually, produces not only a book of travel, but also a long meditation on art.

References


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Error Analysis in the Foreign Language Classroom (VIII Grade)

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Abstract

Generally, learning English language for primary school children represents a problem. Many errors are produced as a result, including some which we will deal with in the research part of this work. This work deals with analysis of some grammatical and lexical errors in learning English language at primary school level. Research has been conducted (pupils in the VIII grade of elementary school from the central, southern and northern parts of Montenegro) within which we want to examine if there are any regional differences coming out of qualitative and quantitative error analysis and which are the most common errors for pupils of this level of schooling. The aim is to obtain results which might help our educational authorities with determining which aspects to pay special attention to when designing tests and putting together programmes for elementary school children. These results can also help our teachers to know which grammatical and lexical aspects are the most difficult for them, and to focus their attention on how to teach them.

Keywords: grammatical and lexical errors, difficult items, percentage estimated results

1. Introduction

Most people think that errors are part of learning. Most people also think that correcting errors is part of teaching. If making errors is part of learning, and correcting them part of teaching, there is an interesting question: how can these two go together?

We learn how to swim, first by jumping into the water, moving our legs and hands aimlessly, until such time as we become aware that there is a structural combination of moves which makes us able to stay on the surface of the water and to swim over it. Our first mistakes during swimming are big ones, but they start to be smaller and smaller. We learn how to swim during the process of making mistakes. (Brown, H. D. 1994: 204). It is the same situation with learning a foreign language. At the very beginning we make a lot of mistakes, but later, they become less and appear only from time to time, and finally we can say that we have learned a language.

1.1 Mistakes or errors

The first step in the methodological research of errors is to defining the term ‘error’. This means that we first need to make a difference between the terms ‘mistake’ and ‘error’. A mistake is an occasional error, but a real error is an error made because of insufficient knowledge. It’s not always simple to differentiate between a mistake and an error. If a pupil says on one occasion: “Anne cans sing”, and another time: “Anne can swim”, we cannot be sure if it is a mistake or an error. If the pupil always uses the construction “Anne mays go”, or “Anne cans do something”, we are sure that he or she is making an error, not a mistake. It means that that pupil does not know the rule for making modal verbs (without an ‘s’ in the third person singular). The conclusion is, that if the pupil cannot notice that he is making a mistake on his own, and does it again, it is an error, but if he makes a mistake, and immediately corrects himself, that is a mistake.

The fact that pupils often make errors forces us to research them, to classify and analyze them. This is known as error analysis. When we say error analysis, our first association is that it is something negative, but we have to be aware of the fact that making the mistakes can be something positive which means that in that way we can know what is unfamiliar to our pupils, and the teacher's job, in that case, is to try to teach them and correct their errors in the best possible way (with appropriate strategy or technique).

It is evident that when we talk about error analysis in the process of teaching, there is always a possibility of paying too much attention to correcting them. Primary school children are very motivated about learning a foreign language and during their speaking or writing they do not mind the quantity of errors they make. They are more focused on the summary of the text or on communication fluency than on answering the question how many errors they make, and which kind. The teachers should be aware of how many errors they correct and they should not allow fear of making mistakes to overwhelm their enthusiasm for learning. They should know that fluency is very important. We should never forget that
the main aim of learning a foreign language is the capability of free communication, whether we are talking about written or spoken expression.

1.2 Identification and description of an error

The first step in the process of error analysis is its identification and description. According to Lennon Sharron (1989: 69), we can divide errors into the following categories:

1) Errors made by the process of addition (Does he can sing?), where we have added the auxiliary word ‘does’ to the modal sentence.
2) Errors made by the process of supposition (I went to movie, instead of I went to the movie – definite article)
3) Errors made by incorrect word order (I to the movie went).

There is also the classification of errors into global and local. Global errors ‘hide’ the communication, they keep the listener from hearing some of the main aspects of the message. For example, we have the sentence Well, it’s great to hurry around, and it can be difficult or almost impossible to interpret it just because of this confused chain of words. Local errors do not make it impossible for us to hear the right message of its meaning, because there is only a minor violation of one segment of the sentence, and it makes it possible for us to guess the right meaning of it (for example, when we put the indefinite article a next to the plural of a noun)1.

Finally, (Lennon 1989) suggests two dimensions of errors: area and extensive types of errors. Area errors include some language items (from phoneme to discourse), which should be seen within its context if we want to notice that there is an error, and extensive errors represent a connection of language items in which we should erase, move or add something if we want to correct a sentence. If we take a look at the previous example (a scissors), an area error would be the phrase itself, and an extensive error would be the indefinite article.

Edge (1989: 69) thinks that there is a classification of errors into:

a) Grammar - She told she was on holiday. In this sentence it is necessary to add a noun or pronoun, for example: She told him she was on holiday;

b) Lexical - I’ve lost my ruler, can I lend yours? In this sentence it is necessary to put borrow instead of lend.

c) Word order errors (syntactical errors)

Where Peter is today? (Where is Peter today?).

Of course, if we want to be more precise, we can classify errors in the next way: wrong verb tense, for example if we do not use the present perfect where it is necessary: (He just came, instead of He has just come), prepositional errors, which means wrong usage of preposition: at Saturday, instead of on Saturday; wrong usage of articles, for example: a scissors, where we have the article a in front of the plural noun.

Errors which appear during the process of learning, especially in grammar, are the main part of acquiring the language, but the types of errors that are the most typical because of their difficulties, are grammatical and lexical, and because of that, we need to pay special attention to them.

“Learning from one’s mistakes is not just a proverb, but the main part of all methods in the process of learning a foreign language. Making mistakes is inevitable during that long process.” (Čarapić, 2012: 191) This refers mainly to grammar because this represents the main problem in the process of learning a foreign language, which causes a lot of grammatical errors.

1.2.1 Grammatical errors

Learning English grammar, just as with learning any other language, can be a big problem. The problem can be not only in the way it is presented. Every experienced teacher is faced with the fact that the best way of presenting grammar is not to count on the fact that the things which are presented in the classroom will be memorised after entering it. There is something in learning a foreign language that changes the most common rules about learning the language, and that is the fact that our brain has built a system of how to learn something (Scovel, 1998: 43). It is not only the experience of teachers who work with the pupils, but scientists also claim that, whichever kind of method a teacher uses for teaching grammar, sometimes it is in vain, because the process of learning is not just a mechanical, linear input-output process, but rather the way of acquiring knowledge is more complex. (Scott Thornbury, 2001: 37)

It is very interesting to notice that Thornbury in his research concluded that pupils sometimes make errors more often with some easier grammar constructions, than with difficult ones. For example, pupils make errors in the simple

1 A scissors
present tense (going instead of go), then they have difficulties with some prepositions (at the night, at the morning..); but on the other hand they correctly use some constructions in the simple past tense based on recognizing verb tenses according to the places of adverbs of time (yesterday, a week ago). This can be explained in the words of Carl Schmidt, who says that we sometimes need more time to learn some things, and our consciousness and subconsciousness are included here (Scott Thornbury, 2001: 38), and that is the reason why explaining some grammatical dilemmas to the pupils is sometimes unavoidable. Their brain needs to ‘find the key’ to solving the problem.

On the other hand, researching the errors which elementary school children make, Naum Dimitrijević (1966: 124) concludes that in grammar, the smallest error can cause misunderstanding, can convey incorrect information or lead to an incorrect understanding of the text. It is very important, for example, to notice if the pupil says book or books, because it is not the same. It is also not the same to say “He eats what he sees” or “He sees what he eats” (Scott Thornbury, 2001: 38), although we are talking about only one word. Dimitrijević (1966) also says that there is a big problem with the interrogative and negative forms of the simple present tense and present continuous tense. He concludes in his research that the double possibility of making the present tense form with the auxiliary verb do, with the –es form in the third person singular form, is the problem. We notice in our research that pupils do not use the form does (he/she/it does) in the third person singular form, and also they do not put an -s on the end of the verb for the third person singular (He work instead He works).

Because of the fact that, except for grammatical errors, lexical errors are the most dominant ones, we should pay attention to this kind of error, too.

1.2.2 Lexical errors

According to empirical research by Maer (1984), we can say that lexical errors are maybe the most dominant of all in pupils’ speech, and because of that we should pay special attention to them. Because of the fact that an inadequate choice of words (lexical choice of words) can cause a misunderstanding of the context, lexical error analysis can be crucial.

Dusko (1969) mentions four types of lexical errors. She talks about errors in style (formal/informal), then a wrong choice of words (similarities between the mother tongue and foreign language), errors caused by similarity in meaning (trip/journey), errors made by the change of words (solve/dissolve) (Čarapić, D. 2012: 191). It means that lexical errors can be caused by influence of the mother tongue, and in this case we can talk about language interference (Laifer, 1997).

James (1998: 192), classifies lexical errors into formal and semantic errors. Formal errors are: wrong usage of the word form2, errors in the word form3, word modification4. Semantic errors are errors according to relations in the meaning5 and errors in the choice of collocations6.

Čarapić (2012: 192) says that a high level of language knowledge does not mean a lower number of lexical errors. On the contrary, sometimes pupils on a higher level (grade), make more errors than those in lower levels.

On the basis of this, in the next chapter we will talk about research made in a higher grade (VIII) in order to see their knowledge of grammar and lexis.

2. Corpus and Methodology

This work is based on corpus of recorded English language classes of elementary school children. It is of a regional character which means that we recorded classes of eighth grade pupils from the central, northern and southern parts of

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2 Suffix type (considerable/considerate); prefix type (reserve/preserve); type based on vowels (manual/menial; type based on consonants (save/safe) (Čarapić, D. 1998: 193).

3 Calques which appear as the result of interference from the mother tongue (economical situation /economic situation) (Čarapić, D. 1998: 193).

4 Omission of grapheme (intersing/interesting); unnecessary addition of grapheme (dinning room/dining room); error in letter order (littel/little) etc. (Čarapić, D. 1998: 193).

5 Usage of superonym instead of hyponym (We have modern equipment in our house/appliances); usage of hyponym instead superonym (The colonels/officers live in the castle); usage of the appropriate co-hyponym (I think the city has good communication/public transport such as a lot of buses); usage of the wrong similar synonym (regretful/pentent). (Čarapić, D. 1998: 193).

6 Semantical wrong choice of words (The city is grown/developed); syntactically wrong choice of words (An army has suffered big losses/heavy losses); (Čarapić, D. 1998: 193).
Montenegro. More precisely we included the following elementary schools, Olga Golović in Nikšić (three recorded classes), Njegoš in Kotor (three recorded classes) and Vukašin Radunović in Berane (three recorded classes). After recording classes, we made a transcription of them.

In reference to methodology, we chose comparative analysis to check whether there was a large difference in the number and type of errors which pupils made at this level.

We also chose the method of contrastive analysis, by which we wanted to notice if there was a variation in errors depending on the part of Montenegro the pupils come from, and one of our aims was to spot these variations, if there were any, and also the possible reasons for this.

As a model for classification in this case, we used the chart (chart 1) Common Mistakes in English by the author T.J. Fitikides, because it is very clear, precise and concise, and it offered us a very simple view of all errors which appear in pupils' speech. This kind of error review gives us the possibility to more easily spot them, and then to classify them, and after that to compare the errors (grammatical and lexical), and calculate their percentage in the end.

2.1 Results

After classifying the errors into grammatical and lexical, in our next chapter we will give a review of the common errors and their frequency in pupils’ speech. Errors are numerically marked and in this way it is evident to which category they belong to.

Chart 1: the number of errors with their frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mistakes</th>
<th>“Olga Golović” Elementary School, Nikšić</th>
<th>“Njegoš” Elementary School, Kotor</th>
<th>“Vukašin Radunović” Elementary School, Berane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Missused Forms</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Using a Wrong Preposition</td>
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<td>Misuse of the Infinitive</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Use of a Wrong Tense</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Exams</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Un-English Expressions</td>
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<tr>
<td>II Incorrect Omissions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Omission of Prepositions, Verbs...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Examples</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>III Unnecessary Words</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unnecessary Prepositions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Unnecessary Articles</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Infinitive without “To”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Examples</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>IV Misplaced Words</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Wrong Position of Adverbs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>V Confused Words</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prepositions often Confused</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbs often Confused</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adverbs often Confused</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjectives often Confused</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nouns often Confused</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Confusion of Number</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confusion of Parts of Speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>VI Have another look at:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Use of the Gerund</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Use of Certain Tenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Negatives</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Third Person Singular</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Indefinite Article</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Verb “To Be”</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*In this chart it is written mistakes not errors because in that time (1968), there was not a clear difference between these two terms.*
CHART 2: grammatical and lexical errors noted in the pupils’ speech

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade VIII</th>
<th>Grammatical errors</th>
<th>Lexical errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| „Olga Golović” Elementary School, Nikšić | 1. I take/I’m taking  
2. I go/I’m going  
3. animals lives there/live  
4. only ___phone/the  
5. Here comes my friend Igor/ My friend Igor comes here  
6. When ___ is cold/it | 1. depend off/depend on |
| „Njegoš” Elementary School, Kotor | 7. was made/’s made  
8. if it’s not good, I didn’t/ don’t  
9. a group were silent/’was | 2. like ten minutes/about  
3. to appoint friends/meet  
4. to draw/underline  
5. smart knowledge/good  
6. still music/quiet  
7. My mother draws me/pull | |
| „Vukašin Radunović” Elementary school, Berane | 10. where did you go?-I go.../I went  
11. What did you see?/I see.../I saw  
12. have you ever talk/talked  
13. have you ever get/got  
14. have you ever cook/cooked  
15. why did you felt/feel  
16. what did you lost/lose  
17. what did you got/get  
18. have ever you seen/have you ever seen  
19. what did you bought/buy  
20. he have/has  
21. who win/who won  
22. where has that been/where was that...  
23. a animal/an | 8. look in that/look at that | |

According to the analysis we can conclude that at the level of VIII grade elementary school children we have 31 errors by which 15 of them relate to bad knowledge of verb tenses. This result shows that 48.38% of errors refer to bad knowledge of the previously mentioned category.

Classifying errors as grammatical or lexical, we notice that there are more grammatical ones (23) than lexical ones (eight). The percentage results show that 74.19% are grammatical errors.

Trying to see if there are larger variations in classification of errors depending on the part of Montenegro the pupils come from, we have the following results:

For the central part of Montenegro (Olga Golović Elementary School, Nikšić), our analysis shows that there are seven errors (six grammatical and one lexical), which is 85.71% grammatical errors.

In the south of Montenegro (Njegoš Elementary School, Kotor), analysis shows that by the total number of errors (three grammatical and six lexical), 66.66% are lexical ones, which means that we have more lexical than grammatical errors here.

According to the research of the northern part of Montenegro (Vukašin Radunović Elementary School, Berane), the analysis shows that by the total number of errors (14 grammatical and one lexical), grammatical ones are the most common. In percentage term 93.33% are grammatical errors.

These results show that there are some variations in making errors according to the part of Montenegro the pupils come from, but they are not so large. In two schools we have a predominance of grammatical errors, but in one we have more lexical errors.
According to the fact that one of our aims was to see if there were some large variations in error classification depending on which part of Montenegro the pupils came from, our analysis showed the following:

For the central part of Montenegro (Olga Golović Elementary School, Nikšić), the analysis shows that out of seven errors, two of them refer to bad knowledge of verb tenses; but also two of them refer to omission of prepositions, verbs and articles. In percentage terms, this is 28.57% of all errors. The other errors are less common, there being only one of them.

For the southern part of Montenegro (Njegoš Elementary School, Kotor), our analysis shows that out of all the errors (nine), three of them, or 33.33% refer to inadequate usage of a verb (lexical), and the other errors are not so representative.

According to the research referring to the northern part of Montenegro (Vukašin Radunović Elementary School, Berane), the results show that out of all the errors (15), 11 of them refer to bad knowledge of verb tenses, which means 73.33% of all errors. Interference of the mother tongue is present here.8

The results of this research show that there are some exceptions when referring to the type of grammatical and lexical errors depending on which part of Montenegro the pupils come from.

The percentage results of grammatical and lexical errors of the VIII grade pupils can be seen here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical vs. lexical errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical errors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one of our aims was to see if verb tenses were the most common category of grammatical errors, according to Chart 3, it is evident that this category is the most difficult for our pupils. In percentage terms this is 43.38%.

Chart 4

| Grammatical errors (verb tenses) | 48.38% |

After percentage data processing of the central, south and north part of Montenegro, with the aim of establishing whether there are any differences in classification and scope depending on the region of Montenegro, it is clear that grammatical errors are more present in the central and northern parts, and lexical ones are more dominant in the southern part of Montenegro.

The chart can be seen here:

Chart 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grammatical errors</th>
<th>Verb tenses and omission of articles, verbs, etc.</th>
<th>8Have ever you seen.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nikšić</td>
<td>85.71%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kotor</td>
<td>Lexical errors</td>
<td>Inadequate usage of verb9</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berane</td>
<td>Grammatical errors</td>
<td>Verb tenses</td>
<td>73.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Conclusion

In this work we have dealt with grammatical and lexical error analysis in spoken discourse in the English language classroom. Analysis of errors, their frequency and systematic research about their categories (grammatical and lexical), on one hand offer us a clear view about the language learning difficulties, but on the other hand show us that making errors can be very important in the process of acquiring knowledge, by viewing the possible error categories.

Trying to see if there are larger variations in the classification of errors depending on the part of Montenegro the pupils come from, we have the following results:

For the central part of Montenegro, grammatical errors are dominant (verb tenses, omissions of prepositions, verbs etc). In the south of Montenegro lexical errors appear as more dominant (inadequate usage of verbs lend/borrow). According to the research, in the northern part of Montenegro grammatical errors are the most common ones (verb

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8Have ever you seen.

9Learn/teach

~ 152 ~
Because teaching is a very complex activity depending on many factors – objective and subjective, external and internal – we suppose that this work, in a some way, will make a contribution to understanding the complexities of teaching foreign languages, in this case the English language. It particularly relates to a methodological approach to these or similar problems, but also the obtained results of the research can be used as the basis for further research, and also for concrete action in school practice.

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Impacts of an IS on Productivity and Job Satisfaction – Healthcare and Retail

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Abstract
The information systems are useful tools to get better performance to organizations and their employees. Other relevant factors to achieve a good organizational performance are having good levels of productivity, and a high level of job satisfaction - with employees that effectively are identified with a company and its goals. These aspects are very relevant to the business areas of health and retail, due to the strategic objectives defined primarily in terms of budget, quality of services assurance, and, in the case of the retail sector, due to competitiveness. Companies acquire information systems to increase their organizational performance. This study analyses the perception of impacts that an information system promotes on organizations, in terms of levels of productivity and job satisfaction, according to the perspective of employees in the Human Resources department, and managers in the areas of health and retail. A questionnaire was administered to 113 users of the application, and it was found that, after using that software for some time, they consider themselves more productive (than satisfied) at work and, in general, they recognize several benefits to justify the use of the application, especially in terms of their productivity, feeling in general satisfied. The performance improvements, the correct application of legislation, and the process optimization, contribute to improve communication and to increase the quality of life of employees. These are the main impacts recognized by users of the application, so it appears that these improvements provide greater levels of productivity and greater job satisfaction.

Keywords: Information systems, productivity, job satisfaction, social impact, cultural adaptation, social identity, information society.

1. Introduction
Several companies are waging on information systems (IS) and information technology (IT) in order to optimize their operations and achieve greater productivity. The focus in IS and IT requires a significant investment so it is important to verify if the expected benefits are achieved.

An information system is an organized combination of information, people and procedures that contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. Through the information is possible to build knowledge (e.g. Alter, 1992; Zins, 2007), promote benefits at operational level or strategic level, changes in industry structure or generate new businesses. Thus, productivity can increase with the use of information systems (e.g. Porter & Millar, 1985).

The IS and IT have assumed a prominent role in areas such as healthcare and retail. In the area of public healthcare, in 2011 became the SPMS, the organization responsible for the development, maintenance and operation of IS, IT and communication, with the mission of cooperation and sharing knowledge and information (e.g. SPMS, EPE). The investment in IS and IT in the retail area allows the optimization of operations and processes and promotes innovation, differentiating factor in this area, and has a particular relevance for allowing the support of the most complex operations, making it possible to invest on new concepts and services, allowing deal with the highly competitive and decrease the profit margins (e.g. Teles, 2008).

Being the increase of productivity one of the benefits expected with the acquisition of IS and IT, becomes important to understand this concept and its relevance. Productivity is the production efficiency relating a level of output with a given amount of input usually expressed in a ratio between outputs and inputs. The goal is to use the inputs as much as possible by increasing efficiency in its use (e.g. Cibrão, 2006; Syverson, 2011). The productivity measure is used by organizations to make strategic decisions, and influences the social returns due to acquired knowledge. Productivity explains in large part the higher incomes and better living standards of a society and can be leveraged by internal factors such as managers, quality of labour and capital, like reputation of the organizations, technologies, customer loyalty and know-how. Productivity can be analyzed by one or more factors (e.g. Syverson, 2011).
The analysis of productivity with a single factor is often based on labour, capital or materials productivity; however, this measurement is influenced by the intensity of usage of the excluded factors. To avoid these influences of excluded factors is used by various investigators the multifactor productivity that reflects the change in output produced for a fixed set of inputs subdivided into capital, labour and materials. This way of measuring productivity raises several issues but the aggregation function of the inputs most common is Cobb-Douglas to measure productivity (e.g. Syverson, 2011; Caves, Christensen & Diewert, 1982).

In this research the relevant areas are the healthcare and retail. In terms of healthcare productivity the measurement is usually based on the costs of the activity and levels of service, also considering the quality of the services, because is made a quantification of human life and its quality. Healthcare is seen as an essential good that allows each individual to have physical and mental well-being and a socially and economically productive life while getting a social well-being. In 2011 more than half of Portuguese hospitals were public and their performance is quite important to the overall competitiveness of the country. Given the scarcity of resources it has been necessary to seek productivity gains in this area (e.g. Ferreira, 2009). Some IS have been implemented to obtain, among other benefits, greater efficiency, sustainability, governance, management and monitoring in healthcare. The private sector is distinguished from the public for their profit, without focus on the providing of healthcare services equally to everyone. This sector has a strong potential cause has grown due the high quality of services, investments in high technology, rapid growth in the number of professionals and performing complex procedures (e.g. Eira, 2010). In the retail sector, productivity has also an important role to ensure the profitability face of increased competition. The cost reduction is vital to distributors, without decrease the quality of services, and, satisfaction is a very important element for success. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the performance of the stores, including the level of customer satisfaction. The evaluation of the performance of the stores is based on three topics, store attributes, area and customer characteristics. Productivity ratios are often used to define the space and location of the products (e.g. Barros, 2006; Castro, 2007).

Another expected benefit with the acquisition of IS and IT is to improve the level of job satisfaction. There are many definitions of job satisfaction but, generally, it refers to the feelings of individuals in relation to their job. Job satisfaction is a concept whose measurement will always be subjective and dependent on each person, being the own perception about the fells in a professional context (e.g. Green, 2000; Worrell, 2004; Pereira, 2005).

Much of the time of the active population is spent on the job, and that can be seen as a means to achieve different personal goals, growth and professional achievement. Because of that a greater association between the work and personal expectations promotes a greater satisfaction. Job dissatisfaction originates a will of changing job (e.g. Green, 2000). For Spector (1997), the 3 reasons for the importance of job satisfaction are: influence on behaviour and performance of employees, on the emotional well-being, values and health problems and the influence thereof on operational indicators. The levels of job satisfaction can be reflected directly or indirectly in personal satisfaction, physical and psychological/emotional well-being, performance, absenteeism, turnover and customer satisfaction. Job satisfaction is influenced by different personal or organizational factors (e.g. Wexley & Yukl, 1984).¹ Not all factors are unanimously accepted, however some researchers showed that age, gender, race, qualifications, seniority, autonomy, recognition, responsibility, tasks, respect, relevance of the tasks performed, progression/development, earnings, equity in rewards, working conditions, location of the job, interpersonal factors, relationship with supervisors, feedback obtained, work schedules and safety are factors that promote impacts on the level of job satisfaction (e.g. Green, 2000; Worrell, 2004; Cerdeira, 2010).

There are several ways to measure job satisfaction, namely interviews, items measurement, observation in the workplace and questionnaire. The questionnaire is the most used because it is easier to deploy, less susceptible to bias, ensures greater confidentiality, requires less time and money than interviews and allows us to analyze any number of facets hypothesized.²

Job satisfaction, as productivity, is also very relevant in the areas of healthcare and retail. Employees and the organization for which they work must have common interests to avoid disagreements among themselves. Job dissatisfaction can take to disagreements, most relevant in healthcare, because professionals in this area deal with the health of the population and HR are a resource to optimize, use efficiently and coordinate well. It is important to ensure a good relationship between colleagues and hierarchical levels for greater availability of staff and to reduce the impacts on health of employees, due to job dissatisfaction, because in this area there are already professional risk factors to

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¹ We must distinguish intrinsic factors - directly related to the work - from extrinsic factors to the work - which are not directly related to the tasks performed.
² Most frequently used measures are Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Job in General Scale (JIG) (Worrell, 2004; Spector, 1997).
employees (e.g. Cerdeira, 2010; Menezes, 2010). In the retail area the dissatisfaction of employees is common, due to factors such as temporary, monotony, overwork, relationship with colleagues and superiors, low remunerations, committees dependent of performance, shift work, disability of organizations to comply with the law especially as regards the maximum work periods, rest and compensation for extended periods of work and flexibility required without return. Thus, it exist a large investment in recruitment and training new employees. Job dissatisfaction may lead to greater voluntary and involuntary absenteeism, higher turnover and lower performance, for lack of skills development (e.g. Cruz, 2008; Peres, 2007).

In this sense, this research intends to analyze the impact of an application on increased productivity and job satisfaction in organizations in the areas of healthcare and retail. It also aims to find the factors associated to these impacts. Our main question leads us to:

Verify the perception of the participants about their productivity; Verify the perception of the participants about their job satisfaction; Verify the perception of the participants about the IS; Verify the impact of IS on job satisfaction and productivity of the participants.

Despite the productivity and job satisfaction may be related, it is important to understand how these factors are associated and vary. Thus, we intend to investigate how the use of IS promotes an increase on productivity and also on job satisfaction.

2. Empirical Study - Method

The sample had 113 employees of the HR Department or managers who work with the IS (42 women and 71 men; 67 public sector and 46 private sector; 77 have management roles; age average around 43 years; professional experience average around 19 years).

Were built a questionnaire based on existing scales (JSS of Spector, 1985), literature review (factors with influence on employees job satisfaction and productivity) and a focus group (with decision makers and users). This questionnaire had eight groups of closed questions following Likert scales (1 to 5). The questionnaire was available online (25th March to 30th April 2013) with anonymous and confidential answers. Data were analyzed in terms of descriptive statistics (analysis of frequencies, means, standard deviations), principal components analysis (PCA) - to find the key dimensions associated to the productivity, job satisfaction and influence of IS on productivity and job satisfaction of participants (dependent variables), comparisons of means, analysis of variance - to verify the effect of the independent variables (age, professional experience, gender, sector and management role) considered in relation to the dimensions specified in the PCA, and correlations between the dimensions obtained.

3. Results

3.1 Perceptions of the respondents on their productivity and job satisfaction

Respondents consider the quality of services (M=4.45) and time spent in the tasks performance (M=4.10) as the most relevant factors for their productivity. As less important factors arise the costs to overtime work performed (M=3.12) and privileges of the employees (M=3.09). They consider the monotony of tasks (M=3.71), location (M=3.97), working hours (M=4.12) and supervision (M=4.12) less relevant factors for their job satisfaction, being on average all factors important to their satisfaction. Factors inherent to the work with which respondents are more in line are the taste for tasks (M=4.33), pride in the tasks performed (M=4.31), lack of salary increases (M=4.24) and good relationship with colleagues (M=4.20). Their strongest divergence relates to satisfaction with opportunities for salary increases (M=1.90), justice on the package of benefits (M=2.04), fair pay over the work performed (M=2.04) and progression faster compared to other places (M=2.06). People consider themselves more productive (M=4.25) than satisfied with their job (M=3.80).

We also observe that for the assessment of productivity responses vary between rating 3 and 5, including intervals 13-20 on a scale of 0 to 20. At the level of job satisfaction responses vary between rankings 2 and 5 including the ranges from 10-20 on a scale of 0 to 20. Most of the respondents (50.4%) consider themselves productive from 15 to 17, followed by 18 to 20 (37.2%), fits the rest (12.4%) on range of 13-14, on a scale of 0 to 20. Respondents consider

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3 First question allows us to understand the factors that impact the respondent's opinion on their productivity; second refers to which assesses their productivity; third finds the factors that influence their job satisfaction; fourth evaluates respondent's job satisfaction in face of the different factors that influence it; fifth concerns the assessment of the respondents in view of their job satisfaction; sixth is on the impacts of IS; seventh let us know the level of maturity in the use of IS; the eighth refers to the overall assessment that the respondent makes the IS.
themselves their job satisfaction mostly (53.1%) in the range of 15-17, followed by classification in the range 13-14 with 30.9% the responses, and only 14.26% classify their job satisfaction in the range of 18-20 and 1.8% in the range of 10-12, on a scale of 0 to 20.

3.2 Time of application usage and overall satisfaction with the application

The statements with which respondents have a higher agreement in relation to IS are related to obtaining greater control over working times (M=4.15), achieving greater control over employees (M=4.03), reduced manual work (M=4.01), facilitating the coordination of schedules (M=3.99), decreasing errors in information processing (M=3.97), improved control over the management of attendance (M=3.96), reduced user errors (M=3.94) and providing more detailed information (M=3.94). The biggest disagreement arises regarding statements "Do not allow easy adjustment for users" (M=2.51) and "is not accessible at any time" (M=2.43). The perceptions of employees are consistent with the statements relating to the benefits obtained from using the application.

The average overall satisfaction with IS is 3.59 being in the range 13-14, on a scale of "0-Not at all satisfied" to "20-Totally satisfied". The average of operating time of the IS is 4.05, which corresponds to a period of use of 12 to 24 months. The majority of respondents (49.6%) use the application for 24 months or more, allowing the existence of autonomy, adaptation and application of knowledge. Only 8.9% of respondents use the application for less than 6 months, during which it carries out the exploration and adaptation to the application and to the new procedures. The satisfaction with the application focuses on the intervals 13-14, and 15-17 on a scale of 0 to 20, which is the classification assigned by 71.7% of respondents. Only 17.7% classify satisfaction with the application in the range of 18-20. Satisfaction is greatly reduced to 3.5% of respondents, being in the range of 0-9 on a scale of 0 to 20.

3.3 Factorial Analysis

A principal component analysis (PCA) transforms a set of correlated variables into a smaller number of independent variables to simplify the description of the data. We performed several PCA, one for each topic. The first aimed to obtain the most relevant factors on productivity. F1 refers to different types of costs related employees and the book value of the organization, being the last factor less relevant for the composition of component. F2 refers to the equipment used by employees, integration and value generated, in terms of income or notoriety (cf. Table 1).

Table 1 – Relevant factors on productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 - Staff costs</td>
<td>52.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 - Means and Revenues</td>
<td>13.459</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Varimax rotation, KMO= 0.806, Bartlett’s test with significance 0.000.

In relation to job satisfaction, F1 refers to the relationship established with colleagues and leadership as well as the perception of respect to the same face, F2 includes the benefits and rewards of employees, the type of tasks and the supervisory evaluation, F3 incorporates aspects related to factors that are not directly associated with professional practice and insight into the degree of importance of tasks performed, F4 groups aspects related to the evolution and objectives of employees, F5 includes all the feedback received and the recognition from colleagues and the leadership and F6 is related with security at all levels (cf. Table 2).

Table 2 – Relevant factors on job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 - Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>36.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 - Benefits and conditions</td>
<td>10.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 - Accessibility and importance of tasks</td>
<td>8.751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4 - Autonomy, responsibility and development</td>
<td>6.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5 - Gratitude</td>
<td>6.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6 - Security</td>
<td>5.094</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Varimax rotation, KMO= 0.695, Bartlett’s test with significance 0.000.

Considering the job satisfaction level, F1 respects to satisfaction with the benefits obtained and chances of progression,
internally and in face of competition, F2 join aspects related to the evaluation of the relationship with the leadership, in F3 factor enhance the task type and the number of tasks assigned face to availability\(^4\), F4 refers to the difficulties due to the existing processes, F5 reveals bureaucracies, level of clarity of tasks and liking for remaining employees, F6 shows aspects related to communication from strategic aspect to the more operational, F7 regards the appreciation and valuing of the work, F8 demotes situations of justice and safety, F9 is the overall satisfaction with the work done, and F10 includes aspects such as the evaluation of equality in work capacity as well as in obtaining wage improvements (cf. Table 3).

**Table 3 – Job satisfaction level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 - Benefits and progression</td>
<td>21.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 - Supervisory relationship</td>
<td>12.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 - Tasks and competitiveness</td>
<td>9.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4 - Processes difficulty</td>
<td>8.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5 - Lack of clarity and bureaucracy</td>
<td>6.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6 - Deficient organizational communication</td>
<td>5.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7 - Lack of gratitude</td>
<td>4.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8 - Security and justice</td>
<td>4.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9 - Taste for tasks</td>
<td>3.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10 - Lack of salary increases and equality</td>
<td>3.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Varimax rotation, KMO= 0.695, Bartlett’s test with significance 0.000.

We also studied the influence of the IS in aspects related with job satisfaction and productivity. According to the PCA results we verify that: F1 refers to improve organizational processes, F2 gather aspects related to improvements in communication and increased quality of life, F3 refers to advances in employee performance and therefore organizational performance, F4 relates to improvements in the applicability of labour law and the level of complexity of the application, F5 includes employee control and times of work performed compared to the predicted, F6 refers to the level of completeness of the system and the information available there, F7 regards the time required to perform the operations in the application and the availability of same, F8 brings together ease of use of the application and allowed the same for interconnection with other systems and F9 concerns the rigidity of application compared to any requested specific adaptation and management of overtime (cf. Table 4).

**Table 4 – Influence of IS in aspects related with job satisfaction and productivity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 - Processes</td>
<td>33.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 - Communication and quality of life</td>
<td>9.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 - Performance</td>
<td>6.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4 - Complexity and legality</td>
<td>5.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5 - Control</td>
<td>5.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6 - Completeness</td>
<td>4.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7 - Application performance</td>
<td>3.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8 - Usability and integration</td>
<td>3.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9 - Flexibility and costs</td>
<td>3.100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Varimax rotation, KMO= 0.698, Bartlett’s test with significance 0.000.

3.4 **Analysis of variance**

To check the effect of age, professional experience, management positions and sector on the dimensions considered, some analysis of variance were performed (ANOVA).

\(^4\) It also contains an element of competitiveness by comparing the benefits obtained and the relationship with other colleagues.
3.5 Age and professional experience influence

There is no significant effect of age or professional experience on the relevant productivity or job satisfaction. With increasing age, we observe a minor relevance to the security for job satisfaction (despite being between 6 and 15 years that the degree of importance assigned is lower). Employees with more than 49 years old, and between 6 to 15 years of experience, are those who give the least importance to the security level of job satisfaction, while who attach more importance are the participants with less than 30 or more than 49 years old, and less than 6 years of experience. The lower the age, the stronger is the perception that the application contributes to a good performance. Participants over 30 years old evaluate the help of IS in compliance with labour law and its complexity, and also consider the IS more complete, than the others. The more professional experience they have more the IS is seen as complete. The idea of control made possible by the IS is higher for employees under 30 years old and decreased with advancing age.

Employees who better evaluate their level of productivity are those with professional experience between 6 and 15 years. Employees who find themselves less productive have less than 6 years of professional experience, and are aged under 30 years.

3.6 Leading role and sector influence

Personnel costs are presented as the most important factor to the productivity for managers. Managers in public sector – in opposition to the private sector – are those who give more importance to staff costs as a productivity factor. The means and revenues as a relevant factor for productivity are very important, in particular, to private employees. The link type and position of leadership did not influence the evaluation of job satisfaction. Managers denote more satisfaction for kind of tasks, level of competitiveness and tasks they perform than employees. Employees in the private sector are those who feel less satisfied with the increases and inequality.

Supervisors in the private sector seem to be more satisfied with their supervision, than in the public sector. On the contrary, the level of satisfaction with the tasks and competitiveness are greater to the managers with public link, than to those with private link. The difficulties in the processes are most felt by employees who do not have private management positions and the more satisfied at this level are the public employees without management positions. Managers reveal a perception of great completeness and control provided by the IS, however, they don’t agree with its usability and ease of integration. Private employees enhance the performance improvement provided by the IS and its better usability and integration. Public managers are those who easily consider that the IS has a good performance, but, public employees without management position are those that less agree with a good application performance. In general, employees with public link show higher job satisfaction than those in the private sector.

3.7 Correlations

The correlation analyzes aimed to identify significant associations between different dimensions defined and evaluation of respondents related to productivity, job satisfaction, time use of IS and satisfaction with it. In sum:

There is a positive correlation between the level of job satisfaction and productivity assessment, and between them and the overall satisfaction with the application. The importance attached to income increases with increasing duration of use of the IS and overall satisfaction (with the same). Employees who feel more satisfied at work give more importance to interpersonal relationships. The higher the level of overall satisfaction with the application, lowest is the employee satisfaction with the relationship with the supervisor, tasks and competitiveness, and organizational communication. Greater job satisfaction is related to greater satisfaction with the benefits and the possibility of progression, greater satisfaction with the relationship with the supervision, greater taste for the tasks, lesser difficulty in the processes, greater clarity and lesser bureaucracy, better organizational communication and gratitude. Employees who better assess their level of productivity are more satisfied with the relationship with the supervision, considering a less significant loss of organizational communication. For employees who consider themselves more productive, the application has higher completeness. The level of job satisfaction is associated with greater agreement regarding process improvements, communication and quality of life provided by the application. Greater overall satisfaction with the IS is correlated with the perception that it promotes improvement in processes, better communication, better quality of life, improved levels of performance and compliance with its lower complexity, good usability, integration and completeness. Satisfaction with IS decreases when considering that its performance is lower and it requires a strong effort to adapt to it.
4. Discussion

We verify that age and professional experience have influence over the opinions about the IS, affecting the perceptions of the participants in what concerns to the aid that the application provides. These results follow, in a certain sense, those obtained in another study (e.g. Pinto, 2009), verifying that employees over age and with a great professional experience tend to have a higher resistance to the IS and less recognition of the benefits obtained through the same. The exception obtained from this study concerns the effect of work experience on the notion of completeness of the application, which increases with increasing professional experience.

In general, the managers with private are those who seem to be more satisfied, especially in terms of the relationship with the supervision, clarity and bureaucracy increases, and equality. Public managers are more satisfied with tasks and competitiveness. We also found some differences in the level of satisfaction among managers with public link, which have given the private link, contrary to what was found in the study of Maia (2012) in which no significant differences were identified. The greatest satisfaction of private employees may be associated with restructuring activities in the healthcare sector which predominantly affected public employees. High levels of job satisfaction are related to strong satisfaction with the benefits and the possibility of progression, the relationship with the supervision, a greater taste for the tasks, lesser difficulty in the processes, greater clarity and reduced bureaucracy, organizational communication and gratitude. Other studies also identified the relevance of these factors in employees’s satisfaction (e.g. Carvalho & Lopes, 2006; Pereira, 2005).

Thus, this IS provides increased productivity and job satisfaction. According to the participants, the improvements provided by the IS promote job satisfaction. The application endorses a better performance, guarantees proper enforcement processes and provides productivity gains.

The relationship with the supervision, the taste for tasks, processes, clarity and bureaucracy, are aspects that significantly contribute to the overall level of job satisfaction. It was also found that the process improvements, a good communication and quality of life are the most important factors to explain the overall satisfaction with the IS. The productivity and job satisfaction are relevant in terms of human resources and supervisors. In fact, these elements are responsible for managing the Human Capital of organizations, and organizational performance may improve if teams are well managed and feel satisfied with their work, and this process starts from the example of their ‘managers’.

5. Conclusions

Currently, mainly due to the difficult economic and social situation, companies must try to ensure good sizing and performance over the positions and goals they want to achieve. In this sense, and because in recent years many organizations decided to invest in information systems, it becomes very important to ensure that investments are promoting a proper return.

This study was intended to validate two hypotheses concerning the use of a IS, verifying if promotes increased productivity and job satisfaction in the areas of Healthcare and Retail. The results obtained showed that, in general, employees represent themselves as more productive than satisfied with their work. Their overall satisfaction with the application in question is also positive and, unlike an existing idea in face of the focus group preliminary conducted, both the old and the professional experience, the type of contractual relationship and leading position, they have no influence on satisfaction with the application. Despite the improvements identified in control through the application, we found that the process improvements, communication and quality of life are the dimensions that best explain the overall satisfaction with the application.

The participants/employees understand the need to optimize processes, organizational communication, and simultaneously, the quality of life that promotes higher levels of job satisfaction, which is presented by several authors (e.g. Spector, 1997; Hackman & Oldman, 1975). This, in fact, are factors that influence the productivity and quality of service, promoting greater organizational success, so, it is essential to ensure that organizations get the maximum benefits possible with the resources available. Some studies conducted on satisfaction of IS users in healthcare usually conclude that IS users, in this area, have a positive level of satisfaction with the systems, despite the aspects that have to be improved (e.g. Esteves, 2007; Campos, 2012). The IS promotes process improvement, optimization of resources, and increased effectiveness and efficiency (e.g. Lameirão; 2007 Pinto, 2009).

So, we consider that the use of IS is valuable for organizations. In the future, it would be interesting to make an identification of the benefits, and if possible, their measurement, in order to ascertain whether the benefits justify the

5 Regarding Retail studies relate more to job satisfaction and productivity rather than analyzing the impact caused by IS.
investment.

Since information systems may assume significant relevance for organizations, first, due to their weight in the budget and, secondly, due to its contribution to the fulfilment of strategic and operational objectives, it should address the impacts promoted by the same. However, one should not overlook the impact of these systems on Human Resources of the organizations, especially if it fit on services.

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The Determinants of Life Satisfaction in a Low-Income, Poor Community in South Africa

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Abstract

The high levels of unemployment in South Africa have resulted in high levels of poverty and inequality. The majority of impoverished people do not have the means to create increased meaning in their lives, leading to low levels of life satisfaction. This paper investigates the determinants of life satisfaction in a poor community. With nearly half of the South African population living in poverty, the question of which variables predict life satisfaction, with specific reference to poor communities, could be asked. The literature indicates that a number of variables can be predictors of life satisfaction in poor areas. The research methodology includes a quantitative household survey in a traditional poor township in southern Gauteng, namely Sicelo. The satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) was used to determine levels of life satisfaction, and a logistic regression analysis was utilised to determine which variables predict life satisfaction. The results of the research confirm that poor communities have relatively low levels of life satisfaction and that specific variables could predict life satisfaction. The logistic regression analysis indicated variables that predict life satisfaction including income levels, employment status, poverty status and government services amongst others. The implication of the research is that policy formulators should also look at the subjective quality of life indicators when compiling and refining policies. This research provides valuable insights into the predictors of life satisfaction of poor people in a traditional South African township.

Keywords: life satisfaction, determinants, poverty, binary logistic regression, Sicelo township

1. Introduction

Although significant progress has been made regarding service delivery, housing and social welfare aspects in South Africa since the end of apartheid in 1994, poverty, unemployment and inequality are still at high levels (Republic of South Africa, 2011). Large numbers of poor communities are scattered throughout the country twenty years after the first democratic elections. This study seeks to analyse the determinants of life satisfaction of people living in a poor community. In order to understand the concept of life satisfaction, the concepts of subjective well-being, happiness and life satisfaction need to be analysed. These concepts have been used extensively in the past to determine people’s level of quality life and living standards. The mentioned concepts have also been utilised by economists to analyse macro and micro economic problems (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006). The importance of the measurement and value of well-being and associated concepts has been motivated successfully by leaders in the field of research (Diener et al., 2008; Diener & Suh, 1997). According to Tinkler and Hicks (2011), subjective well-being includes different aspects or components such as happiness, life satisfaction, positive emotions and negative emotions. The use of well-being and life satisfaction measures for policy formulation has increased in recent years. It is argued that such measures should supplement other measures or indicators such as socio-economic ones. Life satisfaction measures factors on a personal level as well as on a community-wide level. Therefore, it provides information regarding individuals, and issues of importance for total communities (Diener et al., 2013).

Diener et al. (2003) differentiate between happiness and life satisfaction by stating that happiness is a more dynamic state, while life satisfaction is a more stable and constant evaluation. This article focuses on the life satisfaction component of well-being as the stable and cognitive components of the concept of well-being.

Poverty is still a global problem and the eradication thereof is one of the main priorities of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) as declared by the United Nations 2000 (UN, 2003). A total of 2.6 billion people, or approximately 40 percent of the global population, live below the global poverty line of US$2.00/day, and most of these people live in poverty, lacking essential services and basic needs. In 2005, the wealthiest 20 percent of the world
population accounted for 76 percent of total private consumption, while the poorest 20 percent of the population accounted for only 1.5 percent of total consumption. The poorest 40 percent of the world population also receives only 5 percent of total income, while the wealthiest 20 percent earn more than 75 percent of total income (Martin & Hill, 2012; World Bank, 2008).

The European Commission has identified the importance of subjective measurement of quality of life and has set up a sub-commission to investigate alternative measures to gross domestic product (GDP) to measure quality of life and well-being. The use of subjective well-being and life satisfaction surveys were introduced as a result of the commission (Tinkler & Hicks, 2011). Although it is accepted that objective measures are still of importance, such measures do not take into account human perceptions of life (Layard, 2005). According to the New Economics Foundation (NEF) (2011), the best way to measure an individual’s quality of life or life satisfaction is to ask them by means of interviews. Also of importance to note are that subjective well-being and life satisfaction measures correlate well with objective indicators such as income, employment status, age, health and other major life events (Dolan et al., 2008).

Limited research is available regarding life satisfaction in a traditional township in the South African context, and this research attempts to provide some insights in this field of research. The various determinants of life satisfaction in the Sicelo township are tested by means of a logistic regression method.

2. Conceptual Background

Sen (1999) states that human well-being means being healthy, well nourished, well clothed, literate, long-lived, to take part in community life, being mobile, and having freedom of choice (Sen, 1999; Todaro & Smith, 2011). These aspects relate to the basic needs approach, which indicates a close relationship with well-being and life satisfaction. Diener et al. (2003) defines subjective well-being as, “a person’s cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life. Subjective well-being is a broad concept that includes experiencing high levels of pleasant emotions and moods, low levels of negative emotions and moods, and high life satisfaction”.

According to Ryff (1989), much literature has been generated on the definitions of well-being, and in many cases well-being has been equated to life satisfaction. Life satisfaction and happiness could be seen as indicators of subjective well-being (Rothmann, 2013). Specific major events in an individual’s life such as unemployment leading to poverty, disability, and death of a close family member, will possibly have a long-term impact on life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 2008). Lucas et al. (1996) define life satisfaction as, “a global evaluation of a person of his or her life as a whole”. Aridas and Pasquali (2012) define life satisfaction as a measure of how people evaluate the entirety of their life and not simply their feelings at the time of the survey. By comparison, Vitterso et al. (2009) define life satisfaction as “a result of their comparisons of the sum of good moments with the sum of bad moments in their lives”. To summarise, the main components of life satisfaction include the evaluation of an individual’s total life experiences, positive or negative, and making a subjective assessment of the overall balance sheet of life experiences to date.

Keng et al. (2000) state that life satisfaction is a concept that comes from within. An individual will base his or her level of life satisfaction on personal values of importance. Personal value systems differ from person to person. For some people, family or social relations are important, while material items and money satisfy other people. Research has shown that materialistic individuals reported a lower level of life satisfaction if compared to non-materialistic individuals. People with high value for family, social relations and religion reported higher levels of life satisfaction.

According to Rothmann (2013), when individuals assess their quality of life regarding life satisfaction, they weigh the good against the bad, and the results is a general global evaluation of overall satisfaction. Aspects such as social relations, fulfilling and meaningful roles at work and home, a meaningful religious and spiritual life, ongoing learning and growth, and recreation and leisure time, also influence an individual’s evaluation of life satisfaction. An individual with a fulfilling job and good working conditions that stimulate personal growth will have a higher life satisfaction level if compared to somebody who is unemployed for example (Pavot & Diener, 2008). Clark et al. (2013), in a survey in Germany, found that life satisfaction levels decrease with the incidence and intensity of poverty.

Poverty leaves long-term scars on people. Even when moving out of poverty they still have lower life satisfaction levels if compared to people who have never experienced poverty. This aspect of poverty and life satisfaction is supported by Cappellari and Jenkins (2004) stating that “the experience of poverty itself might induce a loss of motivation, lowering the chances that individuals with given attributes escape poverty in future”. Clark et al. (2013) continue with more findings on poverty and life satisfaction. Poverty is correlated significantly negatively with life satisfaction. Biswas-Diener and Diener (2001) found the same result in poor areas of Calcutta, India. Clark et al. (2013) state that higher income levels allow for higher levels of life satisfaction, but additional income only leads to an increase of life satisfaction at a decreasing or diminishing rate. Earlier research by Diener et al. (1993) and Veenhoven (1991) confirm this finding.

Individuals living in wealthier countries, on average have higher life satisfaction than individuals residing in very
poor countries (OECD, 2009). It also appears that an increase in income makes a larger difference to life satisfaction within poorer societies than in wealthy ones (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002), although the impact is smaller than people might think (Aknin & Norton, 2009). If low-income communities are compared to medium- and high-income communities, a marked difference in life satisfaction exists. Low-income communities focus on sheer survival strategies, and life satisfaction is linked closely to availability of basic needs. Communities with higher incomes attach more importance to freedom of choice regarding life satisfaction (Diener et al., 2013).

As early as 1776, Adam Smith stated, "No society can surely be flourishing and happy, if the greater part of the population is poor and miserable" (Smith, 1776). This historical statement is still true today in modern, post-apartheid South Africa. The concept of poverty and the measurement thereof are important concepts. Many different definitions of poverty exist; a distinction is made between absolute, relative and subjective poverty. In this study, absolute poverty is used as the method of measurement. Absolute poverty is defined as an individual or household with an income lower than the income level objectively defined. This is the minimum income required to satisfy basic needs (Bayram et al., 2012). The World Bank (2001) defines poverty as a situation where an individual lacks command over commodities deemed essential to realise a reasonable standard of living. When working with poverty, it is necessary to set a poverty line in order to identify people as poor individuals with incomes below the calculated threshold or poverty line. Various methods exist to set the poverty line such as the US$1.25 or US$2 per day method, or as used in the European Union approach, at 60 percent of the national median equivalent income (Clark et al., 2013:4).

Guardiola and Garcia-Munoz (2009) state that the basic needs approach to fighting poverty has, since the declaration of the MDG in 2001, taken prominence again. Research has shown a positive relationship exists between provision of basic needs, lessening of poverty levels and life satisfaction. Although various measures and scales exist for life satisfaction, the satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) is used widely, and is also used in this study (Diener et al., 1985).

Many researchers have investigated and identified predictors and determinants of life satisfaction. Veenhoven (1996) states that such determinants could be classified as internal conditions including self esteem or outlook on life, and external conditions such as employment or housing. External conditions are the focus of this study and Veenhoven (1996) found that housing type, income, education, employment status, age, gender, and physical health are factors that could determine the level of life satisfaction. Dolan and Metcalf (2011), Clark et al. (2013) and Bayram et al. (2012) have also listed some of the determinants of life satisfaction. Such determinants include income, employment status, level of education, health status, age, family size, social security, gender, socio-economic conditions, religion, and level of service delivery. Kingdon and Knight (2006) also confirmed the above listed determinants in research.

According to Muzindutsi and Sekhampu (2014), in a poor South African community where life satisfaction was analysed, the following findings were listed: household size had a negative correlation with life satisfaction, while employment (Hutchinson et al., 2004), age, education (Le Roux & Kagee, 2008), income (Kingdon & Knight, 2006), gender and marital status had positive correlations with life satisfaction. An interesting finding by Graham and Felton (2006) indicated that rural communities are more satisfied with life than more urbanised communities; Youmans (1971) supports this finding. Lastly, Bjornskov et al. (2006) found that politics and government service delivery could have a substantial impact on quality of life of individuals and total communities. Table 1 is a summary of the determinants of life satisfaction as were collected during the literature review process. It should be noted that generalisations were made in the table, and the determinants of life satisfaction could be affected by individual and environmental conditions, leading to different outcomes when analysed.

Table 1: Summary of some of the determinants of life satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants of life satisfaction</th>
<th>Generalised correlation with life satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Higher levels of education lead to higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Married people have a higher life satisfaction than single people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health status</td>
<td>Good health relates to higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income level</td>
<td>Higher levels of income lead to higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Employed people have higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural areas</td>
<td>People in rural areas have a higher level of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>Larger households have lower levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Religious people have higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Older people have higher levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government services</td>
<td>Improved service provision and delivery leads to improved life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty status</td>
<td>Higher levels of poverty relate to lower levels of life satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Women have lower levels of life satisfaction than men do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own compilation from the literature review
3. Methodology

3.1 The study area

The geographical focus area for the study is the Sicelo township, which is a poor residential community traditionally, within a South African municipal setting located in southern Gauteng. The area is located approximately 60km south of the Johannesburg central business district (CBD) and forms part of the Midvaal municipal area. The township is located adjacent and to the west of the R59 freeway, which links Johannesburg with the Vaal Triangle region. The township consists of approximately 4 000 housing units, of which close to 50 percent are informal units. It has a population of approximately 15 200 people and limited community facilities, with only a sports field, early learning centre, clinic, primary school, and limited retail facilities.

3.2 Research design

This study followed an empirical and quantitative research approach. Primary data were collected by means of a questionnaire during a random socio-economic household survey in the study area during January 2014.

3.3 Participants

A sample of 400 households in the study area was selected randomly relating to a 10 percent sample size. Trained fieldworkers conducted the survey and administered a survey questionnaire to all participants. All interviews were conducted with the head of the household. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, emphasising the aim and confidentiality of the research project, accompanied the questionnaire. Participation in the project was voluntary and respondents had the option to withdraw at any stage.

3.4 Measuring instruments

The questionnaire contained many aspects that will be used in future research. The measuring instrument that was used as part of the questionnaire relating to this article is the SWLS (Diener et al., 1985). The scale was used to measure the cognitive component of well-being.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, relevant ward councillors were approached with a request to conduct the study in the area. After permission was granted, potential participants were approached and informed consent was obtained from participants. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. The participation was voluntary.

4. Results of Statistical Analysis

4.1 Poverty and life satisfaction

The survey data was captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Income levels in Sicelo are low at approximately R2 400 ($226) per month per household. Life satisfaction is also relatively low with more than 76 percent of households indicating dissatisfaction with life. The fact that a large proportion of households feel dissatisfied with their lives is expected in a poor community such as Sicelo with its high levels of unemployment. Life satisfaction is a subjective concept and there are a number of variables to determine a person’s perception of how he/she feels about his/her life. Often, income is considered an important factor, allowing access to resources and how a person may satisfy his or her needs.

In this study, a number of variables are considered as determinants of life satisfaction at the household level, as reported by the head of the household. These include income, household size, education level of the head of household, employment status, poverty status as measured by the income poverty line of R660 ($62) per person per month, and also the age of the head of household. These factors were used as the independent variables, while life satisfaction was used as the dependent variable. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of life satisfaction in the study area. Levels of dissatisfaction with life are high in the community at 76.1 percent, while only 23.9 percent indicated satisfaction with life.
Table 2: Descriptive statistics of life satisfaction in study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses regarding life satisfaction</th>
<th>Number of households (Frequency)</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied with life</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with their life</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The poverty status was calculated using the international US$2 per day, per person poverty line. To come up with a poverty line for individuals in the household, the $2 was multiplied by 30 (average number of days in a month) and then by the exchange rate of R11.00 to $1. The monthly poverty line for an individual was calculated and set at R660 ($62) per month. Of all the households, 56.5 percent are classified as poor and below the poverty line, while 43.5 percent of households are classified as poor but above the poverty line. This is an indication that the majority of the people in the sample were poor. Even the households above the poverty line are just marginally above the poverty line. The poverty status of households was calculated using income per capita, which is a reflection of the importance of income as one of the main determinants considered in this paper. Table 3 presents a summary of the household poverty status in the study area.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of poverty status in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poverty status of households in the study area (Variable)</th>
<th>Number of households (Frequency)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Households above the poverty line</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Households below the poverty line</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another determinant of life satisfaction considered in the literature was the employment status of the head of the household. Table 4 presents the frequencies as found in the survey. The expectation is that people without a job are likely to be dissatisfied with life as joblessness may imply, in most cases, absence of income, and hence difficulties to maintain and provide in the needs of the household. Unemployment also affects the self esteem of individuals. More than 40 percent of the heads of households were not economically active, while only 12.2 percent indicated unemployment. In reality, it could be noted that only 27 percent of heads the heads of households are formally employed in the study area.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of employment status in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment status of head of household</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal employment</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal employment</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not economically active</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A common feature in most townships in South Africa is the low-income levels of households. The poor find it very hard to find decent accommodation and 2.3 million households in South Africa live in informal housing (StatsSA, 2011). In this study, the type of housing (formal or informal) the household was residing in was also used as a determinant of life satisfaction. Table 5 presents the results of the type of housing per household. Although some formal housing has been provided in the community, only 40 percent of households have received subsidised housing to date. It has been confirmed that more houses will be delivered in the near future in the area.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of type of housing in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal house</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Logistical regression on the determinants of life satisfaction

Using life satisfaction measured as the dependent binary variable, and the variables explained above as the independent variables, equation (1) below is estimated as follows:

\[ L \Sigma \omega = \phi_0 + \phi_1 X_1 + \cdots + \phi_i X_i + \varepsilon \]  

Where LS is the life satisfaction binary variable entered as one if satisfied with life and zero for being dissatisfied with life. The intercept is represented by \( \phi_0 \) and \( \phi_1 \) to \( \phi_i \) as the parameters that estimate the change in probability of being in one category as a result of the change in the independent variable concerned. However, being a logistic regression, the \( \phi_i \) will not give the change but the odd ratio which is the exponential of the \( \phi_i \) presented as \( e^{\phi_i} \). Therefore, the independent variable is represented in equation (1) as \( X_i \). These are clearly defined in Table 6, which contains the logistic regression results.

Table 6: Results of the logistic regression with life satisfaction as a dependent variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% C.I. for EXP(B)</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>1.275</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HH total income</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>7.986</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty status</td>
<td>-1.724</td>
<td>.463</td>
<td>13.867</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal employment</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.263</td>
<td>3 .099</td>
<td></td>
<td>.227</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal employment</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.887</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>.399</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>.518</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.413</td>
<td>1.528</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>4.217</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not economically active</td>
<td>.950</td>
<td>.430</td>
<td>4.882</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>2.585</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>6.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>1.139</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing subsidy</td>
<td>-382</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>1.587</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.622</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>.988</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House type</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>1.415</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>4.399</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government service</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>3.599</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>1.284</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>1.663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.400</td>
<td>.986</td>
<td>2.017</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at 1 percent, ** significant at 5 percent and * significant at 10 percent

Source: Estimated using survey data (2014)

5. Discussion and Findings

The results of the logistic regression indicate that poverty status is a significant determinant of life satisfaction with a p-value of 0.000 and a Wald test statistic of 13.8, thus significant at 1 percent significance level. The beta value also had a negative sign, as expected. Since poverty status was defined as one for below the poverty line and zero for above the poverty line, the negative sign implies that those households below the poverty line have a higher probability of reporting dissatisfaction with life. The odds ratio, which is reported as the exponential of B or Exp(B), presents the marginal change in the probability of falling in the category of those that reported dissatisfaction with their lives. This result is similar to that found by Biswas-Diener and Diener (2001). This result is also highly related to the variable on income. Income is found to be a significant factor with a p-value of 0.005 and a Wald test of 7.9, thus it is also significant at a 1 percent significance level. The sign of the beta is positive, indicating that an increase in income increases the probability of life satisfaction. The result on income corresponds with a study by Kapteyn et al. (2009) who argued that there is always an associated increase in life satisfaction as a result of increases in income. A study by Helliwell and Wang (2008) found that income is one of the important factors as far as life satisfaction is concerned.

Employment status, which was entered for categories, namely formally employed, informally employed, unemployed, and not economically active. It was found to be significant in the two categories of formally employed (p-value 0.099) and not economically active (p-value 0.027). The formally employed were found to have a positive coefficient, which means that being formally employed increased the probability of reporting satisfaction with life. Those in informal employment had a negative coefficient, meaning that being in that category increased the probability of reporting dissatisfaction with life. An interesting result is on those who are not economically active. The results show that there is a positive coefficient, which may imply that those not economically active have a higher probability of being in the category
reporting life satisfaction. The logical explanation to this result could be that most people that are recorded as not economically active are mostly the older people, and the chance of older people being satisfied with their situation is higher compared to younger people who still have life ambitions to be achieved. The age coefficient in the regression, which was also found to be positive, confirmed the argument that the older the person, the higher the probability of being satisfied with their life.

It was also found that housing type and government service delivery have a positive impact on life satisfaction. The results indicate p-values of 0.099 and 0.058 respectively for the two determinants. Bjornskov et al. (2006) found a similar result. Their study, however, found that household size, qualifications, housing type and age did not significantly predict life satisfaction in the study area.

The model fitness was also checked by means of the Hosmer and Lameshow test, which has a null hypothesis that states that the model fitness is good. For a good model fit, the null hypothesis of the Hosmer and Lameshow test has to be accepted, and the p-value has to be greater than 0.05 for a 5 percent significance level. The Hosmer and Lameshow test result of the regression is reported in Table 7. The results indicate that the model was a good fit. Other tests that also test the model fitness such as the Cox and Snell R, and the Nagelkerke R, also show that the model was a good fit.

Table 7: The Hosmer and Lameshow test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.747</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Recommendations

The use of subjective measures such as life satisfaction plays an important role in the analysis of socio-economic conditions. Results can provide government with indicators that could be used to improve the quality of life of people. Measures of well-being and life satisfaction by means of subjective household or individual surveys need to lead to improved policy formulation. According to Dolan and Metcalf (2011), subjective survey data could be used to monitor progress, to inform policy design, and for policy appraisal. It is of further importance that specific sub-groups be identified for special focus such as the unemployed, or people in poverty in specific geographical areas. Policy formulation should be focused on groups and localities where life satisfaction and quality of life is perceived to be low (Helliwell, 2011).

Quality of life, in a community such as Sicelo with the mono-land use character, is expected to be low. More than 50 percent of residences are informal in nature, and basic services are limited, especially in the informal sections. Limited community facilities exist, which also contributes to the relatively low levels of quality of life and eventual low levels of life satisfaction. The results of the life satisfaction survey need to be converted into policy that could assist in improved quality of life and life satisfaction. Such policy aspects could include the following: Increased social-welfare programmes and spending in the specific area; the introduction of income generating projects such as public works projects and community food gardens; the introduction of job creation projects linked to skills training; accelerated provision of community facilities such as schools, clinics, sports facilities, open space, social facilities and retail; accelerated provision of basic needs and essential services; the introduction of community cohesion projects and family development programmes; improved safety nets and asset development; programmes in financial management and budget education and nutrition; and health care programmes for identified communities.

The study has proven that detailed subjective life satisfaction surveys and data analysis could assist in identifying local problems, as every community is unique and has different challenges with different solutions. Such investigations can lead to improved policy formulation taking into account trends in a specific area. Subjective life satisfaction studies are effective tools in designing development policies. The focus should be on those determinants that can change the life satisfaction of people. Institutional life satisfiers should also be prioritised (Frey & Stutzer, 2002). Understanding of life satisfaction determinants is important for successful policy formulation.

7. Conclusions

A number of determinants exist which could predict the subjective life satisfaction of a specific household or even a total community. In this study, it was found that income, poverty status, employment status, type of housing and levels of government services are predictors of life satisfaction in a poor community. Government, to amend and implement policies, should use the results from studies such as this one. The finding in the study compares well with other similar studies. The results of the research could fill the gap that currently exists regarding information in poor areas and the
needs of poor communities.

References


OECD see Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.
UN see United Nations
Nutrition in a Healthy Way as One of the Best Ways to Fight Obesity.
Negative Impact and Not Sustainable of Chemical Medicaments

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Abstract

Obesity can be defined as the presence of excess fat tissue or bodily adipose. Many decades, obesity has become worldwide problem but the last decade is a serious concern in our country. Disturbing is the fact that it is growing rapidly among children and young people. Obesity is now epidemic that is spreading at high rates and therefore called unstoppable plans and globesity. Out of ignorance, not health information, and social inactivity he is growing rapidly and threatening. Globalization of the economy creates conditions for excessive use of inappropriate foods, especially prepared, the industrialized super concentrate with sugars, fats, alcohol and more calories overall. Traditional food products containing fibrous vegetables, fruits, milk, etc. Practically identification, information, prevention and treatment of this phenomenon leaves much to be desired. Diagnosis and treatment of obesity carries a greater economic weight and emotional. These reasons motivate us to analyze first the factors that affect these areas the problem of obesity. Highlighting some way of feeding antiobesity this article attempts to provide a modest assistance in the fight against this epidemic. Second, examination of obesity requires a new economic report. This is related to the structure, composition, processing, packaging and marketing of products and consequently between the components required to establish a new report, the impact of which constitutes simultaneously purpose of our article.

Keywords: economics, epidemics, globalization, obesity, fed

1. Introduction

"When it comes to nutrition must learn and learn to know how to eat to live, not live to eat"

"A. Xoxe"

To elaborate and understand better nutrition and more specifically antiobesitet is first necessary to have a clear vision of what is obesity.

Obesity referred to as "syndrome X" is now a worldwide problem with an extension of the largest ever across the globe as the most identified as the disease of the century or "globesity". Most authors think that IF is not taken preventive measures are passing millennium that threatens to turn into an age of obesity.

For the historical character mentioned by Hippocrates as early obesity century. V BC when stating that "the sudden death is characteristic of obese people." While in Roman Galinari stressed "the so-called interruption of breathing in sleep," observed mostly in people with overweight. Today the WHO in the world numbering over 250 million obese ranging from children to adults. In America 50% and result in overweight people. The situation is problematic in children. In France, Italy, Greece, namely 1 to 7, 1 to 4 and 1 in 5 children are obese.

From the obese physical body is distinguished by a presence of excess adipose tissue and increase the weight. Biologically obese represent a metabolic shock resulting increase in blood fats.

To turn morfologjiko - resulting in increased cell obese and increasing the lipoquilizave. In this way distorts the
whole, obesity metabolism and physiological function of organs by providing a shock with a general character including the nervous system. Negative effects of obesity are substantial, sustained in time and hardly repairable. Materials and direct complications of obesity are:

- **Hiperurinemia** meaning in itself increase the concentration of uric acid in the blood which is associated with major complications in all organs of the circulatory system.
- Addition of free lipids in the blood as cholesterol, triglycerides, fosfolipidet of free fatty acids whose deposition in blood vessels of the heavy damages by gëlqerizuar degenerate to jam.
- Increased blood glucose and the tendency toward the occurrence of diabetes kurueshëm hardly be permanent.

Unfortunately the consequences of obesity especially in children are stable and later ages in many cases exacerbated over time.

They relate to damage to the circulatory system in general and heart in particular, gjëndror system, do not capture the vital parameters of growth by age but also with other widespread damage to all vital organs including those of the central steering. Obesity itself to more of its consequences according to most scholars are responsible for the appearance of most of the several types of cancer at younger ages.

Among the causes of obesity and inheritance but some specific illnesses considered and ways of feeding:

Predominant influence of nutrition has to do with the simple fact if you "know or know how to eat eat" words:

- A normal amount of food which needs to meet immediate vital activity (maintenance) and increased or excessive food is constrained on these needs
- A food at the proper level of protein content in fats, sugars and calories or eating too much concentrated in protein, fats, sugars and overcalory.
- A balanced diet not only the quantity of reports that mentioned the main contents and their values but also by additional factors such as vitamins, mineral salts, microelements or without food with a balance of low substantive value of the non exremity only hamper assimilation, but accompanied by adverse side effects.

A good feed is about a greater predominance of foods called "food hygiene" as cereals, meat and fresh milk and their by-products, seafood, herbs, vegetables, fruits, natural juices, etc. as away "foods antihigjenike" including ready-prepared meals and semi-finished conserved through the use of salt or drying, sweets and chocolates, alcohol, various industrial fluids and in particular foods with high fat content.

Nutrition is a complex problem that concerns not only the appropriate level of knowledge and culture in this area but with a multidimensional impact including the economic one. Element is simple but strong and imposing a certain standard of nutrition in this market faced the food is the level of financial income.

Today the face of the normal trend of increasing knowledge of the whole culture of a diet as close to the Dietary natyrales other trends also show that for their own economic character appear stable. In terms of super seasonal food production arises that a large contingent of these foods undergo additional processing and other costs like packaging, packing, etc. these influential element in increasing their market price.

This first not to abuse what would be a loss for producers and a setback for the future by another provision of the food market as the best possible uniform becomes easier using the food in all possible forms. Food processing also imposed for the fact that this is the best form of conservation values off-season food products but also improve the taste of their ngrënshmërisë while food processing also makes them more comfortable in the use of processing trade in general. Today we witness the dominance of semi-finished food prepared, processed, concentrated, dried to fill the food market, refreshments character idustrial etc. which compared with the fresh foods are presented with major changes in content and value them.
2. Products Popular Food Chains

Fast food (Content per piece)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Products known chain</th>
<th>Kalori (Kcal)</th>
<th>Yeşilma (Gr)</th>
<th>Kolisteroli (mg)</th>
<th>Şeker (gr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>McDonalds French Fries-Medium©</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonalds Sandicheş Cheese burger©</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonalds-Chicken McNuggets (10)©</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger King</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger King Cheese-burger©</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger King</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger King Hamburger©</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burger King Onion Rings, Large©</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fresh food (Content per 100 g food)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food</th>
<th>protein</th>
<th>Kkal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Veal</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egg</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bread integral</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beans</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peas</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carrot</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potato</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bananas</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>juices</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another aspect is the trend to ensure a balance in the market supply quantity is a tendency towards the industrialization of production, especially in some areas as the production of meat, vegetables, corn, soybeans of GMO etc. called character. to those of this nature but with nature as cakes powerful synthetic (aspartam) used in the food industry. In this way thanks to the intervention of human hand significantly increases the amount of their production to the detriment of quality and value, so it created a situation pashmagshme unnatural and difficult to sustain the values of foods and their use for a dietary feed.

In this respect there is a food market today in a broad range of products that the amount is considerable and meet the needs of large populations for food not particularly developed countries where food security appears less problematic, so can not mention contingents large leaf production of meat, pork, poultry, vegetables, etc. that are subject to the food processing resulting in incomplete value. Production today large quantities of maize and soybean in these ways is another factor that affects one GMO livestock products. But their byproducts arising from vetpërpinimi of maize and soybean, that not only are a wide range but also in large quantities in almost all markets and meet the nutritional needs of populations today in countries with low living standard.

This situation presents both the problematic aspects of nutrition:

- First, this way it is possible to guarantee the food needs to quantify the population, and though the present data value lower if not in many cases with negative side effects.
- Second, as a result of production methods in deviation from the natural to the human hand intervened strongly...
created a boom in production of GMO foods considered that for the present value on the market at favorable prices to the customer which brings the effect motion of their large consumption and consequently a significant influence on nutrition in general but the aggravation and the emergence of obesity in particular.

Obesity in children (Hopistler) is a direct result of over 90% of cases of eating too much "antihygenik", fetched food and refreshments that in 80% of cases this condition invariably carried on throughout life with serious consequences.

His treatment of obesity is difficult and costly if you add this and curative measures for the consequences of his treatment as a whole is merely a psychological attraction of a job but also fetched a high economic cost. For the older ages is very contradictory statement to obesity, which represents the multifaceted negative influence but it remains primarley accepted by most authors under which the rapid aging is closely linked to obesity, diet and movements.

An adult obese by the end of his life should be prepared psychologically, physically economics to face challenges that require patience, persistence and additional financial costs in compliance with the age level of morbidity. In conditions of market economy in general, irrespective of the nature, origin and value more and more food security as one of the primary needs of life comes rising. Even improving the quality of natural biological values of foods has the same trend due to the increasing demands for food hygiene or so-called bio foods.

For people that have positive effects these foods parameter of high biological value of food is taking more and more importance in the trend of a much better food and dietary. In developing countries interest in these foods and the need to always come to the market thanks to growing demand for raising the standard of nutrition and diet in general. For this huge investment made this a move in the right direction of the future but that in turn reflects the higher prices of these products on the market for the sake of high value and positive effects on a feed to the highest standards. In the production of organic foods very strict rules applied to create production conditions similar to those in the natural process of production of these foods.

Faced with complex nutrition situation, with many factors that go in one direction but also against each other many plans its impacts, including economic and many are of all natures, but as Professor emphasize Aleko Xoxe has an over all: "It is the impact it normal condition of life of a child, adult or elderly person of the opposite face of the cause but as a result of eating more, when it is the result of the level of knowledge and culture in this area therefore, he says: we must learn and learn to know to eat to live, not live to eat"

3. Conclusions

- Nutrition is a complex problem with many intertwined factors that go in one direction but also against each other.
- Impacts of nutrition are multifaceted including economic.
- The standard of nutrition in general and in particular it relates antiobezitet:
  - With the leveling of the financial income
  - With the level of food production.
- The nature of the food used by considering the relationship between food "hygienic" and "antihygenic" biological appreciation of food is one (by using as many organic foods) growing demand for food with the highest standards.
- Increased knowledge of the culture of nutrition is a constant permanently raising the standard of life in general.

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How to Facilitate Implementation of Lean Concept?

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Abstract

The paper reveals to the challenges and barriers to be faced and overcome while implementing lean concept. Lean manufacturing, lean enterprise, or simply "Lean", is a practice, which regards the use of resources for any work other than the creation of value for the end customer, as waste, and thus a target for elimination. Its main goals are to eliminate waste, reduce the need for managing large inventories, and provide optimum quality at the least cost by making quality control decisions an immediate part of the manufacturing process. Lean concept has been proven to be transferrable and applicable to a wide variety of industries and services. Although it is one of the popular concepts with a number of tools, techniques and technologies available to improve operational performance, and a lot of companies started implementing lean concept, only about ten percent or even less of the companies achieved significant results. The aim of the paper is to identify the main challenges and barriers that companies face with while implementing Lean concept and measures that could be taken to facilitate it. Synthesis of scientific literature allowed finding out the core principles of Lean concept. On the base of conducted analysis and synthesis, the main groups of barriers were identified and recommendations how to overcome them were presented. Authors of the paper present the conceptual model of Lean implementation process which includes success factors, barriers and progress measurement indicators. The results of this research can be useful for scientists analysing this topic from theoretical and empirical perspective, and for practitioners implementing lean concept in business.

Keywords: Lean concept, implementation, barriers, progress indicators.

1. Introduction

Lean thinking originated within the Japanese automobile industry following Second World War and is principally based on the Toyota Production System (TPS), which was developed by a production executive named Taiichi Ohno and was used to improve the quality and productivity within Toyota Motor Company (Ohno, 1988). In an attempt to generalize the work of Toyota for other manufacturing settings, Krafcik (1988) coined the term “lean” to highlight the principles of limiting inventory and excess workers, or “waste”, as opposed to other auto manufacturers’ “buffered” approaches (Hopp & Spearman, 2004; Staats, Brunner & Upton, 2011). Later “Lean” was defined by Howell (2001) as “Give customers what they want, deliver it instantly with no waste”.

Lean is an integrated system of principles, practices, tools, and techniques that are focused on reducing waste, synchronizing work flows, and managing production flows (Shah & Ward, 2003; Narasimhan, Swink & Kim, 2006; de Koning et al., 2006). The elimination of these non-value-added activities reduces cycle time and costs, which results in more competitive, agile, and customer-responsive organizations (Alukal, 2003).

Lean thinking increased in popularity in the 1990s. It has since been widely accepted and adopted across every industry ranging from automobiles to electronics and in the recent years, is being increasingly applied to a wide range of service organizations, including health insurance companies, hospitals, clinics, retail stores, etc. (Kumar, Choe and Venkataramani, 2013).

Various lean assessment surveys, such as Feld (2000), Conner (2001), and Jordan, Jordan Jr., & Michel (2001), have been proposed to guide users through the lean implementation. For typical lean assessment tools, questionnaires are developed to survey the degree of adoption of lean principles.

While researchers disagree on the exact practices and their number, there is general consensus that there are four main aspects of Lean production, and they frequently group related practices together into bundles. These are practices associated with the quality management, pull production, preventive maintenance, and human resource management (Cua, McKone, & Schroeder, 2001; Shah, Chandrasekaran, & Linderman, 2008). Beside the lean tools, several
performance metrics were developed to evaluate the improvements in lean implementation. Comm & Mathaisel (2000) describe leanness as a relative measure for whether a company is lean or not. McIvor (2001) uses the term ‘total leanness’ to imply a perfectly lean state with several key dimensions of lean supply. Soriano-Meier & Forrester (2002) evaluate the degree of leanness of manufacturing firms using nine variables suggested by Karlsson and Ahlstrom (1996). Radnor & Boaden (2008) summarize several interpretations of leanness, including an ideal state of lean, a context-dependent process, an ideal to be pursued, a condition of being lean, a particular state of the relationships between the facets of a system, and a journey to the ideal.

Though lean manufacturing has been widely recognised for its effectiveness in continuously improving productivity, product quality, and on-time delivery to customers; although a lot of companies started implementing lean concept, according to Bhasin & Burcher (2006), only 10 percent or less of the companies succeed in implementing lean manufacturing practices. Despite significant studies and works on Lean manufacturing, this field has struggled with a lack of clarity about why Lean implementation is not so successful and what main barriers it faces with.

The aim of the paper is to identify the main challenges and barriers that companies face with while implementing Lean concept and measures that could be taken to facilitate it.

2. Research Methods

The analysis of scientific literature enabled to disclose the essence and importance of Lean concept. Synthesis of scientific literature allowed finding out the core principles of Lean manufacturing. Scientific literature was systemized and summarized by applying the logical, comparative and graphic representation. On the base of conducted analysis and synthesis, the main barriers were identified and recommendations how to overcome them presented. As a result of extensive literature review the model illustrating successful lean implementation process was presented.

3. Findings

3.1 The General Principles of Lean Concept

More than 25 years scientists are discussing about what constitutes Lean concept (Womack & Jones, 1996; Emiliani et al., 2004; Spear, 2004; Murman et al., 2002; Hopp & Spearman, 2004; Ciarniene & Vienazindiene, 2012). Results of its retrospective analysis draw attention to five core principles of Lean, based on an underlying assumption that organizations are made up of processes (see table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Identify Customers and Specify Value</td>
<td>Only a small fraction of the total time and effort in any organisation adds value for the end customer. By clearly defining value for a specific product or service from the end customer’s perspective, all the non-value activities - or waste - can be targeted for removal. Identifying customers’ value it is important to answer following questions: What do customers want? When and how do they want it? What combination of features, capabilities, availability and price will be preferred by them?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identify and Map the Value Stream</td>
<td>Firms map production (create a value stream) to ensure that each step provides value. The Value Stream is the collection of processes and activities across all parts of the organisation involved in jointly delivering the product or service. This represents the end-to-end process that delivers the value to the customer. The Value Stream is not limited by boundaries between companies; that are the reason to strive to integrate suppliers, manufacturers, distributors and even retailers in the efforts to recognize and analyse the Value Stream. Also, three main categories of activities are distinguished: a) those that add value; b) those that do not add value but cannot be currently avoided; c) and those that do not add value and should therefore be eliminated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Create Flow by Eliminating Waste</td>
<td>Flow reorganizes processes so products move smoothly through the value-creating steps. Typically it is found out that only 5% of activities add value, this can rise to 45% in a service environment. Eliminating this waste ensures that product or service “flows” to the customer without any interruption, detour or waiting. In lean manufacturing, waste is not the object that is tossed into the scrap barrel, but rather defined by what the customer will and won’t pay for and planning production around making the best part in the least amount of time. Processes that do not add value, according to a customer's definition, are eliminated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Respond to Customer Pull

This is about understanding the customer demand and then creating processes to respond to this. Such that is produced only what the customer wants and when the customer wants it. Companies should not push their products to customers, and rather let them pull “value” and link all the production chain in such a way that materials are not released and activities are not done until they are needed.

5. Pursue Perfection

Perfection requires constant striving to meet customer needs and improve processes with zero defects. Creating flow and pull starts with radically reorganising individual process steps, but the gains become truly significant as the entire steps link together. As this happens more and more layers of waste become visible and the process continues towards the theoretical end point of perfection, where every asset and every action adds value for the end customer. It is the conviction that improvement efforts are never finished, and it is the consistency to keep the discipline for improvement in place.

The benefits of Lean in the industrial world (both manufacturing and service) have been widely highlighted in the literature and include (Laureani & Antony, 2012):

- Ensuring services/products conform to what the customer needs (“voice of the customer”).
- Removing non-value adding steps (waste) in critical business processes.
- Reducing cost of poor quality.
- Reducing the incidence of defective products/transactions.
- Shortening the cycle time.
- Delivering the correct product/service at the right time in the right place.

3.2 Readiness Factors and Barriers for Lean implementation

Readiness factors are those essential ingredients which will increase the probability of success of Lean implementation. If the organisation is ready for embracing Lean initiative, then it should show some or many of the following attributes (Antony, 2013):

- employees are motivated intrinsically to achieve the new vision, mission and goals of the new initiative;
- employees show a “can do attitude”;
- organisation is willing to take risk when it is appropriate;
- leaders of the organisation create a positive environment for change and when they can communicate to employees about the need for change and explaining explicitly about the challenges ahead of everyone in the organisation;
- leaders provide appropriate resources and recognise employees for small wins and big wins;
- leaders treat Lean as one of the top priorities and as a part of their continuous improvement strategy;
- management decisions are made based on facts and data but not gut-feeling or intuition;
- key business processes are clearly documented and accountabilities are clearly defined and communicated;
- the goals of Lean transformations are measurable, relevant and aligned with corporate goals;
- the organisation has relevant process performance metrics that all employees understand and use;
- the senior executives in the business understand the critical business processes and the performance metrics associated with them;
- the organisation has the culture of collecting relevant data which drives the process performance;
- the top talented people in the business are assigned to strategic projects which deliver measurable and quantifiable bottom-line results.

In reference to lean barriers, the principal literature promotes that often organisations fail to view lean as a continuous and never ending process (Bhasin, 2012; Saurin et al., 2011; Lewis, 2008; Atkinson, 2010). The lean transformations require a long-term commitment (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2010); it is suggested that a minimum time frame of five years is required for an average sized company (Womack & Jones, 2005; Sim & Rodgers, 2009; Stamm, 2004; Ohno, 1988; Chappell, 2002). Lean should never be viewed as a manufacturing occurrence alone (Womack et al., 2003; Haskin, 2010; Emiliani, 2003; Cocolicchio, 2008; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2010). Similarly, the objectives of lean for many organisations are often vague and confused (Singh et al., 2010). Often lean is viewed as a means to reduce waste, whereas it should be more about waste prevention and waste elimination (Bicheno & Holweg, 2009; Sim & Rodgers, 2009).

Z. Radnor et al. (2006) depict the following three types of barriers that organizations face with:
1. The people issue—understanding the effect and gaining ‘buy-in’ of the individual particularly when there is a dilemma that ‘persuading people to embark on the lean journey, where the last stop may be their own removal or reassignment isn’t easy’.

2. The process issue—understanding which processes are applicable for Lean tools and techniques.

3. The sustainability issue—how to ensure that Lean becomes more than another set of tools but becomes an inherent way of working.

Slightly different classification presents M.F. Bollbach (2012); he discloses the social and the technical barriers to Lean implementation: high employee turnover, weak supplier performance, market conditions, lack of Lean knowledge, intercultural communication, and work styles.

Authors of this paper maintain that classification of barriers into social and technical is more acceptable. But technical barriers mostly depend on the organization. Summarizing Bhatia & Drew (2007), Radnor & Boaden (2008), Radnor & Walley (2008), Brandão de Souza (2009), Alinaitwe (2009), Brandão de Souza & Pidd (2011), Čiarnienė & Vienažindienė (2012), Čiarnienė & Vienažindienė (2013), and Bollbach (2012), authors of this paper highlight two types of barriers: people related barriers and organizational barriers. The classification of main barriers to successful Lean implementation is presented in figure 1.

Figure 1. The Main Barriers to Lean Implementation

Implementing lean transformation often demands a significant change in an organization’s staff attitude, which can be very challenging if an organization is not well slated to deal with the changes. Managers and employees can lack of understanding of lean knowledge, principles and techniques. Lean improvement programs are not incorporated into company’s strategy. Improvement teams often are made up of those willing to get involved, rather than those who should do so. Based on the hierarchy of staff and the way management roles are allocated, it typically become a barrier for any improvement but this is care and also frequent roles especially important when lean is introduced. Implementing lean often means completely dismantling previous physical plant setups and systems. The purchase of efficient machinery and training employees can add considerably to companies’ payroll expenses.

Presented classification of barriers to Lean implementation is very overall. Barriers can differ depending on the sector of economy and specific company. It can be said that every case of lean transformation is more or less unique, and companies face with some variety of barriers.

According to the empirical researches conducted at different companies implementing Lean concept (Deloitte & Touche, 2002; Pirraglia, Saloni & Van Dyk (2009); Bhasin, 2012), it can be depicted the main barriers, which prevent or delay Lean transformations:

- Backsliding to the old ways of working;
- Lack of implementation knowledge;
- Resistance by middle management;
- Lean is viewed as a fad;
- Resistance by supervisors;
- Resistance by hourly employee;
- Failure of past lean effort.
3.3 The Conceptual Model for Successful Lean Implementation

Implementation of Lean philosophy and principles can be described as a set of actions and processes starting with planning the change, defining the readiness and success factors, possible barriers, implementation using Lean tools and techniques, and finishing by measuring the progress. Summarizing Martinez & Perez (2001); Anchanga (2006); Pettersen (2009); Sim & Rogers (2009); Radnor & Boaden (2008); Duque & Cadavid (2007); Upadhye, Deshmukh, & Garg (2010); Bollbach (2012); Čiarnienė & Vienažindienė (2012); Antony, 2013; Vienažindienė & Čiarnienė (2013), authors of this paper present the model for successful Lean implementation (see figure 2).

Figure 2. The Model for Successful Lean Implementation

Every organisation’s lean journey starts under different circumstances, so there does not exist a unique recipe. Managers have to recognise that there is no simple formula or directives to follow which guarantees success.

Lean should not be viewed in the narrow sense of a set of tools, techniques and practices, but rather needs to be observed as a holistic approach that transcends the boundaries of the shop-floor, as a developing discipline and dynamic since it is constantly improving.

Benefits from lean are not easily quantifiable; it should be treated as a long term commitment with the ultimate goal being the need for it to be viewed as a philosophy. The tools and techniques that are normally associated with “lean” should be treated as a framework that enables the application of the thinking more natural for the organisation.

Finally, some general recommendations could be suggested.

Firstly, one of the major mistakes and reasons of unsuccessful implementing of lean concept is focusing on tools and techniques instead of sufficient consideration to personally related issues. It is very important to ensure efficient trust, human motivation and commitment at the organization among all the levels of employees.

Secondly, despite the fact that some authors describe lean in different levels of abstraction —philosophy, set of principles and bundles of practices— there should be very close interaction between them. Lean as a philosophy must be clearly understood and rated at the top managerial level, maintained through the main principles and implemented using different tools and techniques.

Thirdly, lean improvement programs have to be incorporated into the company’s strategy.

4. Concluding Remarks

Summarizing scientific literature, Lean manufacturing can be described at different levels of abstraction: it can be defined as a philosophy, as a set of principles and as bundles of practices. According to the conducted analysis the following five core principles of Lean can be identified: specific value to the customer; value stream mapping wastes elimination;
continuous improvement; continuous flow; and pull driven systems. These five dimensions can be measured to assess the progress in Lean transformation.

The analysis of scientific literature revealed that various authors emphasize slightly different barriers and challenges to lean manufacturing implementation. Authors of this paper suggest classification of barriers into two groups: people related barriers and organizational barriers. One of the major reasons for unsuccessful implementing of lean manufacturing is the typical behaviours exhibited by people in the workplace, which are known to be deficient trust and gain commitment.

Presented conceptual model describes implementation of Lean philosophy and principles as a set of actions and processes starting with planning the change, defining the readiness and success factors, possible barriers, implementation using Lean tools and techniques, and finishing by measuring the progress.

Every organisation is unique and depicts distinctive problems and constraints. Consequently organisations need to recognise and appreciate the concepts but are required to apply them in a context that is appropriate to the organisation.

References


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Religion as a Legitimizing Instrument of Political Violence

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Abstract

This paper will focus on the geopolitical interpretation of religion in international relations. This dimension has historically related religion to politics and politics among nations. More specifically, we will analyze the use of religion as a legitimating instrument of political violence, with special focus on the violence emanating from Islamic extremism and terrorism. History of humanity is full of cases when violence has been used for religious purposes, independently from the label accompanying the violence, sometimes as terrorism, and other times as organized social violence, or state violence later on. Also, geopolitics has always been an indivisible part of religious violence, not only in ancient times, but also more lately, during medieval or modern times. This paper will use history in order to study today’s religious fundamentalism, concentrating in one of the more destabilizing factors of global geopolitics: the religious Islamic extremism. We will use a number of case studies to illustrate our arguments, such as the cases of Iran, United States, Israel, India, and so on. This study will combine empirical analyses with theoretical one. We aim to articulate that religious violence for political purposes and with a clear strategic objective is not found only in today’s Islam, but it has been historically seen in nearly all other religions of the world.

Keywords: geopolitics, war, religious fundamentalism, Islamic extremism, political violence, Holy War, religious terrorism

1. Introduction

Human history has witnessed abundant cases when violence has been used for religious purposes, regardless of the label or the language used to describe it as terrorist violence, organized social violence or state violence. Geopolitical interests have been a permanent feature associated with religious violence, accompanying religious justifications for terrorism, not only in the ancient times, but also during medieval or modern periods. This paper will go on using historical arguments, mainly of modern times, to elaborate and analyze religious fundamentalism of the last two decades following the end of the Cold War. It is built around the belief that religious Islamic extremism constitutes today one of the most destabilizing agents of global geopolitics.

In his seminal work on the relation between religion and terrorism David Rapoport (1984: 659) has argued that it took a whole century for the vigorous reappearance of religious justifications for political violence during the ’70s or at the beginning of the ’80s. There have been a large number of conflicts during history paved with religious interests. The most distinguished among them are the Medieval Crusades, frequently prompting historians to classify them between the bloodiest wars of all times. Especially during medieval times, religiously motivated wars aimed directly at eliminating rival religious groups. On the other hand, this list can be even longer when the debate is focused on the connection between religiously motivated violence and political violence or religious discrimination of a specific group (Hoffman, 2006: 81-130).

History has also shown that religious discrimination of a social minority group has frequently induced it to use terrorist violence in order to protect its threatened religious beliefs. This has been a constant feature of medieval times, accelerated during the late 19th and the beginning of 20th century, when a number of nationalist movements of nearly all continents, in an effort to build their national identities, used religion (Christianity as well as Islam) as an inalienable part of their self-determination and self-definition. During the colonial times of European Powers, cross has always been part of the flag, mixing geopolitically religion and politics, especially with regard to colonial rule narrative. In these cases the religious argument has successfully managed to protect the status quo and the opportunities to practice religious beliefs. This has been attained using political violence and terror against majority religious supporters in the respective empires or states. On some occasions, this sort of terrorist violence to guarantee the right to self-determination for a minority, has induced separatism and inspired the foundation of new states, thus bearing a clear geopolitical dimension (Rapoport, 1984: f. 659). We can thus observe the first indications of the correlation between religion and political violence, transforming religion into a geopolitical instrument of the state.
2. Religion as a Legitimating Instrument of Political Violence

From a historical point of view, a number of terrorist groups have shown clear indications of close legitimizing and geopolitical relations with religion. These historical evidences have intensified especially in the late 20th century and during the first one and a half decade of the 21st century. The 20th century has witnessed the raising of large anti-colonialist and nationalist movements that has widely used religion in order to promote their political interest. Among the most prominent examples were: the Hebrew terrorist organizations operating in the Palestinian territory before Israel declared independence; the National Liberation Front in Algeria (NLF) that used Islamic extremism to legitimate its political and power objectives; Irish Republican Army (IRA) that used Catholicism as a propaganda or ideological instrument for its struggle; the protestant paramilitary groups, founded as a counterbalance to IRA; the Organization for the Liberation of Palestine; or other organizations with a clear Islamic nature, such as Hamas, Hezbollah and Al Qaeda.

On other cases terrorist violence has been used to put the predominant religion on dominant position towards the rest of the population. Thus it is possible to observe that terrorist violence has been historically used in both above-mentioned ways, where specific groups have violently sought to impose the so-called “religious purity”, not only through legislative measures, but also through force. At this point we must take into consideration that legislations are mere reflections of dominant cultural and religious virtues of a nation.

Such a situation has been noticed when the form of government was drastically changed through violence and use of terror as geopolitical instrument as in the case of Iranian Revolution of 1979 that produced the new theocratic state regime, totally dependent on religious standards. The Islamic revolution of 1979 caused a series of geopolitical and geostrategic shifts in the broader Middle East, re-setting not only Iranian priorities towards its neighbors, especially with Iraq and Israel, but also towards United States and its western allies in a historically critical moment of the Cold War. The new geopolitical architecture of the Middle East reflects mostly the new role of religion in the foreign policy of the countries of the region.

Extreme religious attitudes can be found in many religious doctrines throughout history, while the term “religious fundamentalism” has been often used and misused to identify various actors as terrorist. But the first issue with the term “religious fundamentalism” is that it can be used to denominate a vast number of nations of the world when they are completely dedicated to their religious beliefs, when they avoid sins and apply virtues according to their religious values. In other words, as religious fundamentalists can classify all those that literally interpret the holy writings.

But there does exist a great difference between religious fundamentalism and using violence to impose religious and political values on a society, because fundamentalism (or radicalism) does not necessarily lead to terrorism. So, for example, dissidents trying to protect their religion from state oppression can resort to violence for self-defense. The case of rebellion in the Warsaw Ghetto on 1943 is emblematic in this regard: none of the individuals involved in that historical uprising of the Polish-Hebrew community against the deportation plan in the German camps, can be labeled as terrorists.

Religious fundamentalism during the modern times has appeared in nearly all religions, as Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, and so on. So, for example, United States history is full of cases of evangelical fundamentalists that have made a radical interpretation of their religious doctrine. In any case, not all of them have shown tendencies to use violence and terrorist acts for political reasons. So, the extremist violence has been employed in the United States by terrorist organizations such as Ku-Klux-Klan, undertaking acts of violence against the Afro-American population of the Southern American states. Terrorism as a form of political violence, with clear geopolitical features, has been observed inside Judaism as well. So for example during the period when Palestinian territory was under British colonial rule Jewish terrorist groups used terrorism as an instrument of their battle for the foundation of a Jewish state, associating the control of the geographical space in the region with the biblical Kingdom of Israel (in the Ancient Judea), adding to religion a clear geopolitical dimension. It can be argued though that it was a movement that incorporated two elements: religious extremism and national liberation war. To this day, there are some political parties in Israel, whose objective is integrating religious ideas in the legal and governmental system, to the very extreme idea of re-founding Israel as a theocratic state, based on Hebraic religious practices.

These extremist movements have violently opposed to the secular nature and the western way of life chosen by the vast majority of Israeli society. Their member consider themselves the Chosen People of God, appointed by Him to implements His will (as they chose to understand it) (Rapoport, 1998: 104). This specific viewpoint enables them to legitimate a vast range of extreme acts, even the use of terror to achieve their objectives, as long as they “coincide with God’s guidelines” (Hanauer, 1995: 245-70; Hoffman, 2006: 98). Furthermore, extremist Jewish groups have undertaken terrorist acts even against their own Israeli leadership, as was the case with the killing of Israeli Prime-Minister Yitzak Rabin on 1995, after he signed an agreement with the Palestinians where concessions were made. Such a dimension of interlacement of religion, geopolitics and territorial disputes with deep historical roots, has hampered and de-legitimated
any contemporary attempt to find a viable and long-term solution for the Palestinian-Israeli conflict.

Recently there can be observed an increasing number of scholars gathered around the assumption that Muslim religion displays a major tendency to connect religion with politics compared to other religions. But such an affinity is not an exclusive privilege of Islam. Zionism understood simultaneously as an ideology and political project, can be also labeled “political Judaism”. Zionists were responsible for the establishment of settlements of European Jews in Palestine, founding the state of Israel and defining the political identity of Israeli Jews. Jewish extremists have historically constituted the core of the political movement of the Jewish community in the occupied territories of Palestine, denying Palestinians their land rights and historically refusing any compromise (Lustick, 1988: 50-3). Thus, this kind of extremism has incorporated clear geopolitical elements, seen not only in the context of Israeli attitude towards settlements in the occupied territories, but also in the framework of Israeli foreign policy towards the Arab and non-Arab states of the region, as well as towards United States and other Western or European powers (Hanauer, 1995: 245-70).

On the other hand, extremist violence has also constantly appeared amongst different groups of Muslim community. Divisions between the Shiite and Sunni Muslim communities –not object of an in depth exploration of this paper due to their deep and complicated historical roots– have frequently produced violent acts, only during the last century, but also during the 21st century, as evidenced by the last decade’s numerous cases of religious violence in Iraq, Syria, Pakistan and elsewhere (Laqueur, 2005: 184). A large number of scholars have indicated that the higher number of victims from extremist Islamic violence have occurred within Muslim communities throughout the world. This is testified by empirical evidence on the number and religious affinity of victims from the terrorist acts of the last decades (Lutz & Lutz, 2008: 71-2).

Beside the mass-media role as an accelerator an important role to this regard have also played the geopolitical interests of Western and Middle East states in their endeavor to find a new actor/threat in the international arena to justify their importance in the framework of a globalization discourse pushing for the argument that state’s functions are shrinking. This is how the concept of “Jihad” or “Holy War” can be best understood. It has been used (and misused) by various Islamic leaders or the western governments, scholars and media actors, mainly trying to legitimize their policies towards Middle East. For the purposes of this paper it is now the case to clarify the meaning of “Holy War” and “Jihad”, frequently used by various authors to imply a typology of war. This conception of Jihad as a type of war has obscured the real meaning of this word for the Muslims. “Jihad” can be accurately translated as “effort”, an “attempt” or a “struggle”, but not with the literally meaning of “war” as defined by the literature of international relations. First, it refers to the internal battle of any Muslim individual to fulfill the ideals of Islam as way of life. Second, it refers to the effort to improve the religious conditions of the Muslim community. Third, it concerns the attempt to convert –non-violently– the non-Muslim communities and to disseminate God’s word to non-believers. The second and third dimensions of “Jihad” display clear elements of connection between religion and geopolitics, because the effort to improve one’s community life and religious situation includes the geo-cultural dimension of foreign policy. While the attempt to convert “others” to Muslims brings on another geopolitical element: the spread of Islamic doctrine to a larger number of countries, followed by the increasing influence of Muslim states on other regions, as one of the two instruments at their disposal for geopolitical use, oil being the other one. But especially in the case of the third objective there are those who use Koran selectively as a justification for extreme violence.

Another phenomenon observed by an accurate empirical overview of terrorist activities and organizations is that the very term “Jihad” is now frequently making its appearance on the names of terrorist organizations. They use it mainly to imply “A Holy War against the infidels”, aiming to legitimize violence as the sole instrument of achieving their goals. Thus, even though the term “Jihad” bears many meanings, terrorist organizations of the last few decades have exclusively used it to imply “Holy War”. Nearly all scholars of international security and terrorism agree with the idea that the last years have manifested the intensification of appeals by Muslim clerics summoning Holy War against non-Muslims (frequently denominated “infidels”), considering this an essential practice of Islam. On any case scholars agree and empirical evidence of discourse analysis have shown that the majority of Islam theologians doesn’t accept or justify any form of violence or any justification of it, either within Muslims or against other religious communities, such as Christians or Jews.

3. Suicide Attacks as an Instrument of Political Violence

The strategic instrumentalization of suicide attacks constitutes another important component of the relation between religion and geopolitics. This component bears clear historical and political denotations. Suicide attacks for political purposes can be found throughout history in many cultures, societies, armies and wars, where individual sacrifices have been mystified and honored, instead of being merely considered as suicides. At the same time a lot of cultures gloryf
suicide attacks even from dissident soldiers. In this empirically interesting context we can explore the case of Russian anarchists at the late 19th century and during the first decades of the 20th century. Russian anarchists were conscious about the death they were headed to, but eager and willing to prove that their attacks had a political not criminal nature. History has also shown that frequently self sacrifices are mystified in heroism, as with the case of Japanese militants who sacrificed themselves in attacks against western interests and officials when the country was giving up to foreign conquerors. In Rumania during the 1930s, members of the fascist group Iron Guardians undertook suicide attacks against those nominated as enemies, including political leaders of the opposition.

They gave birth to some death squadrons pledged to perform suicide missions regardless of the sacrifices needed. But today examples of suicide attacks are not necessarily limited to religious groups (Lutz & Lutz, 2008: 71-2). If we perform an empirical analysis of the abovementioned argument, it is possible to notice that during the two decades of 1980-2000, more than half of suicide attacks all over the world have been undertaken by the nationalist rebels in Sri Lanka (see Table 1).

Table 1: The Number of suicide attacks, 1980-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group (type)</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Number of Attacks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tigers of Tamil (ethnic)</td>
<td>Sri Lanka/India</td>
<td>168 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hizbullah (religious)</td>
<td>Lebanon, Kuwait, Argentine</td>
<td>52 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamas (religious)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>22 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurdish Communist Party (ethnic/ideological)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>15 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestinian Islamic Jihad (religious)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>8 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Qaeda (religious)</td>
<td>East Africa, US, Europe</td>
<td>2 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian Islamic Jihad (religious)</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Islamic Group (religious)</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbar Khalsa International (ethnic/religious)</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic Army Group (religious)</td>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chechens Groups (nationalist/religious)</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>4 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Palestinian Liberation Front (nationalist)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>0 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Fatah (nationalist)</td>
<td>Izrael</td>
<td>0 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir (nationalist/religious)</td>
<td>Kashmir and India</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irāl (different groups – mainly religious)</td>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As Robert Pape (2005: 61) has argued, terrorism professed through suicide attacks has increased because various terrorist groups have seen it deliver concrete results from a geopolitical and strategic viewpoint, proving one of the less costly tactics ever used by terrorist and/or guerilla groups. During the last two decades suicide attacks became increasingly part of the strategy employed by Palestinian nationalist and religious groups against Israel. Suicide was considered a far better strategic instrument to deal with Israel’s state violence, escalated especially during and after the 2000 decade.

The examples of religious connection with politics and, therefore, the state, abound on other civilizations as well. So, Hindu nationalism in India has always carried a political tincture, to the point that scholars can now use the term political Hinduism as long as in his name mosques and holy places were destroyed, while thousands of Muslims have been killed, as testified by the case of Gujarat Massacre on 2002. The extremist violence of 2002 consisted of a series of violent acts starting with the burning of a train with Muslim Hindu, killing 58 pilgrims (BBC News, 22/02/2011). It was followed by violent episodes and riots between Hindu and Muslim communities of the Indian state of Gujarat, culminating with 790 Muslims killed, 254 Hindu and 223 more reported missing. The riots left behind destroyed 536 objects of religious worship, 241 of them were mosques (BBC News, 13/05/2005). The nature of these events remains still a highly disputed political issue with important geopolitical fallouts for the country’s relations not only with its neighbors but also with the great powers (NYT, 04/02/2011). A lot of scholars have defined these events as genocide carried out with the full participation and cooperation of the Indian state (Brass, 2003).

This allows us to make a geopolitical interpretation of Hinduism too. Even inside Hinduism it is possible to observe
extremist religious views, accompanied by the use of violence not only for religious purposes but also for political ones. The indications run back to time almost a century ago, during the 1920s, when paramilitary groups, such as the Organization of National Patriotism, were used for clear political purposes. This organization has become famous especially for the execution of Mahatma Gandhi in 1948. Also a considerable number of groups and Hindu political parties have set as their political objective the integration in the national legislation of Hindu religious practices, arguing that the Hindu community constitutes the largest part of India’s population. The Hinduist Bharatiya Janata Party, promoting the Hindu practices and traditions, has become the largest religious and nationalist movement of the contemporary world. While this party relaxed the use of Hindu issues during the 1998 electoral campaign, it never offered true guarantees for religious harmony with other minorities. They continue to believe that other religions ought to be re-absorbed inside the Hindu community (Brass, 2003, 212-5).

These efforts are similar to those employed by the Muslim organizations in the struggle to establish the Sharia law as the cornerstone of national legislation, or to those employed by religious extremist groups inside United States to incorporate the Christian religious principles directly into the national legislation and/or the law of specific states of the American federation (Hoffman, 2006: 76-7). But the efforts to promote the Hindu religion with any possible mean have gone further than simply stimulating religious practices into national legislation. They have used violence against Christian minorities and different missionaries attempting to convert Hindus. There should also be taken into consideration the efforts to re-occupy the holy places over which other religions have built mosques or worship places. The most extremist Hindu groups have undertaken violent efforts to destroy these mosques and churches with a remarkable strategic efficacy, impelling the Hindu population of the region to identify with the most extremist political views of the religious leadership.

It can be observed a number of cases when the pressures of religious extremists may generate violence, as with the conflict and use of violent terrorist acts between Christians and Muslims in Indonesia. Due to internal migration an increasing number of Muslims was pouring into the region of Sulawes, overwhelmingly dominated by Christians (Coppel, 2006). Confronted with the threat from an increasing number of Muslim emigrants, Christian communities began to attack Muslims in an effort of ethnic cleaning through terrorist violence. The reaction of Muslim community escalated the situation, giving birth to a religious internal conflict in Indonesia with a large number of victims, massacres and terrorist attacks (Singh, 2004: 47-68; Hasan 2006). In another case, in Sri Lanka, political Buddhism played a crucial role in the definition of Sri-Lanka’s national identity. It is closely linked to the chauvinism of Sinhala’s political parties and Hindu Tamils, inspiring from 1983 a civil war that still goes on today.

From the abovementioned cases and examples it is clear that terrorist violence for political and/or geopolitical purposes has been used by extremist groups within a large number of religious communities and/or countries. These religious extremists share some common features well beyond using violence and religious doctrines. Many extremist movements and groups have appeared as a result of drastic changes within their societies. On the other hand, globalization and the changing economic and social conditions it emanates have given birth to tensions within societies, prompting their people to pay greater attention to religion in order to guarantee mental and psychological support in a dynamic and ever-changing world (Juergensmeyer, 1996).

In this sense the politicization of religion becomes a form of reaction towards modernity, using religion as a geopolitical vision. In order to confront with the threats and dangers brought by changes, individuals and different social groups embrace religious values more and more, while violence is only one of the methods used to deal with the forces that religious communities see as causes of such a change, not welcomed at all.

In virtually all religious doctrines is widely present the perception that change also includes threats. They almost unanimously refer to a past time when religion played a greater role in human societies and to an era when religious belief values dominating a specific community determined what to allow and to forbid for its members. (Juergensmeyer, 1997: 16-23). On most cases, the previous times become known as “Golden Ages” (or, at least, as an era better than the actual one), while the wider society never benefited from the changes occurred. Such groups have gone even further, defining nationality in religious terms, instead of using ethno-geographical determinants. Within such a context, it seems that terrorists consider themselves soldiers equipped with a Holy Spirit (Rapoport, 1984: 655-70).

As for the Muslim world, clear examples of such endeavors can be found at the struggles against “secular humanism” dominating the West and the attempts to transform the Islamic Law (Sharia) in the cornerstone of the legislation for most Muslim countries. For many Muslims, the western ideas and ideals, including Marxism, seems to reflect a different type of secular humanism, born to weaken the moral and religious values of the Muslim societies.

On the other hand, if a look inside another religious doctrine shows that many Jewish extremist groups believe in the existence of a Divine Call to recreate a Jewish state within the borders that defined the Kingdom of Israel during the ancient era of the Old Testament, accompanied on many cases by attempts to closely connect Israel’s laws with the
religious norms of Orthodox Judaism (Hoffman, 2006: 82-90). In the case of Hindu groups there can be observed an attempt to limit foreign influences, represented especially by Islamic and Christian religious doctrines, and an attempt to purify the country through making Hinduism a state’s official religion or incorporating Hinduist traditions into public law.

Many scholars have argued that religion-based terrorist groups that use violence as an instrument to achieve their strategic and geopolitical objectives aim in most cases to increase the number of victims from their attacks, especially when the population is composed overwhelmingly by non-believers. An empirical analysis of the terrorist attacks that inflicted more than 25 victims during the 1980-2000, came to the conclusion than over half of them were undertaken by religiously motivated groups. (Quillen, 2002: 279-92). Since 2001 has increased the number major attacks with a greater number of victims. This coincides with the increased number of terror campaigns by various religiously motivated terrorist groups. The increased number of terrorist attacks by these groups is associated with the disquietude that they are now more inclined to use chemical, radiological and biological weapons to achieve their strategic objectives (Pape, 2005: 61-5).

4. Conclusions

Based on their public discourse the religiously motivated terrorist groups find legitimacy for their actions, of a strong geopolitical objective, in the religious argument according to which they are only subject to a higher divine law, whose application is binding for them. The infidels are outside the boundaries of the protected religious community, thus they are considered potential sources of alienation from God. The members of these groups consider themselves engaged in a struggle between good and evil, where every foreigner embodies evil (Juergensmeyer, 1997: 24). Also religiously motivated terrorists are less likely to target a neutral audience. For this reason, it has become more difficult to limit their actions, compared to other groups that use terrorist violence as strategic instrument. If religious terrorists consider God to be the audience of their actions, they might be less interested for public reactions to an increased number of victims (Hoffman, 1995: 271-84). On the other hand, one of the most important objectives of religiously motivated terrorist groups has been the purification of their society, achieved according to them exclusively through the use of violence that makes the objective clearer. The idea of purification is vindicated by foreign influences –mostly western. This makes it necessary to rebuild the moral foundations of society (Crelinsten, 2000: 170-96). These ideas might cause actions that aimer to maximize the number of casualty and victims among civilians as part of this purification process, as was the case with the Aum Shinrikyo religious sect in Japan. Aum Shinrikyo (meaning “Supreme Belief”) is a Japanese terrorist organization, organized as a religious sect, which has undertaken a series of terrorist acts throughout Japan, culminating with the 1995 attack on the Tokyo metro station using sarin gas as chemical weapon (Lutz & Lutz, 2008: 89-91). Such apocalyptic viewpoints might demand a massive number of casualties and victims, not a selective one. Even though some terrorist groups with clear religious motivations have undertaken acts that produced massive number of victims among the civilian population, not all these attacks are carried out by religious extremists. On the other hand, the case of Aum Shinrikyo is less clear. Its origin is partly consequence of modernity, but the violent behavior it has shown throughout the years was limited geographically within the same cultural space. The violence between the Sikh and Hindu religious communities is difficult to fit within this analytical model of religious conflicts we are attempting to build in the last part of this paper, the model of cultural clashes, mainly because between there are strong ties these two religious communities – classifying the violence as a form of conflict within the same civilizational pattern. Thus, we can assess that the religiously motivated terrorist violence can mostly happen within different geographical and cultural spaces.

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Improving Service Quality in Our Classrooms:  
Student Feedback as a Quality Mechanism for Teaching

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Abstract

Academic staff in higher education receive feedback from the top where superiors appraise them, horizontally where peers appraise them and, to a lesser extent, from the bottom where students appraise them. This feedback impacts on the quality of service that academic staff provides and ultimately the image of the institution. If academics consider their students to be their ‘customers’ then who better than students can provide information regarding the quality of service that they provide. To date most of the literature on feedback has focused on lecturers providing feedback to students. Limited research has focused on student feedback although ample anecdotal evidence exists suggesting that student feedback does contribute to improved teaching approaches by academics and a better understanding of student needs. The current study was designed to highlight and understand student feedback through the reflections and experiences of academic staff in two universities in the Gauteng province of South Africa. A qualitative research approach was used to access information on the perceptions of a purposive sample (n = 12) of academics of student feedback as a measure of their quality of teaching. The following themes emerged through the analysis of the data: quality, frequency, process, constraints and reliability, benefits and timing. The results indicate that academics found student feedback to be a valuable indicator of the quality of their teaching and the curriculum. Recommendations arising from the findings were provided for academics.

Keywords: Student feedback, service quality, academics, teaching, curriculum

1. Introduction

Academic staff at Institutions of Higher Education receive feedback regarding their performance in various ways. These include receiving feedback from the top where superiors appraise them, horizontally where peers appraise them and, to a lesser extent, from the bottom where students appraise them. This feedback impacts on the quality of service that they provide and ultimately the image of the institution. Bailey (2008) suggests that feedback can be construed as both a teaching and learning process.

Currently, service quality is a focus for many corporate and marketing strategies. This focus could also be shifted to Institutions of Higher Education where high levels of service by academics can create value-laden relationships with students thereby creating opportunities for their institutions to achieve a competitive advantage and differentiation. Education has a high personal interaction component resulting in varying degrees of service delivery among different academics. Students could play a pivotal role in improving the delivery of this service.

If academics consider their students to be their ‘customers’ then who better than students can provide information regarding the quality of service that they provide. From this perspective if customer expectation (learner expectation) of service quality is not met, a mutually satisfying relationship between the academic and the learner is hardly possible. There are various methods to obtain student feedback. While questionnaires have been regarded as the most popular method of obtaining student feedback, other methods of obtaining student feedback include student representation of staff committees, structured focus group discussions, one to one interviews, electronic feedback, suggestion boxes, student diaries or logbooks and bulletin boards – depending on the purpose and context of the feedback (Keane & Labrainn, 2005).

The quality of service that academics provide thus crucially determines learner satisfaction and learner retention. More often than not students are too shy or intimidated to ask questions in class, or to tell an academic personally that he/she is not coping with the teaching and learning done in the classroom. Student feedback gives students the opportunity to provide feedback to the lecturer about his/her teaching collectively and in a structured manner without being embarrassed. Student feedback can be administered informally without exerting pressure on either the lecturer or learner.

There are many factors which need to be taken into account regarding the gathering of student feedback. These include the timing of feedback, the types of feedback and the interpretation of feedback.
2. Benefits of Student Feedback

The benefits of student feedback to academic staff are numerous. These include being aware of how one contributes to the success of one's students, enabling clearer communication that makes the academic aware of students' expectations, creating opportunities for new ideas and improved teaching methods and making one aware of how to improve or develop to attain greater levels of performance. By exposing unrealized potential it can take an academic to greater heights. The benefits also include getting to know student expectations, obtaining information of students' thoughts regarding their lecturer and identify areas for improvement.

Student feedback also provides the opportunity for students to rate teaching effectiveness. The information contained in the feedback provides useful insights regarding strengths and weaknesses as perceived by students. In many institutions student feedback on teaching and curriculum forms an important component of the process for quality improvement, quality assurance, and reward and recognition of teaching quality. It provides for collaborative (lecturer and student) critical reflection on teaching and curriculum so that areas of effective practice are identified and opportunities for improvement and development are presented (Academic Senate Macquarie University, 2010).

It is important to note that student feedback, at most times, are multi-dimensional, reliable, valid and uncontaminated (Marsh, 1987). Hendry, Lyon and Henderson-Smart (2007) commented that valuable comments from student feedback helps to improve teaching. Gibbs and Simpson (2004), on the other hand, are of the view that feedback from students potentially helps one to distinguish between the best curriculum and the worst curriculum. Good feedback provides the opportunity for lecturers to close the gap between student expectations and lecturer contribution. It provides rich information to lecturers regarding the quality of their teaching and creates the opportunity for dialogue around teaching and learning. It provides indicators to lecturers on how they can shape the learning experience in class (Di Costa, 2010).

Student feedback on the ambience in the classroom can prove to be very valuable in improving the quality of students' experience of the lesson. In the marketing literature ambience is referred to as atmospherics which is a concept used to define and interpret attributes of a service setting (Milliman & Fugate, 1993). In the context of this study the service setting is the lecture room in which the style, appearance, temperature, sound and smell are ‘consumed’ by students. Because of students' interaction with the various aspects of the atmospherics in the lecture room, it is important for lecturers to know what appeals to students as they will invariably influence their attendance, concentration and receptiveness. Research (Donovan, Rossitter, Marcoelyn & Nesdale, 1994) supports the idea that the environment influences the attitude and behaviour of students (consumers).

In a broader context student feedback may provide deans and departments with information on teaching effectiveness. This can be used to make informed decisions regarding retention, promotion and incentives.

3. Barriers to Feedback

Academic staff at higher education institutions often experience high workloads. They are required to finish their syllabi within the recommended period as well as intervene if student performance is poor. As a result academic staff face time constraints to organise feedback sessions. If a feedback session is indeed organised, it may be rushed and may make little meaningful contribution for the lecturer.

Depending on the type of feedback that is required, large class sizes may hinder a lecturer’s attempt to get feedback from students. Not only will the process to get feedback be time consuming, the capturing of the responses, analysis and interpretation of the feedback may also be time consuming.

The level of difficulty of the syllabus as well as the content of the syllabus may influence the type and quality of feedback a lecturer receives. While lecturers are viewed by students as transmitters of knowledge, their inability to cope with the demands of the syllabus may manifest itself in inaccurate feedback which will have little value in improving service quality. Sometimes students tend to base their feedback on the popularity of the lecturer rather than on the lesson and this may affect the objectivity of their feedback (Richardson, 2005; Bhattacharyya, 2004).

While students may be able to provide feedback on a number of issues such as presentation, style, classroom ambience and use of technology, Richardson (2005) argues that in some instances students are not competent enough to make judgements on teaching.

4. Service Quality in the Classroom

The Customer Satisfaction theory (Klaus, 1985) regards service quality as a perception of quality: a service is only of the
desired standard if the customer sees it as quality. Within this theory, service quality is defined as the difference between expected service and actual service received. Delivering quality service means conforming to customer expectations consistently. Placing this understanding in the context of the classroom one may suppose that the student would view the ‘service’ delivered by a lecturer of a desired standard if s/he was satisfied with it. It is therefore important for lecturers to be aware and informed of the service they deliver. Similar to opinion surveys which service providers conduct to get information regarding the services they provide, lecturers can use student feedback to get information on the quality of the lessons they deliver.

During student feedback information on the following components, among others, of the learning experience may be obtained: presentation of the lesson, lesson content, appearance, behaviour and mannerism of the lecturer, timing of the lecture, handling of queries, efficient use of lecture time, use of technology, blend of different methodologies and level of understanding. While in many instances the layout of a classroom is beyond the control of the lecturer, attempts to make the classroom as conducive as possible also form part of the feedback by students. An appropriate and carefully balanced mix of these components may lead to enhanced service quality in the classroom. In some instances the ‘service encounter’ may extend beyond the boundary of the classroom. This may involve how accessible the lecturer is to the student after the lesson for consultation.

It is important to realise that service quality is a highly subjective concept and there are many factors, both internal and external, which may influence one’s perception of service quality (Sivadas & Baker, 2000). A service is generally perceived in a subjective fashion. Grönroos (2007: 54) posits that services are usually described by customers as an ‘experience’, ‘trust’, ‘feeling’ and ‘security’. In the context of teaching the trust and feeling of security which students experience in the lecture room plays an important role in how they experience the lesson. Similar to other services such as customer service and sport coaching, service quality in the context of teaching is abstract and elusive to measure and understand. The unique features of services, such as inseparability of production and consumption, intangibility, and heterogeneity, make the measurement of service quality in the classroom a complex task. In the absence of clear objective means to measure service quality, this study views the feedback from students regarding their perception of the quality of their lecturers’ teaching as a measure of service quality.

5. Problem Statement

Bailey (2008) comments that in the climate of change and reform in higher education an important intervention has been to standardise and systematise the teaching and learning context by introducing quality assurance measures in the shape of structured feedback. A 360 degree feedback process regarding the evaluation of the curriculum, methods of delivering lessons and the competence and ability of a lecturer to deliver a lesson has virtually become standard practice in higher education (Kember & Leung, 2009). Tinto (1987) postulated that integrating students into the different aspects of university life plays an important role in the learning process.

Systems for evaluating teaching quality have long been established and are common practice in higher education (Hoyt & Perera, 2000). While there exist views that students may not be competent enough to make judgements on teaching and course quality, Coughlan (2004) argues that only students are in a position to provide feedback on the quality of the delivery of lessons.

Although there is a substantial body of evidence regarding the profound effect of teaching method, learning tasks and assessment methods on student learning (Kember & Gow, 1994), there is a dearth of scholarly research on the relationship between student feedback and service quality. To date most of the literature on feedback has focused on lecturers providing feedback to students. While there is also ample anecdotal evidence that student feedback does contribute to improved teaching approaches by academics as well as a better understanding of student needs and students in general, it is surprising that limited research has been done on student feedback. This study aims to fill the research gap and add to the knowledge base of student feedback.

6. Purpose of the Study

The current study is designed to highlight and understand student feedback through the reflections and experiences of lecturers in two universities in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

7. Method and Procedures

A comprehensive literature study was conducted on student feedback and service quality. In addition, a qualitative and
exploratory approach was used to access information on the perceptions of a purposive sample (n = 12) of lecturers of student feedback as a measure of their quality of teaching. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to access critical and rich information from participants who have firsthand knowledge of the phenomenon being researched (Patton, 2002). Participants were selected on the following basis: a) they were academics who obtained feedback from their students regarding their teaching; b) they had at least 5 years teaching experience in tertiary institutions; and c) their willingness to participate in the study.

The author deemed that by using this approach, the use of semi-structured questions and probing during in depth interviews would give participants the opportunity to respond in their own words, rather than forcing them to choose from fixed responses that are required in a quantitative approach. This approach also has the ability to evoke responses that are meaningful and applicable to the respondent, unforeseen by the researcher, rich and explanatory in nature.

7.1 Interview schedule and procedure

According to Côté, Salmela, Baria & Russell (1993) the interview schedule is the most widely used framework for qualitative research. In this study a semi-structured interview format was selected as the most appropriate means of obtaining rich and diverse information on student feedback. The content and the design of the interview schedule were developed based on relevant literature on student feedback and methodological sources on qualitative interviewing (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Patton, 2002). A pre-test of the interview schedule by two experienced researchers as well as three lecturers was first conducted to determine the clarity of the interview questions, the approximate duration of the interview, and to obtain feedback on how the interview schedule could be improved. The feedback received necessitated a few changes to the interview schedule.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher identified and contacted potential participants, explained the purpose of the study and requested them to participate in the study. Appointments were made with twelve participants who gave their consent to participate in the study. Most of the interviews took place at the participants’ university.

A standardized format through which each participant was asked the same questions in the same way was used for the interview schedule. Follow-up probes were also utilized in order to elaborate and clarify some responses. The sequence of the questions was not strictly followed and varied according to the flow of the conversation. Thus, while the interview was structured and standardized, there was flexibility in interviewing the participants and the way they presented their experiences of student feedback. This allowed greater depth of information as well as the building of rapport.

The interviews were recorded with the permission of the respondents. As a back-up notes were taken discreetly during the interview. It was noted that data saturation – a point where no new data emerged (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004) – was reached at the 8th interview. It was therefore not necessary to conduct the remaining interviews.

7.2 Ethical considerations

At the outset all participants were informed that participation was voluntary, their responses would be confidential and that they would remain anonymous at all times.

7.3 Data analysis

Qualitative content analysis was conducted on the data. According to Downe-Wamboldt (1992: 314) the goal of content analysis is “to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study”. The process involved referring to the notes, listening to the recordings and transcribing recurring words and ideas which were then clustered into categories. Following this thematic labels were then attached to the categories. Thereafter the researcher listened to the recordings in conjunction with the transcripts again to ensure that all relevant information was captured.

7.4 Trustworthiness

The researchers who assisted in the pre-testing of the interview schedule were requested to test the validity of the themes which emerged through the content analysis of the data. Both the recordings as well as the transcripts were sent to the researchers who examined the findings independently. This was done by examining the appropriateness of the identified themes in conjunction with the transcripts and audio recordings. Once this was done the three researchers came together to discuss the findings until consensus was reached regarding the themes. In addition, two participants were randomly chosen to check the content and the quality of the transcripts of their interview. Their feedback indicated that the data were captured accurately.
8. Results

The following themes emerged through the analysis of the data: quality, frequency, process (content and instrument), constraints and reliability, benefits and timing. The themes, operational definitions and narratives associated with the themes are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Themes, Operational definitions and Narratives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Operational definition</th>
<th>Narratives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>This refers to student feedback meeting the needs and expectations of lecturer</td>
<td>“questions are too general” “there must be more focussed questions”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>This refers to the number of times per semester/year that student feedback should be conducted</td>
<td>“one session per year is too few” “should be more than once per semester”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>This refers to the steps in the feedback process. It includes content, collection, analysis and interpretation of the results</td>
<td>“the way in which feedback is done should be reviewed” “I prefer to do feedback my way”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints and Reliability</td>
<td>This refers to the restricting or limiting factors associated with student feedback</td>
<td>“relationship with students affect how lecturers are rated” “some student are not competent enough to give feedback” “I do not believe students are honest”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>This relates to the positive outcomes of student feedback. It includes both personal development and development of lessons</td>
<td>“some of my areas of weakness I was not aware of were discovered” “I knew where to focus more attention in the syllabus”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timing</td>
<td>This refers to the selection of the best moment for conducting student feedback from which maximum benefit is derived</td>
<td>“the timing of the feedback is problematic” “too late in the year”</td>
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</table>

9. Discussion

9.1 Quality

The findings of the study resonate strongly with the wider literature on student feedback. With regard to the quality of feedback this theme was divided into sub-themes, namely content, expectations and worth. Respondents indicated that the content of the questionnaires required feedback on too many aspects and were too general. They were thus of the opinion that this compromised the depth of the feedback. This was because most respondents were not in a position to change the system as this was done by a different department. Respondents preferred that feedback on specific aspects should be requested at respective feedback sessions e.g. student effort and involvement, communication, lesson organisation, preparation and presentation, lesson content, assessment, assignments and student presentations. This finding is in agreement with Keane and Labrainn (2005) who suggested that with regard to the content of the feedback, it should be direct and course-related rather than focussing on a range of activities. In most instances the feedback did meet the expectations of the respondents. Furthermore all respondents indicated that there were developmental opportunities associated with the feedback.

9.2 Frequency

With regard to frequency respondents perceived that the frequency of feedback sessions was insufficient. They felt that more frequent and shorter feedback sessions would most probably be more beneficial to them as well as the students. All respondents indicated that student feedback which was organised by other departments was conducted at the end of the semester or academic year. In many instances they lamented the fact that they could not implement the findings with the same group of students either because the students were allocated to another lecturer in the following year or the syllabus was completed. Most respondents indicated that they would prefer student feedback to be conducted in the middle of the semester so that they could implement the findings. This finding mirror those of Narasimhan (2001) who argued that feedback obtained at the end of a syllabus would have little or no value compared to that which is received in the middle of the syllabus.
9.3 Process

Respondents were unanimous that the current method of feedback should be reviewed. Currently the feedback was conducted by a different department who had a different mandate and objectives. In this regard Hounsell (2003) suggested that the first step in the student feedback process should be to define the objective of the feedback. This would then provide direction regarding the development of the instrument or choice of the appropriate instrument to get feedback. The perceptions of the respondents regarding the purpose of student feedback corroborated those of Keane and Labrainn (2005) who suggested that the process of feedback in higher education gives the impression that it is being done to fulfill an administrative obligation. In keeping with the objectives for feedback, respondents suggested that the content of the instrument should be relevant. They also preferred to conduct their own feedback.

9.4 Constraints and Reliability

One of the constraints experienced by the respondents was that they were not able to use their own method of student feedback. This was because approved standardised instruments administered by staff from other departments were used. Richardson (2005) expressed the concern that in the classroom the students are ‘forced’ to participate in the process which is supposed to be voluntary. This compromised the quality of the feedback. In some instances the performance of the students in a particular module/subject influenced their feedback. If students performed well they were likely to rate the quality of the lesson higher than those in which subjects they performed poorly. This finding is in sync with those of Worthington (2002) who found that where students expected to perform better, the student feedback of the lecturer was higher. Most of the respondents indicated that large class sizes and long syllabi limited their opportunity to request feedback from the students. They therefore used one-on-one consultations or short informal feedback sessions towards the end of their lesson instead.

9.5 Benefits

All respondents in the study perceived feedback to be beneficial. It provided them with information to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses as well as identify areas for improvement in the syllabus. This finding is in line with Scott and Issa (2006) who found that student feedback can be a powerful source for an instructor’s professional development. Participants in the study used student feedback to adapt their lecturing style, select appropriate technology for their lessons, structure the pace of their lessons and identify areas of the syllabus which students experienced difficulty in understanding. Three of the respondents who found student feedback valuable developed their own feedback questionnaire which they administered from time to time to the different groups they lectured to. Using the feedback they adapted their lecturing style to enable greater involvement of students in the lesson.

9.6 Timing

Respondents expressed their concern regarding the timing of the feedback sessions. In most instances respondents felt that the feedback sessions were scheduled too close to the end of the academic year. Hence, those students who provided the feedback would not be in a position to enjoy the development and improvements based on their responses. This finding mirrors those of McKeachie and Kaplan (1996) who argued that feedback would be most informative if it were administered when as much of the course content as possible has been covered. Furthermore, respondents indicated that in most instances the feedback was administered during class time towards the end of a lecture. This caused students to rush over their responses without giving careful thought to their feedback.

10. Limitations of the Study

An important limitation of the study was the small sample size. Hence, the findings cannot be generalised to the larger population of lecturers. Notwithstanding this limitation the study provides noteworthy results and provides a base for future research on student feedback.

11. Recommendations

Emanating from the study were three strong recommendations from the respondents. Firstly, respondents recommended that student feedback questionnaires should be customised and purpose-driven, i.e. there should be specific outcomes
12. Conclusion

The aim of the study was to highlight and understand student feedback through the experiences of university lecturers. The study provided several interesting insights into how lecturers experienced student feedback. It is evident that student feedback provided them with excellent information not only for their own professional self-development but also to improve the curriculum and develop their lessons so that students get maximum benefit.

References


Forms of Politeness Within the Speech Act of Apologies Compared to the Parameter Gender in the English Language

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Abstract

The question of politeness in language has been one of the most popular in linguistic studies since the second half of the twentieth century, and as such, has intrigued us to make a presentation of forms of politeness in the speech act of apologies within the English language system. Interesting and complex at the same time, primarily due to the interweaving of grammar, psychology and sociolinguistics, this problem proved to be a huge challenge, asking for both theoretical and discussions of the results obtained in practice. This paper presents the results of a case study conducted on the corpus obtained from a popular reality show in order to show whether the women, and to what extent, tend to use more tentative language forms within the speech act of apologies.

Keywords: politeness, language and gender, speech act of apologies, modality, hedging.

1. Introduction

As a type of speech act, the apology has been the object of numerous studies that attempted to clarify what exactly an apology is, how the different ways of apologizing can be classified, and also how this particular speech act is performed.

Recent linguistic researches have shown that communication is not only the way in which a piece of information is transmitted from the speaker to an addressee, but also “an equally important mean of establishing, maintaining, and even terminating social relationships with other people.” (Sifianou, 2000, p.12) While spoken communication, according to Robin Tomah–Layoff (1975), has been characterized as spontaneous, it is often seen as unclear and confusing with numerous ambiguous forms and reiterations, whereas written communication is almost always well-planned and organized, so it can be said that while the written form of expressing apologies a very convenient one, the spoken form is more spontaneous and “warm”. For this reason we decided to divide the corpus into spoken and written, formal and informal types to enlighten the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic features of expressions of apologies, believing that the obtained results would be transparent to the readers of this paper.

Inquiry into the speech act of apologies is likely to have gained popularity due to their function of maintaining and restoring good relations in a society (Grainger & Harris, 2007). According to Grainger and Harris, studies on apologies are not only integrated into pragmatics and politeness theory, but also into other disciplines such as sociolinguistics, social psychology, philosophy, and foreign language teaching. A number of common social factors such as age, gender, personal relationships, social power and status, and discourse contexts, and situations have often been incorporated into investigation of apologies (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

The study carried out by Janet Holmes (1990) examined apologies based on a corpus of 183 conversations in New Zealand English. She considered some characteristics of apologies in informal remedial interchanges within the context of Brown and Levinson’s (1978, 1987) model of politeness in language. The discussion covered a wide range of elements, including the functions of apologies, the range of strategies used to apologize, their semantic and syntactic structure, and sociolinguistic aspects of apologies. Specifically, Holmes explored apologies in various aspects such as the relationship between the complexity of apology and the weightiness of the offence which elicited it, as well as the relationship between this speech act and the gender of the speaker. Then, apologies were assessed in terms of Brown and Levinson’s (1987) model, referring to rank of the imposition, power of the hearer over the speaker, distance between the participants. These social factors had previously been regarded as influential in the realization of apologies (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Holmes (1990, 1995) claims that apologies seem to provide a rich source of information on the ways language interacts with society. Apart from these factors, however, other prominent facets such as situation, degree of offence, and frequency of apology are also believed to be influential (Brown & Levinson, 1987).
2. Theoretical Background

Bergman and Kasper (1993) defined an apology as a “compensatory action to an offense in the doing of which S was casually involved and which is costly to H” (p. 82). The cost can be in terms of losing face or even a severe misunderstanding. It is clear that different cultures have different degrees in perceiving how costly such an offense is, and therefore how necessary an apology is. An action, in the opinion of the authors, that is considered very serious in one culture, may not require an apology at all in another culture. Also, the severity of such a face threatening act seems to be in a direct relationship with the type of apology chosen to defend face.

Penelope Brown and Steven Levinson (1987) claimed that all speakers choose the same strategy under the same conditions, and tried to demonstrate this by looking at three different languages, namely English, Tzeltal (a Mayan language), and South Indian Tamil. However, this theory has been challenged by several researchers who claim that different individual factors are involved in both considering an act as face threatening, and the strategy used in apologizing (Trosborg, 1987). In the opinion of Trosborg these factors are determined by one’s social and cultural patterns, and by the behavioral norms of one’s culture. This leads to the assumption that not only do speakers of different languages perceive the necessity of an apology differently, but also use different ways of apologizing.

Differences in apology strategy use are thought to be correlated with cross-cultural differences by both interlanguage studies and studies that looked at the way speakers of different languages apologize in their own language. Such studies seem to give a clearer view on the relationship between speech acts and cultural factors (Barnlund & Yoshioka, 1990; Suszczynska, 1999). The choice of apology strategies is also determined by social differences such as sex, age, and social status. Holmes (1993) has shown in a study on New Zealanders that there are significant differences in the distribution of apologies between men and women, and also that women apologize more than men.

A definition that limits very much the concept of an apology is the one given by Owen (1983). According to the author, apologies are remedial moves that follow what he called a priming move on the part of the person who expects the apology, which is a move that triggers the apology. While such an approach makes sense, the problem with Owen’s definition is that he restricts the use of the term apology to only those utterances that actually contain the explicit phrases “I’m sorry” or “I apologize” and variants of these.

Geoffrey Leech (1983) viewed apologies as an attempt to recreate an imbalance between the speaker and the hearer created by the fact that the speaker committed an offense against the hearer. According to him, it is not enough to apologize, this apology needs to be successful in order for the hearer to pardon the speaker, and thus reestablish the conversational balance.

Finally, Janet Holmes (1990) defined apologies as “social acts conveying affective meaning” (Holmes, 155), believing they are politeness strategies meant to remedy an offense on the part of the speaker. Holmes also made an interesting and important clarification in defining apologies that has not been considered before. Thus, when defining apologies, one must take into consideration the possibility of a speaker to apologize for somebody else’s behavior. This leads to the conclusion that “the definition refers to the person who takes responsibility for the offense rather than the offender” (Holmes, 161).

3. Classification of Apologies

The way apologies are classified depends very much on the way they are defined. Thus, the diversity in definitions of apologies also brings about diversity in classification.


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1 In the opinion of the authors, the most commonly used seems to be the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) such as in “I’m sorry.” The other strategies are intensified IFID (“I’m terribly sorry”), taking responsibility (“I haven’t graded it yet”), giving an account of the reasons that led to the action that requires an apology (“I was suddenly called to a meeting”), minimizing the effects and severity of the action (“I’m only 10 minutes late”), offering repair or compensation (“I’ll pay for the damage”), and verbal redress (“It won’t happen again”).

2 The first one is an explicit expression of apology and contains the subcategories “offer apology/IFID,” “express regret,” “request forgiveness.” The second main category is represented by “an explanation or account, an excuse or justification.” The largest group, “an acknowledgment of responsibility,” contains “accept blame,” “express self-deficiency,” “recognize H as entitled to an apology,” “express lack of intent,” “offer repair/redress.” Finally, the last category is “a promise of forbearance” (p. 167). While most of these categories are present in other taxonomies, as well, one can note that most of the ones in the “acknowledgment of responsibility” group are unique.
categories and Marion Owen (1983) classified apologies by the type of utterance they incorporate, while Bruce Fraser (1981) designed a categorization of apologies based on the intent of the speaker distinguishing eight categories.

A completely different approach to creating taxonomy of apologies has been attempted by Deutschmann (2003) who, after analyzing The British National Corpus, proposed three main categories of apologies according to the function they express while we have classified this speech act according to the formal/informal and written/spoken discourse. The following table shows the distribution of the polite forms of expressing apologies in the English language:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Discourse</th>
<th>Formal English</th>
<th>Informal English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the speaker</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. We are very/truly/deeply/sincerely sorry for...</td>
<td>1. We are very/truly/sincerely sorry for...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Modal verb would followed by the verbs offer i like: We would like to offer sincerest apology for...</td>
<td>2. Modal verb would followed by the verbs offer i like very often followed by How sorry I am.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the hearer</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the hearer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Those preceded by please: Please accept our/my (sincere/ sincerest) apology....</td>
<td>1. Those preceded by please: Please accept our/my (sincere/ sincerest) apology....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Conditional constructions: If you could accept ur apology.... oriented towards the hearer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Modal verb would followed by the verbs offer i like: We would like to ask you to accept our apologies for...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the speaker</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. I/We am/are very/truly/sincerely sorry for...</td>
<td>1. I/We am/are terribly/truly/ awfully sorry....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. The formulae containing the expression.... how sorry I am/we are...</td>
<td>2. Forms I am sorry/ excuse me in order to interrupt the hearer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The expressions consisting of the simple past of the verb want: we wanted to say...</td>
<td>3. Using the single expression sorry (for sth)...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Modal verb would followed by the verbs offer i like: I/ we would like to apologise for...</td>
<td>4. The verb hope used in the form of present or past progressive tense: hope you could forgive me, I was hoping we could overcome this situation, I hope you don't didn't mind.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the hearer</td>
<td>The forms oriented towards the hearer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Those preceded by please: Please accept our/my (sincere/ sincerest) apology....</td>
<td>1. Modal verb could followed by the conditional constructions if you could forgive me, if you could forget what happened etc...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Forms I am sorry/ excuse me in order to interrupt the hearer.</td>
<td>2. Modal verbs will/can in a formula containing question: Will/Can you forgive me for...?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The verb hope used in the form of present or past progressive tense: hope you could forgive me, I was hoping we could overcome this situation, I hope you don't didn't mind.....</td>
<td>3. Imperative form formulated with the modal must: You must forgive me...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4. Language and Gender

The research concerning the relationship between language and gender, carried out by Otto Jespersen (1922: 245) and described in his study entitled *Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin* is considered to be an inspiring for many other linguists interested in the same question. Peter Trudgill (1974: 92) carried out a research related to the variable *ng* appearing in the words like *hopping*, *skipping* pronounced by all the social classes in Norwich and concluded that there were considerable differences in pronouncing between the various social classes as well as the men and women, concluding that the women and the people belonging to the higher classes tend to use more tentative forms due to the

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3 Trosborg (1995) found that apologetic strategies can be divided according to whether the speaker considers that an action that requires an apology occurred or not.

4 Owen (1983) identified three types of apologies: one that incorporates “apology,” “apologies,” or “apologize;” one that incorporates “sorry;” and, finally, the one that is created by the phrase “I’m afraid” followed by a sentence. Owen incorporated apologies in the broader context of primary remedial moves.

5 Fraser (1981, 263): 1 announcing that you are apologizing, 2 stating one’s obligation to apologize, 3 offering to apologize, 4 requesting the hearer accept an apology, 5 expressing regret for the offense, 6 acknowledging responsibility for the offending act, 7 promising forbearance from a similar offending act, 8 offering redress.

6 Deutschmann’s (2003, 75) classification looks as follows: real apologies, formulaic and “face attack” ones.

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constant pressure of the society. Ronald Macaulay carried out a similar research in 1978 whose results showed that every social class tend to use more tentative language forms in the process of conversation. However, the research carried out on the adolescents from the working class in New Zealand (1987), as well as those performed by Janet Holms (1995) and Jennifer Coates (2004) are thought to be the most representative ones related to this issue. As we haven’t found a research in which the author enlightened the relation between language and gender, or more specifically, speech act of apologizing by analyzing the conversations between one or more couples we decided to carry out one based on the material obtained in one the most popular reality shows of all times.

5. The Case Study - Methodology and Hypothesis

The TV show Jon & Kate plus 8 is a reality about the couple Jon and Kate Gosselin and their eight children, showing the everyday situations they face. We chose this show since the married couple at the end of the day would analyze the situations they had been put through and we realized that the discussions, or, more precisely, the language forms, could significantly show the differences between the language of men and women. This means that we tried to get the information if Kate Gosselin is keen on using more tentative language forms in the process of conversation. Our hypothesis, concerning the speech act of apologizing, looked as follows:

1) We expected that the results of the research would show that Kate Gosselin uses, to a rather high degree, more formal and tentative forms while expressing apology towards her husband. This means higher percentage of the usage of the tentative modal verbs such as would or could, the expressions I am so/ terribly/ awfully sorry, I hope..., I didn’t mean/ want to etc…

2) On the other hand, we expected that the results of the research would prove that the male correspondent, Jon Gosselin uses mainly direct forms of apologizing, even the imperative ones, as well as less tentative modal verbs such as must, will or can.

The corpus of the research consisted of the fifty episodes of the reality show, or, more precisely, 1825. The research was an empirical based on the formerly specified basis and the results were analyzed by means of statistical analysis.

6. Discussion of the Results

The statistic analysis showed that the respondents apologized to each other for some reason three hundred fifty-two times (352), of which John apologized one hundred eighty four times (184), and his wife a hundred and sixty-eight times (168). This data was our very interesting because we did not expect this kind of distribution of forms since the previous researches showed that this speech act is mainly typical for female speakers.

On the other hand, the data collected by the study has showed that Kate Gosselin more often used those forms of
apologising (106 form 168 or 63.09%) by which she tried to justify and explain the actions which caused the misunderstanding:

![Pie chart showing distribution of speech acts]

Figure 2: General distribution of speech act of apology used by Kate Gosselin in comparison to the parameter *gender*

Table 2: Distribution of the forms of apologies used by the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Jon</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Kate</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am so/terribly/awfully/ very sorry</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>29.89</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>48.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.95</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn't mean/ want to...</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>But</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>184</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>168</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the case study showed that Kate Gosselin used to a higher degree more tentative forms such as the modal verb *could*, lexeme *please* as well as the structure *I am so/terribly/awfully/ very sorry* and the modal *will*, which was mainly used in the interrogative forms used for asking the correspondent whether he was willing to overcome the misunderstanding. On the other hand, the results show that Jon used the modal verbs *can* and *must* as well as the *but* forms (which was used only twice by his wife) as well as the structure *I didn't mean/ want to...*. The reason for this can be found in a perpetual women's fear of rejection if she commits the FTA as well as the wish to be approved and accepted by the society (Lakoff, 2004, 40). Although the obtained results proved the hypothesis, they can only be generalized when perceived with already obtained results provided by other authors (Coates, 2004; Holmes, 1995).

7. Instead of Conclusion- Looking to the Future

Since the beginning of the 21st century, the linguistic studies have moved from the studies of the purely language forms to the sociolinguistics. Numerous researches have been analyzing spoken or written language in order to understand how social factors, such as belonging to a certain social class, education and *gender* affect everyday communication. There is also an increasing need to show the similarities and differences between male and female speakers which result in “improving understanding of the variety of ways gender is manifested linguistically in different communities” (Coates, 221). For this reason we agree with the authors (Cameron & Kulick, 2003; Coates, 2004; Jones, 2012) who believe that this branch of linguistic studies will continue developing with a special emphasis on bisexual, gay and lesbian speakers.
References


Holmes (1993) Coates
Dominant Value Patterns in the Montenegrin Society

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Abstract

Social value orientations and normative patterns within which individuals and groups are socialized are of vital importance for the sociological analysis of a society. Human behaviour is shaped, regulated and directed around these cultural imperatives, as well as are people’s interpersonal relations, their actions and creativity. People’s values influence their selection of desirable goals; they direct and design human actions and behaviours. Setting off from this definition of values, we have tried to identify the specificities of value patterns in the Montenegrin post-socialist period, during which numerous changes have taken place in all spheres of social life. This is considered as particularly important, having in mind that social values determine the level of acceptability of a certain social system. Numerous studies we have referred to indicate that the national culture of this area is characterized by a unique combination of high power distance, collectivism, dominant “feminine” values and high uncertainty avoidance. These characteristics must have profound effect on the structures and processes in various institutions and organizations, but also on the model of economic development, as well as the overall social relations.

Keywords: value, value orientations, individualism, collectivism, high power distance

1. Dominantni Vrijednosni Obrasci Crnogorskog Društva

Za sociološku spoznaju jednog društva veoma su važni sklopovi vrijednosnih orijentacija i normativnih obrazaca u okviru kojih se socijalizuju pojedinci i grupe, na osnovu kojih se, kao kulturnih imperativa, uobičava, uređuje i usmjerava ljudsko ponašanje, međudnosi, djelovanje, stvaralaštvo. Vrijednosti nesumljivo utiču na izbor poželjnih ciljeva, one usmjeravaju i osmišljavaju djeljanje i ponašanje. Polazeći od ovakvog određena vrijednosti nastojali smo utvrditi šta je to specifično za vrijednosne obrasce crnogorskog društva u postsocijalističkom periodu, periodu koji obiluje promjenama u svim aspektima društvenog života. To posebno smatramo značajnim s obzirom da vrijednosti definišu i poželjnost određenog tipa društvenog sistema.

Brojna istraživanja koja ovdje navodimo pokazuju da nacionalnu kulturu ovog prostora karakteriše jedinstvena kombinacija visoke distance moći, izraženog kolektivizma, dominanatnih “ženskih” vrijednosti i visokog izbjegavanja rizika. Navedene osobenosti se moraju odraziti ne samo na strukture i procese u pojedinim institucijama i organizacijama, nego i na model privrednog razvoja, pa i na ukupne društvene odnose.


It is well known that a society is a complex entity composed of many interrelated elements that need to be reconciled. This should especially be kept in mind when it comes to the transformation of post-socialist societies, where the focus is mainly placed on the economic and political aspects, while whatever takes place in terms of values and value orientations, more broadly, whatever takes place at the level of cultural patterns is neglected.

When it comes to the study of the nature and characteristics of a society, besides the economic and political framework, it is necessary, to include into the analysis a cultural context which is composed of a series of elements. Using the cultural context we can more fully explain the functioning of a society. Each individual society has its own features, and in order to understand the events taking place in it, we should set off from its cultural and historical particularities. The cultural patterns enable us to uncover the different relationships existing between social groups/individuals and systems of needs and values, as well as to explain their goals and motivations. Since the concept
of culture has a very broad meaning, it is necessary to first adapt its notion to the context in which it is used. Sociologists have used the term culture in many different ways\(^1\), including the everyday use of the term in the sense of high culture. From the analytical point of view, the most common approach to culture is as to a value system. From this perspective, the sociological analysis need always strive to outline those particular values which are deeply rooted within the given societies. “Values could be defined as the long-lasting markedly positive relationships with certain objects which we consider important and in the realisation of which we invest our best endeavours” (Rot, 1973: 9). In addition to the values, the term value orientation is frequently used in the literature. Value orientations can be differentiated from values in that they are understood as a set of related values which are complementary to the activities of individuals and groups, and represent “some of the most important dispositions which significantly determine a number of specific attitudes and influence the behaviours of individuals and groups” (Kuzmanović, 1995: 151).

A value orientation does not occur instantaneously and does not change from situation to situation, but has a historical character. It is constituted through a number of historical epochs. Once established, a value orientation does not change easily, i.e. a current change in social circumstances does not mean that the same change would be applied to a value system. The constitution of a value orientation is a long-lasting process and it takes as long for it to change. However, this does not mean that it is given once for all; it is a dynamic category whose contents are likely to change. Value orientations are deep-rooted in the structure of a society. They are a product and an integral part of the structure, at the same time contributing to its production and affecting its character. As already mentioned, a value system greatly influences the behaviour and attitudes of individuals, that is, people’s behaviours and attitudes do not appear of their own accord, but have their roots in a certain system of values which prevails in a society.

Therefore, one of the main features of values is their stability that allows us to predict the future social behaviours and movements, even more successfully than we would be able to do based on the knowledge of some other dispositions and conditions. However, as we have already pointed out, stability is not an absolute value; the social and personal development would not be possible if the values were fixed, on the other hand, social stability would not be sustainable if the values were apt to change. This means that the values are only relatively stable and as such they enable us better predictability in comparison to other tools. This means that people’s behaviours can best be predicted once we know their goals, what they consider important and desirable, what they appreciate, just like social trends that depend on people’s will can probably be predicted to a great extent, especially for the short-term periods and once we are familiar with the system of population’s common values (Pantić, 2003).

Analysing the cultural patterns of our society, we have primarily relied upon Hofstede’s\(^2\) framework. If in Hofstede’s terms we determine culture as a “mental software” (Katuranić, 2004) which programmes the behaviours of members of a community at various stages of their development and makes them different from other people and if we take the value orientations as culture’s central point, it is quite reasonable to expect that cultural constants will be a part of the values’ domain and will affect the spirit of the time and place, i.e. the spirit of a society. Hofstede believes that values are the key content of culture and a source of fundamental differences between cultures. After several stages of research, he concluded that cultures differ with respect to four basic dimensions: power distance, individualism and collectivism, “masculine” versus “feminine” traits and uncertainty avoidance. He later added a fifth dimension which refers to the distinction between national cultures with regard to short-term or long-term life orientations of their members. These dimensions are, as emphasized by N. Janićijević (2014) two-sided matrices by means of which each national culture can be positioned along a continuum between the two extremes of each of the dimensions. Thanks to this methodology, Hofstede was able to quantify each national culture for each of the dimensions. To every national culture he assigned an index which indicates its position on each of the cultural dimensions matrices.

Power distance indicates the extent to which a society accepts the fact that the power in institutions and organizations is distributed unevenly among individuals. It tells us about how hierarchy works, what is considered to be a normal process of decision making. The question is whether one should only follow the person at the top, or whether it is common for people in leadership positions to treat their subordinates as equals. Thus, in the societies and organizations with high power distance centralization is socially more acceptable, while decentralization is more common in the environments dominated by low power distance.

Hofstede’s research indicates that the former Yugoslavia is characterised by a high power distance (76 index

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1 In the 1950s Kroeber and Kluckhohn collected 257 definitions which determined the notion of culture (Kale in Jeknić, 2006).

2 Geert Hofstede is a Dutch social psychologist, the author of one of the most influential studies on how the culture influences people’s values at the work place. The study is based around research on cultural differences carried out in the 1960’s and 1970’s amongst the staff of IBM, a famous company employing more than 116,000 people in 40 different countries, including the countries of former Yugoslavia.

~ 206 ~
points), meaning that people in this area believe that power should not be equally distributed amongst people, i.e. that there are people in power and those who carry out their orders. Our national culture is one of those with a very large power distance. Such understanding is the basis of authoritarianism, a term which is directly associated with power relations in a society.

Authoritarianism is a term with several meanings: it can be understood as a psychological trait inherent to certain personality types, but can also denote a value orientation and in this sense the term has a sociological connotation. In any case, the sociological and psychological connotations of the term are mutually complementary and are highly and significantly associated with other social traits. Authoritarianism can be viewed in two ways: on the one hand, it is marked as a recognition and idealization of the principles of hierarchy and submission to those who are in positions of higher formal rank; on the other hand it denotes the dominance over those in lower positions and expectation of their obedience. It is a stabilized and permanent display of such behaviour with the conviction that it is natural, proper and socially desirable (Kuzmanović, 2010).

Over a period of time a number of studies on authoritarianism have been done in our region and all of them suggest that authoritarianism is a relatively tenacious feature of the modern cultural-historical context. They also indicate that authoritarianism is significantly associated with numerous value orientations that belong to the domain of patriarchal traditionalism and are very much present as a social reality in the contemporary domestic context. Moreover, it can be argued that the area of the Western Balkans, to which Montenegro as well as the growing number of states stemming from the former Yugoslavia belong, has recently been the zone with the highest measured authoritarianism in Europe (Miladinović, 2013). Therefore, it is not surprising that almost three quarters of respondents in Montenegro agree that the “Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn” (74.5%), while there is slightly less agreement with the statement “without a leader, every nation is like a man without a head” (58.9%) (Krivokapić, 2014). However, when it comes to the prominent authoritarianism of the people living in this area, it is necessary to emphasize that it should not be understood as a personality trait in terms of Adorno et al., but as the norms and patterns of behaviour that an individual adopts from the cultural community in which he/she lives (Rot and Havelka, 1973). So, it is above all an adoption of a pattern of behaviours, beliefs and values characteristic of the patriarchal culture in which the individual is socialized, which is apparently still a dominant cultural pattern in Montenegro.

Individualism/collectivism is the next dimension considered by Hofstede while analysing individual cultures. Individualism applies to those societies in which the ties between individuals are “loose”. The individual is expected to take care of oneself and one’s immediate family as well as to control one’s destiny. Identity is, therefore, rooted in the individuum, it is of prominent individualistic orientation, or orientation towards oneself, i.e. of the pronounced “I” consciousness. Collectivism, on the other hand, implies a stronger social structure in which each individual is entitled to being taken care of by the community, while he/she should in return show his/her full loyalty to the group. People are from their birth integrated by socialization into the solid cohesive groups, and their identity is rooted in the social system of a pronounced “we” consciousness which is a source of identity, but also favouritism, loyalty and other related phenomena. The question of the relationship between the individual and the collective is therefore dealt with by means of the two terms: individualism or collectivism. Individualism thus favours the individual and emphasizes autonomy of the individual, while collectivism favours the group and emphasizes conformity.

The dimension of individualism/collectivism is considered to be one of the most important in understanding the differences between cultures, especially between Western and Eastern cultures. Some authors (Triandis, 1999) point out that the majority of world’s population (70%) actually lives in collectivist cultures, from which it follows that individualism is characteristic exclusively of the Western perspectives on life. This is where the fundamental differences in the social structures of the Eastern and Western cultures come from.

Analysing this dimension of culture in our society, we can conclude that there is a predominance of collective identification, which is why it can be estimated that there is more collective culture than individualism in such an environment. This is corroborated by the results obtained by Hofstede according to which the former Yugoslav region is characterized by low individualism measured by only 27 index points. In some other studies the authors have come to similar results (Gredelj, 1994, Dukanovic-Bešić, 2000). Latest research of value orientations in Montenegro (Krivokapić, 2014) shows that the collectivist value patterns in this region are still dominant. This is confirmed by the fact that 67.8% of people are convinced that “The state should be responsible for the welfare of its citizens, much less (37.6%) that “Citizens should be responsible for their own welfare.” The following further shows the prevailing collectivist value-orientation of Montenegrin citizens: the statement “the number of state-owned enterprises must be increased” is

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supported by 62.4% of respondents, while a much smaller number believes that “we should increase the number of private companies” (44.5%). The representation of this value may best be demonstrated by the fact that 72.6% of the respondents agree with the attitude: “One of the main goals in my life is to make my parents proud.”

Collectivism with large power distance is easily converted into a dependency relationship of the individual to the highest authority in the community. It makes a member of the group lose his/her initiative and he/she becomes a mere follower of the supreme authority, regardless of whether this is the father of the family, the head of the company, or the president of a political party or a state.

The social implications of male and female genders are reflected onto the dimension of national culture called “masculine” versus “feminine” values (masculinity-femininity) and are included by Hofstede into his analytical framework. Each national culture is positioned along a two-sided dimension as a culture with predominantly “masculine” or predominantly “feminine” values. “Masculine - feminine” value dimensions of a national culture treat the relationship of a society to doing and being. The cultures whose prevailing values are: activity, work, achievement, results, determination, aggressiveness and control of emotions, generally perceived as “masculine” characteristics, can be marked as predominantly “masculine” national cultures. These are the so called “doing” cultures, where one’s value is determined by the results of his/her efforts. Most often, a person’s value is determined on the basis of his/her ability to earn money and his/her material well-being. Caring for others is not the focus of the members of this culture. The “feminine” national cultures are those dominated by such values as human relations, quality of life, display of emotions, balance and harmony. As these values are mainly attributed to women, the national cultures dominated by such values are marked as “feminine”. These are the “being” cultures in which people’s value is proved by their very existence and their role within the social network. These cultures prefer establishment of good connections and relations with the social environment (Janičijević, 2014).

According to Hofstede’s study, our society is one of those with prevailingly “feminine” values (index of 21 on a scale of 1-fully “feminine” values to 100 fully “masculine” values). The members of the cultural heritage in this part of the world consider the social world as most important and give it precedence over the material. The main objective and the value indicators are the social position and status, relations between people, relationships and friendships, not the results of work or the wealth acquisition resulting from it.

Uncertainty avoidance, as the next dimension of Hofstede’s framework, shows the extent to which a society feels uncertainty as a threat, whereby trying to avoid it, rules or other means are created in order to “ensure” security. Uncertainty avoidance is associated with the willingness of people to take risks, i.e. the extent to which people want their behaviours and the behaviours of others to follows certain predictable patterns in unfamiliar situations. The cultures which avoid uncertainty typically have more difficulty in introducing changes. The cultures whose members are more accepting of risk are more open to experiencing other cultures and more readily accept changes in all spheres. So, in some societies changes, uncertainty, and the unknown are treated as danger and are avoided whenever it is possible. Other societies embrace the change, uncertainty and the unknown and treat them as a new opportunity.

Hofstede has found a high degree of uncertainty avoidance in our society - the index of about 88 (on a scale of 1 to 100). According to this scale, our culture is one of the national cultures with the highest degree of uncertainty avoidance in the world. This implies that people display a great resistance to change, aversion to risk and uncertainty. Under the conditions of uncertainty or ambiguity, people of this region feel uncomfortable. They prefer everything to be uniform and standard.

People are not exclusively rational beings whose behaviour is determined solely on the basis of objective information, but social beings whose behaviour is derived from their own beliefs and values, and on the basis of which they construct a picture of reality and set the rules of behaviour within that reality. Through its assumptions and values a national culture determines the way in which its members interpret the reality that surrounds them, as well as the manner in which they act in such a reality.

Hofstede’s research as well as numerous other studies we have here cited indicate that the national culture of this area is characterized by a unique combination of high power distance, collectivism, dominant “feminine” values and high uncertainty aversion. The above peculiarities must have profound effect not only on the structures and processes in certain institutions and organizations, but also on the model of economic development, as well as the overall social relations.
References

Cultural Markedness and Strategies for Translating Idiomatic Expressions in the Epic Poem “The Mountain Wreath” into English

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the types of translation strategies used in rendering idiomatic expressions found in the epic poem ’The Mountain Wreath’ into English. It seeks to explore their representation and frequency of usage, as well as the extent to which the choice of the strategy depends on cultural markedness of idiomatic units. The research is done based on the Baker’s translation model, which is for the purposes of the present study modified to include two additional strategies - apart from the standard ones, i.e. using an idiom of similar meaning and form, using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form, translation by paraphrase, and translation by omission, it also incorporates loan translation (calque) and single word matches. Upon conducting both qualitative and quantitative analysis it has been concluded that loan translation and single word matches/translation by omission were the most and the least common strategies, with the frequencies of 31.94% and 1.39%, respectively. Results also suggest that the application of translation strategies involving use of idioms appears to be mostly restricted to the items expressing universal as opposed to culture-specific concepts. On the basis of these findings the paper argues that cultural markedness of idiomatic expressions could be considered as one of the most important factors behind the choice of translation strategies.

Keywords: idioms, idiomatic expressions (units), translation of idioms, translation strategies, cultural markedness.

1. Introduction

Translation is a work that takes a text and transposes it into another culture.” Susan Bassnet (1991)

The process of rendering idiomatic expressions into another language is considered to be one of the most difficult tasks and major challenges in translation. The difficulty of finding adequate inter-lingual idiomatic pairs arises from the fact that idiomatic expressions often carry certain stylistic, expressive and cultural connotations that are not easily transferred between languages. In other words, finding the exact semantic equivalents is difficult for manifold reasons: it involves rendering all of the various aspects of idiomatic meaning into the target language. Yet, however diverse the problems inherent in translation of idioms may be, they could be classified into two major categories: the problems related to identification and the problems related to the choice of equivalents. It goes without saying that neither of these problems could be handled without having profound knowledge of the languages involved. Apart from linguistic knowledge, a translator should also have the knowledge of extra-linguistic context given the fact that majority of idioms are culture-specific and inextricably linked to the history, customs, rites and beliefs of a certain community. It is precisely that cultural markedness or “peculiarity” that makes idioms difficult to translate, or even untranslatable at times. As Schwarz (2003) points out, “although more and more concepts are shared and understood between different cultures, there are still many terms and expressions which reflect the morals and values of a particular culture and have no true equivalent in TL (target language) […] and to deal with these cultural terms successfully a translator has to be not only bilingual, but also bi-cultural.” (p.1)

In regards to a lack of idiomatic equivalence in general, Mona Baker (1992) writes that “different languages express meanings using different linguistic means such as fixed expressions, idioms, words, etc and it is very hard to find an equivalent of the same meaning and form in the target language” (p.68). Yet, the degree of equivalence between idioms in SL (source language) and TL (target language) varies depending on the type of relationship between the languages: the more genetically distant the two languages and the more different the cultural context and conventions they reflect, the lesser the degree of idiomatic equivalence. Different types of equivalence between idioms in SL and TL, according to Gläser (as cited in Valero-Garcés, 1997), include:

1. Total equivalence
2. Partial equivalence
3. Non-equivalence
4. Apparent equivalence (“false friends”) (p. 36).
In the same vein, Mona Baker (1992) distinguishes between the following categories/degrees of equivalence:

1. An idiom or fixed expression may have no equivalent in the target language.
2. An idiom or fixed expression may have a similar counterpart in the target language, but its context of use may be different.
3. An idiom may be used in the source text in both its literal and idiomatic senses at the same time.
4. The very convention of using idioms in written discourse, the contexts in which they can be used, and their frequency of use may be different in the source and target languages. (p. 65-71)

By establishing these categories of equivalence, Baker (1992) also points out to various factors that should be taken into consideration while translating idioms: appropriateness in a certain context, differences in denotative and connotative meanings, frequency of usage etc. As Valero-Garcés (1997) puts it “it is not only a question of whether an idiom with similar meaning is available in the TL; other factors include the way in which the idiom constituents may be manipulated in the ST, or the appropriateness or inappropriateness of using idioms in a given register in the TL, as well as the content and receptor of the TT.” (p. 36)

2. Defining Idioms: Theoretical Issues

“Phraseology is a field bedeviled by the proliferation of terms and by the conflicting uses of the same term.” Cowie (1998, p. 210)

Despite the increasing amount of research and a substantial body of work amassed in the field of phraseology during the past half-century, no consensus has yet emerged concerning its terminology, definitions and scope. Due to this lack of consensus there is a multitude of terms used to refer to the basic unit of phraseology: phraseological units (Ginzburg et al. 1979, Gläser, 1986) phraseologisms (Gries, 2008) word combinations (Cowie, 1998), phrasal lexemes (Lipka 1991, Moon 1998) multi-word expressions and idioms (Fernando 1996), idioms (Altenberg 1998), prefabricated patterns (Granger 1998), fixed expressions (Alexander 1978, Fillmore & Atkins 1994), phraseological collocations and structural frames (Moon 1998), multiword units (Fellbaum 2007). In this paper we will use the term idiom/idiomatic expression to refer to conventionalized, expressive multiword units whose meaning is different from the meaning conveyed by their constituents. As for the definitions, some of the most widely cited are the following:

- “idioms are frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form and often carry meanings which can not be deduced from their individual components”. (Baker, 1992, p.63)
- “we can say that an idiom is a number of words which [when they are] taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the idiom when they stand alone”. (McMordiew, 1983, p. 4)
- “an idiom is a term used in grammar and lexicology to refer to a sequence of words which are semantically or syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit. From a semantic viewpoint, the meaning of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole. From a syntactic viewpoint, the words do not often permit the usual variability they display in other contexts ...” (Crystal, 1991, p. 170)

Stressing the need for a clear-cut and generally agreed-upon definition, Gries (2008) tries to identify crucial dimensions/defining parameters of idiomatic expressions (to which he refers as phraseologisms):

- (i) the nature of the elements involved in a phraseologism;
- (ii) the number of elements involved in a phraseologism;
- (iii) the number of times an expression must be observed before it counts as a phraseologism;
- (iv) the permissible distance between the elements involved in a phraseologism;
- (v) the degree of lexical and syntactic flexibility of the elements involved;
- (vi) the role that semantic unity and semantic non-compositionality / non-predictability play in the definition. (Gries, 2008, p.4)

According to given criteria, he defines a phraseologism “as the co-occurrence of a form or a lemma of a lexical item and one or more additional linguistic elements of various kinds which functions as one semantic unit in a clause or sentence and whose frequency of co-occurrence is larger than expected on the basis of chance”. (Gries, 2008, p.5)

3. Idiom Translation Strategies

Having discussed the major areas of difficulties related to idiomatic translation, we will now focus on the problem-solving
mechanisms/strategies as suggested by Mona Baker (1992). In her book “In other words”, she identifies four categories of translation strategies:

1) Using an idiom of similar meaning and form
2) Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form
3) Translation by paraphrase
4) Translation by omission (Baker, 1992, pp. 71-78).

The first strategy proposed by Baker involves the use of idiomatic counterparts in TL that match the SL expressions both in meaning and in form. In other words, these inter-lingual idiomatic pairs, often called “the equivalents” in Russian linguistics, have similar denotative and connotative meanings:

**Montenegrin:** svijetlo na kraju tunela
**English:** (the) light at the end of the tunnel

The second strategy differs from the first one according to the degree of equivalence between the inter-lingual idiomatic pairs. In this case idioms have the same (or similar) connotative meaning but they are comprised of different lexical elements and are also referred to as “the analogues”:

**Montenegrin:** nositi drva u šumu
**English:** carry coals to Newcastle

The third strategy—translation by paraphrase is usually applied when no appropriate idiomatic equivalent can be found in the TL. Idioms are therefore not rendered into TL as idioms, but semantic equivalence is still reached:

**Montenegrin:** držati se čega kao pijan plota
**English:** to keep insisting on something

As it is clear from its name, the last strategy implies omission of idiomatic units from the text in the TL. According to Baker (1992) it is only acceptable if there is “no close match in the target language, the meaning cannot be paraphrased or for stylistic reasons” (p.77). However, she thinks that this should be translator’s “last resort” and that such omission should be compensated by inserting idioms elsewhere in the text “to make up for any loss of meaning, emotional force or stylistic effect which may not be possible to produce directly at a given point in the target text” (Baker, 1992, p.78).

For the purposes of the present study Baker’s translation model was modified to include two additional strategies—loan translation (calque) and single word matches. Upon analyzing translation equivalents of IE (idiomatic expressions) found in the poem, we noticed how translators often chose to keep as close to the original text as possible, producing numerous calques in the process (see examples (5), (7), etc.). The other strategy simply reflects the fact that the same concept could be expressed by idiomatic unit in the one and lexical unit in the other language: **Montenegrin:** zapaliti
**English:** set on fire

4. **“The Mountain Wreath” and the Analysis of Translation Strategies Applied**

The analytical part of this paper is based on the epic poem “The Mountain Wreath” and the translations into English made by James Wiles, Vasa Mihailović and Dane Mrkić. In order to gain a better insight into the structure of translation equivalents and the respective strategies applied, we will classify idiomatic expressions found in the poem into four categories according to formal and semantic criteria. This in turn will enable us to examine the differences between the categories, i.e. to ascertain whether and to what extent the choice of translation strategies depends on the semantic and grammatical makeup of idiomatic expressions. Present typology of IE found in the poem includes the following categories:

1. (pure) idioms;
2. idiomatic similes;
3. proverbs and sayings;
4. locutions.

4.1 (Pure) idioms

Results obtained within the category of pure idioms indicate that there are two main factors influencing the choice of translation strategies: cultural markedeness as opposed to “universal character” and the degree of semantic opacity. The IE of universal character—originating from the Bible, classical languages or literature etc. and thus present in majority of languages, were rendered into TL as idioms (mostly of similar meaning and similar form):  

(1) Krst nositi vama je sudeno (TMW: 2348) / Your destiny is to bear the Cross (Mihailović: 2448) / It is your lot and call to bear the Cross (Wiles: 2466) / To bear the Cross is your destiny. (Mrkić: 2348)

As opposed to that, there were no instances of idiom-to-idiom translation found for culture-specific idioms. Such idioms were mostly translated word-for-word - literally (2) /calquing (3) or by paraphrase (5):
Figure 1. Distribution of translation strategies within the category of pure idioms

4.2 Idiomatic similes

Similes were successfully translated into TL despite the fact that some available idiomatic equivalents were not used. Rather than being focused on idiomatic pairs, translators were seeking semantic equivalence. The choice of translation strategies within the dichotomy universal/culture specific IE remains almost the same as it was within the category of pure idioms. The sole example of “universal” simile sladak kao cukar was rendered into TL as idiom (sweet as sugar). Culture-specific similes were generally translated word-for-word (calquing) (5), yet there are examples of literal translation as well (6):

(7) I ja plačem ka malo dijete. (1301: TMW)/ and I, too, was weeping like an infant. (Mihailović:1341)/ I wept – shed tears just like a child. (Wiles: 1361)/ And I too wept like a little child. (Mrkić: 1301)

(8) ka pijan plota kada se prihvati. (TMW: 2379)/ As a drunk holds onto the railing. (Mihailović: 2379)/ like a drunk man holding onto the fence. (Mihailović: 2479)/ As men in cups do hold the hedge along. (Wiles: 2498).
Figure 2. Distribution of translation strategies within the category of idiomatic similes

4.3 Proverbs and sayings

Unlike the two previous categories where cultural markedness and/or semantic opacity were major factors contributing to the choice of strategies, proverbs and sayings illustrate the influence authorial modifications of conventional idioms may have on the process of translation.

Given that idiomatic pairs exist for each of the proverbs and sayings analyzed, we draw conclusion that it was precisely unsuccessful interpretation of IE in the SL that determined the choice of strategies. In other words, when faced with IE that appear in the form that is not “institutionalized” (found in the dictionaries) translators might have some problems to understand and subsequently translate them. Except for the case of literal translation of the proverb vrana vrani oči ne izvadi (English equivalent hawk will not pluck hawks’ eyes) other IE were mainly transferred into TL as calques:

(9) na muci se poznaju junaci! (TMW: 136) / In adversity you recognize the heroes (Mrkić: 137) / adversity shows who is the hero (Mihailović: 175) / Adversity is e’er the hero’s school! (Wiles: 170).

Figure 3. Distribution of translation strategies within the category of proverbs and sayings

4.4 Locutions

Given that the analyzed examples of locutions don’t fall into a category of language and culture specific expressions, the prevalence of idiom-to-idiom translation strategies was expected. Results of the analysis show that there is no significant difference between observed and expected prevalence: locutions were mainly rendered into TL as idioms (God willing, Dear Lord, etc.) with only a few cases of calques and paraphrased expressions. There is, however, a case of translation by omission:

(10) Ne boj mi se, ako Bog da, đedo! (TMW: 2538)/ Grandsire, fear not for me, by God’s good will! (Wiles: 2675)/ Fear

3 Idiomatic pair in English: Adversity is the touchstone of virtue.
not for me, by God's good will, granddad! (Mihailović: 2642)/ Do not fear for me, old father (Mrkić: 2538).

Figure 4. Distribution of translation strategies within the category of locutions

5. Conclusion

The present research was an attempt to examine idiom translation strategies in English translations of the poem “The Mountain Wreath”. The primary focus was on determining the impact that cultural markedness of IE makes on the choice of translation strategies. The analysis performed led to the following conclusions:

- the major factors contributing to the choice of strategies were cultural markedness, semantic opacity and the use of authorial modifications of IE.
- the translators wanted to keep as close as possible to the original text, so loan translation (calque) appears to be the prevalent strategy when it comes to culture-specific IE.
- IE of universal character were mainly translated by using one of the two idiom-to-idiom translation strategies.
- loan translation and single word matches/translation by omission were the most and the least common strategies overall, with the frequencies of 31.94% and 1.39%, respectively.

Figure 5. Distribution of idiom translation strategies in the poem “The Mountain Wreath”
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Position of Temporal Adverbs in Police Reports in English

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Abstract

The sequence subject followed by a temporal adverb is a distinctive feature of police written discourse. This pattern commonly occurs with first, second and third person subjects and with adverbs indicating temporal location in the past, “then”, “thereafter” and “subsequently”. The location of a temporal adverb immediately after the subject in general conversational English would be a marked selection grammatically, and this markedness may be beneficial for the verification of authenticity of statements given by suspects and witnesses during or after police interrogations. There were multiple instances of statements being allegedly given by the suspects themselves, without any kind of police intervention, in which a suspect gives his account of different events using this particular way of temporal adverb placement. The statements containing this marked language choice immediately raise doubts regarding the overall veracity of a confession to a crime.

1. Introduction

Police discourse is closely linked with legal language regarding its overly bureaucratic nature distinguished by the high level of formality, complex syntax, use of archaisms and numerous terms with specific legal meaning different from the one a word or phrase has in its everyday usage. The aim of this research is the expansion of the boundaries of forensic linguistics, a young and prosperous discipline with gaining popularity and application in the contemporary world. Recent studies (such as those carried out by Janet Cotteril, 2007; Roger W. Shuy, 1998, 2005; Frances Rock, 2008; Georgina Heydon, 2005 and John Gibbons, 1994) dealt with different discourse techniques used by police officers during their interviews with suspects or witnesses, the use of different conversational strategies, the misuse of power related to unequal positions of the participants in the context of police interviews and misunderstandings during interactions between police officers and people of non-English speaking background which can have serious implications on the outcome of interviews.

No extensive research of the linguistic peculiarities of written police discourse in English has been done until today. Systematic description of the differences between police discourse and general usage, from grammatical, pragmatic and stylistic perspectives can be significant for further development of forensic linguistics as well as for linguistics in general.

McMenamin (1993: xiii) claims that “author-specific linguistic patterns are present in unique combinations in the styles of every writer, and these underlying patterns can be objectively described and often measured by careful observation and analysis, making author identification possible in many cases.” Spelling, morphology, syntax, punctuation, word choice and abbreviations provide the features that linguists usually examine and compare. It is most common to compare documents of known authorship with documents whose authorship is in some way disputed. No single feature of style is sufficient to make a definite judgment, but a clustering of similar or different features or both can lead to the conclusion that it is likely that a given person wrote or did not write a particular text. Stylistic analysis is not infallible, of course, and, as Shuy (Shuy, 1998: 95) points out, „the best a linguist can do is provide an estimate based on experience and factual knowledge of the likelihood of his or her opinion being accurate”.

The study of temporal adverb placement in police written discourse represents a part of a more extensive research of linguistic features of police discourse, primarily the language of police reports and its grammatical and lexical features which define it in terms of specific type of discourse and distinguish it from the general language used in everyday communication. The position of temporal adverbs and the occurrence of specific patterns and their frequency have been compared to the data obtained from the large corpora of English such as BNC or The Bank of English.

2. Placement of the Temporal Adverb “Then” in Police Reports

In this paper we will focus on placement of temporal adverbs in police discourse giving special attention to the position of the adverbial „then” and the corresponding adverbials „thereafter” and „subsequently” in the context of written police
reports which represent personal experience narratives in which a police officer describes a series of events that happened before, during or after his visit to a crime scene.

The most distinguishable syntactic feature as far as police discourse is concerned appears to be the position of temporal adverb then which is usually found immediately after the subject, that is in the medial position, between the subject and the verb. The specific usage of this adverb can be shown by comparing our corpus findings with written and spoken corpora of Bank of English.

We may first examine the usage of the sequence of first person pronoun followed by „then“ (I then). In the corpus of 104 police reports in English, we have found 198 occurrence of then of which 89 cases of then were preceded by the first person pronoun. There are no examples of different word order that represent the words of a police officer. The only two instances of different positioning represent the words spoken by a suspect being interviewed in the police station. However, according to a research conducted by Fox in 1993, in the written corpus of Bank of English there were 235 then I and only 24 I then; in the spoken corpus there were 202 then I and only 9 I then.

The striking difference between the data obtained from the police reports and those in general corpora in terms of this particular structure clearly shows which is the more common one in general usage and confirms that this specific type of adverb positioning is a distinctive feature of police written discourse. Apart from the first person pronoun, other personal pronouns or nouns can be found in the same position as seen in the following passage taken from a police report:

1) I explained that we had a search warrant to search the room and I then entered the room. I then heard Federal Agent NAME read and explain the search warrant to her. He then handed ACCUSED NAME a copy of the search warrant and a copy of the occupier's rights. I then heard Federal Agent NAME have a conversation with ACCUSED NAME during which Taylor was cautioned. That conversation was tape recorded.

A short time later, I had a conversation with ACCUSED NAME. During that conversation ACCUSED NAME informed me that she had some ecstasy tablets in her handbag. I then saw Federal Agent NAME commence a search of the handbag. ACCUSED NAME then reached inside the handbag and removed a white rubber glove, which contained a number of white tablets. I then heard Federal NAME have a further conversation with Taylor in relation to the tablets. Federal Agent NAME then commenced to count the tablets.

The analysis shows that the adverb “then” is placed immediately after the subject in 175 out of 198 citations from our corpus. In 103 instances it is preceded by a personal pronoun and in 33 instances by a noun, noun phrase or personal name as well as relative pronouns “which” or “where”. Also, we have found 37 citations of the adverb “then” placed between an auxiliary verb (be, have and will) and the lexical verb (the procedure is then to alert, arrangements were then made, I was then aware, we’ll then be escorting you, I have then observed etc.) which also represent the medial position of this adverb. There is only one example of final position of this adverb in the whole corpus (I tried to make a sensible decision then), and 22 instances of the initial position of this adverb in a clause which represent, in most cases, the language of a person being interviewed. In a few cases, when they actually represent the language of a police officer, there is usually a combination of the initial and medial position in two conjoined clauses in the same sentence, like in the following examples:

2) The driver of that vehicle then reversed backwards and then drove straight on bearing right onto King Street, Oldham.

3) I then signed the property seizure record and then witnessed her sign that record. I then handed her a copy of both pages.

The peculiarity of this kind of adverb positioning would certainly not be so interesting if this feature were only found in police reports. However, as a famous forensic linguist Malcolm Coulthard noted, the structure is also found in what are said to be ‘full, unaltered and accurate’ records of words spoken by accused or witnesses. Coulthard examined the confession of Derek Bentley which was claimed by the prosecution to be a “verbatim record of dictated monologue”. He showed that certain patterns, such as the frequency of the word “then” and the use of “then” after the grammatical subject were not consistent with Bentley’s use of language (i.e. his idiolect), as demonstrated in his court testimony. Coulthard concluded that these patterns matched better the recorded testimony of the policemen involved in the process of taking Bentley’s statement. Here is an excerpt from Derek Bentley’s confession which illustrates the unusual use of „then“:

4. Chris then jumped over and I followed. Chris then climbed up the drainpipe to the roof and I followed. Up to then Chris had not said anything. We both got out on to the flat roof at the top. Then someone in a garden on the opposite side shone a torch up towards us. Chris said: ‘It’s a copper, hide behind here.' We hid behind a shelter arrangement on the roof. We were there waiting for about ten minutes, I did not know he was going to use the gun. A plain clothes man climbed up the drainpipe and on to the roof. The man said: ‘I am a police officer - the place is surrounded.’ He caught hold of me and as we walked away Chris fired. There was nobody
else there at the time. The policeman and I then went round a corner by a door… The policeman then pushed me down the stairs and I did not see any more...

“Then” is a very common adverb in everyday narratives, especially in “simple” narratives such as those produced by children. A person describing a series of events would use it frequently. Also, the fact is that one of the basic requirements of a witness statement is precision about time. However, the medial position of “then” is rare in everyday speech as well as in most written registers. Biber et al. (2002: 372) note that “medial position of a time adverbial indicates that an adverbial has scope over only a particular part of the clause and that the placement of the adverbial highlights its relevance to the following word”. However, as indicated before, the unusual placement of the adverb “then” immediately after the subject is not typical for an ordinary speaker and in Bentley’s case suggests some kind of “intrusion of this specific feature of police register deriving from a professional concern with the accurate recording of temporal sequence”1.

The Bentley case is not the only one showing that statements and confessions given by suspects and witnesses were and might be the subject of possible police abuse. In the confession signed by Timothy John Evans, an illiterate young man who, as well as Bentley, received a posthumous pardon many years after his death, we can also find this marked feature of police register which is even more pervasive than in the Bentley’s case:

5. I then came back upstairs. I then made my baby some food and fed it, then I sat with the baby by the fire for a while in the kitchen. I put the baby to bed later on. I then went back to the kitchen and smoked a cigarette. I then went downstairs when I knew everything was quiet, to Mr. Kitchener's kitchen. I wrapped my wife’s body up in a blanket and a green table cloth from off my kitchen table. I then tied it up with a piece of cord from out of my kitchen cupboard. I then slipped downstairs and opened the back door, then went up and carried my wife’s body down to the wash house and placed it under the sink. I then blocked the front of the sink up with pieces of wood so that the body wouldn’t be seen. I locked the washhouse door I came in and shut the back door behind me. I then slipped back upstairs.

Timothy Evans was accused of murdering his wife and baby in 1953. He was tried and executed in the same year. In the 1960’s his 4 statements were assigned to Jan Svartvik, an expert linguist, who analyzed them and found that the statements contained two different styles i.e. educated written style and informal spoken style. The findings of Svartvik, along with other evidence, proved that Evans could not have dictated the statements which were attributed to him.

Until recently, while taking statements from suspects or witnesses, a police officer would typically ask a series of questions, take notes and then write or type the suspect’s statement, not in the words of the suspect, but in a form and pattern prescribed by the police custom (Olsson, 2008: 4-5). However, in this particular case, both police officers claimed that his statement was given voluntarily and spontaneously and that Evans dictated it without any preliminary questioning unless it was used to remove some ambiguities. However, in circumstances such as these, some sort of editing is practically inevitable, consciously or unconsciously, since it implies the written reproduction of spontaneous spoken statement.

3. Position of Other Temporal / Frequency Adverbs in Police Reports

Apart from “then” meaning “afterwards” we find a very formal pronominal adverb “thereafter” in our corpus of police reports. The meaning of “thereafter” is “afterwards” which corresponds to the particular meaning of the adverbial “then” we examined in this paper. Pronominal adverbs are common in legal language as a means of avoiding repetitions of personal names of participants and other relevant details in legal documents. The most frequent pronominal adverb in BNC corpus is “therefore” which occurs 22,976 times in the corpus of 100 million words while all other pronominal adverbs are very rare. “Thereafter” occurs 93 times in the spoken corpus of 41,5 million words and 63 times in the corpus of newspapers containing 6 million words. However, in our small corpus of police reports which contains around 71,000 words, we find “thereafter” in 31 citation which puts this pronominal adverb among some of the most prominent lexical features of this type of register.

This pronominal adverb is almost always found in post subject position as shown in the excerpt from our corpus of police reports:

6. I thereafter carried out a TYPE check on the accused details which revealed that the accused was currently on bail set at NAME Court on DATE that he must reside at ADDRESS TOWN. I thereafter informed the accused

that there was a current bail condition in force that he must reside at ADDRESS in TOWN... and I thereafter conveyed the accused to POLICE STATION where he was processed through the Custody Management Suite as an arrested person and informed of his rights... The accused was then placed in a Police Cell and I thereafter discussed the incident with RANK NAME (non-witness). I thereafter spoke with witness NAME who had taken the initial phone call.... I thereafter submitted an additional police report (NUMBER refers) in relation to this vandalism.

It is obvious that this particular adverb, same as its more common correspondent, „then,” appears usually immediately after the subject which is not the case with the large corpora mentioned before (i.e. British spoken and British-American newspapers corpora) in both of which we found no examples of such placement of this particular pronominal adverb. „Thereafter” can only be found in initial or final position in a clause as shown in the sample taken from WordBanks Online which indicates its common or typical position in general corpus:

Corpus: preloaded/wbo-english.conf
# Hits: 15
# Query word,[word="(?i)thereafter"|lemma="(?i)thereafter"]within <doc (textform="Newspaper" | textform="Spoken") /> # Random sample 15

There is another formal adverb of the same meaning which occurs regularly in police reports and that is the adverb “subsequently”. As far as written police discourse is concerned, this adverb appears almost always immediately after the subject which is not the case with the large corpora mentioned before (i.e. British spoken and British-American newspapers corpora) in both of which we found no examples of such placement of this particular pronominal adverb. „Thereafter” can only be found in initial or final position in a clause as shown in the sample taken from WordBanks Online which indicates its common or typical position in general corpus:

Corpus: preloaded/wbo-english.conf
# Hits: 15
# Query word,[word="(?i)thereafter"|lemma="(?i)thereafter"]within <doc (textform="Newspaper" | textform="Spoken") />
# Random sample 15

| Brregnews | station near Ahmedabad on February 27th. | Thereafter | Hindu mobs, widely supported by the state |
| Brspok | institute at the beginning of the 1950s. | Thereafter | he rose steadily through the Romanian Communist |
| Brspok | five-hundred pounds a day. For every week | thereafter | three-hundred pounds per day will be paid |
| Cannews | each month and 5.5 cents per kilowatt hour | thereafter | The introduction of smart meters would |
| Oznews | ' king and his effect on people's lives | thereafter | Whether Andrew Wigan (Lehmann chief winemaker |
| Oznews | back in the second quarter and dominated | thereafter | The moral convictions that Christians |
| Times | also playing and recording in Germany | thereafter | The match was played in wet conditions |
| Times | he returned his regular visits to Britain | thereafter | also playing and recording in Germany |
| Times | the first game and forfeiting the second. | Thereafter | he conjured up a display of chess expertise |
| Times | Tham was always associated with Truman | thereafter | there seems no reason to separate them |
| Times | oneself from slumber into instant fluency and, | thereafter | to maintain a conversation, sometimes |
| Times | second knockdown and it restricted his power | thereafter | He may also have been surprised |
| Usnews | 18-year-old rookie in 1964 but turned loose | thereafter | may have paid a heavy price for such |
| Usnews | Season: $12 ($5 ages 60-64) until 6/1, $15 | thereafter | week $10; day $5. Seniors & ages 12 |
| Usnews | poet's career and repeated in variations | thereafter | Like the cells of a developing fetus |

There is another formal adverb of the same meaning which occurs regularly in police reports and that is the adverb “subsequently”. As far as written police discourse is concerned, this adverb appears almost always immediately after the subject, or between the auxiliary and the lexical verb in a clause. There is only one example of its initial position in the corpus. These are some of the examples taken from the police reports which are presented here as a random corpus sample:

- subsequently requested that RANK NUMBER NAME (non-witness)
- subsequently packaged appropriately and arrangements
- subsequently arranged for a statement to be obtained
- subsequently attended at TOWN Police Station and informed
- subsequently arranged for a statement to be obtained
- subsequently processed as an arrested person and afforded
- subsequently made enquiries with the DVLA who have confirmed
- subsequently handed it to PC Smith, for it to be placed in the
- subsequently placed equally amounts of urine in the two vessels

“Then”, “thereafter” and “subsequently” are not the only adverbials found in post-subject position in police reports. Time and frequency adverbs such as “continually“, “again”, “later”, and “at first” are unusually frequent in that position when compared to the data in the Bank of English or BNC. These are some of the examples from our corpus of police reports:

7. Police continually tried to contact the man, who remained unresponsive, for nearly two hours.
8. The officers again asked for consent to search the home and both men refused to consent. After a some more discussion the officers again asked for consent to search and once again were denied.
9. I again directed them to areas which would not block the route an ambulance would take.
10. I later treated this item for latent fingerprints.
11. The suspect at first denied he had anything to do with the incidents, only to admit to his involvement under investigation.

This specific syntactic preference obviously has to do with the constant concern of police officers to state clearly that a particular action happened more than once, or repeatedly. Following the pattern of post-subject adverb placement, a police officer emphasizes his continued and substantial effort to implement the rules and regulations despite of possible resistance of a person or people being suspected of committing a crime or some other unfavorable situations. Sometimes, he or she needs to justify the use of force in the arrest process, after exhausting all available means of a less aggressive approach.

4. Conclusion

The exhaustive analysis of police written reports shows that the post-subject position of temporal adverbials is a pervasive feature of this type of register. Adverbs such as „then“, „thereafter“ and „subsequently“ are predominately found in this particular position in our corpus comprised of 104 British and Australian police reports. Not only the time adverbials but also the adverbs of frequency are commonly placed in medial position in a clause. These adverbs are used emphatically and usually express the tendency of police officers to demonstrate their professionalism and good judgment in following the procedure defined by the rules of the institution they belong to.

Police officers consistently apply the post-subject adverb placement in their written reports and this fact can be helpful for evaluating the authenticity of statements or confessions given by suspects or witnesses in terms of estimating the possibility of police involvement in the process of taking statements and confessions.

References

Role of Spiritual and Moral Perfection of the Beginning of the Person in the Education

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Abstract

the key moments of change in ways of pedagogy and education is examined. A theoretical analysis of the role of spiritual and moral principles as an integral component of the training of students in the educational process of the university was conducted. A system of spiritual and moral perfection of the person by means of art, which should form the basis for lectures and workshops with the students, is proposed.

Keywords: Pedagogy, Education, Psychocompetization`s Model of Training, Spiritual And Moral Potential, Improvement.

1. Introduction

Currently, all progressive thinking mankind, being in the situation need to address global problems, looking for opportunities to resolve them, and the implementation of the path of evolutionary development. Education is, in its superlative degree – higher education – is a prerequisite for the formation of the personality, able to implement the task, and therefore is responsible for evolution. It is necessary that 'the content of education in line psychocompetization process' [Motornaya 2009, p.104]. If it does not, then humanity will evolve blind alley. That's so you should ensure control over the compliance of educational content evolutionary path of development, to apply creativity to change the content of education, the development of teaching forms, methods, tools, and principles that will fit the evolutionary vector of human development. All of the above determines the need in modern teaching practice appears consistent trends update the content of education at all levels, which generate innovative ideas for the transformation of educational programs.

The conditions for the implementation of this ensured that the feature of training at the moment, according to the explication of 'evolutionary models of cone formation' [Motornaya 2010, p.19-20], is a variation of programs and methods of integration of education, which is a reflection of the global and European trends in higher education – and its diversification in its turn, requires the development of performance criteria updating process of teaching, as well as forecasting the development of pedagogy. Natural tendency of all educational programs for the solution of the problem will be the appeal of their content to the means and methods that can revive the spiritual and moral potential of the nation.

Charles Darwin in his "Origin of Man and sexual selection" argued that animal instinct inherent or innate moral sense. Kropotkin in "Origin and development of morality" suggested the group selection and the selection of "instincts of humanity", and the British geneticist and biochemist John Haldane calculated the active selection on the "altruism genes". Thus, today the scientific world notes that the types of congenital intrinsic activity of a person, along with biological and moral presented.

In the philosophical tradition of the twentieth century (Berdjaev, Vernadsky, Lossky, Soloviev, Fedorov, Frank, etc.), man is regarded as a spiritual, creative, open to self-education, self-development, which allows to realize themselves in activities and having the opportunity to create the world in accordance with the ideals of Truth, Goodness, Beauty.

2. Objectives

Approach to the person as an absolute value, the motor of evolution, the creator of himself and his position in life compels us to take a fresh look at the essence of perfection of the individual, and to amend the means and methods of influence on personality in the educational process. The latter is an extremely relevant and still unsolved problem in education is a matter of debate, both theoretical and practical studies. Therefore, the aim of our study is to examine the role of spiritual and moral improvement of the individual early in the development of pedagogy and education.
3. Methodology

Qualification today, in our opinion, cannot determine the outcome of the education system. Priority is given according to the documents of UNESCO, organized in a systematic set of demands intellectual, communicative, reflective, moral principles, to successfully implement the activities are not only socially and economically, but also in the cultural contexts. Adopted in 1988 of the Universal Charter of universities noted that the university aims to provide education and training to teach generations to respect the harmony of the world and of life itself. Europe is seeking to become the continent of education with a competitive intellectual, cultural, social, technical expertise, while stressing that education – a public good, and the teaching was, is and will be a moral profession. ‘Moral-orientation as a component in the structure of psychological readiness for professional activity formed in high school is a fundamental personality and giving all the other components of the fundamental basis’ [Motorna 1997, p.109].

Spiritual and moral height is an indicator of whole-being-human development. Therefore, education has, first and foremost, to provide the dual development of all aspects, features and abilities of the individual, consistent, high quality continuous updating based on the orientation of education to the changing world, man, and all his relations with the world, let to self-disclosure, to find fulfillment in the work. Raymundo wrote that "the teaching, learning and research should be inseparable from social impact assessment of these processes, which is a moral dimension, constitutes the essence of the cultural differences of science ... Knowledge, being divided into separate subjects and disciplines, leading to artificial separation of individual approaches to knowledge. As a result, universities produce engineers who do not fancy social impact of their work. Physicians who are not familiar with the psychology of the person - treatment of such doctors often causes psychosomatic illnesses. As for economists, it allows you to their level of training to understand that their work is not neutral, and the effect on the position of society as a whole? We need a new model of training ... that will develop human qualities and ethics "[Raymundo 2003, p. 17].

Technocratic orientation of life, accompanied by a decline of spirituality and morality, ideals, higher values lead to a one-sided development of man, to the narrow, one-sided professionally-activity orientation. Preparing a person for life and work, education and training should include, first of all, to the existence of training and related activities in the world of nature and humanity, the spiritual flow of life. Spiritual man is in a countless variety of its manifestations of mental and activity, including education. Spiritually developed person is going through its involvement in life and of the world, of humanity, of the people and society, people living with him in the world.

By virtue of its primacy of moral criteria unconsciously determine human behavior. Therefore, they say that the first human motivations are the most precious. It was their motive is instinctual drives people, manifested at the level-knowledge is the basis of his evolutionary development. Spirituality draws its origins primarily in stocks of genetic identity. But it can be raised. And to begin this transformation should be from birth. The process of education should take place in a clean atmosphere. It should teach sublimely beautiful. Spiritual man does not become a hypocrite, would not be a coward and a liar. He knows the way to work as a necessary improvement.

However, it should be noted that the moral forms are imparted in a rational way. They are the only reality is the foundation of the inner essence of the person who determines all his actions, when there is a manifestation of high spiritual development of the individual. Without a high spiritual development of the individual cannot be a full employee – a professional, as a necessary condition for creativity in any business is a holistic, spiritual development of the individual. Spiritual formation of the individual is paramount, a necessary foundation for all-round development of the individual, self-actualization and self-improvement, and is, in our opinion, are the competence of the person that runs through all of the components of human personality.

In modern pedagogy, man is regarded as the ultimate goal of social development, during which provides the necessary conditions for the full implementation of its internal capacity to achieve harmony in the socio-economic and spiritual life of the field, the highest peak particular individual. As a basis of the whole system of education is being put the humanism principles developed and proven age-old practice. Therefore, from the standpoint of humanism, the ultimate goal of education is that a person can become a full-fledged subject of activity, cognition and communication, that is, free, amateur being responsible for everything that happens in this world.

Humanism implies recognition of the individual as the individual values of all the other people who love them, serve them, and involves teamwork, commitment to community with other people, their mutual support. In social psychology of our people is a moral quality has received a strong impetus for the development. And that, above all, is the idea of catholicity. Therefore, the content of the educational process should, focusing on human values, not to discard all the best that is in the experience of every country, every nation, in every way contrary to update and develop the experience.

Universities, leaving their shadow economy, proclaimed guardians of the traditions of European humanism, which is based on the desire to get to know each other, build international "bridges" with "Peace through Culture". It should
come out of the University of the man who is not only highly skilled workers, but also has jurisdiction, has a "difficult personal neoplasm readiness for professional work, including the interaction of cognitive, need-motivational, moral orientation and organizational and communicative components that characterize the expression of personality in activity" [Motomaya, Marigodov 2005, p. 130]. Spiritual resources and moral orientation component in the structure of the individual are determining its future activities, contributing to the cognitive component of creativity and creative direction of the evolutionary work, a need-motivational component of personality structure – function monitoring in the implementation of choice, communicative and organizational component – compliance with the gold rules of ethics. The formation of tumors readiness for professional activity takes place in the space of the action of the Laws of the Universe, their knowledge and compliance (comprehension). At the level of human society the knowledge and comprehension of these laws is through culture, which makes the introduction to the personality of the individual in the process of socialization. It is the social components of culture – the norms, values, symbols and language – play a crucial role in the emergence of the individual moral orientation of the component. That's why you need to exercise psychocompetization socialization. It is the social components of culture – the norms, values, symbols and language – play a crucial role in the emergence of the individual moral orientation of the component. That's why you need to exercise psychocompetization socialization.

4. Analysis

So, we found that the basis for the prosperity of society and mankind on the planet is a manifestation of the spiritual and moral potential of the society. How, then, should be to change the content of pedagogy and education, in what specific ways, methods, tools, principles, it must be shown? In our opinion, the general direction is of the next. The above discussion shows the need for people to adhere to the customs and the traditions established over the centuries. Drawing on past experience, the wisdom of the ages, formed a man's best qualities. Past experience, the custom initially is social, it carries a moral basis. At the base of the custom actions are real people in the most important kinds of situations. It is the spirituality of these acts of humanity customs. Such acts are moral foundation legends that tell of the most important events in the life of the people and the exploits of individual heroes. Tradition having been in the form of oral narrative passed down from generation to generation. Over time, the tradition can be reflected in the folk epics. And the images of these traditions to educate the younger generation, soaking up the moral traits of the characters in the process of experiencing events that appear in the legend. It is the presence of the real action in the tradition of specific people gives him moral strength, makes him listen to and reflect. The legend – experience communicating with the ancestors, it is the assimilation of every human spiritual heritage of their ancestors. The essence of the tradition is to embody a particular person that has been committed to the people of the characters, and the spirit of the ancestors inherited in new generations of humanity. The Company cultivates traits such as courage, sacrifice, courage. Mind, the effect of which is aimed at saving the individual is overcome moral qualities that contribute to the preservation of society. Courage, heroism, self-sacrifice, the cult of the hero becomes the scene of deep moral feelings of all members of society and each individual. In this regard, it is important to in-depth study of the cultural heritage of the people, based on the heroic epic, which is in every nation of the world. The central part of the heroic epic is a feat action hero of the people, which brings its own interests in the public offering. But the most surprising result of that character and personal interests are met, because the condition for their implementation is the happiness of the people to which it belongs to hero. These epics we find everywhere on earth: Edda, the Mahabharata, the Ramayana, the Kalevala, David Sassoon, The Legend of Hiawatha, The Myth of Gilgamesh, the myths of the Scandinavian peoples, Greek, Roman, Slavic folk tales, and many others.

The central part of the heroic epic nations occurring everywhere on the planet - no mean feat – the shortest path to the perfection of the individual, coupled with the self-sacrifice for the sake of others. He is due to fight instinct and morality, emotions and mind. Act for others is an expression of moral goodness, is the victory of spiritual forces, the manifestation of the spirit. The victory of moral good, subordinating reason conjugate to sacrifice, accompanied by a deep emotional shock, the mobilization of all the forces of the body. This condition is accompanied by the actualization of "peak" experiences in the activities of the individual, leading to a state of catharsis, cleansing and renovates personality.

The deep morality has always been an integral feature of our people. This condition is brought up for centuries and is deeply rooted feeding the durability and viability of the nation. Herodotus, visiting the Black Sea coast, noted that the
tribes inhabiting the area lead a moral and virtuous life. And today it is the integrity of the moral qualities of spirituality is defined by the originality of our people.

However, the modern conditions of life in society arise from the presence of the flow of negative information flowing from the screen televisions, magazines and newspapers proclaiming the freedom of morals and permissiveness in the relationship between the sexes, which helps to change the spiritual principle of our nation. What can cause this trend, they say, first of all scientific data. They warn of the threat of degeneration of the nation following the occurrence of and implementation of the following phenomena. First, this is the change of human consciousness. Psychological science has established that the allowable portion of the negative information in the media may be only 5 %, then starts increasing mental instability of the individual, and 50-60 % comes "revolution of consciousness": the social components of culture: the criteria, values, norms, language and symbols of perceived a man with exactly the opposite. In our time, this figure is often as high as 80 %. And we begin to wonder why the younger generation is formed, which has a negative criterion, anti-human standards, which no system of moral values, spirituality, etc. Further, in the last century, in 1899, F. Pe-Dantec in his "Individual evolution, heredity and neo-Darwinians "described the Telegenic phenomenon – influence of the first male animals (the influence of fertilization and pregnancy from the first sexual partner for signs of offspring at risk of pregnancy). Conducted numerous studies have confirmed the findings. So, Professor, Doctor of Medical Sciences Barabash, writes that "a priori by our ancestors knew: the first in a woman's life leaves a sexual encounter in the genetic heritage trail the rest of her life ... Those who have lived in unlimited sexual freedom, the people gradually degenerated and disappeared. No Samnites and Etruscans, who are mired in debauchery, once mighty Roman Empire agonizing in mass orgies, killing the Hittites, the Aztecs, and many others. The scheme is one of degeneration: a mass prostitution – sexual perversion – Mental attitude – the inability to produce healthy children "[Health Science 1997, p.50-51]. These data again emphasize the need for a return to moral principles bequeathed by our ancestors.

In our time, morality is experiencing an unstable state, which corresponds to the fourth phase in the evolution of the cone model: in this phase, there may be very different and mutually exclusive states. But in the general state of imbalance and chaos is the condition for the transition to a new state of order and harmony. What would be the point of this transition polifurcations depends on a small increment in the human psyche – the moral and spiritual component to add up all the people of the world will create the conditions for the onset of the evolutionary path of development. That is why it is necessary to immediately and radically restructure the entire system of education and training and the basis for this adjustment to put focus on the revival of spiritual and moral principle. Otherwise, humanity can stand before his disappearance from the face of the Earth. No other age does not create such brilliant opportunities for moral heroism, as no other does not create moral hazard of such ugliness. The truth and fearless ability to look reality in the eye in the most intricate provisions of life - so should be the first requirement of morality. Therefore, it is important to prepare in the sphere of morality of these fighters evolution. The purpose of moral education and training should be to create the perfect personality, able to take on the shoulders of everyday work for the benefit of mankind. We are faced with specific training objectives of people coming period, the next generation in line with the historical role that falls to their lot.

The above requires significant changes in the content of education. It has to focus on the national culture, national contain myths and legends, history, destiny, and the calling of the way of the people, things and words of saints, heroes, geniuses, language and literature, customs and ceremonies, national architecture, design and art. In the words of the poet Yevgeny Yevtushenko, the function of great art – is a function of the bell, waking the slumbering conscience. Therefore, we believe that there should be communication with the true cultural values, with the most beautiful works of art, carrying the light of the High Knowledge, Wisdom, Morality, which ennoble the soul, filling and clearing it with Light, Love and Beauty. It is in this process of interaction between humanity and the natural form of collective morality moral qualities of competence of a particular person is the improvement of the individual.

Art is the expression of the Beautiful. As a means of understanding the world, it is the education and upbringing. However, the art brings people together, unites them, and helps us to understand both themselves and others. Formation of moral development at its core is based on empathy properties of the individual, the individual's ability to reflect. Around the experiencing person creating a special field that is collected on the basis of communicative interactions surrounding the identity of people. Depending on the individual qualities of empathy is the response to the experiences of a particular individual. The highest form of empathy means the full interpersonal identification. This form of empathy is the highest form characterizes both psychological and moral nature of man. Feelings developed person should be able to dissolve in the social and meaningful experience, while at the same time are able to manifest itself in the individual experience and reflection, when a man is alone with his conscience.

These psychological mechanisms of education in the human qualities of empathy are the basis for the creation of strong and friendly relations between the peoples of the planet. And so we can say that there are more effective than the Conference on Disarmament, the means to solve the global problem of the peaceful coexistence of people in the world –
a world through international cultural contacts. Mezhelaytis wrote that the great and true art brings people together – makes them brothers. Hence, in our view, the need to raise to the highest level of significance in the educational process of introducing daily positive contact with the culture, priorities and cultural congruence of teaching spaces.

5. Results and Discussion

Thus, the educational process must be based on spiritual resources of society and spiritual and moral potential of human beings in accordance with, and should build the educational process at all levels. In the same university education programs are required to form not only the knowledge, skills, and personal qualities but which will form the basis of competence, as shown in Figure 1 (a circle is limited to the knowledge society, in the form of the house shows the university). This should be the response to the new demands of economic and social demands of the time. The result will be created with the competence of the individual creativity of new technologies that will change the approach to solving global problems. It is necessary, first of all, to meet the very prosaic needs for food, drink, clothing, shelter, work, etc., in terms of population explosion and consequent overcrowding in major cities especially requiring immediate resolution. Based on this approach be followed by the solution, and other global issues at both the national and the multicultural levels. It is this strategy that we believe will be possible to realize the powerful potential of the world's talent (and maybe even "geniuses sleeping", which is concentrated in universities and for the manifestation of which must be in the educational process of higher education established corresponding social conditions.

Figure 1 – The spiritual resources – the basis of the prosperity of mankind

In our opinion, should be guided by the position that traditionally education has always been understood as a process of cultural education rights in accordance with the ideal representations of a particular society of spiritual and moral values. Expression of these ideas is an art. Artistic images reveal and develop the best qualities in a man, take up the arts as a spiritual culture. The fruit of such education is an inner harmony, agreement between duty and desire, between reason and emotion. In pedagogical opinion, it is important that art as a "ready" the body to a particular action.

Furthermore, it should be noted that the work of art as material objects carry the energy of the creative activities of the people who create them. And the more spiritual and moral was an author, the more powerful healing effect on human exercise he created works of art. Once he had seen the product may have on the subconscious mind of a young growing body lasting impact, creating a special feeling in his entire inner world. Therefore, the selection of works of art should be the most highly moral criteria, as well as familiarity with them should take place in a state of solemnity and harmony. The most brilliant works of art can initiate an entire era, the spiritual development of a whole generation of people coming into contact with it. Therefore, these works of genius must be carefully guarded, because the standards are a key spiritual and moral development and evolution.

It should also be noted that works of art are essential color- and sound therapeutic impact on mental and physical health of the emerging between education rights. The formation of self-awareness and enrichment of the intellectual world in adolescence is accompanied by new experiences; the samples were thinking that boys and girls are looking at works of art. During dialogue with the art they have created not only a special artistic ability, but there is a movement and a significant adjustment in the moral sphere. Admiring the work of art, like a man enters into it, identifying himself with it and going from itself. This is the cathartic power of art.

Research carried out by us [Motornaya 2009, 1997] have shown that with the increase of ownership of the art is an intensive educational enrichment range of interests, increase in the percentage of students of students well, and finds a close connection to the art of belonging to scientific creativity. Artistic activity of students at a high enough level bringing
them to the art of becoming a reliable barrier against the manifestations of "spiritual deficit", which is that the students have time low, they have no interest in the arts, the perception of which requires the necessary spiritual work; preference in the literature and Film is given militants, horror, entertainment genre. However, classes, which are based on the spiritual and practical attitude to the world of art, with a focus on reproductive activity, develop experience of co-creation, collaboration.

In our view, as the main methodological position, providing the implementation of the evolutionary ideas of education, should act modeling art and the creative process, when a student, regardless of his future profession, is put in the position of creator-composer-creator of the poet, the creator, the artist, the creator a director, creating works of art for yourself and for other people. Modeling artistic creative process manifests itself in the passage way of birth artwork, recreating it as an "inside" and living the moment of re-creation. One of the most effective and modern training facilities capable of realizing the artistic and creative modeling process based on the principle of general didactic clarity, is the use of multimedia technology in the classroom, which brings together within a single computer system of text, sound, video, graphics and computer animation. Such series can be effectively applied to the lectures and practical exercises to enhance all channels of perception student, for the harmonization of the right and left hemispheres of the cerebral cortex, to create the conditions for the activation of phase rotation and relaxation in the brain, which in turn leads to improve student performance, the development of the creative process in the classroom, outside the box thinking, self-reliance, images of beauty – the development of spirituality and morality. All together – to improve, to build skills needed for effective work for the benefit of society and humanity.

6. Conclusions

Thus, as the main power line and guiding evolution, moral and spiritual perfection of man in general, and determines the development of pedagogy and education, the choice of principles, methods, forms and means of implementation of the educational process, culture and the arts as a core around which to teaching and educational process of forming the elements of didactics; psychocompetization process of filling the spiritualizing and pedagogical space.

7. Recomendation

Our further research, we see the development of specific lectures and practical classes on the basis of the best works of art and culture, leading to the development of spiritual and moral potential of the student. For the "separate issue from the question of the moral of the art is just as impossible as the fire spread to the light, warmth and strength burning" [Belinsky 1953, p.406].

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Motornaya S. The Role of Culture in the development of moral-ethical sphere of technical university future graduates competitive
Application of Focus Group Interviews for Business Curriculum Development in Higher Education

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Abstract
This study emphasizes the importance of business community feedback in the process of business curriculum design. In the turbulent business environment, higher education institutions must regularly evaluate and update their curriculum to respond to the emerging business needs. Focus group interviews with representatives from the business community are used to explore possibilities for the improvement of the business curriculum. Moreover, the study analyses the mismatch between graduates’ competencies and business community needs and requirements. Our results suggest that employing focus group interviews is a valuable method of gaining more insight into relationships between business community expectations and academic community approach to the processes of curriculum design and teaching. A set of guidelines is provided for the effective conduct of focus group interviews as part of the business curriculum development in the higher education.

Keywords: quality improvement, business curriculum development, graduate competency, focus group interview, Croatia

1. Introduction
The creation and transmission of knowledge are two main functions of higher education system. To sustain the highly competitive market, higher education institutions (HEIs) must regularly evaluate and update their curriculum. According to Tam (2014), international trends in higher education show a shift away from the faculty-oriented model towards learning-based model that focuses on what students know and can actually do. Reputable and successful HEIs are putting the professional competencies and employability of graduates in the center of the higher-education transformation process.

Youth unemployment is a major issue for the Croatian government. According to the Croatian Employment Service, the registered unemployment rate was 20.2% in 2013 (Barić, 2014). There is a large proportion (13.7%) of young people, aged between 25 and 29, who are unemployed, and this proportion increased by 4.4% in the last year. The rate of unemployment of people with higher-education degree ranged between 5.1% (for the graduates from the first Bologna cycle) and 6.4% (for the second and third cycle graduates). However, the highest increase in unemployment rate was recorded for people with bachelor’s degree, which increased by 14.9% in the last year.

Increased unemployment caused a dramatic change in the demand on higher education graduates. Employers are now seeking graduates who are both highly skilled and have the appropriate academic qualification to fill positions in their organizations (Daud et al., 2011). Graduates are expected to bring the competencies needed to solve complex problems with them, instead of acquiring them over a long period of practice (Steiner & Laws, 2006). HEIs, and business schools and universities in particular, should align their curriculum with professional competencies and employability of graduates. HEIs’ capability in creating unique curriculum that produces competitive workforce enhances the branding of the institution, which becomes a marketing tool for the institution to attract student enrolment and generate revenue (Daud et al., 2011).

The aim of this paper is to analyse the gap between the business graduates’ professional competencies and the requirements of the business community. Furthermore, the study seeks to identify possible improvements in the
improvements. Improvement activities. The results of the study provide valuable guidelines for the management of HEIs in driving quality improvements.

2. Literature Review

Under the conditions of democratization, variability, and innovation in higher education, the educational competence of college students becomes one of the most important factors of the quality of education (Lyz’, 2012). Transformation from faculty-oriented towards learning-oriented and student-centered model is needed. This includes orientation towards students’ learning outcomes and more personal interactions between faculty and students. A great emphasis is on students’ outcomes and on what students are expected to be able to do at the end of the learning experience (Tam, 2014). HEIs must find a way to overcome the contradictions between the requirements on quality, innovative approaches to training and the fact that most students are not prepared for such training (Lyz’, 2012). To respond to increased customer requirements, HEIs should offer students a broader variety of channels of access to knowledge (García-Aracil & Van der Velden, 2008; Jurše & Tominac, 2008). The curriculum should be developed to stimulate students’ abilities to succeed in the labor market.

The modes of teaching and learning used during studies are crucial for graduates to develop specific competencies (Vila et al., 2012). The curriculum could also be transformed into a skills-based curriculum which means that detailed handbooks of skills’ expectations for each program of study could be created so that teaching staff can have access to a common framework for implementing and assessing the curriculum integration of graduate skills and attributes (Panagiotakopoulos, 2012). HEIs should enable students to transfer theoretical knowledge to concrete action and to develop graduates who are capable of learning, managing, and distributing knowledge within networks in the surrounding world (Martensen & Grønholdt, 2009). To achieve this goal, the management of the HEI and the faculty should develop skills-based curriculum that would provide students with required knowledge and skills.

According to Lyz’ (2012): “educational competence can be looked at as a fully formed set of qualities that make it possible for students to choose and implement their own educational trajectory and master their chosen educational program, in a way that is independent, deliberate, and effective”. Jurše & Tominac (2008) divided competencies into subject-related competencies that include specific knowledge of a study field, and generic competencies related to shared attributes which are general to all fields. The graduate’s competencies consist of four main dimensions: knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics (Daud et al., 2011; Noe & Hollenbeck, 2007). Knowledge is divided into tacit and explicit knowledge. Skills refer to the graduate’s abilities to perform a job well. It can be divided into technical or hard skills and behavioural or soft skills. Ability is the graduate’s capacity to perform job-related tasks. Personal characteristics include openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

Employers continually complain that graduates from HEIs are unable to meet their expectations. As a result of these major employment market-led pressures, HEIs are forced to consider incorporating market-oriented professional competencies among their graduates that require continuous input and long-term alliances established between HEIs and the industry (Daud et al., 2011). The employability of graduates depends on their knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics. Better-educated individuals are more productive (Vila et al., 2012). Thus, employers want a graduate who is equipped with interactive, personal, and generic skills (Daud et al., 2011; Harvey, 2000; Urtasun & Núñez, 2012). An ideal worker is skilled and motivated, and is likely to suggest ideas, is able to perform complex problem-solving tasks, and makes decisions (Raybould & Sheedy, 2005; Urtasun & Núñez, 2012).

Higher education can make individuals employable and improve their productivity and income-earning opportunities (Panagiotakopoulos, 2012). The use of proactive teaching and learning modes promotes the acquisition of graduates’ competencies (Vila et al., 2012). HEIs should start developing curriculum with proper evaluation of the relevant professional competencies of graduates (Jurše & Tominac, 2008; Tam, 2014). Learning outcomes should clearly specify which skills and knowledge are the most important in a program or course. HEIs also need to specify what students need to do to achieve defined learning outcomes. According to Tam (2014): “it is no longer enough for designers and teachers to be competent in their discipline; they are required to create, develop, and manage stimulating learning environments, using a variety of resources, methods, and technologies, including assessment resources in order to deepen and enrich student learning”. These new competency needs require innovation of curriculum to enable development of new study programs and learning approaches, and improve existing study programs (Martensen & Grønholdt, 2009). The innovation of curriculum could be implemented using the Quality Function Deployment (QFD)
method. Gonzalez et al. (2011) found that the QFD approach provides an objective way of designing curriculum and including a set of expectations generated by the market coupled with benchmarking and team analysis. Moreover, HEIs need to closely collaborate with industry practitioners to obtain information about current industry expectations of graduates, to design or modify curriculum, and to enhance graduate performance in the working environment (Daud et al., 2011; Morley, 2001).

3. Research Method

Focus groups provide deeper understanding of a specific issue and provide insight into how people think and perceive the issue. According to Brits and Du Plessis (2006), focus groups have the potential to gain more insight into and adding more depth to quantitative findings during quality management. Results from focus groups provide quality-assurance practitioners useful and valuable insight into quality-improvement possibilities.

For the purpose of this study, a focus group was organized, composed of 12 relevant representatives from the business community. Participants were employers of various economic fields. Three participants represented small employers who employ economists with a wide range of knowledge and other participants were top managers of large companies who need economists with specialized knowledge in a particular field of the economy. The focus group included representatives from both the service sector and industry sector.

Based on their experiences, observations, and thoughts, we have tried to identify the differences in learning outcomes and behaviours of students according to existing programs of study in relation to the real needs and expectations of the labour market. The aim was to determine in what way the gap between the available competencies and real needs can be reduced. The study of personal and professional competence of graduates was composed of four main areas: knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics of students who graduated from the Faculty of Economics and Business, University of Zagreb (FEB Zagreb).

4. Analysis and Results

In the European Higher Education Area, it is evident that a number of changes are aimed at developing highly qualified personnel to address the needs of the economy. To increase the employability of graduates, it is necessary to provide students with a wider range of professional and personal competencies. We organized a focus group composed of 12 relevant representatives of employers, with the assumption that many competencies that students should acquire by the end of their study and that would facilitate the transition to the business environment do not serve the needs of the labor market.

The focus group answered three main questions:

1. How do you assess knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics of graduates from FEB Zagreb?
2. Which specific knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics of FEB Zagreb graduates are satisfying and which are dissatisfying?
3. What changes would you recommend to the management of FEB Zagreb regarding study programs and teaching methods in order to meet your needs and requirements?

Regarding the assessment of the skills and competencies of graduates of the FEB Zagreb, all participants unanimously agreed that most graduates do not possess the necessary knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics necessary for inclusion in the work environment. Previous studies also found that there is mismatch between graduates’ competencies and employers’ needs (Garcia-Aracil & Van der Velden, 2008; Martensen & Grønholdt, 2009; Panagiotakopoulos, 2012). There is a lack of basic knowledge in the field, lack of commitment and basic business skills. One of the key problems in the process of testing a candidate for the job is related to the personal characteristics of graduates and with their inability to cope with stressful situations and set requirements due to lack of necessary expertise. Another issue is a lack of commitment to the job and lack of willingness to actively participate in the assignments, individual and/or team work. Therefore, employers usually invest several years of quality training work with graduates to enable them and for them to be part of the company’s satisfactory operation. Unfortunately, at present, where the market is extremely dynamic with turbulent changes daily, that is often impossible. Therefore, in the absence of available time and faced with an unsatisfactory supply of young economists at the labor market, managers opt for an older population with work experience.

Despite the many negative experiences, they pointed out that there are 20% of graduates who fulfill their requirements. These are brilliant young people who are aware of the great expectations and intense competition, and who continually invest in themselves and their knowledge, show interest and willingness to changes, and relatively
quickly succeed to become assimilated into a new work environment.

Daud et al. (2011) conducted a focus group meeting with managers to define what employers’ expect regarding graduates’ competencies. Based on the managers’ suggestions, competencies were divided in four dimensions: knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics. This study used these dimensions to examine the expectations and perceptions of Croatian managers about FEB Zagreb graduates.

For the positive characteristics of graduates, members of the focus group highlighted the existence of a perception of what they expect from the working environment. In addition, one of the participants pointed out the presence of good elementary knowledge of FEB’s graduates compared with graduates from reputable foreign HEIs.

Most of the knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics are dissatisfying. Regarding graduates’ knowledge, participants pointed out the lack of basic knowledge in the field and inability to interconnect possessed knowledge from different courses. For example, one participant explained that graduates in the field of accounting did not know how to interpret data from the financial statements of the company. Moreover, graduates are not familiar with the current situation in the society and economy. According to the results of other studies, knowledge, and especially field-related knowledge and the ability to apply knowledge to real-life problems, is very important (Daud et al., 2011; Jurše & Tominac, 2008; Steiner & Laws, 2006).

Both hard and soft skills are very important for employers (Daud et al., 2011). The most important skills include capability to establish good relationships and actively participate in group work, capability to solve situational problems, and with high level of technical skills (Jurš & Tominac, 2008; Raybould & Sheedy, 2005; Steiner & Laws, 2006). In Croatian higher education context, graduates’ skills, both hard and soft, are also dissatisfying. There is insufficient knowledge about basic business communication and lack of technical skills. There are evident technical problems related to the use of computer, problems in communication such as compiling official letter and formal e-mail message, and the method of business communication within the company and/or with the clients. Presentation skills, ability to clearly express their own opinions and attitudes as well as the capability of negotiating are not at a high level. According to the experiences of one focus group participant, 40% of graduates fail on the initial test of cognitive knowledge and skills when applying for job. For the other 60%, half of the graduates fail in the second round of testing because of the lack of knowledge in the field, insufficient practical knowledge, poor communication skills or insufficient knowledge of foreign languages.

Graduates’ abilities include intellectual and physical abilities. Regarding physical abilities, participants pointed out the graduates’ inability to cope with work pressure, to confront problems effectively, and to display pro-activeness. From intellectual abilities, the most dissatisfying elements are the inability to solve current problems at the job, and to make effective decisions. According to Raybould and Sheedy (2005), graduates must show evidence of having the ability to cope with uncertainty, and the ability to work under pressure.

Key concerns regarding graduates’ personal characteristics also stated were the lack of motivation and the necessity of awakening interest in active involvement and new work challenges. Many young people do not have the commitment and are not as dedicated at the beginning of a new job. Aside from the absence of entrepreneurial spirit and pro-activeness, they also lack the willingness to accept risks and do not have much international exposure due to mobilization disability and unwillingness to change. Among other things, the biggest problem is the drawback on working habits that hamper the efficient functioning of an organization. Daud et al. (2011) found that the most important competencies include the following personal characteristics: extrovert personality, open personality, emotionally stable personality, and conscientious personality. Furthermore, Raybould and Sheedy (2005) pointed out the importance of readiness to explore and create opportunities, self-confidence, and self-management.

According to the opinion of the members of the focus group, it is necessary to introduce a mandatory practice based on active mentoring and constant work with students. The practice should be organized through partnership with the business community to achieve best results. Callanan and Benzing (2004) pointed out that students that participate in internships and gain practical experience before graduation perform better in their professional careers. A crucial drawback is the lack of professional practice for students whose study is based on learning theory without a clear understanding of the learned subject matter and thus, the inherent inability to connect elements from seemingly different economic fields. To avoid this, it is necessary to work on a more comprehensive connecting and networking between all courses and departments at the FEB Zagreb to achieve uniformity of terms so that students are capable of relating the material through all their years of study. Moreover, one participant highlighted the need to re-examine the model of conducting exams in a way that assignments are related to specific business problems and not theoretical problems only. This could be done in partnership with the business community representatives who can provide concrete business problems to the academic staff. Daud et al. (2011) also stressed the importance of creating a strong alliance between HEIs and industries to produce a competitive workforce.
One participant’s recommendation was an emphasis on students’ mobility and greater connectivity with foreign institutions. Recognizing the problem of lack of awareness, participants agreed that the FEB Zagreb should certainly invest more effort in marketing activities to inform all potential students about the positive practices and various programs, and projects and workshops performed at the FEB Zagreb.

Participants also highlighted the need to encourage and prepare students for entrepreneurship and minimize, if not eliminate, the reluctance to accept risk, lack of courage, and ignorance of entrepreneurial opportunities. Recent studies show that entrepreneurship education promotes spirit of entrepreneurship among students and enhances their innovation skills (Iacobucci & Miccozzi, 2012; Varblane & Mets, 2010). According to Varblane and Mets (2010) study, Croatia and Slovenia have good coverage of teaching entrepreneurship in HEIs, compared with other countries in the region. However, practice-oriented training in entrepreneurship is limited and the number of entrepreneurship centers is small (Varblane & Mets, 2010).

Placing greater emphasis on specific case studies was suggested, and organizing a large number of practical workshops through which students would be encouraged and prepared for entrepreneurship. The focus group expressed a great interest in assisting and participating in workshops by way of giving concrete case studies and data. Participation in research projects or problem-based learning and group assignments has a very strong influence on the development of student capability and innovativeness (Vila et al., 2012).

Faced with graduate economists fearful of public speaking, uncertain in themselves, and who lack communication skills, one of the recommendations was the introduction of compulsory presentations by students during class. This would teach them about formal communication and develop their ability to present their own ideas. In this way, students will be forced to be more involved in curricular and extra-curricular activities which would also increase their interest for each course. Academic staff has the main responsibility. They must motivate students and stimulate their interest in the courses they teach. They should motivate students to engage more in different curricular and extra-curricular activities. To improve the graduates’ competencies, HEIs could raise the number of hours of lecture-hall work, check class attendance, and hold midterm exams (Lyzz’, 2012).

The results of this study showed that employing focus group is a valuable method of gaining more insight into relationships between business community expectations and academic community approach in the process of curriculum design. However, the study is not without limitations. The study uses business community representatives’ perceptions that could be influenced by personal and subjective factors. Our results are based on the perceptions from Croatian managers and could not be generalized to other populations.

5. Conclusion

Dynamic market changes in the higher education have led to the introduction of learning-oriented higher education. Increased competitiveness and higher expectations of customers forced HEIs to re-examine their quality and to focus more on learning outcomes and the employability of graduates. This is especially important in countries with high youth unemployment rate, such as Croatia. HEIs must regularly evaluate and update their curriculum to provide competent and employable graduates.

The curriculum design process should start with analysis of the needs and expectations of all relevant stakeholders, including both students and employers. In this study, we used a focus group with representatives from the business community to identify key graduates’ competencies that are the most important for employers. Moreover, the focus group provided valuable and useful insights into the possibilities of quality-improvement initiatives that may enhance student’s learning outcomes and enable their employability after graduation.

A fundamental issue in Croatian higher education system lies in many years of acquiring general knowledge only without aligning students according to their qualities, as well as insufficient individual approach during education. It resulted in the lack of interest in acquiring professional and practical knowledge and pursuing higher education only to acquire a diploma. Accordingly, HEI’s management must make the effort to produce students whose knowledge and skills acquired during their educational experiences will enable easier employment and lead to better performance in their future jobs.

HEI’s management must empower their academic staff to constantly improve their teaching methods and update course content to deliver high-quality education to students. Academic staff also needs to motivate and encourage students to engage more in different curricular and extra-curricular activities, and to stimulate their interest in the study field. Furthermore, HEIs must cooperate with the business community, using their feedback in the process of curriculum (re)design, organizing workshops and research projects, and creating partnerships. The results of this study provide useful guidelines for the HEI’s management in decision making about managing HEI, designing study programs, and
implementing teaching improvements.

References

Obesity, Abuse Feeding, Over Usage Of Chemic-Pharmaceutical Medications, Extracts And Other Factors

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Abstract

Obesity or “syndrome X” is a contemporary character that the disease is spreading more and more. Today in the world numbering over 250 million obese. It is characteristic disease of the century that has conquered the globe where there is reason to take the name “globesity”. Take measures against the spread of this syndrome begins and continues with the determination and the exact meaning what’s obesity. Obesity is a metabolic shock triglyceride resulting in the addition of excess adipose tissue in the body generally beyond the amount that is necessary for normal functioning. The purpose of this paper is to generate some conclusions about: - What is obesity. – The form’s format of his complications. - Preventive measures, therapy. The most important preventive measures against obesity are after “disaster” of the occurrence of obesity is necessary to take measures to combat it and what is more difficult.

Keywords: obesity, metabolic shock, complications, therapy

1. Introduction

Obesity today has become global disease. Over time it is spreading more and more all countries including developed and developing countries.

Super food consumption and calories, build-up of its production and industrialization in each stage, the abundance of foods, particularly processed, dismissals hand, sedentary way of life without movement outdoor fresh air are among the causes basic contemporary shoqërisw this disaster.

According to WHO in the world, numbering more than 250 million obese, ranging from children to the elderly.

In America, over 50% of people are over normal weight, in Europe 19% of men and 24% of women are obese. NQ serious problem worldwide is obesity in children. In France, Italy and Greece respectively 1 to 7, 1 to 4 and 1 to 5 children are obezw. These are “children fetched food and refreshments” (Hopisler)

Obesity now affects at least 15% of the population worldwide are determined diseases such as those of the heart, breathing, gallstones, diabetes, particularly mëlçisw gjëndror system, thyroid, etc., to a nervous and psychological character.

Obesity is indeed characteristic of the disease that has invaded century globe and has received the name of "globezitet" but not excluded and its historic character.

Since the V century BC, Hippocrates noted that sudden death is more characteristic to obese people, but the same thing noted in the Roman Galinari disease called "cessation of breathing in sleep" which was noticed as he said in most cases overweight people.

The opinion of the majority of researchers in this field is that preventive measures are not taken IF millennium we are going through will be the era of obesity.

While most authors consider the special peshwn syndrome or syndrome "X"
Taking measures against the spread of this syndrome starts and continues with determination and precise meaning than was obesity.

Obesity is a metabolic shock triglyceride resulting in the addition of excess adipose tissue in the body generally beyond the amount that is necessary for normal functioning. Over weight d, ekulibron whole metabolism, physiological function of organs by providing the thrill of a general character, and it involves the nervous system which is reflected in agony, depression, lack of interest, low self-esteem and to aggressively toward others and themselves. Among the causes that lead to obesity are:

2. Genetic Predisposition

Most recent studies found that there is gene directly related obesity. This gene determines production of protein called leptin, which is naturally higher in obese children and adults. In obese children it is 4 times higher than normal children. Leptin through encephalike centers gives the message of hunger or satiety by its productivity level.

One self or increased appetite is directly linked to increasing obesity and determined according to recent data from the so-called "appetite hormone" or as it is called grelina which is produced in the stomach.

Its Podhimi added before meals and after meals reduced by a specified equilibrium `d normally but bringing about a balance of this product directly reflected in the consumption of nutrition by increasing it from 30% to 50%.

This "hormone" according to researchers is directly responsible for recovering the lost kilos fast after a falling weight.

The effect of this "hormone" in normalizing weight has a time span in both directions as in the over weight and weight reduction on but in the first case the effect is faster, that is why today the attention of researchers is led to the discovery of factors that determine the production of this hormone or as many authors cite successes in this area are closely related to the effective fight against obesity.

3. Forms of Obesity

Obesity in terms morfologjiko-cell appear in two types:

- Hipertrofik obesity which is characterized by the increase in the size of lipoqelizave.
- Hiperplastik obesity characterized by the increase in numwr lipoqelizave.

Obesity in children generally faces he hiperplastik or increasing the number of lipoqelizave what constitutes and "disaster" of a child destined to become obese and an obese adult.

Obesity affects all ages but there are some that are most critical age.

First in the period of life up to 2 - years become physiologically lipoqelizave increased without determining effects of obesity.

Periods are from 3 years old to puberty is decisive for the future preservation of body weight. In this period of overweight children increased excess observed when children lipoqelizave pwrtjej feed rates allowed. Over weight gain in this periodw remains for a long period of time. When children are obese in this period the chances are that in 80% of cases end tw obeze for life.

After 25 years obesity is almost no form hipertrofik additional lipoqelizave, but become characteristic increase their size and dominance of its positive direction through treatments become more mundshën.

4. Complications of Obesity

Money and direct complications of obesity are:

- Hiperurinemia, which means in itself increase the concentration of uric acid in the blood which is associated with major complications in all organs tw circulatory system.
- Increased blood lipids like cholesterol free, triglycerides, phospholipids and free fatty acids, whose deposition in the blood vessels of these serious harms by geliqerizuar degenerate to jam.
- Increased blood glucose and diabetes trend towards permanent display of hard-to cure.

5. Obesity in Children

When we talk about obesity in children it is a serious problem with a significant impact on the future on the world stage. Wholesale fat deposition is associated with numerous permanent consequences of very long time, and unfortunately

~ 236 ~
hardly repairable in most cases unchanged throughout life. Children as the main causes of obesity are those of a general
starting from the basics.
Excessive food content concentrated in fats, sugars and calories multiple, low standard of nutrition not only in
content but also the combination of foods, food unbalanced mass use of ready meals and semi-finished.
Lack of exercise movements in the fresh air, especially in nature.
Lack of recognition that child and family economic situation.
The consequences of obesity in children unfortunately are immutable consequences for the coming age being
added to older age groups. They sustained injuries related to heart, blood vessels, gjëndror system, not the achievement
of relevant parameters to children under age but also with widespread psychological damage of the nerve. For some
types of cancer occurrence as confirmed by most researchers and authors ndryshënm is responsible obesity as a
disease in itself but in particular its consequences.

6. Obesity in Adults

Obesity in adults wshtë hipertrofik type. He appears as a continuation of the disease (type hyperplastiC) at younger ages
with all the negative consequences that characterize. Evil is the most growing deterioration comes from the placement of
character hipertrofik obesity. Displayed as a particular type that is compatible with that of increasing the age of lipcells.

Table No. 1. Frequency of obesity nw some places tw botws..

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Different countries</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern europe</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western europe</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediterranean countries</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern europe</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.s.a whites</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.s. Colored</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis of the resulting data table anywhere in the world that women are more prone to obesity than men. This
is explained by the large loads of great physiological and hormonal changes which are subject to the female sex. Certain
period of birth as it's leaving the children, the rest of the development cycle in women are closely linked with the tendency
toward obesity.
Without doubt the most peaceful forms of life lack of movement, leaving work, little consumption of calories taken,
method of feeding, forced usage of the residue of drugs have major impact on the appearance but especially to severe
obesity in old age.
When it comes to obesity in adults has more data and studies, reasoning and conclusions, and often different but
one thing everyone agrees fall IF need to protect ourselves from old age in general and in particular the earliest it should
to fight obesity by all means

7. Therapy Against Obesity

When prevention fails and the object are in front of an obese person should first through an analysis of clinical and
psychological therapy is undertaken properly:
The first measure starts from the simple; The person concerned must be freed from old habits of nutrition treatment
that have led to this situation.
Losing weight goal remains the first and foremost being fully aware that this is not an easy job but quite difficult and
complicated to be timely and great perseverance.
The diet should be as intentionally reducing weight through a rigorous definition and implementation of measures
in terms of quantity and composition of food. It can be used very effectively in fighting obesity ie when the pasha average
does not exceed 20-25kg. In these cases the controlled more easily borne some metabolic disorders characteristic of age
and diabetes, hipertensionim, hyperlipidemia etc..
A diet is considered successful when weight changes (decreasing) are small and gradual. Changes rather sudden
and large are not stable and are associated with other disorders side of
often quite dangerous.
Put clearly considered a good diet consisting of foods called "hygienic" as grains, herbs, fruits, seafood, milk in cream form, natural juices etc. avoiding foods "unhealthy" as prepared foods, tinned, dried, salted, chocolate cakes, alcohol, juices and in particular industrial foods with high fat content.

8. Physical Activity

This includes any kind of movement that can work normally borne steadily since that simple movement of the foot in the air Pater steadily, walking athletic gymnastics through which the excess calories consumed but also ensure a state of good functioning of the whole organism.

Combining physical activity with diet is a good way of reducing weight marking results essentially stable for many years.

9. Pharmaceutical Therapy

Is known as a method for combating obesity and excess weight reduction. Many people also turn to this type of training which recommended a limited and lesser forms since all known pharmaceutical drugs that can be used for reducing weight are noted for strong side effects and harmful.

It is for this reason that these medications are increasingly abandoned due to negative indications that accompanied their use even limited.

10. Surgical Therapy

Performed in extreme cases when other methods are not working and when the pasha exceed 40 kilograms. And has a consistency more than 5-years.

In these cases, patients should be aware of important changes in their lives. The decision to take this kind of therapy when the expected advantages of the potential danger passes and the 16-65 years age limits.

In conclusion we can say that:
- Obesity is the disease most modern broadband characteristic of the largest ever.
- Interaction with each one of us individually heritage obesity and specific pathologies mostly has to do with the fact "we know we know we eat or eat".
- In the case of children it has to do with lack of knowledge on how parental feeding.
- Obesity in adults is influenced and exacerbated more by not report template in food consumption.
- Movement and exercise remain the most natural action and more effective against obesity.

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A Theoretical Approach in Designing Bilingualized Electronic Dictionary and Its Importance in ESP Teaching

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Abstract
This article covers theoretical aspects in the development of a bilingualized electronic dictionary (BED), as well as its pedagogical utilization and effectiveness in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at universities. The aim of the paper is to provide us with information on current skills and habits in complex dictionary use among students of technical sciences. It also investigates implementation of new didactic methods and opportunities that BED design and its application may offer. Since the vocabulary acquisition is essential part of second language learning, teachers should recommend teaching aids that facilitate students’ learning. This paper proves that the same is true for dictionary usage as, at least, electronic dictionaries are less time-consuming and user-friendlier than paper-based dictionaries. BED’s content can easily be updated which is also of great significance for target students. Some of the results obtained from the empirical research we carried out are discussed in this article.

Keywords: electronic dictionary; bilingualized; ESP teaching; second language learning; dictionary skills;

1. Introduction
Education is changing dramatically in the information age. The use of ICT has significantly reshaped everyday classroom activities. Teachers employ it to facilitate language learning, especially vocabulary acquisition by using various online resources such as specialized dictionaries, encyclopaedias, thesauri, terminology databanks, etc. The ESP language instructors, since they teach vocabulary within a specialized field, are required to be familiar with different reference tools, and to be able to use it efficiently in their learning environments. Both electronic and printed sources cover mostly general terminology and the ability to find and evaluate online sources that deal with (bilingual) specialized terminology is essential for ESP teaching (Krajka, 2007).

Dictionaries play an important part in second language learning since they contain not only words with their meanings, but also provide students with more information like pronunciation, part of speech, etymology, its equivalent in a different language, etc. Nowadays, electronic dictionaries are becoming very popular among students, especially among those whose work involves a lot of human-computer interaction. Due to quicker search, fast access to stored data,
and regular content updates, the use of electronic dictionaries is becoming an indispensable part of language learning process of many ESP students (Petrylaitė, Vaškelienė & Vėžytė, 2008).

The objective of this article is to analyze and discuss the potential of BED development and its implementation in teaching ESP at universities.

2. A Short Overview of Dictionary Features

Dictionary classification may be discussed from the point of view of form, whether they are electronic or printed, or from the viewpoint of content, whether it belongs to the group of scholarly/historical dictionaries or it is a commercial object (Atkins, 2008).

According to B.T. Atkins and Michael Rundell (2008), dictionaries may be classified into two major types – monolingual dictionaries (like the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, and the COBUILD Dictionary), and bilingual/bilingualized dictionaries (like the Oxford English-Serbian Student’s Dictionary). Bilingual dictionaries can be unidirectional and bidirectional.

Each dictionary type has its own advantages and disadvantages for second language (L2) learners. Mostly students at the beginner and intermediate level use bilingual dictionaries. They provide instant translation, but the major drawback of using a bilingual dictionary is that students are not getting the habit to think in the target language and remain dependent on the native language (Scholfield, 2002; Martin, 1998). Therefore, teachers should encourage the use of monolingual dictionaries among their students. These dictionaries offer definitions, examples, collocations and other headwords’ information in L2 and students are therefore forced to think in a foreign language. Teachers must encourage students to use this type of a dictionary as soon as they feel the students’ level of language proficiency allows it. Otherwise, information provided only in English can be difficult to retrieve and may not motivate students to use this type of a dictionary in the future, but make them turn to bilingual dictionaries as they provide L1 translations.

Bilingualized dictionaries may be the best option as they have characteristics of a monolingual dictionary - they provide definitions, examples, and other information in L2, and also offer an L1 equivalent or “key” (Winkler, 2001). The user should go through information provided in L2 first, and if the meaning is still not understood then there is an option to look up for the key. The problematic part is that the user may skip the definitions and examples and turn to the translation immediately.

Students will easier acquire language if they are advised to use dictionaries that are level-appropriate. By helping students to choose the dictionary according to their language proficiency, teachers will instruct students to be in control of the tools they use. In time, students will become less dependent and their language acquisition more autonomous (Taylor, 2004).

It is obvious that none of these dictionary types escapes criticism. Atkins and Rundell (2008) point out that regarding language coverage:

“All dictionaries are incomplete, and come under the heading ‘work in progress’.

They also state that with respect to form, type and content:

“…there is no such thing as a perfect dictionary”.

3. ESP Learner Dictionary Skills

3.1 Research methodology

The important part when making a dictionary is to understand who the target audience is and to react in accordance with the information gathered in the pre-lexicography phase. A dictionary made for market should serve its purpose (Atkins & Rundell, 2008). Therefore, at the beginning of a dictionary project, a thorough user profiling should be performed (Atkins & Rundell, 2008). A survey among five hundred Serbian students of technical sciences was conducted in order to understand their pre-existing dictionary skills and habits. The respondents were mostly bachelor and master students in the 20-25 age range. The participants are native speakers of Serbian with average proficiency in English language.

Our questionnaire was designed based on the questionnaire used in Jian, H.L., Sandnes, F.E., Law, K.M.Y., Huang Y.P., & Huang, Y.M. (2009). The first part of the questionnaire is consisted of questions regarding students’ demographic information - gender, age, level of study, etc. The second part was related to dictionary type students own and use, why and how often they consult dictionaries, ranking of dictionary characteristics, etc. Questions were mostly
designed as multiple choice ones.

3.2 Findings and discussion

In this article only the results regarding dictionary medium students use and prefer, and important dictionary features are shown.

According to the findings, the majority of respondents – 60.6% own a bilingual dictionary. Some students selected two answers because they own more dictionaries. Only 27.2% own monolingual dictionaries. The percentage of the students who use specialized terminology dictionaries is very close to the percentage of those who use monolingual ones (Figure 1). This shows that respondents with higher L2 proficiency use either monolingual or specialized dictionaries, or both.

![Figure 1. Which dictionary do you own?](image1)

It is important to point out that students, who own printed dictionaries, mostly use online dictionaries because they are not as time-consuming as paper-based and are much easier to use (Figure 2).

Out of 60.6% students who own bilingual paper-based dictionary, 78.88% consult web-based dictionary. From the total number of students who own monolingual paper-based dictionary, 81.62% use web-based dictionary. It can be noticed that over 80% of students who own monolingual or specialized paper-based dictionary, rather use web-based dictionary (Table 1).

### Table 1. Students who own different types of paper-based dictionaries but rather use web-based.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper-based dictionary students own</th>
<th>Monolingual</th>
<th>Bilingual</th>
<th>Specialized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Web-based</td>
<td>81.62%</td>
<td>78.88%</td>
<td>84.73%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 2. Which dictionary type do you use?](image2)

Electronic dictionary skills resemble basic computer literacy skills and therefore some special training in complex
dictionary use is not necessary (Koren, 1997).

The analysis of the findings also shows that the most important dictionary characteristic is the speed of use. Students find exhausting and difficult looking up words alphabetically ordered in the traditional printed dictionaries. Sometimes, the word they are searching could not be found due to the fact that the great majority of dictionaries, electronic or printed, cover general language only. Many popular online dictionaries provide only common meanings, not detailed explanation of terminology that is not frequently used in everyday communication. Therefore, the respondents perceived the content as the second important characteristic.

![Figure 3. Ranking of dictionary characteristics](image)

Suprisingly, regular content update was not considered to be benefitial for the respondents according to the findings. This issue is going to be further researched in the future, since it is evident that Serbian students have never worked with the dictionary which content can be updated on a regular basis, and therefore lack the awareness of this important advantage. We are witnessing technology boom everywhere we look, and the English language, as being the dominant language of business, science and technology, is evolving in parallel. Possibility to have an updated content is essential in the digital era we live in, especially for the students of technical sciences. Teachers are strongly recommended to introduce their students with the positive aspect of this feature (Figure 3).

Based on the empirical evidence presented in this article, it can be noticed that students express the need for BED design. The fact that the use of this dictionary will not be connected to students’ language proficiency is of great importance. Both low and high L2 proficiency students can use it since it contains L2 headword information and offers L1 equivalent.

Students think paper-based dictionaries are deficient with respect to speed of access and entry search. These fully electronic dictionaries, which are not adaptations of paper-based ones, are more flexible to use, since entry search is very similar to the basic internet search (Pastor & Alcina, 2010). All of these factors are very motivating and encourage dictionary use.

4. Conclusion

This article analyzes perceptions on electronic dictionary use among ESP students in Serbia. Taking into account the results obtained, several conclusions can be given. Despite the fact that students own printed dictionaries, they mostly consult online dictionaries. Electronic dictionaries are perceived as more advantageous over the paper-based ones due to quicker and easier search. The speed of use and content are considered to be the main benefits of electronic dictionaries.

Content update was not perceived as nearly important as the two previously mentioned characteristics. This topic will bet thoroughly researched and dicussed in some of our future works.

BED development would greatly contribute to ESP teaching at Serbian universities since it does not only cover specialized terminology and offers Serbian equivalents, but it is the design that will allow its users to navigate easily, promote autonomous learning, and motivate them to use the dictionary on a regular basis.

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References


The Effect of the School Internal Environment of Secondary Education on Daily Work of Teaching Staff: A Systemic Approach

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Abstract

This article focuses on exploring the School Internal Environment and on identifying disorders that appear in the workplace of the Teaching Staff of Secondary Education, in order to record the effects of these problems in natural (physical) and mental balance and health of the teachers. It is based on a sample of 188 teachers, 65 men (34.6%) and 123 women (65.4%) who work in High and Senior High Schools of the city of Karditsa (Thessaly, Greece). It focuses most on the effect of the Schools’ Location, the Schools’ Organizational and Operational Structure, the Head Teachers, the Schools’ Human Resources as well as the Media and the Teaching Methods of the Personnel in their daily work. The results demonstrate especially that the Head Teachers’ institutional weakness to control the students’ behaviour and the school internal physical and psychological climate affect negatively the teachers’ daily work. On the other hand, especially the development of educational projects, the location (site of installation) of the school unit, the Head teachers’ incentive policy and both the Head teachers’ and the colleagues’ behaviour affect positively the teachers’ daily work. Finally, the findings shed light on the factors that can contribute to the creation of necessary conditions which could improve the working environment of the Teaching Staff of Secondary Education.

Keywords: School Unit, Environmental Systemic Approach, Teaching Staff, Workplace, Mental and Physical Effects, Work Performance.

1. Introduction

With the word "Environment" of a school organization is what is located outside and inside of the "systemic" limits of its body and is divided into Internal and External (Saitis, 2008: 32-39). The External Environment refers to different variables that exist and act outside of the school unit’s boundaries and interacting with it. The Internal Environment consists of specific factors, which in one way or another affect the organization, the function, the behaviour and the effectiveness of it. These are the Location, the Organizational and the Operational Structure of the school unit, the Head Teachers, the schools’ Human Resources, the Audiovisual and Teaching Methods etc. The examination of these factors under the view of their impact on teachers is significant and therefore necessary.

It has been argued that the design of the built environment of an organization influences the physical and mental health of its members (Dannenberg et al., 2003). The location of the school unit, as a living organism, is a matter which is related to factors such as social, economic and spatial structure of a region (the transportation network which serves teachers and students, the distance from the centre of a region, the place (location) of school building’s installation (Kour, 1999; Pucher & Dijkstra, 2003). Indeed it has been observed thanks to researches that in areas with low social and economic level more problems are manifested in the function of school units than in a school in an upgraded, better and
socially homogeneous area (Saitis, 2008). Finally, various physical factors, such as cold, heat, noise and poor yard impact negatively on teachers' and students' health and consequently on their performance (Buckley, Schneider & Shang, 2005; Saitis, 2008; Schneider, 2003; Uline & Tschanen-Moran, 2008).

Regarding the organizational and operational structure of a school unit it is assumed that its size is determined by the size of the students' population. In Secondary Education it has been argued that an effective size may include 400-800 students. Findings from research projects about the productive function of schools give some evidence that the moderate-sized schools (400-800 students) can balance in the best way the reduction of their operating costs with the possible negative effects of large schools (Andrews, Duncombe & Yinger, 2002). In small schools, where there is usually a family atmosphere, teachers and even those who are at the beginning of their careers, feel a degree of autonomy and freedom for action, so they can have a better performance (Hargreaves, 2006).

In addition, the Management of a school unit is one of the major factors that influence its character. The decision-making process and the existence of a positive climate that is created and maintained, first of all, by the Principal, is associated with its effectiveness (Berry, Smylie & Fuller, 2008; Coleman & Collinge, 1991; Saitis, 2008). The skillful leadership is a key factor which explains the successful changes (Hallinger, 2003; Supovitz & Turner, 2000). Mostly, the management carries a great load for inspiring to any individual both an educational and communicative climate (Athanasoula-Reppa, 2008), while the positive attitude of the school Head teachers contributes to the teachers' with little experience professional development (Delvaux et al., 2013).

The role of Human Resources is also important in a school unit. It is about teachers who work, students who attend lessons and the support staff. Firstly, it should be noted that the teachers' personal characteristics, such as gender, age, physical characteristics, aspirations, specificity, etc., affect their behaviour and at the same time the decisions they make in the school unit where they work. In addition to this, the good cooperation between the human resources of a school unit also increases its effectiveness (Berry et al., 2008; Smilansky, 2011; Uline & Tschanen-Moran, 2008). On the contrary, the social relations of low confidence in a school unit have negative effect on teachers' physical and emotional health and increase the stress coming from work (Troman, 2000; Van Dick & Wagner, 2001).

You should also note that the teaching techniques help teachers to carry out their teaching duties. The nature of the lessons and the technological equipment affect the quality of teaching and of course, the teachers' effectiveness and create a positive environment in the classroom, which in turn has a beneficial effect on teachers and learners (Saitis, 2008). Nowadays, the teacher has many opportunities using the PC and the Internet to create a new climate in the classroom that does not leave unaffected both himself and the student by removing them from the monotony and boredom (Jenkins, Clinton, Purushotma, Robison & Weigel, 2009). The classroom is a place where the teacher has the freedom to use teaching methods and techniques that make more effective the transmission of knowledge and increase his self-efficacy (Berry et al., 2008; Burkhardt & Schoenfeld, 2003).

The Environment of the Greek School Units, especially that of Secondary Education, has been changed radically in the last 45 or so years and in fact unfortunately, apart from few exceptions, for the worse. The deliberate, by international and domestic interests, "Americanization" of school units based on the operation standards "of segregated" schools that targets to poor American social classes, the unstable Educational System in which each Government or even any new leadership of the Ministry of Education introduce untested and unevaluated systems, the depreciation of administrative hierarchy and performance tests, the decriminalization of everything and the leveling of students' performance incentives, have created a very difficult working environment for educational offer.

The city of Karditsa is perhaps the most representative area of Greek territory for a systematic study and record of the effect from transition to newly formed operating conditions of school units and therefore of the effect of internal school factors in the working environment of teaching staff, that tries to "balance" between the "creative" past and the "flattening" present and even more the "bleak" future. Schools in this region still maintain the reputation of the units with the most successful performance of their students on the entrance exams at various universities in the country and on various domestic and international competitions, while they are considered that they have not been alienated at a big extent so far by the new conditions expressed above perhaps because of strong traditions and values.

2. Theoretical Approach

The following apposition of literatures presents the disorders on mental and natural (physical) balance and health of teaching staff (mental and psychosomatic disorders) associated with factors in the internal school environment (Wakefield, 1992). Regarding the first ones are under investigation, especially in the last decade, the anxiety, the depression, the mental alienation, the in-school violence and the burnout syndrome (Bauer et al., 2007; Chatzichristou, 2004; Pappa, 2006). While, regarding the latter, are under investigation the natural elements of the working environment,
such as the design and the conditions of classrooms, the proper lighting, the heating and cooling conditions, the hygiene conditions, the natural (physical) intensity of teachers' work, the security of the school premises, etc. (Shalley, Zhou & Oldham, 2004).

2.1 Mental Disorders

In the workplace the mental burden of the employee brings indifference to perform tasks, isolationist tendencies, alienation from the work, lack of moral satisfaction and joy to work. All these are undoubtedly symptoms of mental alienation from work (Sdrolias, Terzidis & Polyzos, 2003). In particular, the mentally alienated teacher feels unable to impersonate the role that has been determined to take (Cox & Wood, 1980). What is highlighted in all the researches is that the process of teachers' socialization leads to the compliance (active or passive), the retreat, the compromise and generally to the acceptance of traditional beliefs and principles. The teachers' dependence and the compliance to bureaucratic hierarchy lead to personal alienation (Shannon, 2000). Another cause for teachers' mental alienation is also the lack of an effective correlation and interaction between them (Kountouras, 1985).

About the school climate it has been told the fact that teachers often did not know their students is a very old observation. But the fact that teachers themselves do not know each other well, because their presence in the school coincides with the teaching activity, is a new finding (Gotovos, Mavrogiorgos & Papakonstantinou, 2000: 96). The research evidence suggests that, when the school climate becomes more supportive, the teachers become progressively less alienated (Thomson & Wendt, 1995; Van Dick & Wagner, 2001).

Furthermore, the teachers' stress is a negative emotion associated with their profession and relates to emotions, such as anger, tension, emptiness, depression and they are a threat to self-esteem and good teachers health condition (Howard & Johnson, 2004). Teaching is stressful (Chapain, 2008; Hanaken, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Kokkinos, 2007; Van Dick & Wagner, 2001). Highlights of teachers, according to Olivier and Venter (2003), are emotional events (they show the ways in which teachers react because of tension in their school, e.g. depression, anxiety), fatigue events (p. example sleep habits, exhaustion), cardiovascular events (e.g. blood pressure, increased heartbeats), culinary events (e.g. stomach pains, cramps) and behavioral manifestations (e.g. use of prescribed drugs, consumption of alcohol).

Also it must be emphasized that the profession of teaching occupies a leading position in the list of stressful jobs, and the teachers belong to the group of professionals who are highly prone to the syndrome of burnout. The causes for the appearance of this syndrome are investigated both: to the structure and to the function of the education system and to the teacher's personality and characteristics. The teacher who has the burnout syndrome is dominated by feelings of anxiety, loses his interest in teaching and positive feelings about the students, creates a negative image about himself and fails to face the problems that come up during the educational process (Platsidou & Agaliotis, 2008).

Teachers who feel anxious show aggressive behaviour towards students. Moreover, they express confusion, avoidable behaviour, absenteeism from their workplace and reduction to the performance of both, themselves and their students, a fact that is mainly caused by the lack of creativity and by non-implementation of effective teaching techniques (Bauer et al., 1996). Compared to other professions, teachers have high levels of exhaustion and cynicism, which constitute the 'core' of burnout. The depletion refers to the feeling of the chronic fatigue that a working man feels, especially the teacher. The cynicism refers to the loss of interest in work and to the estrangement from their colleagues (Hanaken et al., 2006).

Furthermore, the depression is considered to be the most unfavorable mental impairment to the working man (Tennant, 2001). Precursor of the depression that is associated with this syndrome is considered to be burnout (Baba, Galperin & Lituchy, 1999; Iacovides, Fountoulakis, Moysidou & Lerodiakonoy, 1999; Maslach, 1987; Tennant, 2001). Symptoms of teachers' depression appear to be four types. There are mental symptoms (prolonged sadness, frustration), behavioral (psychomotor retardation, lack of pleasure, loss of interest), cognitive (emotions related to a sense of lack and loss) and biological (decrease in irritability of the nervous system, slowing down of operations and movements). Unfortunately, the depression affects greatly the interpersonal relationships and the work environment of the individual who suffers from this (Papastylianou, Kaila & Polychronopoulos, 2009).

Teachers' mental health may also play an important role in the relations with students. Teachers who most often present symptoms of depression and have low self-efficacy are teachers who provide little emotional support in their classroom and tend to engage in confrontations and conflicts with students and as a result it becomes very difficult for them to control and manage students (Hamre, Pianta, Downer & Mashburn, 2008). In addition, many teachers in recent years complain about the school violence and seek assistance by taking both preventive and repressive measures (Mallet & Paty, 1999). It is undisputed that the in-school violence has serious negative implications for the teacher and that the teacher who faces such violence often absents himself from work and thinks about his disengage from his
workplace. It has even been found that certain forms of school violence are a major factor of the teacher's intention to leave and take early retirement (Galand, 2007).

2.2 Causes of Natural (Physical) or Psychosomatic Disorders

The prevalence of tension and anxiety in the teachers work is supported by research findings which show that a quarter of teachers evaluate teaching as "very or extremely stressful". The chronic stress leads to emotional, behavioral and physical exhaustion. The emotional intensity that teachers face (stress, anxiety, frustration, nervous tension, wear) introduce natural (physical) and mental disorders (Kyriacou, 2001). The chronic exposure of teacher in stressful conditions directly affects health. The way in which the teacher faces the stress may change the way he feels, thinks or behaves (Glaretzou, 2011).

Furthermore, the working conditions, such as heat, inadequate lighting and noise not only cause dysphoria but also affect the health, the safety and the productivity of each working man. Although these conditions cause a problem to the senses, to vision and hearing, they are not often taken into account (Greek Ministry of Employment, 1992). Finally, the safety and hygiene conditions affect the school climate in a catalytic way and teachers in particular (Horne-Martin, 2005; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2007; Schneider, 2003). It is argued that working conditions affect them even more than their economic earnings (Berry et al., 2008).

Furthermore, about the noisy situation in the classrooms, the teachers' attempt to cope with it has health consequences (Schneider, 2002; 2003; Kampourakis, 2005: 1-5). The noise causes misunderstanding and can lead to permanent hearing loss. Moreover, as the number of students in class grows, the noise level in the classroom increases and this complicates the teachers' task of teaching (Horne-Martin, 2005; Schneider, 2002; Shield & Dockrell, 2004). Additionally, the poor technological equipment and the school building (size, orientation, lighting, noise levels, temperatures, hygiene and safety, gym and multi-purpose hall, an appropriate school yard, library, laboratories, offices, and the overall aesthetics and topography) construct a social and psychological environment that influences in a catalytic way the school culture (Horne-Martin, 2005; Supovitz & Turner, 2000). Finally, the schools configuration, noise, heat, cold, light and air quality affect obviously the ability of teachers and students to carry out their duties. The fresh air, the good lighting and a quiet, comfortable and safe learning environment are necessary for the good performance of teachers and students (Schneider, 2002).

2.3 Research Model and Research Hypotheses

Since, as it was mentioned above, that the aim of this research is to determine the effect of internal school factors on the working environment of the teaching staff (here in particular at the city of Karditsa), it is attempted to gather primary data through a structured questionnaire, to give answers to a number of research questions-hypothesises such as what are now the dominant factors of internal school environment that affect the teachers' workplace, how they affect them and therefore what are the consequences of these effects on the mental and natural (physical) balance, and to determine what needs to be addressed or even improved at the school environment and, consequently, in all schools of the country.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 The Sample of Research

The population for research is secondary teachers, who perform administrative and teaching duties in the city of Karditsa. In the schools of this city their power according to elements of school units on September 2013 for High schools was 204 teachers and for Senior High Schools and Technical Schools was 248 teachers. Totally, 452 teachers work in the aforementioned schools. Based on the demographics of the research the sample is consisted of 188 teachers of Secondary Education, 65 men (34.6%) and 123 women (65.4%). Of these only 2.1% of the sample (4 people) have age less than 37 years, 72 people (38.3%) have age from 38 to 46 years, 85 people (45.2%) have age from 47 to 55 years and 27 people (14.4%) have age over 56 years.

The analysis also shows that in the above sample only 6.4%, 12 people have M.Sc. in addition to the first degree that is from Higher Education. The presentation of respondents' working years is also helpful. It shows that 14.4% have experience less than 10 years, 39.4% have experience of 11-18 years, 26.6% have experience of 19-26 years and 19.7% have more than 27 experience years. Additionally, it must be noted that of the total sample a rate of 6.4%, 12 people, have positions of responsibility and they are members of the school units Directorate.
3.2 The Questionnaire: Structure, Reliability and Process of Analysis

The Questionnaire that was constructed includes closed-type questions and specifically questions of an assessment scale (it has been used the five points scale of Likert) and dichotomous questions (for simple and multiple choice). The questionnaire is structured in two parts. The first includes and searches demographic and other information from respondents, such as the gender, the age, the years of working experience, the level of education, the specialization, the type of duty (educational or administrative), the category of schools that they work, the family situation. The second includes questions to investigate the influence of factors from internal school environment on teachers' workplace.

After the collection of the questionnaires, the questions were codified and then the answers were analyzed with the statistical program SPSS 17 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Specifically, when analyzing the results they were mainly used the Mean, the Standard Deviation, the Frequencies, the Correlations, as well as the Reliability Coefficient (Cronbach’s a) for measuring the reliability of the survey sample. For items on the Second Unit of Questionnaire the reliability index a is high, 0.83 (must $a \geq 0.700$), which indicates that the Questionnaire module has good reliability (Bishop et al., 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

3.3 Statistical Analysis of Questionnaire

The Table below (Table 1) shows the Mean and the Standard Deviations of questions relating to the extent of the influence of internal school factors on teaching duties. Furthermore, observing the results of the Frequency of responses about specific questions in the Questionnaire, it is possible to come on conclusions about the effect of the internal environment on Teaching Staff.

Table 1: The Mean and the Standard Deviations of Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions relating to the extent of the influence of internal school factors on teaching duties</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.1.b.Location (site of installation) / Close Environment of the school unit</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.2.b.Building / Hygiene Conditions</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.3.b.Organizational / Operational Structure of the school unit</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.4.b.Behaviour of the Principal</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.5.b.Behaviour of the Colleagues</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.6.b.Behaviour of the students / student councils</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.7.b.Students’ performance</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.8.b.Head teachers’ institutional weakness to control the students’ behaviour</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.9.b.Technological Equipment / Support Staff</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.10.b.Development of Learning Projects</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.11.b.Evaluation of teachers and educational work</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.12.b.Head teachers’ Incentive Policy</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.13.b.The in-school natural (physical) climate</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.14.b.The in-school psychological climate</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Below, Table 2, they are presented the teachers’ various aspects for specific factors of Internal School Environment.

Table 2: Teachers’ Opinion of Internal School Environment Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors of Internal School Environment</th>
<th>Teachers’ various aspects</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.1.b.Location (site of installation) / Close Environment of the school unit</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.2.b.Building / Hygiene Conditions</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.3.b.Organizational / Operational Structure of the school unit</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.4.b.Behaviour of the Principal</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.5.b.Behaviour of the Colleagues</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.6.b.Behaviour of the students/student councils</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.7.b.Students’ performance</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.8.b.Head teachers’ institutional weakness to control the students’ behaviour</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.9.b.Technological Equipment / Support Staff</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.10.b.Development of Learning Projects</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.11.b.Evaluation of teachers and educational work</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using the method of Correlation it is examined the impact that the above-mentioned Teaching Staff’s aspects cause on its daily performance (Table 3).

Table 3: Correlations of Internal School Environment Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors of Internal School Environment</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.1.b. Location (site of installation)/Close Environment of the school unit</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.2.b. Building / Hygiene Conditions</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.3.b. Organizational / Operational Structure of the school unit</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.4.b. Behaviour of the Principal</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.5.b. Behaviour of the Colleagues</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.6.b. Behaviour of the students/student councils</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.7.b. Students’ performance</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.8.b. Head teachers’ institutional weakness to control the students’ behaviour</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.9.b. Technological Equipment / Support Staff</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.10.b. Development of Learning Projects</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.11.b. Evaluation of teachers and educational work</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.12.b. Head teachers’ Incentive Policy</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.13.b. The in-school natural (physical) climate</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.1.14.b. The in-school psychological climate</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Discussion and Conclusions

Totally, they have been collected primary data about 14 factors in the internal school environment. It appears that the majority of these, namely 11, influences positively the teaching staff of Secondary Education at Karditsa and therefore the more positive the view on these factors is, the more positively they affect teachers’ work. Three factors affect teachers’ work negatively, so the more negative the view, held by the Teaching Staff, on them is the more negatively teachers’ work is affected.

On the basis of both the results of the conducted research and the elements of Greek and foreign literature it is confirmed that in relation to the internal environment special reference should be made to the new institution of learning projects that can affect positively teachers in teaching, in classroom management, in collaboration and communication with students and in their effectiveness. This new applied teaching method helps teachers have a better classroom management and improve the school climate. The positive effect of the location and the close environment of the school unit is notable also. The choice of the location of a school unit is an option that affects the teaching staff’s quality of experience at Karditsa and this seems to be particularly important. Furthermore, from the investigation it is confirmed that the Head teachers’ incentive policy of a school unit, the behaviour of the Principal and colleagues, the school organization and the management, the building and hygienic conditions and the students’ behaviour have a positive effect on teachers. Animate and inanimate material of schools is a key factor for the view and the experiences at the workplace. The more positively teachers of Secondary Education evaluate these factors, the more positive they feel in the workplace.

Teachers of Secondary Education at Karditsa are negatively affected by institutional inability of the school administration to control students’ attitudes and behaviours, which have negative effect on the school climate. The control of indiscipline and delinquent behaviour, the compliance and the respect of students for the operating rules of the school and their discipline facilitate the management of the classroom and teachers’ work. The in-school mental and physical climate have negative impact on teachers of Secondary Education. The ergonomic of schools, the daily tasks, duties and satisfaction are key factors for the effectiveness of teachers in Secondary Education.

5. Limitations and Directions for Further Research

From the data that have been collected and a research in Greek and Foreign Literature it has been found that a further investigation is needed on the institutional weakness of the Principal of schools to control attitudes and behaviours of students in order to exist a good school climate. In connection with management of schools it is required research on the policy of incentives that can be followed and the implications that it could have for the teaching staff. Additionally, the
impact of educational projects to teachers is offered for investigation. Finally, mainly the location of schools, the close environment from the urban center and then the ergonomic of the school buildings are a wide field of research on regarding the highlighting of positive or negative consequences experienced by the living material of them.

References


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Assessing Students' Reading Comprehension Through Rubrics

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Abstract

Rubrics can be used for assessing students reading comprehension in many ways. Firstly, they help to ensure that the learning targets become clear. The students must be able to understand the learning target in order to develop superior outcomes. Students who have been given criteria for reading comprehension will be able to complete complex tasks. They will be able to demonstrate the required skills which can be assessed by the teachers. Another critical aspect of rubrics in reading comprehension is the fact that they help to facilitate instructional design and delivery. Instructional design is an important part of the educational process because it must be able to use personalized as well as universal strategies to meet the needs of students. Teachers that eloquently craft the expectations to students can help the latter to focus on key learning targets. Instructional approaches can then be used to improve the efficacy of the learning environment. The assessment process should be accurate and fair when designing rubrics. This is important specifically with reference to the needs of assessing students reading comprehension. Teachers can achieve consistency when they refer to common rubrics. The reviewer is able to judge in a fair manner by referring to the key aspects of the rubrics. This is an important strategy that must lead to long term outcomes within a short period of time. Students are able to identify the assessment criteria that are an important part of completing task.

Keywords: assessment, rubrics, reading comprehension, instructional design, learning targets, strategies

1. Introduction

Rubric is an academic term which refers to performance standards that are designed for specific students. Rubrics have been extensively applied in the academic setting as a means of improving learning outcomes among students. Additionally, the goals have been to create a collaborative strategy that helps to improve the efficacy of the learning environment. Rubrics tend to focus on supporting student self-awareness and self-reflection so that they can become acquainted with the basic objectives of the course. Moreover, rubrics can be used to create standards that can be aligned with the learning objectives.

Students reading comprehension can be assessed by the use of rubrics provided there are clear and precise goals. Furthermore, there needs to be a collaborative approach in which the emphasis is towards achieving long term educational goals. Rubrics must be designed with performance goals, descriptions, and outcomes. Clear and precise rubrics help in accomplishing learning efficiency while enhancing the learning environment. The use of rubrics is highly popular in the educational environment. They have become valuable tools in order to ensure proper assessment in an efficient manner.

2. Background

Rubrics are important because they can be used to assist students by providing a comprehensive evaluation framework. It can significantly reduce the time that teachers need in order to assess student work (Eisner, 2009). Rubrics are created by using various models that compare the good work with the poor work. This is done through provision of assignments that use quality samples in order to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. It is through the use of an innovative and creative approach that success can be attained within a short period of time. A criteria needs to be devised for the scoring rubric so that discussions can be done in order to produce quality work.

Student feedback is critically obtained so that teachers can evaluate the writing experiences of students. It is through the use of an innovative and creative strategy that success can be attained within a short period of time (Heath, 2009). Hierarchical categories can be created in order to describe the multiple quality levels. Additionally, quality can be measured through development criteria that employ innovative strategies in order to achieve long term success within a short period of time. Rubrics must be used by using developed samples as this can be beneficial for the educational objectives. Another way to increase the efficacy of rubrics is to use models so that students can test using the sample assignments. This helps to gradually enhance the confidence levels of students. A student and teacher agreement can be
reached which helps to ensure the highest levels of reliability. Rubrics help to codify the criteria and standards that are needed for academic assignments. Moreover, they play an important role in conveying the educational expectations that a specific assignment project desires (Heath, 2009).

This helps to improve the ability of teachers to assign specific assignments in an efficient and effective manner. Rubrics also aid in the process of creating self-review and peer-review. Thus rubrics are an integral element of the entire process as they focus on development and growth. The development of a comprehensive strategy is critical for success as it leads to long term outcomes. Rubrics can be used to assess the student’s learning strategy as well as develop an efficient lesson plan. The quality of the work can be judged through the use of an innovative and creative approach (Heath, 2009).

The student can explain his or her understanding of the material to the teacher if there are gaps between the work and teacher’s evaluation. Rubrics need to be continuously developed as a means of achieving long term success. The development of a comprehensive strategy is important in order to ensure successful outcomes. Rubrics are becoming an integral element of the entire process because of their advantages to both teachers and students.

2.1 Benefits

Rubrics are widely used to rate performance in the learning environment. Definitions and examples can be employed together with the rubrics in order to provide students with the ability to understand the attributes which will be evaluated. A rating scale is employed for the various parts of the rubric. Rubrics are several dimensions that are used to evaluate the student response for any project (Hafner & Hafner, 2004). Definitions and examples must be used in order to convey the meaning of the specific trait. Scale of values must exist in order to providing rating to each dimension.

Rubrics can be used for assessing students reading comprehension in many ways. Firstly, they help to ensure that the learning targets become clear. The students must be able to understand the learning target in order to develop superior outcomes (Hafner & Hafner, 2004). Students who have been given criteria for reading comprehension will be able to complete complex tasks. They will be to demonstrate the required skills which can be assessed by the teachers.

Another critical aspect of rubrics in reading comprehension is the fact that they help to facilitate instructional design and delivery. Instructional design is an important part of the educational process because it must be able to use personalized as well as universal strategies to meet the needs of students. Teachers that eloquently craft the expectations to students can help the latter to focus on key learning targets. Instructional approaches can then be used to improve the efficacy of the learning environment (Hafner & Hafner, 2004).

The assessment process should be accurate and fair when designing rubrics. This is important specifically with reference to the needs of assessing students reading comprehension. Teachers can achieve consistency when they refer to common rubrics. The reviewer is able to judge in a fair manner by referring to the key aspects of the rubrics. This is an important strategy that must lead to long term outcomes within a short period of time. Students are able to identify the assessment criteria that are an important part of completing task (Hafner & Hafner, 2004). Furthermore, they can use the rubric in order to perform self-evaluation of their work. Students develop the ability to accurately evaluate their own work in an impartial manner. This helps to develop their competencies in an efficient and effective manner. It helps to create a collaborative strategy for success. Rubrics can play an important role in ensuring that students from diversified backgrounds can make the progression in the learning environment. Learning expectations become explicit which helps to attain long term success. Student performance and behavior can be enhanced through an efficient approach (Stiggins, 2010). Additionally, expectations can be outlined in a systematic and gradual manner that benefits in the long term. Students belonging to diversified settings are able to understand the language when they become acquainted with rubrics. This is a major advantage that can help to ensure long term success within a short period of time. It also helps to develop a collaborative framework for success.

2.2 Limitations

Rubrics that are well-designed can help teachers to assess the students’ reading comprehension skills. This is dependent upon the fact that rubrics must be valid and reliable. Additionally, the teaching and learning process can be enhanced through the use of rubrics. But the presence of rubrics is not sufficient enough to ensure sound outcomes. There are limitations to the use of rubrics in the assessment process (Jackson, 2009). This is because the rubrics must help the teachers to apply individual knowledge that can be applied in the rating process. The goal should be to prevent the rating process from falling victim to personality variations and limitations that are associated with human information processing. Rubrics take lengthy periods of time to develop because performance outcomes, levels, and descriptions need to be
designed. They are effective for significant and difficult assignments which can justify the amount of time needed to prepare them (Stiggins, 2010).

Having a clear and precise methodology is the key to success in rubric development. The use of innovation can be used as a tool for sound outcomes (Jackson, 2009). It is through the use of innovation and creativity that long term success can be attained within a short period of time. Poorly designed rubrics can hinder the learning process for teachers as well as students. Rubrics that are designed without taking into account various variables can cause poor outcomes for students. Clear rubrics must be developed that evaluate the performance of students in an efficient and effective manner. The goal should be that the rubric should neither constrain nor diminish the learning objectives for the students. This helps to achieve long term success within a short period of time (Jackson, 2009). Rubrics should neither be narrow nor broad as they must meet the requirements in a dynamic and proficient manner. It is through the use of innovative and creative strategies that success can be attained within a short period of time.

3. Best Practices

Performance criteria must be clearly outlined for the success of the rubric as this leads to long term growth. The performance outcomes must be very clear so that the key features of the assignment can be outlined (Andrade & Ying, 2005). Delivery is important part of performance criteria because the teacher must be able to assign a specific deadline for the assignment. Another important part of performance criteria is content which must be clearly outlined to the student. Organization and physicality are other components that must be present in order to assess the assignment.

The performance criteria should always be evident and measurable when the rubric is being designed. Vague learning outcomes tend to create confusion in the minds of students. Specific action verbs need to be used such as list, explain, critique, predict and others when designing a rubric for comprehension. Students should also be part of the process in creating the rubrics. This is beneficial as it can help to engage the students (Arter & McTighe, 2001). Moreover, students are able to internalize the understanding for the criteria when they are part of the process. Students are able to make informed choices which can help them to develop insight into the required performance outcomes. The rubrics must be developed by using clear and precise goals. The performance criteria should be valid in order to achieve long term success. Performance levels are very important in the development of rubrics because they help to creating multiple rating levels. The key to success is to ensure that various rating levels can be used depending upon the objectives of the assessment.

Fewer levels are needed when collective decisions need to be made by teachers. This helps to increase the reliability of the rubrics. Multiple levels are employed when performance needs to be improved for students. Additionally, teachers might want to provide feedback to the students. The student can be given particular information about the various aspects of the performance.

Performance descriptions are very important as part of the rubric development process. This is because it helps to ensure that various performance levels can be described to the students. Adequate information must be provided to the students but it must not overwhelm them. The only goal of the description should be to develop scoring criteria for the project (Arter & McTighe, 2001). Additionally, the rubric will play a leading role in supporting and helping the students to make informed judgments. Rubrics are important assessment tools because they help to achieve long term growth and development of students. They need to be employed in an efficient and effective manner so that they can be employed for long term success. Moreover, it is through the use of an integrated and coordinated strategy that success is achieved. Rubrics should be used in such a way that the teachers should seek to motivate and stimulate the learners to work at optimum levels. Information should be processed and developed inside the brains of students. Vocabulary is slowly built up in order to ensure that they have obtained exposure to the various language patterns and structures. They can apply outside knowledge in order to obtain an outline of the text.

Empirical and theoretical studies have demonstrated that a staged approach towards rubrics can produce benefits for students (Arter & McTighe, 2001). It helps to generate interest and passion in the students as it leads to a commitment and devotion for reading comprehension skills. Further reading helps to enhance the cognitive and intellectual capacity of students. Finally it exposes them to vast literature that can help them achieve educational objectives.

Empirical and theoretical studies have demonstrated that reading comprehension is a multifaceted and multidirectional activity. It comprises of knowledge about the external environment amalgamated with basic language structures and patterns. An interactive approach towards reading seeks to utilize a top down approach. This is because the student is interacting with the literature (Andrade & Ying, 2005).

Based upon this interaction, the student develops a unique understanding and awareness about the entire process. Previous knowledge is also utilized in order to develop comprehension. Rubrics should be employed in such a
manner that they help to apply an interactive approach towards learning among the students. The interactive approach helps to augment the cognitive and psychological abilities of the student. It provides a structural framework that enhances learning and reading skills. Studies recommend that a task based approach should be utilized in the educational environment.

Dividing reading into specific tasks helps to produce superior outcomes. Sentences for instance should be integrated with real situations. The entire context of the literature should focus on academic and practical knowledge. Fluency and proficiency should be encouraged in a slow and logical manner. The learners should be integrated into the classroom setting in order to achieve objectives. An interactive environment helps to increase the levels of confidence for students (Andrade & Ying, 2005). An open atmosphere of communication and association demonstrates commitment towards developing reading skills. It helps to increase the morale of students. Further it can significantly reduce boredom associated with conventional reading materials and techniques.

Another unique and innovative approach towards the development of rubrics is the use of task oriented strategies. The teacher and student have a direct relationship in this setting. It helps to transform the process of language acquisition skills decisive and consequential. Various skills like skimming and scanning are utilized in the task oriented approach. The students should be able to deduce the central idea of the literature. Inferences should be derived by investigating signs in the text. Further each paragraph should be understood by linking it with the preceding one.

Students should have the ability to make smart presumptions about the text. The interactive function of the text should be evaluated in a systematic and logical manner. Vocabulary is enhanced through this process (Andrade & Ying, 2005). Task oriented approach boosts the ability of students to learn new words and phrases. They develop grammatical and sentence structures in order to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. The use of optimized strategies helps to produce flawless strategies in reading. The teacher also divides students into specific groups. Each group is assigned specific tasks through this approach. Group discussion helps to identify the deductions made by each group. Student queries can be answered by the educational instructor (Andrade & Ying, 2005). Thus the overall aim of task oriented approach is to enable the students to create their own reading skills and abilities. Such an approach helps to increase the confidence, willpower, and determination of students. It enables them to enhance reading skills in a smart and proficient manner.

Some researchers have identified the requirement of additional skills in order to develop efficient rubrics. They suggest the use of integrated skills in order to arrive at appropriate conclusions. Reading and listening should be simultaneously pursued in order to ensure that integrated skills are developed. Students should be tasked with the responsibility of identifying the main features of specified task. They should listen to their colleagues in order to enhance their reading abilities. Recitation of the literature by different students helps to create a collaborative educational environment (Andrade & Ying, 2005).

It leads to the development of integrated skills that can be used to enhance the reading experience. Another valuable skill is to abridge the specified text. This method seeks to utilize smart and quick reading strategies. The student seeks to develop an outline inside their brains.

Knowledge acquisition skills can also be useful at this stage. Other integrated skills can include the use of diverse literature to enhance reading skills. Teachers for instance could integrate modern literature with classic literature. Such an approach helps to stimulate the mental activities of students. It helps them to gain an appreciation of the diverse nature of English language.

4. Conclusion

Rubrics are important aspect of assessing students reading comprehension. They should be designed through the focus on efficiency. The goals of instructors should be clear and precise. This helps to create a collaborative strategy for success. Moreover, the use of innovation and creativity can help to attain long term success for learners and teachers.

References

The Social Role of Art and the Artist in the Ballads of Günter Grass and Wolf Biermann

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to show how the German artistic ballad reflects the question of the social role of art and the artist in the second half of the 20th century, when – parallel with the affirmation of the concept of socially engaged and conscious art – the question of the status of an intellectual in society becomes very important. Within this study of German ballad, this literary and musical genre is understood as a short discursive form that deals with existential questions and stoned truths and values by means of apparently naive and simple presented events, offering in that way an opportunity for critical reflection in the act of reception. Two representative ballads are interpreted within this paper: Adorno’s tongue (Adorno’s Zunge, 1965) from Günter Grass and Ballad to the Poet François Villon (Ballade auf den Dichter François Villon, 1968) from Wolf Biermann. The immanent text interpretation of the two selected ballads shows the way in which literature, as an aesthetic response to reality, can offer the relevant critical perception of society, considering the historical moment of origin of the text as well as the philosophical and existential views of the author.

Keywords: German artistic ballad, Günter Grass, Wolf Biermann, social role, artist.

1. Introduction

German ballad, the literary and musical genre that returned to popularity at the end of the 20th century, is today understood as a short discursive form that deals with existential questions and stoned, “eternal” truths and values by means of apparently naive and simple presented events, offering in that way an opportunity for critical reflection in the act of reception. Today’s understanding of the ballad as an “epic-fictional literary genre” follows the previous theoretical and historical consideration of ballad that received a fresh impetus at the end of the 20th century (Laufhütte, 1992). The discussion about the range and expressive possibilities of the ballad ran parallel with the development of ballad writing. 1

In accordance with the model of Hartmut Laufhütte from 1991, explained and amended by Srdan Bogosavljević, within this research, ballad is understood as a narrative fiction, which differs from other epic genres not by its topics, but rather by the fact that the narrated occurrence – “the unusual event or conflict” – is structured teleologically (Bogosavljević, 2006). The ballad aims to tell the story in the way that enables the “critical reflection of the narrated occurrence in the act of reception” (Laufhütte, 1991).

Two different narrative styles developed within the two parallel traditions of the ballad: serious, direct narration on the one side and an ironic game of wit on the other. These two traditions were radically separated in the 19th century due to their perceived artistic value. Hence, we no longer read ballad as a mix of literary genres, as previously defined (from Goethe to Kayser), but rather as a mix of the two aforementioned narrative styles that can be easily identified in the works of Höfle, Goethe, Schiller, Heine and Meyer in 19th century, as well as in those of Brecht, Grass and Ulla Hahn in the 20th century (Laufhütte, 2009). The sustainable source of the modernity of the genre can be found within that mix. That can be proven in a relevant short historical overview of ballad as a genre that developed choosing a variety of different motives and topics while using apparently naive narration. This type of narration distances an object from the narrative instance, enabling direct, although not simplified, insight into the basic human, natural and destiny relations, as well as in the social and historical questions, opening in that way space for their reflection. Making an issue out of the status of the reality or making a problem out of the chosen point of view, as well as unexpectedly changing the narrative instances and shifting the presented events into the fantastic or unrealistic sphere are typical literary means used in the ballad to enable individual reflection, so that the reader can come to his or her own conclusions, without docility and using his or her own cognitive and creative potential.

The new theoretical perspective in the 20th century made it possible to connect the old and new tradition of the ballad and with it the paradigm shift in the theory of this genre. At the same time, the different new perspectives in the humanities that the ballad of 20th century chooses for its reflection of existential and social questions, made possible the new understanding of old, always current topics or rather their reconsideration and reevaluation. One of them is the issue of how art is understood.

During the historical development of the genre, starting from the second half of the 18th century up until modern day, ballad tends to make the art and artist the subject of discussion. In the more than 200-year long history of the genre, the ballad reflects the questions of literature, its origins and nature, its effectiveness and power, as well as the social role of the poet. From Löwen’s Zuverlässige Geschichte (True Story), through Goethe’s Sänger (Singer) and Schiller’s Ibykus to Heine’s Firdusi and Laotse from Brecht, the ballad proves itself as a self-confident literary genre, which dares to sing about itself. The mentioned topics are questioned in both serious and satirical-comic tradition of the ballad and alternately answered from two different points of view – affirmative and critical. Not only Goethe and Schiller believed in the power of art to transform society through the individual education gained within an aesthetic activity. Their faith had to do with their belief in the transcendental origin of the poetry, which they shared with the Romantics. Although skeptical about the social ranking of an artist and with no faith in transcendental, the critical tradition of the ballad, as old as an affirmative one, also asks art to be an instrument – a sharp instrument of criticism that reveals social and individual weaknesses through narration.

The ballad of the 20th century understands the arts in the way its age does: from the complete social alienation of an artist in Neo-romanticism, through the call for the political involvement and truth that needs to be said to the postmodern demand for critical revision of any doctrine. With the affirmation of the concept of political involved and socially conscious art, the question of the status of an intellectual in society becomes once again very important. The German ballad after World War II, in complete accordance with the new aesthetic thought that lost confidence in heavenly fair order, no longer tries to just tell the story, but to unveil the whole truth about the unimaginable experiences that cannot be absorbed by the old theodicy. Hence, there are no more ideals in the ballad, in the way as in the philosophy of the time, according to Horkheimer, there is no more God that could be absolutely good or almighty (Horkheimer, 1982). The critical philosophy of the Frankfurt School, that Theodor Adorno formulated in a comprehensive theory, strongly influenced the new understanding of art and what is artistic. Since the 1950s, Adorno claims there is no more space for metaphysics, asceticism or hedonism in the arts. He demands art to be an instrument of permanent social observation and the place where the truth about society and history can be unveiled (Adorno, 1977). His decisive demand influenced the postwar generation of authors who looked for their way between Brecht's left engagement and L'art pour l'art of Neo-romanticism.

2. Methods

As an influential genre of German literature, artistic ballad revived as a literary but also as a musical form, in the second half of the 20th century. Its popularity in the contemporary production undoubtedly has to do with its expressional possibilities. The important part of the research, resumed in the introduction of this paper, was therefore the theoretical consideration of the current understanding of the German artistic ballad and its expressional possibilities based on insight into the latest relevant literature.

Starting from this theoretical position, two ballads are selected from the second half of the 20th century which focused on art and the artist, respectively the social role of the poet. Having in mind the thesis of Fritz Martini (1949) that the two German divergent literary scenes after World War II are parts of one common tradition of German literature, we selected one ballad from an author from the Federal Republic of Germany and another from a GDR author. Both of them, however, had a very critical relation to official politics.

The immanent text interpretation of Adorno’s tongue (Adornos Zunge, 1965) from Günter Grass and Ballad to the Poet François Villon (Ballade auf den Dichter François Villon, 1968) from Wolf Biermann should show in which way the ballad, as a reflexive and auto reflexive genre, can at the same time be a good literary work and the voice of public, respectively, social criticism.

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2As a musical genre, ballad dominates more than a half of the century the conformist scene around the world: pop ballad from Beatles and Bob Dylan, to Chris Christophers, as well as the musical-dancing narrative forms: rap and hip hop ballad (LL Cool J, Mac Dre, Jay Z, Kool Savas etc).
3. Analysis

Günter Grass’s cult novel *Tin Drum* (*Blechtrommel*, 1959) is a direct response to Adorno’s demand that postwar art must scrutinize the role of an individual in the collective euphoria of National Socialism. Although Grass’s literary work is featured by many postulates of Adorno’s aesthetics, in the late ‘60s, he takes the side of Adorno’s opponents who strongly criticized the discrepancy between the radical social criticism that Adorno’s theory pled for and the fact that there was no realization of the criticism in practice at all. In his letters from the same period, Grass condemns the Frankfurt professor for not speaking up clearly enough for social democracy. In the short ballade *Adorno’s Tongue*, he stands out against the sterility of Adorno’s philosophy of language and ‘narcissistic infatuation of the ‘golden-mouthed’ in his own sweet words’ (Frizen, 2007). Similar to the work of Bertolt Brecht, the intellectual in Grass’s presentation is portrayed from the angle of his social responsibility – for doing and for not doing. Grass, however, shows no trace of belief in the didactic role of literature. Reducing the abstract ideas to their concrete, representational substitutes, the story of the ballad follows the questionable reception of Adorno’s words. The tongue is used as a metaphor to refer to the emptiness of mechanical production of voices – talking without speaking and with no communicative value – and introduces the symbolism of a snake – sticking out its tongue – a serpent that tempts one to commit sin. The motive of the game in the first strophe falls short of expectations: instead of *homo ludens*, the narrator presents us with a spoiled intellectual that plays with the tongue. Playing with the tongue is a ‘beautiful entertainment’ for him. The attribute ‘beautiful’, stressed by repetition, suggests the concept of adoring beauty in arts, which turns Adorno’s criticism of hedonism and ‘L’art pour L’art against his own creator. Repeating the adverb ‘alone’ (alleine, 15–16), the narrator reproaches the philosopher of the radical social theory with the romantic individualism and egotism. That is additionally stressed by the mirror in Adorno’s portrait. The mirror introduces the motive of Narcissus, who cannot act, captivated by his own reflection. The core of the ballad is actually an old conflict of action and contemplation that Grass presents through the means of grotesque. Grass’s criticism does not save Adorno’s recipients who are portrayed as butchers looking for a good piece of tongue. Their tendency to take home the beautiful object („trugen sie/ die schöne Zunge in ihr Haus“, 17–18) indicates their petty bourgeois orientation, even if ‘house’ is understood here as an individual cognitive capacity and not as the petty bourgeois interior. The principle of concretization of abstract ideas and realized metaphors are always present in Grass’s expression. At the beginning, butchers are only a threat, but later on, they are coming into the house without knocking and with a knife, which refers to the crudeness of Adorno’s recipients. They take for granted the nice sounding ideas, adopt them as their own, becoming ready to fight for them aggressively. When they butcher them, it is too late: ‘zu spät’ stays separate from the last strophe, in the same way that ‘beautiful ideas’ stay separate, estranged from their creator.

Critical voices reverberate also in Biermann’s *Ballad to the Poet François Villon*. Well-known as a critic of party dictatorship in the German Democratic Republic, Wolf Biermann rises here against the art that supports the communistic system. Biermann’s ballads continue the tradition of Wedekind’s cabaret songs that are sung by the author in front of an audience, thus their narrator is mostly identified with the poet himself. The first-person narrator of this ballad identifies himself as a poet of a rebel tradition, emphasizing that Villon

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3 All verses quoted with the verse number from *Laufhütte*, 1991a.
However, sweet delirium of the romantic poetry is here replaced by heavy alcohol drunkenness, with spirit that “shoots in the brain” („Der drückt ihm aufs Gehirn“, 54) and love is reduced to the petty bourgeois merit of Maria’s nightly visits. In order to stay alone with her, the narrator sends his brother Villon into the reality of divided Germany. The poet is a provocateur who dares to debunk the nonsense of the social life of his time. That is how one must understand the picture of Villon, who plays the barbed-wire-harp on the Berlin Wall while the border soldiers set the beat with their machine-gun fire.

Dann spielt er auf dem Stacheldraht
Aus Jux die große Harfe
Die Grenzer schießen Rhythmus zu
Verschieden nach Bedarfe (69–72)

However, nobody wants to hear the truth, not even as a joke, so the poet is being chased in this world and hereafter. The whole thing is discovered and the police come to visit the narrator, who hands over the closet, where his brother-poet hides, without any resistance. The art of provocation that demands truth as an aesthetic quality is a target of the doctrinal regime where brother betrays brother. Through the portrayal of a poet that stands for the concept of rebellion in art, Biermann snarled again at the regime of fear and unfreedom that ruled in East Germany. The answer of the first-person narrator to the police, written in two strophes of eight verses, contains the sharp satirical portraits of a subservient citizen and the regime poet, both in fear and meek as a lamb, with no political influence, ignore the social questions.

Ein Lämmerschwänzchen bin ich
Ein stiller Bürger. Blumen nur
In Liedern sanft besing ich. (114–116)

The motive of flowers recalls the picture from the first part of the ballad:

Er stinkt, der Dichter, blumensüß
Muß er gerochen haben
Bevor sie ihn vor Jahr und Tag
Wie’n Hund begraben haben (9–12)

The rebellion of a poet like Villon, part of the literary tradition, where the narrator also includes himself, smells like rotting flesh and ends up buried like a dog. Honor and respect go to the one who sings about flowers – the top official of doctrinal GDR culture, Alfred Kurella, mentioned in false positive context. Inversions and verbal turns are an inevitable part of Biermann's satirical expression: from the harmful literature of Villon and Kafka, the frightened first-person narrator has to protect himself while reading the writings of Kurella. Moreover, such a good and doctrinal well-read citizen–poet turns into an informer, who betrays his brother. That is his best achievement. His disgust for that kind of artist, Biermann expresses through the metaphor of vomit („das Erbrochenes“, 119) – that is the only thing that the police found in the closet where the ‘older brother’, Villon, hid. In that way the ballad expresses the disgust for the concept of sentimental and futile art.

4 The colloquial use of a noun Schwanz, m. (DIM Schwänzchen) as a word for male genitals, allows an additional satirical reading of Biermann's verses.

4 Results and Discussion

In Grass's ballad the literary topos of the bad influence of literature is once again a subject of discussion and the question that has been raised many times from Cervantes through Flaubert to Expressionism: is the responsibility for acting on the text or on the reader? Grass's criticism is a double-edged sword. The responsibility of the audience does not suspend the responsibility of the intellectual, who must be aware of the fact that a nice expression has a seductive strength. Art must be more than a beautiful word and the artist should be the live voice of the public, criticism and politics, which rises also against itself, if petrified in the ineffective patterns of the past.

Biermann portrays the poet as a rebel provocateur that dares to debunk the nonsense of the political and social life of his time. His first-person narrator expresses the disgust for the concept of sentimental, doctrinal and sterile art as well as for the society of unfreedom where such art blossoms. Both of them enchain man, reducing him to his instincts and fears, to the banality of an anonymous existence.
5. Conclusion

The interpretation of the two selected ballads shows the way in which literature, as an aesthetic response to reality, can offer the relevant critical perception of society, considering the historical moment of origin of the text as well as the philosophical and existential views of the author.

Grass’s reaction to Adorno’s sterile aestheticism makes the role of the intellectual in modern society a subject of discussion, but at the same time, it also demonstrates how literature, in the form of a ballad, can react to the current topics without the risk of becoming political speech. It is the same with Biermann, who, criticizing the communist regime in East Germany, calls for the vivid and conscious, critical art that encourages new ideas and opposes fear and death in the way Villon’s spirit did on the Berlin wall. The art of provocation demands truth as an aesthetic quality.

Both examples show the critical potential of the genre. The apparently naive narration of the ballad opens space for individual reflection, enabling the reader to come to his own conclusions, without docility and using his own cognitive and creative potential.

References

Alternative Approaches to Measure Poverty in Russian Regions

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Abstract

The paper proves the need of a complex poverty measurement approach in Russian regions, including the analysis of socio-economic situation, efficiency of existing institutes, and state of environment. We analyze the official poverty measurement approach in Russia and consider its main problems. To identify the complex picture of poverty in Russian regions, we compare indicators characterizing poverty according to the monetary approach.

Keywords: inequality, human development, poverty, regions, Russia.

1. Introduction

The second wave of global economic crisis in 2012 has interrupted the growth of per capita incomes in Russia and has led to a rise in poverty. In 2013, compared to 2012, the proportion of the poor increased by 0.3 percentage point to 11.1%. Factors and risks of poverty in the period have been: the decline in real incomes; increase of the poverty line as a result of inflation; job cuts; slowdown in social transfers and wages in the public sector. Structural problems in the Russian economy are still not resolved, the global financial and commodity markets are reeling, the instability in Ukraine is growing, debt problem in Europe remains valid – there is a chance of slowing economic recovery. In this regard, the issue of poverty in Russia is becoming increasingly important.

Three concepts of monetary poverty measurement have been worked out: absolute, relative and subjective. Since Russia’s rank in the global economy is contradictory: on a range of indicators we are lagging behind developed countries and at the same time we are significantly different from the developing ones (despite their diversity), the problem of poverty can not be solved without combining the concepts of absolute (common for developing countries), relative and subjective poverty (typical for the developed ones).

2. Methodology

The Poverty headcount index (the proportion of population with incomes below the subsistence minimum) is a core element of officially published data on the level of poverty in Russian regions, which reflects the most extreme poverty, but not a living wage, that is, the amount by which a person can live with dignity. A methodology for determining the poverty in Russia is based on an absolute monetary approach, which does not meet the minimum required to meet the needs for human development and to evaluate all factors affecting the structure and dynamics of poverty.

According to Fedorenko (2005) the official approach “makes comparable estimates of poverty and subsistence either by region or by time period, and does not allow to fix the duration of the state of poverty” (p. 22). Poverty is a multidimensional category that can not be measured only by monetary indicators. A complex approach to defining and measuring poverty, including an analysis of the socio-economic situation in the region, access to health care and education, the effectiveness of existing institutions and the environment is needed.

Rudenko (2013) has systematized approaches to poverty study providing: an approach based on unmet basic needs; a money metric approach; an approach through the possibilities of human development; an approach through social exclusion and a participative approach. The study of monetary poverty should include an analysis of population with incomes below the poverty line with its different variations according to the concepts of absolute, relative and subjective poverty. The study of unmet basic needs for food and living conditions involves determining the number of people without housing amenities and modern appliances. It is necessary to consider the proportion of children who are not receiving general education, the provision of medical services, morbidity (especially active tuberculosis, alcoholism, substance abuse and drug addiction), disability and mortality in the study of human development opportunities. The study of social exclusion involves determining the level of unemployment (ILO methodology), the number of the homeless, as well as street children. The study of subjective poverty evaluates the satisfaction by the financial situation and quality of
life, the prospects for improvement.

The author compares various parameters describing the poverty with a monetary point of view to identify a complex picture of this phenomenon in regions of Russia. We take the view of Aivazyan (1997) that incomes of Russian households are likely to be well approximated by a lognormal distribution in the income range typically associated with observed poverty rates. For a homogeneous population with a lognormal income distribution, the poverty rate, \( H \) is given by

\[
H = \Phi\left(\frac{\ln z - \mu}{\sigma}\right)
\]

where \( \Phi \) denotes the standard Normal distribution function, \( z \) is a poverty line, \( \mu \) is a mean log income, and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation of log incomes.

According to Kolenikov and Shorrocks (2003) “this explicit formula for the poverty rate helps us to appreciate and understand the complex (and highly non-linear) way in which the mean income, inequality, and poverty line factors interact to determine the level of poverty”. Poverty rate estimates from the proposed methodology are necessarily subject to error as they take no account of variations in incomes and minimum subsistence levels by types of households. They also rely on highly aggregated quintile share data for the distributional characteristics. Nevertheless, they are able to reproduce the main features of the Rosstat series of poverty rates. The main advantage of aggregated models is that they allow the poverty rate to be simulated under various scenarios different from those pertaining in the official series. These counter-factual experiments are precisely what is required in order to compare indicators characterizing poverty according to national and international approaches.

3. Results

The prevalence of poverty in the Russian regions in 2012 ranged from 6.5 to 30.8%. The geography of poverty is similar to the geography of the income purchasing power in many ways, as it is a basic money-metric poverty factor. The lowest proportion of the poor in 2012 had the Tatarstan Republic (6.5%) and Belgorodskaya oblast (6.5%), and the maximum level was maintained in Kalmykia (30.8%) and Tyva (28.1%).

The author has used an alternative methodology to assess poverty – absolute (USA – a threefold increase in the cost of the minimum food basket) and relative (EU – the proportion of people living on less than 50% of per capita income). Per capita income in 2012 on average in Russia was amounted to RUB 22880 per month, the cost of the minimum food basket was RUB 2541. So, the poverty line will be considered in the first case as a three times cost of the minimum food basket – RUB 7623 and a half of per capita income – RUB 11440 in the second case. Thus, the proportion of the poor in Russia in 2012 was about 15.6% and 31% respectively. The calculation results for the regions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Regional levels of absolute and relative poverty headcount indexes, %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian region</th>
<th>Absolute poverty</th>
<th>Relative poverty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Official, %</td>
<td>American, %</td>
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<tr>
<td>Belgorod region</td>
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<td>10.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>15.3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>60.8</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>Kostroma region</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kursk region</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lipetsk region</td>
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<tr>
<td>Moscow region</td>
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<td>10.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orel region</td>
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<td>18.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ryazan region</td>
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<td>Tambov region</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tver region</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
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The official rate. Measuring poverty by a subjective approach suggests that a large number of people consider themselves
Based on Rosstat regional statistics 2013.

Dynamics of the population with incomes below the subsistence level shows a stable downward trend, but the dynamics
of poverty, defined by the European methodology, is not so clear and shows that on average, one-third of the population
are relatively poor. According to the standards of developed countries, the poverty in Russia is 1.5-3 times higher than
the official rate. Measuring poverty by a subjective approach suggests that a large number of people consider themselves
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the face of rising living standards of the population as a whole – as opposed to periods of crisis, accompanied by a
significant fall-off – self-assessment of people’s financial situation is much more determined not by sufficient funds to
meet the most urgent needs, but by comparing the conditions of life of the others. However, as in other countries,
subjectively estimated poverty rate is above the relative poverty rate, and its boundary is probably close to the value of
the median income” (p.135).

Figures 1 and 2 show that relative poverty in Russian regions is as high as the level of per capita income and
inequality. According to Sheviakov (2005) there is “excessive inequality, expressed in excessive concentration and
polarization of income, including the wealthiest regions” (p. 62).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</table>

| Kamchatka Krai              | 34.3 | 23.1 | 55.06| 18.5 | 23.68| 26.2 |
| Primorsky Krai              | 46.9 | 19.4 | 66.73| 28.7 | 21.48| 27.6 |
| Khabarovsk Krai             | 26.5 | 18.8 | 44.29| 19.6 | 25.23| 27.3 |
| Amur region                 | 44.6 | 23.1 | 62.93| 22.9 | 23.45| 27.6 |
| Magadan region              | 20.8 | 16.3 | 42.2 | 19.7 | 24.46| 30.5 |
| Sakhalin region             | 31.0 | 12.0 | 42.58| 17.8 | 24.69| 30.1 |
| Jewish autonomous region    | 38.4 | 22.5 | 63.2 | 30.9 | 22.99| 26.1 |
| Chukotka autonomous okrug   | 28.6 | 9.3  | 46.41| 23.5 | 30.37| 30.5 |

Based on Rosstat regional statistics 2013.

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**Figure 1.** The interdependence of absolute and relative poverty and money income per capita, corrected according to the
price level, 2012

**Figure 2.** The interdependence of absolute and relative poverty and the Gini index, 2012
We can observe that the number of the relatively poor was about 38% in Moscow with an official poverty rate of 9.7% in 2012. If one had increased a relative poverty line to two-thirds of per capita income there would be 51% of the poor. The reason for this is the excessive concentration of income in the capital. The development strategy, based on the growing inequality in the distribution of income between the rich and the poor, actually does not lead to an increase in economic potential. Figure 3 shows that the number of billionaires has increased since the world economic crisis, but the number of the poor has not varied significantly in Russia.

Figure 3. The number of billionaires and the poor in Russia, 2004-2013

By the number of billionaires Russia is one of the leaders in the global economy. Thus, according to the annual Forbes (2013) ranking, Russia was ranked third after the United States and China, but according to the GDP per capita (PPP) Russia was ranked only 77.

The total net worth of all 110 Russian billionaires was 427.1 billion U.S. dollars, or nearly 20.2% of GDP, estimated by CIA at 2113 billion U.S. dollars at market exchange rates. While the total net wealth of all 442 American billionaires was estimated at nearly 11.2% of GDP. According to Credit Suisse (2013) “Russia has the highest level of wealth inequality in the world, apart from small Caribbean nations with resident billionaires. Worldwide, there is one billionaire for every USD 170 billion in household wealth; Russia has one for every USD 11 billion. Worldwide, billionaires collectively account for 1%-2% of total household wealth; in Russia today 110 billionaires own 35% of all wealth”. There is no middle class in Russia, the formation of which is prevented by an exceptional income differentiation and the presence of a large number of residents with incomes below the subsistence minimum.

In addition to a positive and statistically significant (coefficient of Pearson correlation 0.848) correlation between the level of economic development and inequality in the regions of Russia, there is also a positive and significant (coefficient of Pearson correlation 0.64) relationship between the growth rate of per capita income and changes in the incomes inequality (Fig. 4).

Figure 4. The interdependence of economic growth and changes in income inequality in Russian regions, 2002-2012.

Thus, different indicators confirm that inequality has intensified during the period of economic growth. This is a consequence of a very uneven distribution of “fruits” of economic growth and revenues from high commodity prices to different social groups and regions. As a result, the rich get richer and the poor – relatively poorer. While the social
welfare system is not effective enough as it is weakly oriented to support low-income groups.

4. Concluding Remarks

The results of the analysis and discussions indicated that poverty in many Russian regions was a problem of excessively high inequality and its scope could not be drastically reduced in the short term without a radical reduction of inequality. However, in the period of 2002-2012, income inequality had increased in almost all regions of Russia. The current situation in Russia is paradoxical – economic growth (characterized by low quality) under the existing distribution model only reinforces inequality, does not contribute to the alleviation of poverty. The trend of declining social well-being during the positive dynamics of socio-economic development indicates the need to review the socio-economic policy through an introduction of the integrated approach to poverty study. We proposed such a systematic approach to measure poverty presupposing to explore various dimensions of it from the perspective of different approaches: absolute, relative and subjective.

5. Acknowledgement

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References


Yoga for Gender-Based Empowerment: A New Approach in Employee Wellness

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Abstract

The well-being of employees has become an important issue in a competitive market within organisations. This is influenced in part by the fact that modern man is much more alert to his/her rights and more intent on leading a balanced life; increasingly seeking for a greater balance between work, leisure and family life. In its quest to gain a competitive edge in its industry, an organisation needs to consider the well-being of its employees. Among the different strategies that organisations use to ensure the well-being of its employees is yoga. Yoga has gained increased attention and popularity worldwide as a new means for improved physical and mental health. It has now become an integral part of many global organisations to positively alter the behaviour patterns of employees who experience high stress levels. Although yoga has been getting widespread acclaims, the relative roles of yoga on employee well-being has not being studied comprehensively. The purpose of this study was therefore to explore relationship between the implementation of gender-based yoga and enhancement of employees’ wellness for improved productivity. In order to obtain relevant data, qualitative methods were utilized. Based on the findings implications for further studies are made.

Keywords: Yoga, well-being, employees, productivity,

1. Introduction

Yoga, an almost 26,000 years old Indian-based spiritual tradition can be understood through varied traditionally-induced meanings. The term originated from the Sanskrit word ‘Yuj’ meaning unity/union. On one hand, yoga can be considered as a connection between the physical and cosmic-consciousness. On the other hand, yoga can be vital for aligning body, mind, spirit and soul. This yogic configuration can be achieved through following five paths (compiled from Narasimhan and Prasad, 2012: 2): Jnana Yoga or Jnana Marga (path of knowledge), the Yoga of wisdom; Bhakti Yoga (path of devotion), the Yoga of devotion; Karma Yoga or Ashtanga yoga (eight-fold yoga), the royal or psychological which involves the mind; and Mantra, Naada yoga, the world of sound is also seen as a manifestation of Supreme Being.

Ban and Tomescu (2008: 239) state that “[w]ellness is generally used to mean a healthy balance of the mind-body and spirit that results in an overall feeling of well-being. It has been used in the context of alternative medicine since Halbert Dunn began using the phrase high-level wellness in the fifties, based on a series of lectures at a Unitarian Universalist Church in Arlington, Virginia, in the United States. The modern concept of wellness did not, however, become popular until the 1970’s”. Wellness programmes can be as simple and inexpensive as providing information about stop-smoking clinics and weight-loss programmes or as comprehensive and expensive as providing professional health screening and fitness facilities (Gijana, 2011). Furthermore, organisations can promote wellness by incorporating employee wellness into the overall strategy and the culture of the organisation.

Gender is conceptually defined by various scholars and academics (Rubin, 1975; Molyneux 1985; Moser, 1993; Cherry, 2013) as varied attributes linking to feminine and masculine aspects, namely differentiated roles and responsibilities, identity, attitudes, behaviour patterns, needs and requirements. In this context, “both women and men deserve equal respect, opportunities and appreciation in the society” (Reddy, 2006: 28; Quirk, 2013: 1), and hence demand physical, emotional and mental empowerment. The current study therefore employs the “empowerment approach” (Govender & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2013; Vyasa-Doorgapersad, 2013) as a theoretical scaffold for the study.

The reasons to follow yogic paths are to bring balance within and between body, mind and soul; enhance concentration, create focus, remove negative patterns of behaviour, develop clarity in thinking, improve inner strength, reduce stress and induce self-healing. These imperative benefits are vital for women and men equally who experience physical, emotional, and psychological stresses complemented with pressurized demands of work. The study introduces the utility of yoga for employee wellness in the South African employment sector from a gender perspective, emphasizing its significance for empowerment.
2. Employee Wellness: An Overview

2.1 Stress and Employee Wellness

According to a research conducted by Van Zyl (2002), a huge percentage of the population suffers from stress. This is reflected in the high figures of Coloureds (34.7%), Whites and Asians (38.1%) and Black (35%) South Africans who suffer from high stress levels. This concern can be supported with the views of Eriksson (2012) of the human resources effectiveness group emphasizing that South Africans experience abnormally high levels of stress in the workplace compared to the rest of the world. There are various contributing factors for stress. They could be personal (divorce, family problems) or professional (work-related demands, high benchmarks), with consequences such as absenteeism, suicidal attitude, verbal abuse, conflict, depression, low esteem, less productivity and anger. The stress levels themselves can reflect “an adverse relationship between, situational analysis of the climate in the organization and employee productivity; absenteeism, sick leaves and financial implications; high chronic health conditions resulting in the need for an integrated focus on the wellness of the employees” (North-West University, 2006: 2). The stress is not only visible in the public and private labour markets. Research (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008) suggests that educational sector employees also experience occupational stress due to an imbalance between work (evening lectures) and personal life, lack of communication between colleagues, differentiated salary scales and promotion aspirations. The South African employment sector is in dire need of incorporating strategies to assist employees coping with stress levels. The current study suggests that an Employee Wellness Programme needs to incorporate yoga as an alternative therapy complementing good diet, exercise, healthy eating habits and daily meditation practices.

2.2 Yoga and Employee Wellness

The significance of yoga has been realized by some of the companies in South Africa. Companies such as First National Bank, Investec, Old Mutual, Regenesys and Nandos, are some of the organizations that have incorporated yoga in their employee wellness programmes, whereby the concept corporate yoga emerged. New concepts and designations are emerging with innovative ideas to cope with the stress at work-place. Martin Combrinck who holds positions as a Chief Happiness Officer (CHO) at Founder at Laughter for Africa, also a CEO and Founder at Sanga Wellness, and an Educator at Ananda Sanga Educational Institute, is popularly known as 'The Corporate Yogi' in Cape Town, offers corporate wellness strategies to companies incorporating yoga modalities. The essence is spreading at the macro level, whereby the Employee Assistance Professionals Association of South Africa (EAPA-SA)’s 2012 National Conference (Somerset West, Cape Town) experienced an early morning Yoga and Meditation Bootcamp. This is an indication that there is an awareness of the value of aligning these alternate healing modalities in the Employee Wellness programmes for improved health, enhanced mental status with better focus, concentration and clarity. This may ultimately lead to an outcome of improving productivity at the work-place. This event was organized by a company called Enov8, established to plan events/conferences/seminars on behalf of varied clients, allowing them to enjoy stress-free events. This nature of assistance allows clients to utilize their time in networking, instead of dealing with organizing issues that result in stress.

2.3 Gender and Yoga

At the spiritual level, yoga incorporates the gender aspect in the form of ‘masculine’ [the yang] and ‘feminine’ [the yin] characters that everybody possesses, but not always in a balanced manner. On the materialistic dimensional plane, [male and female] employees demand varied yogic healings to cope with stress. The characteristics of yin are cold, passive, inside, solid, slow, right and dim. The yang qualities are light, hot, active, outside, hollow, rapid and bright. The energies of yin and yang need to be balanced, otherwise the transition can be devastating - a heart attack could be the balancing force applied to us. These imbalances are often referred to as either a ‘deficiency’ or an ‘excess’. We can have an excess of yin or a yin deficiency; we can have an excess of yang or a yang deficiency. The solution is to apply the opposite energy to control the excess or deficiency” (yinyoga.com, 2014: 2). Yoga therefore has to offer assorted yoga facets applicable to males (enhancing yin in them) and female (strengthening yang in them) for proper emotional, physical, psychological, and mental well-being. This balance is also vital to comprehend the gender-based requirements at professional and personal levels, hence avoiding conflict-based stress with improved harmony-based understanding.

Very little research literature or studies exist in the South African context that examine the role that yoga plays both in wellness in an organization as well as its contribution to gender empowerment. Hence, the purpose of this study was to explore corporate, academic and government organisation employees’ perceptions of yoga as a component of wellness programmes.
3. Research Methodology

A comprehensive literature study was undertaken to explore the influence of yoga on employee wellness in the professional workplace. A literature review is defined as “the use of ideas in the literature to justify the particular approach to the topic, the selection of methods, and demonstration that this research contributes something new” (Levy & Ellis, 2006: 2). Moreover, it is considered as a “critical analysis of a segment of a published body of knowledge through summary, classification, and comparison of prior research studies, reviews of literature and theoretical articles” (Duke University, 2010: 1). In addition, a qualitative research approach was employed to gather data from employees of selected organizations that have incorporated and implemented yoga in their employee wellness programmes. By its very nature, qualitative research is a value-laden inquiry. It investigates the reality of participants as they experience it by using narrations and descriptions of their real life experiences (Repko, 2008). It can be deduced that “qualitative research typically studies people or systems by interacting with and observing the participants in their natural environment and focusing on their meanings and interpretations” (Ntuli, 2012). The aim of the qualitative research, therefore, is “to describe the meanings and challenges experienced as result of utilising and implementing certain programs, practices or processes” (Mertens, 2010:225).

In this study open-ended questions were employed to gather responses from the target population.

3.1 Sample

Due to the fact that yoga has been embraced by a limited number of organisations, the probability to obtain responses in a country-specific restrictive boundary was difficult. The principal researcher utilized web sources to obtain the names of organizations/professionals who were involved in practicing and teaching yoga. The sample therefore comprises those individuals who accepted the request for participation (not all contacts were reachable in a sense that: some contact details had changed, some returned with error, some did not respond at all). Due to the time constraints, a one-month duration was considered sufficient to collect the data. During this time, three male and nineteen female practitioners submitted their responses. In total, twenty-two responses were received from the KwaZulu Natal, Cape Town and Gauteng provinces in South Africa.

3.2 Instrument and procedure

An interview schedule was developed comprising issues such as previous experience/knowledge with yoga; reasons for the use of alternative therapy; behavioural/attitudinal changes; work productivity; and wellness changes. Standardization was ensured by administering the same set of questions to all respondents. Follow-ups were done if responses received were unclear.

Due to the geographical challenge associated with the study (the organizations considered are national institutions and are situated outside the boundaries of authors’ place of work), the digitized manner was utilized in receiving responses. In this case, interview questionnaires were emailed to the respondents requesting them to respond via email.

3.3 Data analysis

Once all the responses were received, the data were captured on a spreadsheet so that a global view of the responses was available to the researchers. The data was then content-analysed. An inductive approach followed the guidelines suggested by Cote, Salmela and Russell (1995) was used to analyse the content of the data. Similar ideas were clustered and specific themes allocated to them. Three main issues as specified by Srivastava and Hopwood (2009), namely: what the data was ‘saying’, what the researchers wanted to know and the dialectical relationship between what the data was telling them and what they wanted to know” provided direction in analysing the data.

3.4 Ethical considerations

Research ethics “concern the responsibility of researchers to be honest and respectful to all research participants. This means providing research participants with complete information and their role in the research. The information provided to participants should enable them to participate or not. This also implies that before they take part in research the to-be respondents should understand the nature and value of research they are to engage into (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). Respondents were informed regarding research ethics and were ensured that their responses will be confidential and they would remain anonymous at all times. Participants were also informed that their participation was voluntary, hence...
participation in the study implied their consent to participate.

4. Results and Discussion

According to Surujlal (2013) the description and interpretation of the data in some qualitative studies are closely linked. Gustafsson, Hassmén, Kentä and Johansson (2008) argue that such an approach prevents the repetition of explanations. Hence the results and discussion are merged.

The semi-structured interview schedule comprised two sections. The first section sought demographic information of the respondents. The results are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic profile of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Between 44-45 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experience with yogan</td>
<td>Yes 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior knowledge with yogan</td>
<td>Yes 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of practicing yoga</td>
<td>Between 3-25 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents belonged to a diverse professional arena, varying from education, management, banking, IT, interior designing and animal behaviourist. Some are health and yoga practitioners/wellness coaches offering yoga-based guidance to corporate professionals. These respondents were actively engaged in diverse sport/recreation activities before joining yoga. These activities include varied forms of sports, athletics, drama/dance, tai chi, gardening, and fitness training. Although respondents believed in an active lifestyle, they opted for yoga as an alternative due to its health, emotional, and spiritual benefits. Yoga, in this case, complemented their lifestyle. In terms of gender, there were more female practising yoga with their period of engagement ranging from one to 41 years. Though some female respondents did not have any prior knowledge of yoga, once aware, it has become essential aspect of their everyday’s life. Although very few male responded, they were all equipped with knowledge of yoga. This is a positive sign towards gender-based and gender-balanced approach towards yoga. An elaboration of responses received under section two of the interview schedule is reflected in Table 2. The responses are summarized maintaining the authenticity of [personal] expression.

Table 2: Qualitative themes and responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Responses from male</th>
<th>Responses from female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for use of alternative therapy</td>
<td>Yoga builds up physical, emotional strength in a balanced way; it is a good therapy for body and mind.</td>
<td>Yoga is a complete tool for health, emotional and spiritual well-being.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour changes</td>
<td>Positive. One becomes more tolerant, objective, confident. Negative. It was difficult in the beginning, and more pain but this time around ‘good pain’. But the most profound was the quietening of the mind and then slowly changing from a driven individual mentally to one who is calm and serene and on top of anything that is thrown my way. The long terms is the flexibility and the strength.</td>
<td>Positive. One develops more awareness towards personal health, becomes more rational in professional approach, develop good relationships at workplace. Negative. I still experience a degree of pain but not debilitating pain just a reminder that I am alive and ageing and also that some of the damage done is irreversible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude to the therapy since its first use</td>
<td>Strong. Yoga helps to focus, concentrate, more adaptive to surroundings.</td>
<td>Most definite. Yoga is calming, integrates left and right brain functions, teach self-acceptance and humility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with others</td>
<td>One becomes more tolerant, objective, rational, logical.</td>
<td>One becomes more calmer, less stressed, dissolve anger, more happier, detached from workplace conflicts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work productivity</td>
<td>Higher productivity levels.</td>
<td>More productive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical, emotional, health changes</td>
<td>All aspects improved.</td>
<td>Healing to all aspects of a personality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reactions of others towards yoga

- People realized they ‘should’ do yoga. Positive effect.
- People realized that yoga has an impact on lifestyle, attitude, fitness, and overall well-being. Positive effect.

Recommendations

- Organizations ‘should’ offer yoga. Yoga reduces absenteeism due to stress related illnesses.
- HR/strategic decision-makers must promote yoga as the trickle down factor influences all employees. Yoga strengthens core beliefs with improved ethics.

Reference to the results of the qualitative study reflects that the positive benefits outweigh the negative consequences of participating in Yoga. All respondents agreed to the fact that yoga can play an instrumental role in employee wellness as it contributes to decreased levels of health-related illnesses, promotes emotional well-being and develops enthusiasm required for enhanced productivity at the workplace. This finding is supported by Wojcik (2011) who reported that employees are realizing that a psychologically healthy workplace enhances organizational performance and productivity.

From the responses it evident that respondents perceived yoga to contribute to emotional strength. Srinivasan (2013) posits that emotions are the motivating factors of one’s life. They can be productive, empowering and creative, or they can be addictive, negative and abusive. One can therefore deduce from the afore-mentioned that increased emotional and mental strength of employees, if properly directed, can result in positive outcomes for the organisation. Srinivasan (2008) opines that through yoga one is able to master one’s emotional strength which will improve the ability to concentrate, focus and remove distractions. It may therefore be implied that more focussed employees in an organisation are likely to be more efficient and productive.

Respondents also perceived that their practice of yoga contributed to their lower levels of stress. This finding is consistent with findings of previous research. According to Kitamura (2013) yoga and meditation plays a significant role in reducing stress and stress-induced conditions such as hypertension and depression as well as the aging process. Campbell and Moore (2004) found that subjects in their study who were subjected to six weeks of yoga practice for stress had, on average, lower levels of depression, anxiety and stress symptoms than before the beginning of the study.

A few respondents also identified reduced absenteeism as a positive benefit of practising yoga in the workplace. According to Hope (2013) stress was reported to be the leading cause of absenteeism in the workplace. Hence it stands to reason that if practising yoga contributes to lower levels of stress then it is likely that absenteeism will be reduced.

Increased levels of tolerance were also identified as a positive benefit of practising yoga. This finding is consistent with the view of Zarthostimanesh (2014). According to Zarhstoffmanesh (2012) tolerance increases and becomes a virtue not if one tolerates more but if it synthesizes itself with other qualities like patience (titiksha), forbearance (sahana shakti), peacefulness, calmness (shanta guna), forgiveness (kshama), knowing, determination, and compassion. This implies that more tolerant employees are likely to have better relationships with others in the organisation thereby contributing to a more harmonious workplace.

Yoga is significant to widen focused approach with a team-spirit attitude required to create a harmonious working environment. The responses correspond with the empowerment approach emphasizing that both men and women deserve equal appreciation (Govender & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2013). Yoga can be considered as a contributing factor under employee wellness programmes as it reduces levels of stress avoiding absenteeism, hence improving organizational productivity. The responses confirm the reasons to follow yogic path in order to bring balance between professional and personal aspects of life.

5. Limitations and Implications for Further Research

Although the findings of the study provide evidence of the perceived benefits of practising yoga, there were significant limiting factors such as the lack of diversity of participants and the small sample size. As such, the study results cannot be generalised to the greater population. Reliance was on data from participants who were reasonably well acquainted with the practice of yoga, hence it may be possible that their views are biased in favour of yoga. It is anticipated that the current study could precipitate further interest and research into the phenomenon. Future research could, therefore, explore the views of both yoga practitioners and non-practitioners using a larger sample size. This may perhaps portray a more balanced picture of the perceptions of yoga.

6. Conclusion

Based on varied responses received, the article deduces some of the valuable thoughts and concludes that yoga is an art, science and philosophy that has been around for millennia. In many shapes and forms cultures have incorporated it
into their own. Modern science consistently tries to prove or disapprove its benefits, but undeniably it will sustain the test of time as a practice that benefits people mentally, spiritually and physically. It adds a spiritual dimension to any existing religious beliefs, while adding a physical dimension to any existing sporting activity. As a mutually beneficial practice it also helps people/employees at workplace to free their minds and take responsibility for their own lives, established professional goals, and overall well-being.

References


How Painful Can It Be? Rheumatic Diseases Through the Eyes of Future Nurses

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Abstract

Rheumatic diseases, by their nature and symptoms are one of the diseases that have the greatest impact on public health, affecting thousands of people, and being directly responsible for serious limitations, not only on a physical level but also the emotional and social level. These diseases have a chronic nature. In many cases, they seriously influence the well-being of many people, as well as their productivity, and regular activity. They are associated with several problems, within the family or at a professional domain, forcing to major changes in the patients' routines, leading to situations of limitation, disability (temporary or permanent), absenteeism, impossibility to accomplish some tasks and duties, or early retirement. Nursing has an essential role on the prevention and management of chronic illnesses, giving healthcare and support to patients, in different stages of their illness. The aim of this study is to understand how students of nursing represent the situation and the problems of the patients affected by rheumatic diseases. We carried out a focus group with twelve students, three men and nine women with a mean age of 20 years, attending the 2nd year of the nursing program. On the interaction with the participants, we focused our attention on three questions: What is a rheumatic disease?; What are the implications of the disease for the person, and in his self-care?; How does rheumatic disease influences the image that a person has of himself? Future nurses consider that rheumatic disease has major consequences in people's lives, in their daily activities, work and family, pointing out that pain and bodily changes contribute to decreased self-esteem, lack of confidence and social isolation.

Keywords: Rheumatic disease, self-care, caring, nursing, pain, body.

1. Introduction

Rheumatic diseases generally have non-traumatic causes, and involve functional changes in the musculoskeletal system that can be potentially serious. Any rheumatic disease, regardless of its specific symptoms, emerge in a similar way, causing pain, difficulty or disability to perform various tasks, fatigue, and over time the disease can lead to deformations in the body, especially in the joints. Rheumatic diseases, by their nature and symptoms are one of the diseases that have the greatest impact on public health, affecting thousands of people, and being directly responsible for serious problems, not only on a physical level but also the emotional, familiar, professional and social level (e.g. Hill, 2006).

Many epidemiological studies classify the rheumatic diseases (RD) as the most frequent chronic diseases, those with greater economic and social impact on society, that motivate more medical consultations, and that cause higher spending on drugs (direct costs).

RD are the leading cause of medical certificates (both temporary as permanent), disability and requests for early retirement (indirect costs).

However, there are other consequences which may be more relevant about the real impact of RD, which are the repercussions at the individual level (due to the pain and suffering associated with these diseases, and to functional difficulty and problems of moving around, which leads to reliance on other persons to perform various activities of life daily), social (including the relationship with family, friends and the community in general), professional (which may lead to absenteeism and early retirement) and economic (causing less gains, and more spending on medication, means of aid, etc.) (e.g. Lucas & Monjardino, 2010).

Despite all the consequences that are known, we note a devaluation of RD, since a long time, both by the general population, as health professionals and health authorities, mainly due to cultural issues, but also because these
supposedly have a low impact in terms of mortality, and it is difficult to find statistical data and empirical studies that demonstrate unequivocally their impacts (Woolf & Åkesson, 2001).

The RD may raise ideas of fatalism, misfortune and ‘bad luck’, and patients often state that ‘there is nothing more to do’, and ‘we’ve got to stand the pain’. This misunderstanding and the lack of attention given to the RD contributes greatly to confusion generated between aging and rheumatic disease, often associating these two concepts interchangeably, contributing to the notion that the development of a rheumatic disease is inevitable, and there is no way to contradict it or fight it. Indeed, with age increase the changes of the musculoskeletal system and so increases the prevalence of rheumatic diseases. However, aging is not a disease, and not all changes that arise in the locomotion system are derived of a rheumatic disease.

A solution to this situation is not easy but is possible. An RD is not a burden or an inevitability to which a person is convicted, is indeed a huge challenge that demands adaptations and changes in daily life.

2. Rheumatic Diseases and Nursing

The RD can be prevented and the economic and social impacts can be mitigated. For such, the epidemiological and empirical evidences that highlight the relevance of RD should be disclosed, informing the population, in general, and investing on the training of health professionals, making them aware of these problems. It is also necessary to ensure a better accessibility of rheumatic patients to care and health centers. It is for this reason that Nursing Schools in Portugal have included in their curricula the fundamental theoretical aspects on rheumatic diseases, with the aim of training their students, alerting them and preparing them for this reality.

Nursing is a humanitarian and human science, which covers care of the persons, understood in the broadest sense of the promotion of life and everything that helps to live. The theory provides knowledge to improve practice by description, explanation, prediction and control of phenomena, and allows nurses to explain what they do, how they do it, and why they do it, thus helping to take better care of each person, increasing his autonomy and well-being (e.g., Adams, 1994; Bento, 1997; Kerouac et al, 1994). The nursing professors must realize that their role is not reduced to a mere transmission of knowledge, but its intervention in the teaching-learning process is of great importance in the construction and development of models, values and attitudes. It is essential that certain standards and values may be taught and experienced by students during their training course in conjunction with the science curriculum (Raya, 1990).

A large part of the knowledge, attitudes and values are learned in school. Recognizing our responsibility in training future nurses, and favoring an attitude of permanent interrogation on the practices of care, we tried to understand how nursing students represent the problems of patients with rheumatic diseases, in order to clarify its meaning and significance.

3. Objective

The global objective of this study is to understand how students of nursing represent the situation and the problems of the patients affected by rheumatic diseases.

4. Method

When we want to know and understand the significance and meaning of care, taking into account different points of view, or when we want to characterize how the individuals live their experiences, how they interpret their experiences and how themselves structure the social world in which they live, it is useful to use an interpretive methodology (eg Honoré, 2001; Bogdan and Biklen, 1994). The qualitative approach is useful and appropriate in this study, for allowing us to enter the symbolic universe of the representations of rheumatic diseases among the students, and revealing the various facets of the subject under study.

A qualitative research methodology allows defining the phenomena according to the views of the persons depending on their attitudes and experiences, providing knowledge, understanding, and a careful and accurate interpretation, of the meaning and nature of past or current situations (Leininger, 1985). The important thing is to select participants that allow in-depth study and may give us relevant information. There are no strict rules that define the sample size, but it should be intentionally small and diverse in order to highlight the good variety of individual experiences (Patton, 1990).

We carried out a focus group with twelve students, three men and nine women with a mean age of 20 years old, attending the 2nd year of the nursing program. As independent variables we considered gender/sex (men and women).
On the interaction with the participants, we focused our attention on three questions (among other questions):

- What is a rheumatic disease?
- What are the implications of a rheumatic disease for a person/patient, and in his self-care?
- How a rheumatic disease influences the image that a person has of himself?

The participants were informed that their participation in the study was anonymous, confidential and voluntary, respecting their privacy.

5. Findings

5.1 What is a rheumatic disease?

Thinking about meanings and definitions, most participants state that rheumatic diseases (RD) are chronic and degenerative diseases affecting the joints. Future nurses consider that RD are diseases that cause serious problems, discomfort and great suffering mainly due to the pain. The future nurses point out that pain is the leading cause of malaise. They point out that these diseases compromise the mobility of patients, causing them to lose agility, preventing them from leaving the house and perform numerous tasks of everyday life and increasing the risk of falls and other accidents.

5.2 What are the implications of a rheumatic disease for a person/patient, and in his self-care?

The responses to this question were diverse and showed various dimensions of the person. In terms of self-care, participants emphasize, in addition to difficulty walking, difficulties in performing household chores, personal hygiene, dressing and undressing and even combing. These difficulties are due mainly to alterations in joint function but also to tiredness, fatigue and pain. Indeed, the physical limitations due to changes in joint function and functional disability may gradually lead to loss of independence of the individual, in particular for activities of daily living (e.g. Hill, 1999). Melanson and Downe-Wonboldt (2003) report that the mobility in general, either at home or in the community, journeys on foot or by transport, care of personal hygiene and household tasks can be very affected activities.

Students also note that patients have difficulty in entering the labor market, or in maintaining their regular professional activities, due to the prejudice associated with rheumatic diseases. These are often related with disability or incapacity, and many patients who are employed have to request an early retirement, in addition to having to spend more money on consultations, media support, travel, treatments and medications.

In social terms the participants relate mainly to isolation, of being put away from certain activities, tasks and from the others, and loneliness. At the family level, intimacy may be a problem and some problems may arise, because the sexual life may be compromised; particularly women find it difficult to play the role of wife, but also of mother or grandmother (Cardoso, 1996).

Given these diseases strongly affect the health and well-being; at an emotional level they are very associated with feelings of sadness, fear, insecurity, demotivation and revolt. Future nurses enhance that rheumatic diseases are more readily accepted by older people, because the oldest tend to think that they have already lived a long life, in comparison with the younger, and thus do not have as much to lose as younger patients have (the younger patients may also feel more limited by the constraints of the disease).

The psychological impact of rheumatic diseases is considered very negative by most authors, considering natural that with increasing age, every person will suffer from some kind of rheumatic problems. The pain and disability often cause anxiety, insecurity and depression. If we still add the problems of isolation in these situations, so common among older people, in our society, it is natural that their self-esteem and psychological condition be shaken (Gaíão, 1990). Labour issues connected with the profession, and family issues, are interrelated and constitute factors associated with psychological changes or demands.

5.3 How a rheumatic disease influences the image that a person has of himself?

Students mentioned that diseases have implications especially for the body, and in the way patients look at themselves as persons. Some patients find that rheumatic disease is an evil of the body, which often leads them to hide themselves, hiding not only parts of their body, as well as hands. This situation gives rise to changes in self-image of the person, leading the patient to feel isolated and away from society, getting sadder, with low self-esteem, and sometimes feeling a strong revolt, in a state of anxiety and depression.

In young adults, the psycho-emotional aspects inherent to the situation of chronic disease may also generate
various problems. Among young people, the changes on their body image, and the decrease of the exchange of affection between couples, can generate tremendous malaise. In fact, in any circumstance, context or situation, the body image is of vital importance for the understanding of the human psyche.

Body image refers to the body as subjective experience, considering the experiences and attitudes of each person in relation to his own body, and how it is organized. So, the body is an individual reality to the extent that we are in the world through our body, and it is with our body that we established relationships with others (and even with ourselves, of course). Rheumatic diseases are chronic, disabling and disfiguring diseases, thus they have a very significant impact on the body image. In turn, changes in body image affect our social interactions (e.g. Teixeira et al, 1986).

Our results are summarized on Table 1.

| Table 1 |

6. Discussion and Conclusion

We found that students consider that rheumatic diseases have strong implications for any patient at several levels: physical, psychological, emotional, family, professional and social. They generate and cause emotional and social problems related to pain, fear and insecurity, as well as they imply physical constraints of various kinds, and undermine the relationships between people, affecting their social interaction. Future nurses also reported that the decrease in capacity and even the loss of some skills, has influence at work, and can modify the work activity of the patients (as persons), in a way more or less markedly, with negative repercussions on all dimensions of human existence.

Since nursing is supported in caring the others, and being care a central aspect in the nursing profession, we can say that it is through the knowledge and techniques that we develop and assimilate, as ours, to integrate them in the most different domains and fields, that we build our knowledge and know-how (Honoré, 2001). In care, we experience what we are caring as an extension of ourselves and at the same time, as something separate from us that we respect for itself (Mayeroff, 1990).

Caring is helping the other to grow, without imposing our own direction. The main ingredients of care are knowledge, alternating rhythms, patience, honesty, trust, humility, hope and courage (Mayeroff, 1990). Adam (1983) reinforces this idea and states that without the attitude of deep respect of the nurses by the patients, as well as their ability to listen and understand, the knowledge would not be sufficient for nurses to provide the help of which the individual needs.

Nursing care aim, above all, at maintaining and improving the welfare, counseling the patients, helping them adopt the most appropriate behaviors in order to develop the ability to live, or trying to compensate for the harm caused to the functional limitations imposed by the disease, seeking to minimize any possible physical dysfunction, emotional, or social (Collière, 1989; Kérouac et al., 1995).

Regarding the way students talk about the problems of people with rheumatic diseases and how they articulate the elements/dimensions of representation, according to their abilities, we found three axes (or subcategories) that emerge around the concept of nursing: the scientific axis, the technical axis and the relational axis.

6.1 The scientific axis

To be nurse requires a great diversity of knowledge, to enlarge the heritage of knowledge in nursing (Collière, 1996).
Students in this study also mentioned the importance of having in-depth knowledge about what is commonly practiced. To achieve change is necessary to have the intention to change, and this change can only happen in case we evaluate in a systematic way our practice, which leads to an improvement of nursing care and an increased knowledge (Basto, 1991). Future nurses emphasize that a good practical performance depends on a continued professional investment.

6.2 The technical axis

Beyond knowledge is also required for nurses to acquire competences or technical skills - the know-how. These usually arise from the diagnosis and prescription (direct care), in order to help treat patients. Caring integrates, inseparably, a relational and a technical dimension.

6.3 The relational axis

Philosophically, nursing suggests tenderness and a significant support to community, which gives it certain dynamic actions. Thus, the science of nursing is essentially a human science, where the person is studied as a whole. Nurse and patient are co-participants in a general process of health with increased responsibilities in the social, scientific and methodological fields (Watson, 1988). As a discipline, nursing is considered half art and half science, putting in this dichotomy an essential key link: knowledge, without which there would exist no culture or humanistic sense. What is required in addition to the skills or knowledge, are the moral and civic qualities, inherent to oneself (Carvalho 1996). Also, the participants in this study highlighted the importance of being with people and caring the patients with sensitivity and delivery.

Nursing must prepare professionals with a high level of competence, either in the scientific and technical field, as in relational and ethical realm. It is expected of the young students an open mind, a good ability to learn and transform their knowledge in the everyday practice, in relation with the users/patients and with their peers, so that, together, and in cooperation, they may be more prepared to contribute to the well-being of people.

There is thus a greater relevance to prepare these young people, with specific characteristics, and adapted to our contemporary society, always challenging, dynamic and diverse, in terms of culture, habits, practices and customs. No matter either the listing of content to be taught, but rather the process, the route and the interrelationships between what was and what can be. Thus the formation contributes to a form of social change, in which the individual power and authority should be phased out in favor of a true development of skills and reasoning (Gray 1984; Bowers 1987, cited by Watson, 1988).

Train competent professionals are not something that can be done in a place by itself. On the contrary, it is a process that is intertwined with the lives of people. What counts is to create training facilities, making available to trainees a repertoire of possibilities that allow them to better understand their work and improve their professional skills, reflect on their personal and social pathways, acquire knowledge and systematize information (Novoa, 1988, 1992).

As regards the strategies of teaching-learning, we recall that learning how to think is now regarded as a priority educational objective. Also in nursing has been a growing interest in exploring the ways of professional learning, particularly in the potential of reflection as a learning tool. Currently there is a recognized need to integrate theory into practice, being reflection an instrument that facilitates an inclusive learning. Basto (1994) argues that the way forward is to find ways of providing learning experiences where students have the opportunity to think about the practice, so that training influences the change and improvement of care.

Finally, we do not want to fail to mention that, we are aware that, in this study, we concentrated only on a portion of the problems involved in the care of patients with rheumatic diseases. There is still a long way to run.

References

Portugueses.


Creating an Entrepreneurial Culture Among Students Through Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (EDP)

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Abstract

Entrepreneurship is the cornerstone of economic growth and financial independence. This paper reports on the perception of students regarding entrepreneurship. Unemployment, especially for the youth, is a reality not only in South Africa but in many other countries globally. Creating a culture and awareness of students to become entrepreneurs is believed to be one solution to reduce unemployment. Various literature sources were examined during the compilation of a questionnaire, comprising 53 questions regarding issues relating to entrepreneurship, unemployment and job possibilities. Approximately 400 students from the Faculty of Economic Sciences and IT at the Vaal campus of North West University in Gauteng province, South Africa formed part of the survey and 293 completed questionnaires were received back. The questionnaire was pre-tested and piloted before the main survey. Data were analysed using z-tests and p-tests, and indicate that the implementation of entrepreneurship development programmes (EDPs) for students would be well supported. The students have a realistic view of the risk of unemployment and show a favourable attitude to entrepreneurship, which is seen as a possible safeguard against unemployment. It is believed that by introducing EDPs to students as early as their first year of study will create a culture to become self-employed. This could, in turn, improve economic development and help reduce youth unemployment in developing countries.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (EDPs), entrepreneurship, unemployment, students, South Africa

1. Introduction

An old philosophy regarding entrepreneurship states that entrepreneurs are born, and not created. This statement could be partially correct; however, with proper training and the creation of an entrepreneurial culture, entrepreneurship development programmes (EDPs) can create and train entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship education does not only build and shape better and stronger entrepreneurs, it also develops attitudes, creates values and motivation and helps students and people participating in these programmes to acquire skills they can use in any job or task in which they might be involved (Bhat & Khan, 2014).

Job creation has been a global challenge for many years, including in South Africa (Meyer, 2014a). The unemployment rates are high in countries such as Spain (25%), Greece (24%), and Lesotho (25%), and relatively high in countries such as Italy (11%), Portugal (16%), and Ireland (15%) (CIA, 2013). A growing global problem is that of youth unemployment rates, which affect those between the ages of 15 and 24 in particular. Compared to national unemployment rates, the results are quite shocking. According to the 2012 World Fact Book, Spain has a youth unemployment rate of 46 percent, Greece 44 percent, Portugal 30 percent, Ireland 29.4 percent, Italy 29.1 percent and rising to 35 percent in 2012 (CIA, 2012). Unemployment is part of the reality of many South Africans, with the official unemployment rate of the country at 25.2 percent, and a youth unemployment rate of more than 50 percent (StatsSA, 2013a). Globally, the average unemployment rate is approximately 9.2 percent (CIA, 2013), ranking South Africa’s rate 169th out of 202 countries. This looming reality creates fear among young graduates, as they too could become a part of these statistics. Due to this alarming fact, it should be a component of the aim of any university to empower graduates by fostering entrepreneurship through education.

There are many causes of youth unemployment, but some of the main causes are rural-urban migration, they make up a large proportion of the population, low education levels in rural areas, poverty, corruption, strict labour laws, economic conditions and the influx of migrants.

Rural-urban migration can be explained by means of push-pull factors. Many young people move from rural areas into more formal and urbanised areas looking for better living conditions resulting in a huge influx, and in many cases, creating an oversupply of employment in these urbanised areas (Stutz & Warf, 2012).

In particular, the people who fall within the youth category of between 15 and 24 constitute to a large portion of
the population. In the mid-year report issued by Statistics South Africa (StatsSA, 2011) this category consisted of 10 075 823 of the total South African population of 50 586 757. This is equivalent to 20 percent of the country’s population. During 2013, this figure rose slightly to 10 203 329 people between the ages of 15 and 24, which is equivalent to 19 percent of the population during that year, as the total population grew by approximately 2 500 000 people. (StatsSA, 2013b).

Low education levels in rural areas can be considered another factor, as many rural schools lack proper teachers and resources. This adds pressure on students who, in many cases, fall behind. These students will seldom have the skills and knowledge to become an entrepreneurial business owner. In a recent study by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) it was found that South Africa achieved a low ranking of 10th out of 15 countries in Africa regarding reading, mathematics and health (Wilkinson, 2014).

Poverty is still a global problem, and the reduction thereof is one of the main priorities of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) as declared by the United Nations in 2000 (UN, 2003). A total of 2.6 billion people, or approximately 40 percent of the global population, live below the global poverty line of US$2.00/day, and most of these people live in poverty and lack services and basic needs (Meyer, 2014b). Not having basic needs and services, and being poor, could definitely have an impact on employment rates, as it impacts on the availability of resources in order to find a job or start a business. Poverty also influences education levels negatively. Taylor, Van der Berg and Burger (2014) point out that socio-economic factors such as poverty have a negative impact on education, and in turn can lead to the loss of employment and income.

Corruption can also be blamed as a possible cause for unemployment. In countries such as Nigeria and South Africa, where corruption levels are very high, it is believed that money aimed at facilitating entrepreneurship and other small business development is wrongfully stolen from these projects, affecting the outcome negatively (Uddin & Uddin, 2013; Odusegun, 2014).

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) criticised South Africa regarding the country’s strict labour regulations, claiming that these laws intensify unemployment and hamper economic growth (Anderson, 2005). When strong regulation and strict labour laws are in place within a country, companies are likely to employ a minimum number of workers. There are various reasons for this, which include the implementation of minimum wages as many unemployed people would have been prepared to work for a lower wage but are prohibited by labour laws, and the tedious dismissal procedure, because if a company wishes to dismiss an employee, the process is so time consuming and costly that they would rather not appoint someone in that position.

Another cause for unemployment is economic conditions. Bad economic conditions lead to small businesses closing down and larger companies not hiring any, or only a very few, new staff members. The influx of migrant workers from neighbouring countries has an adverse effect on unemployment rates. These migrant workers are often willing to work for a much lower wage than the citizens of the country are, and this could mean that companies prefer employing these migrants, rather than the currently unemployed citizens.

Naude, Gries, Wood and Meintjies (2008) highlight the importance of entrepreneurs as a channel for spillovers associated with agglomerations and indicated that entrepreneurship is an important determinant of regional economic performance. Entrepreneurship can impact the economic performance at three different levels, namely individual, firm and societal levels (Wennekers, Uhlanaer & Thurik, 2002). On an individual level, entrepreneurs affect their own economic performance as they earn a salary, which they use to support themselves and their families. On a firm level, the entrepreneurial businesses pay taxes and spend money on production and operating costs. On a societal level, the entrepreneurs employ people who would have been unemployed. These employed people earn a salary to spend, and pay taxes, impacting positively once again on the economic performance of a country or region.

The role of entrepreneurship as a contributing factor for economic development has many times before been highlighted in the literature (Awash & Sebastian, 1996; Athayde, 2012). Entrepreneurship should be emphasised even more in developing countries such as South Africa, were unemployment is an ever-increasing problem. Entrepreneurship is also seen as part of a knowledge economy, meaning that entrepreneurship education can be extremely beneficial for the creation of new knowledge-based, graduate-led ventures (Kirby & Humayun, 2013).

Entrepreneurship offers opportunities for people to achieve financial freedom and independence (Raguž & Matić, 2011). The role of entrepreneurship in local communities and societies has increased in recent years and there is a need to include entrepreneurship education as a topic within universities (Venesaar, Ling & Voolaid, 2011). According to Ekpho and Edet (2011), there is a positive link between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial attitudes, and entrepreneurship education could improve the understanding and awareness of entrepreneurial abilities among students (Bagheri & Pihie, 2011). Therefore, it could have positive impacts if entrepreneurial educational courses are incorporated as part of university student programmes (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999). This can be achieved by introducing EDPs, also
known as business promotion programmes or young enterprises programs (this type of programme might have different names in different countries or institutions), as early as during the first year of a student’s degree. An EDP can be defined as a learning programme with the main objectives being the development and enhancement of an entrepreneurial culture or mindset, and to train enterprise creators (Allan Grey Orbis Foundation, 2013; Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010).

The concept of an EDP is not new and was experimented with in the late sixties. These EDPs aimed at training selected entrepreneur candidates on how to set up a small business, how to manage it, and how to make profit. These early EPDs were established in Gujarat, a state on the north-west coast of India. It was a joint initiative by the Gujarat Investment Corporation and other state agencies (Awasthi & Sebastian, 1996). Other successful EDPs, or business promotion programmes, were initialised in Germany, France and Great Britain. The governments of the respective countries instituted the programmes in order to reduce the unemployment rates and increase self-employment simultaneously. However, they were not aimed at university students, but at the unemployed population (Remeikienė & Startienė, 2013).

The benefits of a successful EDP far outweigh the challenges. Some of the benefits include 1) positively affecting the employment rate within developing countries, 2) reducing the gender, age group as well as wage differences in some of the labour markets, 3) human capital increase in the form of knowledge, qualification, education, working abilities and experience, and 4) establishing of useful business contacts and other successful entrepreneurs (Remeikienė & Startienė, 2013).

Although Awasthi and Sebastian (1996) are of opinion that the benefits of an EDP will outweigh the challenges, the reality of various problems pertaining to EDPs still exists. Some of these challenges include 1) selections of the right candidates for the programme, 2) lack of seriousness and commitment from the organisations conducting the EDP, 3) lack of motivation from the training authorities to the participating candidates within the programme, 4) a non-conductive environment, 5) the non-participative attitudes of supporting role players such as established self-employed business owners and larger corporations (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010), 6) monitoring of the EDP to ascertain the success rate, 7) following up on the success rate of the EDP after completion (Awasthi & Sebastian, 1996), and 8) funding the EDP.

An EDP should have very clear objectives from the start to create a measurable expectancy from the presenter or promoter of the programme as well as the trainee. Not all EDPs will have the same objectives; however, some goals should form the basis of a well planned EDP. These include 1) to increase the supply of entrepreneurs who start new businesses, 2) to reduce to rate of unemployment by creating self-employment as well as employment of others, 3) promoting first generation entrepreneurs by diversifying the base of enterprise ownership, 4) improving the quality of entrepreneurs (Awasthi & Sebastian, 1996), 5) stimulation and identification of entrepreneurial talent, skills and drive, and 6) devising attitudes towards change (Garavan & O’Cinneide, 1994). Support for the students who completed the EDP from the university or institution is also very important. This can be in the form of incubation programmes assisting these students with their start-up ventures.

The aim of this study was to determine the students’ perceptions towards unemployment, motivation to become self-employed, and attitude towards the possibility of starting an entrepreneurship development programme on the campus as an addition to their degree or course they have enrolled for.

2. Methodology

2.1 Sample

The sample for this study comprised first-, second-, third-year and postgraduate students from a traditional university, namely the Vaal campus of the North West University, situated in Gauteng province, South Africa. This campus has already created a favourable attitude towards creating entrepreneurship awareness among students and local businesses with the introduction of the Enterprise Development Centre (EDC) during 2011; further investigation into the possibility of offering students EDP options are currently being explored.

2.2 Sampling method

A non-probability convenience sample of 400 students was drawn from the campus, which was limited to students from the Faculty of Economic Sciences and IT, as the study aimed at determining their specific attitudes towards the implementation of an EDP. Lecturers in the faculty were requested to distribute the questionnaire in their classes. All participants completed the questionnaire voluntary and no incentives were provided to encourage participation. Full confidentiality was assured to the participants as no names or contact details were disclosed.
2.3 Research Instrument

A descriptive research design, using a survey self-administered questionnaire, was employed for the study. Following a review of the literature, items were generated to determine students’ perceptions towards finding a job, entrepreneurship and unemployment. The questionnaire included a section requesting demographical information. The questionnaire was pre-tested using the debriefing approach on three students to ascertain if all items were understood in the manner that was intended (Synodinos, 2003). Thereafter, it was pilot-tested on a sample of 35 students registered at the same university. These students did not form part of the final study. The 53 scaled responses were measured by using a six-point Likert scale, which ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). The Likert scale was selected due to its popularity and as it is one of the most commonly used non-comparative scaling techniques (Bertram, 2006).

3. Results and Discussion

During data collection, 400 questionnaires were distributed over a timeframe of a week. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed, 293 completed questionnaires were returned, which equates to a 73.25 percent response rate. Respondents were mainly female (56.2%), and predominantly between the ages of 19 and 21. Even though most of the respondents indicated that they were from Gauteng (69.6%), all nine provinces were represented. The sample comprised predominantly African/black students (55.3%) and white students (39.2%). The majority of the participants were in their second (36.6%) and first year (34.6%) of study. A few other important questions were asked in this section and they included the type of living environment whilst growing up, parent self-employment, and awareness of EDPs. Of the respondents, 35.2 percent indicated that at least one of their parents was self-employed. Concerning living environment, 18.2 percent indicated that they grew up in a rural or informal settlement, and 81.8 percent indicated that they grew up in an urban or formal areas. Interestingly, 28.5 percent reported that they had never heard of an EDP. Table 1 outlines a description of the sample.

Table 1: Sample description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (Yr) (%)</th>
<th>Gender (%)</th>
<th>Year of study (%)</th>
<th>Home Province (%)</th>
<th>Race (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 3.1</td>
<td>Female 56.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34.6 Eastern Cape</td>
<td>2.4 Coloured 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 25</td>
<td>Male 43.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36.6 Free State</td>
<td>10.4 Indian/Asian 2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 26</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.6 Gauteng</td>
<td>69.6 White 39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 24.7</td>
<td>Post-graduate 5.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>KwaZulu- Natal</td>
<td>1.7 African/ Black 55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 10.6</td>
<td>Mpumalanga 5.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 6.5</td>
<td>North West 2.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 2.1</td>
<td>Northern Cape 6.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24+ 2.1</td>
<td>Western Cape 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limpopo 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The paper reports on 12 mutually exclusive items that formed part of the wider study. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics computed from the collected data.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean (N=293)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As I continue with my university education I become scared of finishing my degree as I do not know what to expect after university</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As I continue with my university education I realise I might not find that perfect job I was hoping for</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My career intentions after completing my degree is to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that unemployment is a problem in South Africa</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that I might at some stage in my life be unemployed after completing my studies</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that becoming an entrepreneur and starting my own business could possible decrease the unemployment rate in South Africa</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I do not find a job after completing my degree I will try to start my own business and create my own employment</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

~ 284 ~
During completion of my degree I obtained enough theoretical training to start my own business 4.3 1.4 -0.8 -0.1
During completion of my degree I would have liked more practical assistance and guidance on how to start my own business 4.8 1.2 -1.1 0.8
During completion of my degree I would have liked additional training or workshops on how to successfully become an entrepreneur (business owner) 4.8 1.2 -1.1 1.0
During completion of my degree I would have liked to be part of an Entrepreneur Development Programme if it was presented on campus 4.7 1.3 -1.0 0.7
The idea of starting my own business came from fear of not finding a job 3.7 1.7 -0.2 -1.2

As is evident from Table 2, means above three (indicating agreement) were computed on all of the items. With the current youth unemployment rate in South Africa at around 50 percent, it is not surprising that the two highest means reported from the survey was regarding unemployment. The students general perception was that by improving entrepreneurship, the unemployment rate could decrease. Students generally would have liked assistance that is more practical, additional workshops, training regarding entrepreneurship, as well as to participate in an EDP while completing their degree.

In order to determine whether these means are statistically significant, a one-tailed z-test was performed, whereby the expected mean was set at X>3 and the significance level at a=0.05. Table 3 reports on the calculated z-values and p-values.

Table 3: Student perceptions towards entrepreneurship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct/Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>z-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As I continue with my university education I become scared of finishing my degree as I do not know what to expect after university</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>147.4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As I continue with my university education I realise I might not find that perfect job I was hoping for</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>221.3</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My career intentions after completing my degree is to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>245.4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that unemployment is a problem in South Africa</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>554.3</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that I might at some stage in my life be unemployed after completing my studies</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>203.0</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that becoming an entrepreneur and starting my own business could possible decrease the unemployment rate in South Africa</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>510.0</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I do not find a job after completing my degree I will try to start my own business and create my own employment</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>329.4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During completion of my degree I obtained enough theoretical training to start my own business</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>281.7</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During completion of my degree I would have liked more practical assistance and guidance on how to start my own business</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>416.6</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During completion of my degree I would have liked additional training or workshops on how to successfully become an entrepreneur (business owner)</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>415.2</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During completion of my degree I would have liked to be part of an Entrepreneur Development Programme if it was presented on campus</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>393.4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The idea of starting my own business came from fear of not finding a job</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>126.4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the 0.05 level

As can be seen from Table 3, the computed mean responses to each of the items are statistically significant (p<0.05). This infers that the respondents realise that they might face unemployment or not find a job one day (p=0.000<0.05), would like to become self-employed and form part of an EDP (p=0.000<0.05), believe that unemployment is a problem in South Africa (p=0.000<0.05), and would have liked more practical experience on how to start entrepreneurs during the duration of their degree (p=0.000<0.05). These findings also indicate that students have a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship (p=0.000<0.05).

In theory, entrepreneurship programmes should improve the output of sustainable and successful business
owners, however, the success of these programmes is difficult to measure. Another possible problem is the attitudes of students towards these programmes when they are introduced into an existing university degree or programme. Traditional EDPs are presented normally as a short course or programme to individuals entering into the programme. As seen in the EDPs implemented in India, Germany, France and Great Britain, these programmes were mostly initiated by the government or by private institutions. Similar programmes presented in South Africa include the Community Entrepreneurship Development Programme (CEDP), managed by the Crossover Transformation Group (2013). Their main objective is to provide mentorship and assistance to people living in previously disadvantage areas regarding business development. The Western Cape government has three initiatives linked to the National Development Plan. These include 1) the Enterprise Dynamics Programme for grade 1 to 12 students, 2) Mini-Enterprise Programme for senior secondary school learners, and 3) the Business Establishment and Sustainability Programme (BESP) aimed at providing training for people with no or limited formal education. Private institutions, in the form of internships, do other forms of training programmes. As can be seen from the listed programmes, they are not aimed at providing additional and practical training for graduates during the completion of their degrees.

The findings of this study suggest that implementing an EDP for students registered at the University’s Faculty of Economic Sciences and IT would be supported well. The evidence in the sample indicates that students have a realistic view of the risk of unemployment and have a favourable attitude to entrepreneurship in general, as well as a possible safeguard against unemployment. In order to be of value, such a programme should focus on providing practical entrepreneurial skills that will equip graduates to compete effectively in day-to-day business. As indicated by Ligthelm (2010), support should also be provided for business start-ups after they have established a business, as many of them will not remain sustainable without assistance during the first few years of their existence. This can be done though advice centres within the incubators situated on the university campus where the initial EDPs were presented. Entrepreneurship development should be a fundamental topic raised not only at government level, but also at primary, secondary and tertiary level. Fostering and creating a culture for entrepreneurship in the early stages of development and learning will contribute to the successful creation of self-employed ventures, which in turn could reduce the unemployment and poverty rate to an extent.

A study done in Nigeria also indicated that youth unemployment is a huge problem and the every year thousands of graduates leave universities and remain unemployed for long periods of time. In their study, the authors indicate how many of these youth then turn to cybercrime and other forms of intelligent crimes. If they could have received entrepreneurial training or had assistance, they could have converted their knowledge into a feasible IT business instead of a criminal act (Uddin & Uddin, 2013). They further state that all levels of government should strive to encourage the youth to think rationally towards job creation. Another study done in Nigeria found that unemployment is related negatively to entrepreneurship development, and that the higher the unemployment rate, the lower the level of entrepreneurial development is within that country. Thus, increasing the entrepreneurial support and activities could decrease the unemployment rate (Oladele, Akeke & Oladunjoye, 2011). Solomon, Duffy & Tarabishy (2002) also noted these finding.

4. Recommendation and Conclusion

Unemployment is a worldwide problem, but with proper strategies and planning, including promotion of entrepreneurship development training, it could possibly be reduced. A major problem exists with youth unemployment in many countries. Therefore, it of the utmost importance to implement any strategy or programme that may provide a foundation for young graduates to utilise the information they were taught during the completion of their degrees, by means of own venture start-up, in the likely event of them not finding employment. The following is recommended:

- Government should create an enabling environment for entrepreneurs. This can be done by implementing EDPs and similar programmes as a compulsory module or course during primary, secondary and university level.
- Local businesses should become involved with these projects, especially at university level, where they can assist in training and practical workshops.
- Internship programmes should be created by larger business who can then appoint graduates from these programmes.
- Relaxation of rules and regulations regarding the process of starting a business as strict laws and time-consuming processes makes the task of starting a business very difficult.
- Government needs to implement strategies that promote small business start-ups, especially for the youth section of the population.
• Mentorship programmes need to be created by business and other institutions.
• Business incubators need to be more active in their creation of entrepreneurs and assisting them with their possible start-ups.
• Support to new business should be continued for a period after starting up, as many businesses fail within their first years of operation.
• Technical and practical skills also need to be developed within these programmes.

Implementing all or some of these recommendations within South Africa could have a huge impact on the current youth employment rate. Based on the outcome of this study and the positive attitude of the students towards entrepreneurship and self-employment it is believed that a well-managed and well-designed EDP would be successful and accepted among students registered at the Faculty of Economic Sciences and IT at the North West University (Vaal Campus).

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IMF-criticises-strict-labour-regulations.
StatsSA see Statistics South Africa.
UN see United Nations.
Economic Agreements in the Yugoslav-Albanian Relations

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Abstract

During 1945-1947, the foreign politics policy of Albania moved towards an intense relation with Yugoslavia. The main interest of Belgrade was to include Albania in the Balkan Federation. In July 1946 the two countries signed the tract of Friendship and Reciprocal help which opened the doors to a union between them. During this period Albania and Yugoslavia signed several economic agreements such as: the Economic Convention, Treaty on trade exchanges and their payments, Economic cooperation Treaty, Accordance for the establishment of the Albanian-Yugoslav society for the exploration and exploitation of the mines, Accordance for the establishment of the Albanian-Yugoslav Bank, Agreement of 2 billion dinars credit for the recovery of the Albanian economy, Unification of Prices, Agreement on Customs Union etc. To keep the political power, Enver Hoxha was required to come to an agreement with Yugoslavia but he was not willing to share the power with them or their instruments in Albania. Political disagreements between Tito-Stalin in 1948 were the perfect occasion for Enver Hoxha to end the relationship with Yugoslavia and to take out of the political area Koci Xoxe who was his opponent and a declared Yugoslavia supporter. After this situation in Albania started the prosecution of the pro Yugoslavia groups inside Albania Communist Party leaded by Koci Xoxe who was sentenced with death penalty whereas his collaborators were sentenced with several minor charges. Separation from Yugoslavia saved Albania from a complete economical and political annexation.

1. Economic Agreements in the Yugoslav-Albanian Relations

During the Second World War, Albania and Yugoslavia were victims of the fascist Italy and Nazi Germany’s aggression. This situation encouraged the anti-fascist resistance forces in both countries. Thus, collaboration between the communist parties of the two countries became stronger. Communist Party of Yugoslavia (CPY), as an older political force, had a direct impact on the process for the foundation of the Albanian Communist Party. Hence, CPY had a privileged position in the relations with the leaders of the Communist Party Albania (CPA).

The postwar situation charged CPA, which gained political power in the country, with quite difficult tasks and responsibilities. It had to rebuild the country which was totally devastated by war and develop the economy of the country. In the new geopolitical conditions created after the Second World War, after the fall of Italy as a competitive power towards the Yugoslav interests in Albania before the War, the Communist Party of Yugoslavia, already in power and with a strong influence on the Albanian Communist Party which had just taken the power, had a free hand in specifying its own interests in Albania.

However, during 1945, the relations between these two countries were mainly focused on the political and diplomatic fields and less in economic ones. Meanwhile, Stalin-Churchill’s accordance, in October 1944, did not mention anything as regards the role of Albania in the sphere of influences game. This meant a free hand for political and economic interference of the Yugoslav government into the internal affairs of Albania.

In general, Yugoslav-Albanian relations in the period 1945-1948 were characterized precisely by a well defined policy of CPY, which had a final goal-incorporating the independent Albanian state within the borders of Yugoslavia and making it the seventh republic of the Yugoslav Federation. This undeniable character of the Yugoslav policy was distorted by the leader of CPA and prime minister of those years Enver Hoxha as well as by all the historiography of the communist period, by considering it an “hostile Yugoslav interference in the internal affairs of Albania”. Actually, the Yugoslav political and economic imposition onto Albania, found a supportive positive ground at the leaders of Albanian state of that period (Plasari & Malltezi, 1996).

The Yugoslav interference and pressure on the new Albanian state made the country's political elite to steer the country towards Communist East, despite the opportunities it had to be oriented towards the West, thanks to the international circumstances and geostrategic position of the country.

In the 5-th Plenum of the Central Committee of CPA, Enver Hoxha clearly manifested the unconditional orientation
of Tirana toward Belgrade. According to him, the country should breed the love toward Yugoslavia. During 1946, the press was full of pro-Yugoslav propaganda (General Directorate of Archives, 1996).

This situation was evolving parallel to the great economic need that Albania had after the War. In its foreign policy, during 1945-1947, the communist government of Tirana was oriented toward an increasingly approach with Yugoslavia. This offered a great opportunity to the official Belgrade, which didn’t want to be a committed satellite of Moscow in its targets in the region, but it intended to create the Balkan Federation under the direction of Yugoslavia, Albania being the seventh republic of it.

The Yugoslav-Albanian relations became much closer after the visit that Enver Hoxha paid in Yugoslavia, on 23rd June to 2nd July, 1946. The Economic Cooperation Agreement between the two countries was signed. According to this agreement, there would be created the common Yugoslav-Albanian associations for a period of 30 years, in the fields of construction and utilization of the railways, in oil extraction and procession, in excavation of minerals and exploitation of metals, in electrification, in the naval transport, in the import-export as well as in the creation of the Yugoslav-Albanian banks (Hoxha, 2013). In the same issue "Luftetari" newspaper carries on: “By creating these joint associations, Yugoslavia would assist through investments that would help in increasing the production, which was not only our interest but also Yugoslavia and the entire unique socialist camp’s interest. However, the core purpose of the Yugoslav nationalist leadership was that of exploitation and colonization. Yugoslavia was against the Soviet Union, against the unique socialist camp and consequently against us” (On joint associations, 1948).

According to the Yugoslavs, it was necessary that these associations had a central connection and this role would be carried out by the Coordination Commission, which would function as a common economic government (General Directorate of Archives, 1996). The agreement was respectively signed by the Albanian Minister of Economy Nako Spiru and the Yugoslav Minister of Commerce and Supplies Nikolla Petrovic.

The newspaper "Luftetari" continues: “The Coordination Commission of the economic plans aimed at achieving the de facto and de jure unification of our economies and effaced the economic independence of Albania, assuming in this way the economic direction of the state.” (Coordination Commission for economic plans, 1948)

Consequently, the Treaty of Friendship and Mutual Assistance between Albania and Yugoslavia was signed in July 1946. This Treaty definitely paved the way to the union of these two countries. It was welcomed by the Soviet Union, whereas the other countries reacted badly. The Turkish newspaper “Vakit”, wrote on 5th of June 1946, when the treaty was not signed yet, that Yugoslavia was following the policy of Mussolini, who wanted to dominate the Adriatic Sea and later all the Mediterranean Sea. Some Italian newspapers had such headlines: “Yugoslavia swallows up Albania”, “Tito wants to dominate the Balkans, Albania has disappeared as a national state”, “Albania in the bosom of the Yugoslav Federation” (Hoxha, 2013).

On 27 November 1946, Albania and Yugoslavia signed an Economic Convention. This Convention was signed by Nako Spiru (Albanian Minister of Economy), and by Boris Kidric (member of the Yugoslav Politburo who was charged with the Yugoslav economy from 1946 until his death). Qualified as the "great economic agreement," it predicted the coordination of the economic plans, the customs union and the reconciliation of the currency. According to the convention, the Albanian currency “Lek” would be invalidated to the value of the Yugoslav currency “dinar”, Albania would adjust the prices under the Yugoslav system of prices, the customs at the borders between these two countries would be abolished, there would be created a unique customs territory which would use the systems and the customs tariffs that were implemented in Yugoslavia. (Dedijer, 1949).

The more Yugoslav efforts for domination of the Balkans increased, in particular the pressure on the Albanian state, the more the power of Enver Hoxha at the head of the Albanian state was threatened, thus he sought the support of the Soviet Union, whose government followed the situation in Balkans with concern.

Reconciliation of Currency was opposed in principle by the Albanian government despite numerous pressures of the Yugoslavs. According to the Albanian government, the currency union would be fictitious, because there were many practical obstacles to equalize “Lek” to “dinar”. Regarding this matter the journal “Luftetari” carries on: “Specifically advised and supported by Soviet comrades, we have been against this monetary reform even after the Convention was signed (Reconciliation of currency, 1948). This monetary reform would cause a situation of no confidence in our currency, would create major upheaval to the country’s economy and price increases would cause great inconveniences to the private sector. But the private sector included the agriculture as well. Agriculture was not a Yugoslav concern at all. They considered these concerns as a lack of trust in the agreements and as an objection towards practical implementation of the Economic Convention (Reconciliation of currency, 1948).

Immediately the Albanian economy began to face serious consequences. Gogo Nushi (Member of the Political Bureau), in the 1-st Congress of CPA, mentioned that 1 Albanian franc was equal to 12.5 dinar, which meant that, the Albanian economy was damaged 12.5 times (“Bashkimi” Newspaper, 1948).
Anyway, Yugoslavs did not accept the rate of exchange 1 franc to 12.5 dinars, so they required determining a lower rate. But, assigning a lower rate would damage our economy; would weaken the value of our currency and reduce the purchasing power of people. Obviously a lower rate was convenient for the Yugoslav leadership because a lower rate meant a lower purchasing power; even the increase of salaries would be fictitious because in reality the salaries would decrease due to the low value of currency. The printing press of the time wrote that: “According to the study that Yugoslavs had allegedly conducted regarding the prices and cost of life in our country comparing this with Yugoslavia the rate of exchange should be 1 franc to 8 dinars” (Unification of Prices, 1948). The Albanian government did not agree with this rate and later on due to their insistence and as result of objections from Yugoslavs both parties agreed that the rate would be 1 franc to 9 dinars. Thus, the agreement on the exchange rate issue obviously was disadvantageous for us (Unification of Prices, 1948).

Part of the Economic Convention was also the customs union of Albania and Yugoslavia, a process which was seen from different perspectives. With the customs union, Albanian government meant a relief for the exchange of goods between the two countries without a customs duty between the two countries. This would help for the commodity exchange as well as the prices would be fixed according to the government policy and state budget needs. While the intention of Yugoslav customs union was to open borders and “fair” enterprises or commercials, as Yugoslavs described them, could come across Albanian cities and buy products with a cheap price and sell them in Yugoslavia (Customs Union, 1948). Thus the Yugoslav interests in the Economic Convention were obvious; they wanted to exploit as far as they could the Albanian market and assets and give minimum and insignificant things in exchange. The economic dependence on the Yugoslav state, was creating conditions for Albania to lose its political independence and sovereignty. Albanian history offered such typical examples before World War II.

The same paper, “Luftetari”, approaches to the issue in this way: “Even without having a clear view of the dark purposes of CPY, our government considered the issues of currency reconciliation and unification of prices as unfair; these are very important and principal issues that later showed how fair our proposals were and which were the goals of Trotskyite Yugoslav leadership” (How were created and developed our relations with Yugoslavia and what were the goals of purposes of CPY, 1948).

That was a further step that marked the loss of Albanian independence. This was even testified by a saying of the soviet adviser of the Plan Commission in 1947. When he saw the low figures of import-export between Albania and Yugoslavia, he said that: “They (thus the Yugoslavs) have taken from you everything that you have got and do not give you anything” (“Standard” Newspaper, 2011).

The text of the Economic Convention was not published at the time it was signed, but was made known to the public after split up with Yugoslavia, through the denunciations that the communists were charging on each other (Zavalani, 1998). Nako Spiru, who participated in the conclusion of the agreement, understood very well the “rope effect” that it would have on Albania’s throat and despite this, as a signatory of the agreement, he was the direct responsible person towards the history for submission of the independence of the country with a free will (Hoxha,2013).

Six common associations were created in Albania, not with common capitals but on the basis of Albanian capitals. The Yugoslav party received its benefits without making any investment. An increasing pro-Yugoslav propaganda was conducted in our country, which was even reflected in the programs of Radio Tirana. The implementation of the above agreements faced huge difficulties. The Yugoslav government tried to guide the Albanian economy into the Yugoslav market function and to its economic development model. On the other hand, even the Yugoslavs borrowed the soviet model of the organization of the economy, and imposed it completely alike even on Albania. Meanwhile, the implementation of the signed agreements faced more and more obstacles; at that time, a great variety of Albanian products such as: olive oil, soap (Central State Archive,1945), oil, petroleum (Central State Archive,1945), wood, leather, herbs (Central State Archive,1946), fish (Central State Archive,1947), etc. were leaving the country. Shkoder supplied Montenegro with cement (Central State Archive,1947), but the supplies with the promised materials by the Yugoslav party did not come regularly and at the proper amount, disbursement of aids as well as the financial loans left much to be desired. The Yugoslav party did not respect the promised supplies toward Albania, as in the case of 300 tons of canned meat (Central State Archive,1947).

The climax of all this was when Belgrade, in May 1947, demanded possession of the properties owned by the Albanians who were sentenced in Yugoslavia as “war criminals”. These people were mainly Albanian, former Yugoslav citizen who had different state responsibilities in Albania during the wartime (Central State Archive, 1947). In 1947, foreign trade volume of the Albanian state was the highest in those three years, even compared to 1938 (Fishta & Ziu, 2004).

Actually, the heavy economic situation of Albania was also due to the economic reforms of the government, which consisted in the demolition of the existing economic structures. Until 1947, the market supply with the necessary food
commodities was mainly as a result of the big stocks that were found from the war in Albania, than as a result of the internal manufacturing of that period.

In such circumstances, Nako Spiru, minister of economy, after being consulted with Enver Hoxha, asked the Yugoslav government to respect the signed agreements, at least as they were. However, the requirements of Nako Spiru created inconvenience for the Yugoslav leadership, because they interfered in Yugoslav’s plans for a quick merging of Albania and Yugoslavia. At the end of June 1947, Yugoslavs, for the first time, officially complained that an anti-Yugoslav line in the Albanian leadership was crystallizing. In order to avoid the Yugoslav pressure, which at first aimed at his removal from leadership, Enver Hoxha insisted and in July 1947 achieved to pay an official visit in Moscow and meet Stalin. This visit was postponed several times, because of the Yugoslav leadership intervention, which did not want to allow a direct connection of Enver Hoxha with soviet leaders. Enver Hoxha went to Moscow to ensure a support and economic aid but also to strengthen his position.

In November 1947, the Central Committee of Yugoslav Communist Party conveyed to the Albanian Communist Leadership the second charge, which among other things noted that an anti-Yugoslav position and orientation was crystallizing in Albania. According to them, at that moment it was necessary to analyze the causes that made these relations unsatisfactory. In the letter of Belgrade, Nako Spiru was made responsible for the difficulties caused in the relations between these two countries. At the end Yugoslavs demanded the fulfillment of the requirements; otherwise they would be obliged to reconsider the economic agreements with Albania. Nako Spiru, situated in front of serious charges and without the support of the Political leadership, abandoned even by the soviets, on 20 November 1947, committed a suicide. Some days after this incident, the thesis of Central Committee of Yugoslav Communist Party, regarding the economic union between two countries which would later enable the creation of the Balkan Federation arrived in Tirana. Political leadership of the Albanian Communist Party approved the Yugoslav proposals, which posed a risk to the Albanian Independence.

In June 1948, Albanian government asked for a revision of all the signed agreements with Yugoslavia. Since the Yugoslav government opposed this request, the Albanian government invalidated these agreements. At the end of 1948, relations between two countries were at the lowest level.

In order to maintain the political leadership, Enver Hoxha had to negotiate with the Yugoslavs, but he was not ready to share the power neither with Yugoslavs nor with the pro-Yugoslav people in Albania. When this wing was getting stronger in the Albanian government, it was also the moment for the big disunion. The disruption of the relations between Tito and Stalin, in 1948, was the appropriate moment for Enver Hoxha, to face the Yugoslavs and even expel out of the game Koci Xoxe, a political competitor who was highlighted as “Yugoslavs man”. During a conversation of K.Xoxe with Mr. Cuvahini (USSR envoy to Albania), extracted from the latter’s diary, Xoxe feelingly said that: “I am ready to give up my life in order to prove that I have never been an anti-soviet, I did not ever consciously betrayed the Soviet Union (Lauka&Ymeri, 2006). After that, in Albania began the persecution of the pro-Yugoslav group within CPA headed by Koci Xoxe, whom the court sentence to death and other light sentences were given for a range of their associates.

In the first Congress of CPA, the Yugoslav-Albanian relations were already disrupted. E.Hoxha accused Yugoslavs that the aim of the Economic Convention was to subdue Albania and to make it a colony of Yugoslavia, to hit the Albanian economy and to impede the construction of socialism in Albania, to rob it and to isolate it from the Soviet Union (Hoxha, 2013).

Whereas, as regards the Coordination Commission, Enver Hoxha stated that: “it would efface de facto and de jure the economic independence of Albania, Yugoslavia would assume the planning of the Albanian economy, would disconnect from the Albanian government the common associations and would take under control even the Albanian ministries” (Hoxha, 2013).

Disruption of the Yugoslav-Albanian relations saved the small Albania from the economic and political swallow of the official Belgrade.

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The Contribution of a State-Owned Enterprise to Regional, Industrial and Agricultural Production in Turkey: An Example of Ülfet Stock Company of Food and Soap Industry

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Abstract

In the mixed economy which private and public enterprises are active in economic life, have their primary goal which is to maximize social prosperity. Public enterprises in Turkey were used to function as a means of economic improvement in parallel with the role of government in the 20th century. Public enterprises out of the aimed social prosperity, they have certain political aims of accomplishing resource allocation, fair income distribution and sustainable growth. These lead to some problems of public enterprises which have strengthened the privatization arguments especially through the end of 20th century. The aim of this study has to investigated (stay away from the controversial issue of privatization and the focus on) the activities of a public enterprise and its contribution to local and national economy. So we will focus on Ülfet Stock Company of Food and Soap Industry which was established in Gaziantep, in 1955 to produce olive oil, soap and glycerin and privatized in 2001. The establishing a public enterprise in this region has to increases a culture of industrialization and regional, agricultural production as well as added value. The result of this study has significant implications for public enterprise. Local governments and policy makers in their search of strategies for improving the roles of public and private enterprises in economy.

Keywords: State-Owned Enterprise, Economic Development, Privatization, Food and Soap Industry, Turkey

1. Introduction

Since the existence of the government, it has been seen that the government has interfered directly or indirectly in the economy. The interference of the government to the economy might be not only rule maker but also regulatory (Atasoy, 1993: 11). The historical origins of the government entrepreneurship in Turkey date back to the Ottoman Empire. However, it was late 1920s that The Republic of Turkey decided to use the government entrepreneurship as a means of economical development and growth. Until 1920s, the government enterprises which were founded and run in Ottoman days intended to bring the public services to the public with more independent institutions in parallel with the other economies of the world. On the other hand, the fact that the government used the commercial and industrial enterprises which government established as a means of economic development started during the World War II and just after the World War II (Aysan, 1973: 106). It could be shown among the main reasons of this period that the extraordinary conditions which the war revealed were effective and the changes happened in favour of J.M. Keynes based government
interference in the economy paradigm after the great depression (Pınar, 2010: 6).

In the first years of the Republic which is the beginning of a new period, İzmir Economy Congress became decisive in shaping the economic structure of Turkey. The government was expected to take a regulatory and supportive task on the activities of the private enterprises in the congress held in 17th February-4th March 1923. However, in the incoming years the government started to take the responsibility of economic activities indirectly because of the results caused by the great great depression and the internal dynamics of the government itself (Akkoyunlu, 2011: 54.). As a result of this, “protectionism and statism” which were the features of 1930-1939 period in the economy of Turkey appeared. Nevertheless, it could be said that those were the years when The Republic of Turkey began its industrialization (Boratav, 2012: 59). Even though Turkey did not crusade actively in the World War II between the years 1940-1950, its economy was managed through the conditions of the war”. The period after 1960 was the beginning of a new period for building the economy policy and making economic decisions. From this date on, Turkey started a planned progress and an economic development which was inward-looking and foreign-dependent (Buluş, 2009: 88). With the legal regulations made in this period when the mixed economy policies continued, a general arrangement which was related to the status, organizations, managements and supervisions of the government business enterprises was made. Also, the useful regulations which were made to provide the necessary loans for the investments of the government business enterprises increased the number of the government business enterprises established rapidly in Turkey (Dirican, 1997: 53). Until 1980s, the influence of the government business enterprises increased as a means of employment, added-value and fixed capital investments in Turkey’s economy (Tansel, 2003: 9). After 1980, with the acceleration of the liberalization flow, the influence of the government business enterprises on the economy decreased relatively and the privatization activities accelerated.

One of the important government business enterprises which was established after 1960 the planned period was Ülfet Food and Soap Incorporated Company. Although the company was founded according to the Turkish Commercial Law rules in 1952, it was able to start its activities in 1964. The government business enterprise which was founded in Nizip, Gaziantep, would have big effects that could change the economic, social and demographic environment of the region (The Republic Archive of the Prime Ministry, The State Auditing Board of the Prime Ministry, Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Incorporated Company 1964-1965, 1965-1966 and 1966-1967 Reports).

2. The Definition of the Government Business Enterprises

There is no widely accepted definition for the government business enterprises. The most important reason of this is the diversity of the views among the international institutions which work on the government business enterprises. For example, while the English use the term “nationalized industry” mostly, the French use the term “the government enterprises” (Aysan and Özmen, 1981: 3). The government business enterprises could be defined widely as “the institutions which has a legal entity, an industrial and commercial qualification, and whose capital belongs entirely or mostly to the government” (Dirican, 1997: 13).

3. The Historical Development of the Government Business Enterprises in Turkey

In parallel with increasing of the economic functions of the government in the 20th century, the government business enterprises were the resources of the development of economic policies. Especially in the developing countries, it became a flexible means of economic development strategies. It is possible to say that the appearance and development of the government business enterprises in Turkey have become within the frame of the development strategies applied since 1923. The origin of the government business enterprises dates back to the Ottoman period and it was in the Republican period that the government business enterprises became the means of development (Kök, 1995: 63).

The first period which lasted from 1923 about to 1930 carries the traces of İzmir Economic Congress (17 February-4 March) when İstanbul was being occupied and before the Republic was declared (Kazgan, 2006: 55). The most significant aim determined in this congress was the necessity of industrialism of Turkey as soon as possible no matter it takes (Ünal, 2000: 10). Although the opportunities were provided for the national private enterprises in this direction, the private enterprise was deprived of the dynamics which would instigate the economy in this period (Kök, 1995: 64). In this congress, it was foreseen that the development would occur as a means of the private sector and before the decisions made in this congress were put into practice completely, the economies of Turkey and the world faced with the 1929

*For Turkey, this ratio is 50%. So more than 50% of the capital of the state-owned institutions are discussed within the concept of state-owned enterprises.
great depression. Just after this crisis in parallel with the condition of the world, Turkey started to found the government enterprises regularly like many other countries of the world. But these enterprises were thought temporarily and aimed at improving and supporting the economy until the private enterprises recovered and strengthened. After the I. Five-Year Development Plan was put into practice in 1933, the number of the government enterprises continued to rise. Even if the liberal flow was seen in the economy of Turkey after 1950, the increase in the number of the government business enterprises continued. The main reason of this was that the private sector couldn’t afford to establish some facilities (Ünal, 2000: 11). 1960s were the years when the “social state” or “welfare state” concepts were applied in practice in every area ( Sezen, 1999: 174). After 1960, the planned period began in Turkey. From this date on, the development plans were prepared as five-year periods and they were put into practice. When looked at the content of the development plans, 1980 could be named as the breakage year. Because Turkey stopped the strategy of the import substitution industrialization in this period and instead turned to the external oriented industrialization strategy. Also the significant arrangements were made in the free market rules to command the economy. As a natural result of these policy proposals, the operations of the privatization of the government business enterprises accelerated (Ünal, 2000: 13). Similarly in the 20th century, the privatization process of the big government business enterprises and infrastructures has been continuing.

4. The Activities of Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Incorporated Company

4.1 The Establishment of the Company

Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Was established according to the rules of Turkish Commercial Law in order to produce olive oil, soap and glycerin. The center of the company is in Nizip. The duration of the company is 90 years. With the effect of the law number 23 on 20 July 1960, it was subject to the supervision of the State Auditing Board. As a result of this, the company was inspected between the years 1964-1980 by the State Auditing Board and the data obtained from these inspections were presented in reports (Başbakanlık Cumhuriyet Arşivi, Başbakanlık Yüksek Denetleme Kurulu, Ülfet Gıda ve Sabun Sanayii Anonim Şirketi 1964-1965, 1965-1966, 1966-1967 Yıllar Raporu). The company capital which was 2 million Liras in its first establishment was raisen to 6 million in 1962, 8.3 million in 1963 and 35 million in 1964. The aim of the company in brief according to the master agreement is to produce oil for cooking and soap, and fruit and vegetables juice, canned goods, soap and glycerin, and to evaluate the wastes of them and to set up a box and package plant ( The Republic Archive of the Prime Ministry, The State Auditing Board of the Prime Ministry, Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Company The Periodic Report of 1.7.1968-30.6.1969 ).

4.2 The Activities of the Business

4.2.1 The Production Activities and The Quantity of Sales

The production amount of Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Company, which virtually produces olive oil and soap and also evaluates the side products and manufactures them, between the years 1964-1967 comparatively with the work programmes is below

Table-1: The Production Amount of the Company Between the Years 1964-1967

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Planned (Ton)</td>
<td>Ex-post (Ton)</td>
<td>Planned (Ton)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black olives in brine</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green olives in brine</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural olive oil</td>
<td>1 140</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined olive oil</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>907</td>
<td>2 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packaged olive oil</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packaged refined cottonseed oil</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomace1 oil</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White soap</td>
<td>4 500</td>
<td>3 459</td>
<td>3 800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Pomace olive oil in terms of the wealth lost after tightening smoking, used as fertilizer or animal feed meal. www.tdk.gov.tr
In this term except for a few products, the company was not able to reach the amount which it had aimed in the work programme. When looked at the total value, the relative success of the company stood out. In the period of 1964-1965, the company planned 8475 tons of production in all of the products and managed 6302 tons of production at the end of the period. In other words, in this period it could manufacture %74 of the production which it had targeted. In the period of 1965-1966, 9166 tons of production was determined in the work programmes, and at the end of the period 7742 tons of production happened and %85 of targeted production was reached in this period. In the period of 1966-1967, 7783 tons of production were planned and 9018 tons of production happened, and the amount of the production happened more than targeted production. Consequently, even though the company couldn’t reach its targets on the production based in this three-year period, as of total production amounts it provided consistent results.

The production amounts of Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Company between the years 1972-1980 are below:

Table-2: The Production Amounts of the Company Between the Years 1972-1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Product</th>
<th>1972 Amount (Ton)</th>
<th>Ex-post Rate (Ton)</th>
<th>1974 Amount (Ton)</th>
<th>Ex-post Rate (Ton)</th>
<th>1976 Amount (Ton)</th>
<th>Ex-post Rate (Ton)</th>
<th>1978 Amount (Ton)</th>
<th>Ex-post Rate (Ton)</th>
<th>1980 Amount (Ton)</th>
<th>Ex-post Rate (Ton)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black olives in brine</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>80,4</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>78,4</td>
<td>161,5</td>
<td>75,7</td>
<td>167,7</td>
<td>64,5</td>
<td>82,9</td>
<td>37,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural olive oil</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>106,3</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>18,5</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>66,5</td>
<td>141,8</td>
<td>14,1</td>
<td>198,6</td>
<td>26,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomace oil</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>87,3</td>
<td>911,2</td>
<td>91,1</td>
<td>790</td>
<td>98,7</td>
<td>465,1</td>
<td>42,2</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>22,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood briquettes</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>108,6</td>
<td>1,510</td>
<td>60,4</td>
<td>1,192</td>
<td>39,7</td>
<td>1,571</td>
<td>104,7</td>
<td>1,256</td>
<td>31,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined olive oil</td>
<td>3,440</td>
<td>55,7</td>
<td>1,065</td>
<td>71,2</td>
<td>1,716</td>
<td>62,1</td>
<td>2,569</td>
<td>51,2</td>
<td>850,1</td>
<td>34,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined cottonseed oil</td>
<td>1,940</td>
<td>11,1</td>
<td>122,9</td>
<td>68,2</td>
<td>256,7</td>
<td>23,1</td>
<td>99,5</td>
<td>43,7</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>37,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined sunflower oil</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>81,2</td>
<td>77,8</td>
<td>55,8</td>
<td>444,1</td>
<td>32,5</td>
<td>4,492</td>
<td>54,1</td>
<td>925</td>
<td>52,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandeliers olive oil</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>77,9</td>
<td>26,6</td>
<td>16,5</td>
<td>136,9</td>
<td>60,3</td>
<td>5,594</td>
<td>37,2</td>
<td>2,025</td>
<td>38,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various kinds of soap</td>
<td>4,130</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4,020</td>
<td>88,7</td>
<td>5,720</td>
<td>96,2</td>
<td>4,601</td>
<td>61,0</td>
<td>2,032</td>
<td>38,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detergent</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21,7</td>
<td>128,6</td>
<td>85,8</td>
<td>71,7</td>
<td>71,7</td>
<td>191,7</td>
<td>127,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycerin</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>31,3</td>
<td>37,6</td>
<td>31,3</td>
<td>58,5</td>
<td>59,6</td>
<td>28,8</td>
<td>24,0</td>
<td>24,3</td>
<td>40,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flour</td>
<td>6,055</td>
<td>50,4</td>
<td>3,326</td>
<td>35,7</td>
<td>6,566</td>
<td>70,5</td>
<td>4,971</td>
<td>62,1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 The Employment Opportunities

The company has employed staff as the officers, contracted personnel and workers. The numbers of the staff who the company employed are in the table by years:

Table-3: The Company's Personnel Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Board of Directors</th>
<th>Auditors</th>
<th>Number of officers</th>
<th>Number of worker</th>
<th>Total Number of Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1964-1965 Period</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965-1966 Period</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-1967 Period</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-1968 Period</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-1969 Period</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-1971 Period</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The number of the staff who the company employed was consistent in the parallel with the production activities of the company. It is seen that there is a continuous increase in the average income of the officers and workers. The total number of the staff who the company employed has a significant importance when looked at the demographic structure of the period and the working population of Nizip. For instance, the population of Nizip between the years 1960-1980 was 55,000 in average. In this period when the women employment was very low, the importance of the employment numbers of the company could be seen better when looked at the men population in the active population.

5. Conclusion

Even though the interference of the government to the economy sometimes increases and sometimes decreases dependently, it has always appeared. The government business enterprises has been among the interference methods of the government to the economy. In the applications of nationalization and forming of the government business enterprise system, the ideology and political structure, the practical solution seeking for the economic problems, the historical reasons and the stabilization and the economic development patterns were determiners. In the first years of the Republic which was the beginning of a new period, the war conditions were determinative not only in the political and social structure of the country but also in the economic structure of the country like in the whole world. The big destruction which the war created ruined the budgets and the economies of the countries, and stopped the development thrusts of the countries. As the results of all of these, the countries felt obliged themselves to interfere in the economy.

Turkey couldn’t stay out of these developments which started at the beginning of the 20th century and caused the expansion of the government sector. In this period, the most intensive interference of the country to the economy was running a business directly and the number of the government business enterprises increased rapidly in the economy of Turkey. Although not only the political authorities who adopted the “nationalism” principle but also the parties who had a liberal view took part in the management of the country until 1980s, the government business enterprises kept their importance and intensity. However, Turkey got influenced by the liberalism which dominated the world after 1980 and the important steps were taken with the decisions which were made on 24 January 1980 to enter the free market economy. In the results of these steps, the function of the government on the economy was decreased and the privatization activities accelerated.
In the periods when the establishments of the government business enterprises, Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Company took its part in the government business enterprises. This government business enterprise which was established in the South-East Anatolian region which could be said as the homeland of the olive tree carried out its production activities and targets in accordance with the advantages of the geography where it was founded. The most intensive production area of the company was olive oil and soap. When it is thought that the South-East Anatolian region where the company was founded is the first region in producing olives in Turkey, it could be said that the government business enterprise brought an industry culture in the region. One of the other important results of specialising of the region in the agricultural production is the deduction effect on the interregional disequilibrium. For example, there was relatively a development difference between the East and the West of the country in favour of the West from the first years of the Republic. The activities of the company encouraged the private sector and provided a supplementary function for the private sector.

Ülfet Food and Soap Industry Inc. Company was privatized in 2001. We could reach the detailed data of the years 1964-1980 about its activities due to the reports of the State Auditing Board. The olive cultivation has an important place in the agriculture in Turkey. It is seen that the olive oil industry in Turkey has improved since 1950. The contributions of Ülfet which was the second biggest food and industry complex when founded couldn't be ignored in this development.

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News Media as a Social Factor for Law Enforcement in the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

The transition period in the Republic of Macedonia has revealed problematic issues related to the development of democracy. The fight against corruption, consolidation of the rule of law, implementation of the Macedonian-Albanian peace agreement and the need for new constitutional changes remain challenges for the Macedonian society. This paper focuses on the role of the news media in raising awareness for fundamental reforms to build a stable co-existence of ethnic communities in Macedonia. These reforms are considered to pave the path toward European integration process. Alsat-M represents a unique television in the Republic of Macedonia that focuses its reporting mission on broadcasting bilingual information for Albanian and Macedonian audience and it’s taken as a case study in this paper. The aim of this paper is to analyze the impact of media in changing social mentality and in undertaking important social changes even in societies that have special peculiarities. A complex theoretical framework is used to analyze the correlations between Alsat-M reporting and the political and administrative reactions and changes in Macedonia. Agenda-setting and Framing theories are implemented in pair with statistical and discourse analysis.

Keywords: Alsat-M, rule of law, Albanian language, Macedonia.

1. Introduction

The government of Republic of Macedonia, known internationally as FYROM, is largely critiqued by international institutions for “growing restrictions on independent journalism”, for increased level of corruption and weakness of democracy, what makes Macedonia being categorized under “transitional/hybrid regimes”\(^1\). The public sphere is full of patriotic discourses and populist actions produced by the government (embodied in projects such as for example “Skopje 2014”), in front of many emergent real problems of which suffers the country such as the institutional nationalism, lack of transparency of public money, and the worsened interethnic relations. The government hasn’t accomplished the implementation of the Ohrid Framework Agreement signed in 13 August 2001 with the mediation of international community\(^2\). In Macedonia the population is divided ethnically and the cohabitation is still fragile even after 13 years after this peace agreement\(^3\). The concern of this paper is about the right use of the Albanian language according to the peace agreement. It is the second official language of the country as mother tongue of Albanian population which is more than 30 percent (Ndrio Karameti, 2011).

This ethnic division is reflected on the media market as well. Except some news portals, the Macedonian and the Albanian language media still function separately. In 2011 the biggest opposite media group, in Macedonian and Albanian language, (A1 television, and the newspapers Spic, Vreme and Koha e Re) was closed and what rests in the media market is partly or totally controlled\(^4\). On December 2013 the parliament adopted the controversial law for the media which consists on the built of a government dominated agency to serve as the media regulator in Macedonia.

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Furthermore, according to the head of the Journalists’ Association of Macedonia, the government pays 20 million euros per year for advertising inappropriate issues on media. Those advertising funds are distributed according to a selective policy which aims to control the media content through public money. The punishments against journalists are drastic, such as prison. Fines for journalists are higher than in EU countries. In the Albanian camp media, the only big media is the television Alsat-M, a bilingual one, a unique media of this kind, in Macedonia. This medium, is facing time to time the pressure of government control as well.

Alsat-M television is the most credible channel in Macedonia, from both Albanian and Macedonian viewers. It has the absolute influence over the Albanian speaking audience. Its role in the controversial Macedonian society is forged through the coverage of a number of crucial issues for the Albanian speaking audience but not only. This is made in both Albanian and Macedonian languages. This bilingual way of producing is contributing for both separated audiences to understand the problems as citizens of the same country and to define their differed points of view.

One recent and sensitive issue largely covered by this medium is the use of the Albanian language, together with Macedonian language, for services offered by all the public enterprises. The Albanian language use issue is regulated by law, after having been sanctioned by the Ohrid Agreement: the Albanian language should be used publically as a second language on the areas where the Albanian population is more than 20%. For several months the Alsat-M television denounced the lack of use of Albanian language by enterprises of public services, that means the violation of law. This violation is condemned with prison according to the Article 138 of Penal Code of Republic of Macedonia.

The analysis in this paper focuses on the role of this bilingual media as a social factor for raising awareness about the rule of law in Macedonia. The investigation of Alsat-M and the denunciation of the legal aspects not respected by the public administration as well as the highlight of responsible persons, putting them in front of the citations from the Constitution, are elements of contribution for law enforcement, which is one of the conditions for Macedonia imposed by the European Union in order to follow the integration process.

2. Methodology

The impact media may have to the public and political agenda is best examined by agenda-setting theory, both its first and second levels. For the purposes of this paper, the first level agenda-setting theory, which deals with what media choses to put in the audience’s attention, helps us to inquire the importance the Albanian speaking television gives to certain social and political issues in Macedonia, putting them into its agenda and making the audience “think about them” (McCombs, 2004). The second level agenda-setting, further developed as framing theory which deals with certain aspects of the selected issues and drives the audience the way “how to think about” (Entman, 1993; McCombs, 2004), allows us to look into the frames used by Alsat-M television for accentuation of certain problematic aspects of the issue in order to put them in the focus of the public agenda and political agenda in Macedonia. This coverage of the news through their particularities is the fruit of the journalists’ care which means the journalists are those who choose the angle that will be used to organize the whole information. That means they are who preselect the frame they will use to put the news in (Ndrio Karameti, 2011).

These two communication theories are implemented through two methods both quantitative and qualitative. The first method is the statistical analysis of media content. All news reports texts are scanned for collecting the statistical

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data concerning the total amount of time this medium dedicated to this issue. This includes total time of reporting on the proper issue and total time reporting on the political reactions following the first reports about the issue, in order to understand the importance of this issue for the channel’s news agenda (Entman, 2004; McCombs & Ghyi Hsiang, 2004; Protess & McCombs 1991). The second method deals with the analysis of the discourse produced by journalists of this medium and their point of view which represents the editorial policy. This frame analysis is designed after the first level analysis. This strategy allows us to first scan the news reports titles and content in order to understand the main theme of this reporting. Doing so, we gained insights about this main theme which is “the non-respect of the Albanian language in public spaces by public institutions is against the laws of the Constitution of the country”. The conclusion drove us to the establishment of a frame which will be the element of the analysis. This analysis is made upon a pre-determined frame which is the “rule of law”. We scanned the texts in order to detect and test two hypothesis:

a) This frame helped journalists to shape the approach of news writing about the issue of Albanian language use by the Macedonian public institutions.

b) This frame is used by the reporters to shape their interpretative angle.

Our analysis lays on 13 months, which is the intensive coverage of this thematic by the television channel. The data are mainly retrieved by the on line archive of Alsat-M. Due to the establishment of a new server, the archive of the television doesn’t contains any more news items older than the day of server replacement. To accomplish the research goals of this paper, the rest of the data is retrieved by YouTube where are published almost all news reports produced by this television channel. Some information details are kindly provided by the journalists of Alsat-M via email.

3. Data Presentation and Analysis

Alsat-M started this reporting on early 2013 and continued it for about thirteen months intensively. In total there are 25 reports on this theme during this timeframe. The Table 1 presents the descriptive statistical data about the reports, divided according to five topics under the broad thematic “use of Albanian language” from the public services. Most of these topics concern the services offered by public enterprises depend from the Municipality of the capital Skopje. Only one enterprise depends from the Ministry of Transportation. Another topic concerns the use of Albanian language from the municipality itself, during the council meetings, at the municipality of the region Çuçer Sandeva (the council is composed by Macedonian and Albanian members. Meetings are hold in Macedonian but they are supposed to be translated in Albanian).

Table 1: Statistical data about the amount of time dedicated to the theme by alsat-m.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of Albanian language in:</th>
<th>Alerting reports</th>
<th>Follow of Political reactions reports</th>
<th>Total number of reports</th>
<th>Total time of coverage (minutes)</th>
<th>Problem solved: Totally / Partially /Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Urban buses’ indications (Public Transport Enterprise)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28.01</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Street tables (Public Enterprise Roads of Macedonia)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>Totally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Urban Signalization (Public Enterprise of Parks and Greenery)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>Not at all (suspended)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Bills of water (Public Enterprise of Waters and Sewerage)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Council meetings of Municipality of Çuçer Sandeva</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>Totally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL reports</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
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All topics analyzed in this paper are: 1. The use of Albanian language in the urban buses’ indications by the Public Transport Enterprise, 2. The use of Albanian language at the street tables by the public enterprise Roads of Macedonia (Makedonija Pat), 3. The use of Albanian language at the urban signalization by the Public Enterprise of Parks and Greenery.

9 The official web page of Alsat-M television: www.alsat-m.tv.
Greenery. 4. The use of Albanian language at the bills of water consumption by the Public Enterprise of Waters and Sewerage 5. The use of Albanian language during the meetings of the municipality of region Çuçer Sandeva. Statistical data of first column in Table 1 refers to the number of reports per topic, followed at second column by the total reports about reactions of authorities after the issues were put in the media agenda that means after the issues were made part of the public agenda. The third column/group of data concerns to the total time is devoted to those topics. Forth column contains information about resolution of the problem of the Albanian language’s use, after the issue was put on the media agenda and on the political agenda. The information for confirming the problem solution is provided from two journalists who mainly covered and still follow these stories, Valmir Kuçi and Benjamin Arifi.

The reading of all news texts in order to scan its content and verify if the frame “rule of law” helped journalists to be unbiased resulted with confirmation of first hypothesis “the frame helped journalists to shape the approach of news writing about the issue”. The content of news reports is shaped following the line: noticed violation of law, denouncing it in comparison to the law, asking responsible officials. We deduce by confirming the second hypothesis “the frame is used by the reporters to shape their interpretative angle s” as well; the interpretive angle s were constructed following the first part of the news report with the arguing line: interpreting the situation, following the problem solution and results. The discourse produced by the journalists of Alsat-M is constructed upon the frame “rule of law”. This frame is used as a safe model to raise a very important issue for the Albanian population/audience but apparently irrelevant for officials. The reading (listening) of the news reports, makes obvious the latent main point they mentioned that is: the law is not respected because of bureaucrats with a certain nationalist mentality who feel comfortable to act that way because the whole political system allows them. In this situation, the journalists of Albanian ethnicity of Alsat-M, would have been intimidated to raise the issue of use of their own language by the public institutions and to rigorously insist on its solution, if they had shaped the report as a principle issue only. The “rule of law” frame with strong reference to the Constitution, made them have a clear platform to present to the authorities. The repetition of the references to the “Article 138 of the Penal Code”, “three to five years of prison for persons who obstruct the implementation of the law for the use of languages”, “Article 7 Paragraph 2 of the Law for labeling the streets, squares, bridges and other infrastructure facilities”, etc., helped them to construct the appropriate news frame. It is this frame which gave them the legitimacy to not only investigate but to interpret as well. In a professional way and totally “politically correct” the journalists have all said directly and between the lines.

A comparative discourse analysis of the first to issues covered, as showed in Table 1, “the urban buses’ indications” and “the street tables”, shows evident results of this discourse. In the first issue (partially solved), the director of the Public Transportation Enterprise is of Macedonian ethnicity. At the report of 23.09.2013, titled “Albanian language on the buses, the director ignores the secretariat for the implementation of Ohrid Agreement”10, the discourse focuses on the negligence of the issue by the head of this enterprise who is the main responsible for the implementation of all obligations arising from the law. The news rapport mentions: “Nearly eight months after the alert of Alsat-M, the Public Transport Enterprise Skopje continues to skip the official use of the language in its urban buses. […] Alsat-M tried again today to take statement from director Misko Nikollov, but the enterprise refused”11. Eight months earlier a NGO made an accusation in the prosecution against this public enterprise and its director but nothing happened. The persistence in covering the topic, the reference to law and the raise of issue at the level of public and political agenda, influenced the official’s attitude towards it. At the report of 24.09.2013 Alsat-M informs about political reactions at the Council of the City which proposed to discuss the firing of the director and to condemn him for non-respect to the law. Some days after, at the report of 03.10.2013, Alsat-M informs that the director declared publicly: “we now have our website in Albanian, as all documents and stamps that are circulating in our endeavor are bilingual. […] electronic buses signs are written in both languages, so that our enterprise is one that respects bilingualism”. On the report of 18.10.2013 Alsat-M informs that the City Council voted to not fire the director who didn’t respect the law for the use of languages even after a long and wide coverage of thirteen news reports in total 28.01 minutes of broadcasting. The overall result is that the issue remains not totally solved. The indications of urban buses are working in some buses’ lines but not in all buses’ lines of the capital Skopje.

Differently runs the story about street tables which are under the competence of public enterprise Roads of Macedonia (Makedonija Pat), showed at Tables 1 as totally solved. Its director is of Albanian ethnicity and the story took place when this enterprise put some road tables written in Albanian language as well, to indicate some tourist places over the highways. Another public service, the Public Enterprise of State Roads, headed by a director of Macedonian ethnicity, asked to the Ministry of Transportation to remove these road tables set by Macedonia Road. Alsat-M covered the debate

10 Our translation. Original title of news report: « Shqipja në autobusë, drejtori shpërfill Inspektoriatin për implementimin e MO-së”.
11 Our translation.
between these two public enterprises trying to discover the truth about this controversial request. The discourse is shaped through the statements of public officials involved. At the report of 04.09.2013 titled “Removing tables in two languages, Albanians sharply against”12, the journalist cites the Albanian director of this public enterprise who declares: “There is not year 1983 anymore, we are now in 2013, there are laws on the use of language”. The same position represents the citation from the vice minister of Public Transportation, who is of Albanian ethnicity as well: “If someone’s goal is to prevent the use of the Albanian language in those tables, is completely wrong and those tables will not be removed because they are written in Albanian. If the problem is that procedures are not respected, we will see the ways to respect the procedures” 13. Both citations used by the reporter allowed to shape a discourse within the frame “rule of law”. Both officials mentioned the law and use of languages, so that the whole discourse in the news is built around its appropriate use in the case of these road tables. The next day’s report, further highlights the procedural steps of this issue. The news report of 10.10.2013 informs that the road tables will not be removed because they are put according to the law. The Macedonia Road and the Ministry of Transportation won the case. Alsat-M was made a factor of transparency for the controversies and misunderstandings between public institutions, which serves to the “rule of law”. Comparing to the issue of buses’ tables which took about two years and still is partially solved, this issue took only one month to get solved. That tells a lot about the willingness to respect the law and the role of media on highlighting it.

The other three topics covered, as shown at Table1, have different ends. The urban signalization (3rd one) is not solved yet but the city of Skopje has appointed a commission who is working to interpret the Law for use of languages and the Law for the City of Skopje. Until this commission gives conclusions, the issue remains suspended. Meanwhile in Skopje there are tables in Albanian language as well as tables only in Macedonian language. The topic about the bills of water (4th one) is partially solved. The bills are not written in both languages for all clients but only for them who ask such a thing. Administrators of this public enterprise say they are working to definitely solve this issue. The topic about municipality council meetings (5th one) is totally solved. After only one report from Alsat-M, the municipality of Çuçer Sandeva reacted politically. Now, the municipality council is respecting the use of Albanian language; Albanian members have the right to speak in their mother tongue, the meeting discussions are translated from Macedonian to Albanian and the inverse and all documentation is used in both languages.

As shown from the analysis, after the alert made from the reporters and after the persistent coverage, the issue was put on the political agenda. The reports about the political meeting and their debates about the concerned issues and local-central government officials’ statements confirm the effects that initial reporting had over political actors. The issues are treated according to the frame used by the journalists: “the rule of law”. Officials reacted following this angle of discussion that was “the use of the Albanian language is an obligation from the law and we are working to fulfill it”. This angle is obvious in their responses to the questions that means they are following the discourse according to the frame constructed by the journalists (as in the statement of the director about buses indications). So, the reporting are often followed by political reactions and the television’s agenda is followed by the political agenda as shown in Table1. The correlation between the media agenda and the political agenda is very strong, even if the whole juridical system is not functioning according to the European recommendations. However, this tie confirms the influence that the consistent reporting of journalists had over the political agenda concerning the issue of the use of the Albanian language in public areas. The pressure of this reporting forced officials to think seriously about the consequences of law violation which are mentioned almost every time from the journalists (6 months to 5 years of prison). The Macedonian law is clear about the issue: “Who will take away or restrict the right of citizens guaranteed by the Constitution, law or ratified international agreements for the use of language, shall be punished by 3 months to 3 years in prison. If the crime is committed by an official in duty, he will be punished with imprisonment from 6 months to 5 years”. The frame “rule of law” helped not only journalists to build their discourse and do interpretations, but it helped as well to impose the issue of right implementation of law for use of languages to the agenda and to the attention of nationalist points of view of some public officials in Macedonia.

4. Conclusion

This paper explored the correlation between the media agenda and the political agenda concerning the rule of law in Macedonia in a way that media becomes a social factor for the law enforcement. The case of Alsat-M television, the only bilingual one in this multiethnic and multilingual country, on investigating and covering the right use of second official language of the country in public areas, proves that influential media may go beyond formal reporting even in

12 Our translation. Original title of news report: “Heqja e tabelave në dy gjuhë, shqiptarët kundërshtojnë ashpër”.
13 Our translations.
controversial societies on hybrid regimes and may have a strong impact over forging democracy and rule of law. This Albanian language television has professionally set its agenda and made appropriate news framing in order to influence the decision making levels of administration for changing both agenda and mentality and improve the implementation of law. Journalists built a legitimate frame which is “rule of law” to alert about the violation of law concerning a national issue such as the use of Albanian language, in service of the more than 30 percent of the population in the country which is Albanian speaker. Doing reference to the Constitution of the country (revised once according to the Ohrid Agreement), they asked responsibility from the public administration head officials who are mostly of Macedonian ethnicity. This approach, resulted appropriate in most of the cases studied in this paper. It helped as a pattern for media reporting as well as for central and local government administration behavior in respecting the law, even when it is about “the other” ethnicity rights. Even some of the issues are not totally solved, now, after the reporting of Alsat-M, they are part of the political agenda. The journalists follow the developments and play the role of the guardian for the implementation of laws. Nevertheless, the issue of the appropriate and full use of Albanian as second official language in Macedonia remains open because the law is supposed to be implemented by all public institutions. This issue is only one of many issues guaranteed by Ohrid Agreement but not yet implemented. The expired time limit of this agreement and many political issues still unsolved are subject for demanding a new interethnic agreement and further constitutional improvements in Macedonia.

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Assessment of World Heritage List Nominations under Country Profile of Turkey

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Abstract

World Heritage List is a vital symbol for States to prove their cultural and natural properties nominated by the three Advisory Bodies of the World Heritage Convention (ICCCROM, ICOMOS, IUCN) and the World Heritage Centre. Not only the selected property becomes a flagship for the national protected area, being nominated also encourages the states to provide better techniques for protection, conservation and management. Turkey ratified the World Heritage Convention in 1983. Three properties were nominated initially in 1985. Even though approximately 30 years have passed since 1983, there have been only 11 properties inscribed on the World Heritage List. While comparing the other countries representation on the list, Turkey seems to be presented with a fewer number of properties until now. The researcher with this starting point aimed to analyze the World Heritage List Nomination historical process and complementary policies of Turkey. The method of the study is based upon interviews and documentary monitoring. Interviews with the chairman of UNESCO Turkish National Commission Prof. Dr. Öcal Oğuz and sector experts have been carried out. As a result of these studies, the researcher has identified three major problem areas on the implementation process of World Heritage List. From the findings, it can be concluded that improved site management, well-developed links with ICOMOS, IUCN, ICCROM in coordination with their experts, and offering a property for nomination with an integrated approach including a wider stakeholder perspective, a wider region and perspective could increase the number of the properties nominated in the prospective period.

1. Targeting for World Heritage List (WHL)

Heritage is a mixture of all the cultural, historical components of the society and has a differentiated significance above all the tourism matters. Heritage is a unique component where in the tourism market; the travellers prefer to see different cultures and places with a long history.

Heritage can be seen as offering something more or different to both the tourist and the community. Heritage is significant to different communities, groups and individuals depending upon their value and attitudes and the nature of the heritage resource and is also significant in the future of further tourism development in the region. There is increasing evidence that costs and benefits from tourism do not accrue equally to residents (Kala, 2008: 66). This deeper understanding of the historically contingent and embedded nature of heritage allows us to go beyond treating heritage simply as a set of problems to be solved, and enables us to engage with debates about the production of identity, power and authority throughout society (Harvey, 2001: 319).

Rather than travelling to cliché destinations, unique universal highlighted sites attract many visitors. As all the nations place a crucial importance in their cultural reflection among all the other countries, World Heritage Listings become a list of pride where the countries compete to be involved in World Heritage Lists as well. A World Heritage Site is a place listed by UNESCO as culturally and/or naturally significant. Yet the protection of these heritages often remains incomplete at the national level, especially in developing and less developed countries. In noting this tough phenomenon of damage as well as inadequate conservation, the World Heritage Convention of UNESCO launched an initiative in 1972 to preserve heritage sites considered to be of great value to humanity. The Convention enacted an international treaty called “the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” and began to ratify sites on the WHL in 1978. (Huang et al, 2012: 1451) Cultural heritage, as is defined by the 1972 UNESCO Convention on the Protection of the World’s Cultural and Natural Heritage, is the complex of monuments, buildings and archeological sites “of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science” (Peleggi, 1996: 432)

Creating the evidence-based nomination documents and management plan in support of formal submissions to UNESCO for inclusion on the tentative lists compiled by States Party to the World Heritage Convention (UNESCO 1972) demands in-depth research in order to establish ‘outstanding universal value’. And, following inscription on the World Heritage List, continued research is encouraged within the wider context of protecting, conserving and presenting cultural and natural heritage, and giving it a function in the life of the community. (Darvill, 2007: 437)

In order to accomplish in maintaining and protecting the heritage sites, for all the destinations and countries the
capacity for adaptation is required as one of the assets. As a consequence of the greater prominence and recognition accorded to World Heritage, there is also a growing range of tendency and target in being nominated as a World Heritage Site (World Heritage Resource Manual, 2011: 1). At the heart of this world heritage movement is the belief that certain natural and cultural wonders are the collective property and responsibility of all humanity, despite having vastly different historical and geographical origins. What is more, this movement has helped foster a unique feature of contemporary globalization—the recognition of a common, universal heritage to which all societies contribute (Elliott and Schmutz, 2012: 256). The designation is considered important especially when attempting to create a cultural image associated with a site (Ung & Vong, 2010).

Some other possible benefits from World Heritage status are: (World Heritage Resource Manual, 2011: 10).

- providing an opportunity for the State Party and for the local community to celebrate the property as one of the most important natural and cultural places on Earth;
- The property often becomes a flagship for the national protected area / site system, including a deeper recognition and better protection for heritage in the life of the community;
- International interest in World Heritage often provides a stimulus for international cooperation and joint efforts to ensure the protection of the property;
- Providing opportunities to mobilize funding and support, including from donors, and the World Heritage Fund; and
- Providing techniques and practices for protection, conservation and management that can be applied to national and local heritage properties.

Furthermore for all these nations with an aim of targeting to be nominated, it is commonly believed that being listed on the World Heritage List (WHL) results in attracting more tourists (Huang et al, 2012: 1450). According to Su and Lin (2014: 47), WHSs have been found to have significantly positive effects on the promotion of domestic or foreign tourism in some specific countries, such as England (e.g., Herbert, 2001; McIntosh and Prentice, 1999), China (e.g., Li, Wu, & Cai, 2008; Yang, Lin, & Han, 2010) and Germany, Hungary and Romania (Light, 2000).

In order to keep the historical values and assets maintain for future generations sustainable management of historical sites need to be accomplished. It is essential that an integrated holistic approach to sustainable development and management that incorporates the views and involvement of principal stakeholders such as local residents be adopted (Nicholas et. al., 2009).

UNESCO world cultural heritage sites, in particular landscapes, impose several land use restrictions and consequently impact the welfare of various stakeholders (Lourenco- o-Gomesa, 2014: 64)

2. Interview with the President of the Turkish National Commission for UNESCO

In this part, the researcher has tried to analyze how objective this nomination process takes place with in-depth interview. This questioning of WHL had been previously studied by Le on Pressouyre (1996), too. He raised his concerns over the Convention’s application, the meaning of variables such as authenticity and integrity, and the extent to which the list remained valid, but the need for thorough research remains central (e.g. Pressouyre 1996: 33–7). Simultaneously, UNESCO’s World Heritage project has been viewed as an example of international dominion, or more specifically, a Western colonial mission (De Cesari, 2010; Meskell, 2002; Rowlands & Butler, 2007). Even the meaning of variables and the authenticity of World Heritage project have been questioned by some researchers; some academicians proposed a different view as well as Reyes (2014). Reyes (2014: 43) believe that created and diffused by UNESCO, it is of particular interest because rather than being the product of a single player or group, the list of sites is, in theory, the democratic outcome of a global debate on culture and politics.

In this study the researcher has conducted an interview with Prof. Dr. Öcal Oğuz, President of the Turkish National Commission for UNESCO on 25th April, 2014 about the World Heritage Sites representation throughout the World and tried to come up with conclusion on the main reasons why Turkey has relatively low depiction in the World Heritage List. Some highlighting points discussed in the interview are as follows:

Paksoy: Why Turkey with an ineradicable cultural and historical background is presented in the World Heritage List with a comparatively low numbers compared to other European countries? Why Sümela or Bergama and many other historical values are not placed in the World Heritage List?

Prof. Dr. Oğuz: Turkey signed the World Heritage Convention in 1983. Till 1987 Turkey had been in the World Heritage Committee (WHC). After then, theoretically if Turkey had proposed even one candidate for each year, now the number of World Heritage List Turkey is presented with would have been 32. Hence it would not be a mistake to point out
that time has not been managed properly for offering a World Heritage asset to the Committee. Countries like Italy and Spain, etc. have offered not only one, but more than at least one. Some countries had recourse to the World Heritage Committee with more than 5 candidates. Previously the selection and nomination criteria were easier. And most of those countries as a result of their former efforts are now awarded with a more favourable list. What is more, even we do our best to carry out research and pointing out World Heritage candidates, WHC has defined certain quotas for a year and even if you are prepared with more candidates, you can not apply to WHC over the quota. In cultural assets we can apply with 2 sites and for natural nomination the quota is only 1.

Paksoy: What does WHC give emphasis in determining WHL? Are there any new criteria that they seek for during the nomination process?

Prof. Dr. Oğuz: WHC pursues an integrated study in which the intangible heritage asset is in harmony with the tangible one. They don't prefer copy-pasted files indeed they expect reports where a team of experts have indicated their comments and study in detail. They dignify projects which represent an earlier historical period such as rather than a 19th century timbered traditional house, they esteem uniqueness. 16th century city walls display similarity among all the destinations. Thus these type of assets need to be demonstrated with a series study like a city wall and any other asset nearby which could present distinctiveness as well. Or the candidate for the nomination can be suggested “as of the Seljuks”. In this proposal there can be Konya Alaeddin Mosque, Niğde Alaeddin Mosque, Sivas Ulu Camii, Afyon Ulu Mosque, Amasya, Gökmedrese Mosque etc. Another proposal can be regarding a scenic route. Castles of Genoa could be one of the options for this kind of a study.

Paksoy: What are the advantages of Turkey in regards of WHL that could be emphasized?

Prof. Dr. Oğuz: We have 13 properties inscribed on the World Heritage List. The cultural assets listed are 11.

- Archaeological Site of Troy (1998)
- Bursa and Cumalıkızık: the Birth of the Ottoman Empire (2014)
- City of Safranbolu (1994)
- Great Mosque and Hospital of Divriği (1985)
- Historic Areas of Istanbul (1985)
- Nemrut Dağ (1987)
- Neolithic Site of Çatalhöyük (2012)
- Pergamon and its Multi-Layered Cultural Landscape (2014)
- Selimiye Mosque and its Social Complex (2011)
- Xanthos-Letoon (1988)

The Mixed Assets are only two
- Göreme National Park and the Rock Sites of Cappadocia (1985)
- Hierapolis-Pamukkale (1988)

Additionally Turkey is advantageous with its tentative list. Turkey has 52 tentative heritage assets. And besides in none of our application we had been treated with a refusal. Turkey is a rich country with both tangible and intangible assets. Turkey signed intangible heritage list in 2003. Between the years 2008-2013 we have reached a record of 11 intangible assets in which Turkish coffee even has taken its place. In natural heritage assets last year Tuz Gölü-Salt Lake have been nominated under the tentative list.

Furthermore Turkey has been elected one of the 21 States Parties of the current World Heritage Committee. The committee members are the following: Algeria, Colombia, Croatia, Finland, Germany, India, Jamaica, Japan, Kazakhstan, Lebanon, Malaysia, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Senegal, Serbia, Turkey, and Vietnam.

But still it can be concluded that improved site management, well-developed links with ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites), IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature), ICCROM (International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property) in coordination with the support of experts may help to increase the number in WHL.

3. Evaluation of the Interview and Concluding Remarks

In his speech, Prof. Dr. Oğuz mentioned that unfortunately there had not been adequate study about WHL in the earlier periods of the WHL process of Turkey. Now that there is a certain quota to apply to the WHC, even though there are prepared projects to can be proposed, there cannot be application more than 2 cultural assets and 1 natural asset for a year. Thus the WHL of Turkey is represented as 13 in total. Oğuz also mentioned about the route and series product. In
historic towns it is almost always the value of group or collection of buildings that is more important than the architectural value of each building (Orbaşlı & Woodward, 2009: 318). Given that this “route” is a tourist product, it also generates a demand for an exact “identification” of the network and pressure for the coordinated provision of complementary visitor services, which may become a complex issue as the extension of the network or route stretches beyond regional or national borders (Romagosa and Russo, 2008: 60).

Creation of routes and series studies can easily be realized in Turkey with the country’s rich historical collection of sites and values.

The researcher in this perspective highlighted some suggestions for future proposals in WHC study. The integrated and sustainable areas and sites that could be recommended are consequently as follows.

- Caravanserais of Anatolia
- The Mevlevi Teachings and Related Places
- Architectural Works of Mimar Sinan-Master Builder
- Ottoman Works Built in Fatih-The Conqueror of Istanbul (this could be further researched for other sultans as well)

It can be concluded that improved site management, well-developed links with ICOMOS, IUCN, ICCROM in coordination with the support of experts in improving projects like series or route with an integrated approach may help to increase the number in WHL.

Future research, including the design of a series of small-scale studies, could also contribute to further amplification of the effects of Word Heritage Sites. For example, exploring the designation effects on visitors’ on-site behaviors could also bring an insight for the importance of WHL.

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Subsidiarity in the Jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Union

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Abstract

This paper will analyze and evaluate the role of the Court of Justice of the European Union (the Court) on the interpretation and determination of the principle of subsidiarity, designed to regulate the proper balance between the EU institutions and Member States. The Court was left a very broad space in this direction also due to the lack of clarity in the legal provisions relating to the determination of "competence" before the Lisbon Treaty. The Court has been reluctant in the formulation of the principle of subsidiarity in terms of the distribution of powers between the Community (actually EU) and the Member States. In its jurisprudence the Court has recognized that subsidiarity is pertinent to how the Community has exercised the competences and not which are the competences of the Community. The Treaty of Lisbone clearly defines the areas where the EU has exclusive competence. Thus, The Court's approach to subsidiarity may change. Also, by determining the areas where powers of the EU are shared with the Member States will facilitate the judicial review in determining whether the action taken at EU level is fulfilled adequately and with good objectives.

Keywords: subsidiarity, Court, jurisprudence, treaty

1. Introduction

The Court of Justice of the European Union (the Court), with its jurisprudence has played a fundamental role in the development of European Union (EU) law, as well as the institutional triangle Council-Commission-Parliament. This role is particularly evident in the elaboration and formulation of EU law principles.

Subsidiarity is a fundamental principle conceived in order to achieve the right balance between EU institutions and Member States.1 The distinguishing feature of this approach is to determine the appropriate level of action across the whole spectrum of public activity, at the international level as well as in national, regional and local levels.2

The principle of subsidiarity was included in the European context to regulate the exercise of Community's competence. It was mentioned for the first time in the Single European Act, in 1986 and was reconfirmed in Article 5 of the Treaty of the European Economic Community.

An important act in the legal regulation of the principle of subsidiarity was the Protocol on the application of the Principles of Subsidiarity and Proportionality attached to the Amsterdam Treaty, under which the three institutions should take into account the principle of subsidiarity in the drafting of Community legislation. Protocol lists the guidelines to be followed in deciding whether action should be taken by the Community or by the Member States. The Commission should therefore ensure the explanatory memorandum to the proposed legislation reasons why objectives can be better achieved by Community.

In the Treaty of the European Union (TUE) the core principle of subsidiarity is defined in paragraph 3 of Article 5:

"... in areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Union shall act only if and insofar as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States, either at central level or at regional and local level, but can rather, by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved at Union level."

Also, to the Treaty of Lisbon was attached Protocol nr. 2 on the application of the Principles of Subsidiarity and Proportionality, which is draft under the earlier protocols. But this Protocol presents an innovative tool, which is the increase of the role accorded to the national parliaments to monitor the implementation and exercise of this principle. The Commission is obliged to send legislative proposals to the national parliaments at the same time as to the Union institutions

Under Article 8 of this Protocol, the Court shall have jurisdiction to rule on allegation of infringement of the principle

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2 Ibid, pg. 203
of subsidiarity by a legislative act.

In the analysis of this paper, through references to the Court’s decisions will be presented its role in the elaboration of the scope and application of the principle of subsidiarity.

2. The Criteria of Subsidiarity

From the content of Article 5 of the TEU, the principle of subsidiarity does not apply in areas where the EU has exclusive competence. In the areas in which the EU has exclusive competence, to take the decision, cannot be raised the issue of whether other subjects exercise this power or to what extent they have the right to act. Article 3 of the Treaty on the Functioning of European Union provides a number of areas in which the Union shall have exclusive competence, such as: customs union, the competition rules necessary for the functioning of the internal market, monetary policy, the common fisheries policy and common commercial policy.

In areas where the EU does not have exclusive competence, in order to act in accordance with this principle, its actions have to meet these three conditions:

1. the Union shall act only if and insofar as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be achieved by the Member States;
2. the Union shall act only if and insofar as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States;
3. the proposed action, can rather be better achieved at Union level, by reason of the scale or effects.

This formulation entail what the Commission has termed a test of comparative efficiency: is it better for the action to be taken by the Community or the Member States.3

Thus, the principle of subsidiarity is based on the adequacy and effectiveness criteria, which allow a wide margin discretionary assessment to the community institutions.4

3. Subsidiarity in the Jurisprudence of the Court

The Court can adjudicate on the application of the principle of subsidiarity. So if the EU takes decisions in a particular field, a Member State may refuse the application of these decisions referring to the principle of subsidiarity and so the Court will have to take a decision.

In order to provide the effectiveness of the Community law the Court in its various decisions has gone beyond a narrow interpretation of the articles of the Treaties. But, it is clear from the case law of the Court the hesitancy in the judicial review concerning the principle of subsidiarity. This is apparent in substantive and procedural terms.

The difficulty of overturning a measure because of subsidiarity in material terms, clearly emerges in the case of Working Time Directive.5 United Kingdom argued that the Directive infringed the principle of subsidiarity, since it had not prove that, the action at Community level would bring the full benefits compared with action at the national level.6 The Court however stressed that: “…once the Council has found that it is necessary to improve the existing level of protection as regards the health and safety of workers and to harmonise the conditions in this area, while maintaining the improvements made, achievement of that objective through the impositions of minimum requirements necessarily presupposes Community – wide action.”

Compliance with subsidiarity in procedural terms is apparent in Germany v European Parliament and Council.7 The court held that the duty to give reasons contained in Article 253 of European Community did not require that Community measures contain an express reference to the subsidiarity principle. It was sufficient that the recitals to the measure made it clear why the Community institutions believed that the aims of the measure could best be attained by Community action.8

In the Tobacco Advertising Judgement9, the Court’s decision is related to the competence of the Community and the division of powers between the Community and the Member States and does not explicitly refers to subsidiarity. In the

3 P. Craig (2006), “EU administrative Law”, pg. 422
5 Case C-841/94, United Kingdom vs Council
6 P. Craig (2006), “EU administrative Law”, pg. 426
7 Case C-233/94
8 Ibid, pg 426
9 Case C-376/98, Germany v Council
opinion of the Court the tobacco advertising directive was not even supported by a proper legal basis and, for this reason, there was no reason to further examine Article 5, paragraph 2 of European Community.\textsuperscript{10}

The Court referred to the general provision of Article 5 of European Community which emphasises the fact that the powers of the Community are restricted to those conferred by the treaty and. It concluded that the EU institutions had gone beyond those limits by regulating tobacco advertising, when in fact the case involved no real obstacle to free movement. The subsequent cases of the Tobacco Advertising saga demonstrate the tension within the European polity between the desire to adopt pan – European policies to protect public health and the will of Member States that the Community should respect the boundaries of its competence by limiting the harmonization of national public health legislation.\textsuperscript{11}

The Court found no infringement of the principle of subsidiarity laid down in the second paragraph of Article 5 European Community in Alliance for Natural Health.\textsuperscript{12} To leave Member States the task of regulating trade in food supplements which do not comply with the directive would perpetuate the uncoordinated development of national rules and, consequently, obstacles to trade between Member States and distortions of competition so far as those products are concerned. Thus, the objective pursued by the directive cannot be satisfactorily achieved by action taken by the Member States alone and requires action to be taken by the Community.

Thus, the Court disagreed that in areas of health policy national actions could pass better rules to food supplements, emphasizing the significance of public health harmonization in European integration.

In Commission v Council\textsuperscript{13} the Court annulled the Framework Decision for being adopted on the wrong legal basis. Regarding the necessity test the Court stressed that: any use of measures of criminal law must be justified by the need to make the Community policy in question effective. In principle, responsibility for the proper application of Community law lies with the Member States. In some cases, however, it is necessary to direct the action of the Member States by specifying explicitly: a) the type of behaviour which constitutes a criminal offence and/or; b) the type of penalties to be applied and/or c) other criminal-law measures appropriate to the area concerned. Checks must be carried out to establish necessity and the observance of the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality at each of these stages.

4. Conclusion

Subsidiarity is a fundamental principle conceived in order to achieve the right balance between the EU institutions and Member States. The distinguishing feature of this approach is to determine the appropriate level of action across the whole spectrum of public activity, at the international level as well as in national, regional and local levels.

Regarding the role of the Court, it has always been clear that it can adjudicate cases relating to the interpretation of subsidiarity. However, the real issue has been the intensity of the judicial review. In its jurisprudence the Court was limited to recognize that subsidiarity is pertinent to how the Community has exercised the competences and not which are the competences of the Community.

The situation may change after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon in 2009. The Treaty of Lisbon clearly defines the areas where the EU has exclusive competence and those where it shares Competences with the Member States. By determining the areas where powers of the EU are shared with the Member States will facilitate the judicial review in determining whether the action taken at EU level is fulfilled adequately and with good objectives. Thus, The Court's approach to subsidiarity may change.

Finally, the new role of national Parliaments in monitoring and respecting the implementation and exercise of the principle of subsidiarity, after the Treaty of Lisbon, can balanced the minimalist judicial approach to actions based on compliance with this principle.

\textsuperscript{10} C. Ritzer, M. Rutlof and K. Linhart “How to Sharpen a Dull Sword – The Principle of Subsidiarity and its Control”, GERMAN LAW JOURNAL, Vol. 07 No. 09, pg 746


\textsuperscript{12} Joined Cases C-154/04 and C-155/04, The Queen, on the application of Alliance for Natural Health and Others vs Secretary of State for Health and National Assembly for Wales.

\textsuperscript{13} Case C-176/03.
References

Flooding in Poland in 2010 as a Exemplification of Efforts of the Polish Social Work Services in Case of Disaster

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Abstract
Flooding is one of the most common natural disasters. People have dealt with its occurrence and consequences for centuries. It is difficult to predict, occur unexpectedly and proceed with extreme rapidity causing destruction on a massive scale. The unprecedented flooding that hit Poland in 1997 and 2010 had disastrous consequences for the environment, population, infrastructure and economy. Natural disasters, such as flooding in 2010 constitute also a serious test for society and its organization - both administrative structures and specialized services as well as informal social ties, norms and values. The article describes how the polish citizens dealt with the flood of 2010 and after its termination, including support received from family, neighbors and social institutions. The article will describe government statistics and the results of qualitative research conducted among emergency responders (25 individual in - depth interview), the victims (25 individual in - depth interview) and quantitative research 500 questionnaires.

Keywords: flooding in Poland, disaster-related research, sociology of disasters, social problems

1. Introduction
In the world there has been a growth in various natural disasters made by natural and mankind. (Lam., 2007-Lerner) Flooding is one of the most common natural disasters and belongs to the category of phenomena which we can't prevent. Emerging countries in the process of evolution took over more and more responsibility for the development of citizens. Therefore, the main task of public administration and its specialized units is to ensure the safety of citizens both before, during and after the occurrence of emergencies such as natural disasters.

Floods are the things that are difficult to predict, occur unexpectedly and cause large consequences for the environment, infrastructure and society. The flood, which occurred in May and June 2010 took the form of unprecedented element, and was one of the biggest in the Polish history. The article describes how the public administration or its specialized agencies provided counseling after the cessation of the flood. The content is presented in the article aims to contribute to the deepening of knowledge about the flood and how to deal with its consequences, but also present information on effective measures to be taken to minimize the loss of people who experienced this disaster.

According to the findings of researchers dealing with disasters (Kaniasty, Noris, 1995) the support period after the disaster should be limited in time to the situation of the occurrence of hazards and immediately interrupted for people who are able to undertake activities to improve the situation in which they find themselves. It is important to create the social conditions for the adoption of measures to minimize the effects of the disaster. Otherwise, the aid received from public institutions and NGOs instead of becoming a social support will be a factor disintegrating communities and the same unit, which experienced flooding. In the literature, rarely take the thread support victims of social assistance centers, more fundraiser is paid to the occurrence of psychological and health consequences of various types of disasters, accidents or traumatic events. In 2002, in the journal Psychiatry has made the most extensive review of the research literature concerning traumatic events related to, among others, floods (Norris, F.H et al 2002). The Polish sociological literature publications are mainly for organizing local communities in the context of flooding. Wojciech Sitek (1997) describes organizing local communities in Wroclaw during the flood in 1997, Krzysztof Frysztacki and Teresa Soldra-Gwiżdż (1999) describe the course and consequences of floods in Opole in 1997, Christopher Kaniasty (2003) describes the psychosocial consequence of the floods in 1997. Violetta Knapik (2013, 2014) analyzes the impact of flooding on the
community life of rural residents. Wojciech Biernacki and his team (2009) conducted a study on the perceptions and knowledge about natural hazards and the sense of disaster risk in communities (Biernacki, Bokwa, Działek, Padło 2009). In the context of the support by the welfare institutions should indicate a report prepared by the Regional Social Welfare Centre in Rzeszów (Zajdel-Ostrowska, 2013). A study conducted in 2012 among residents of the municipality and city Gorzyce and Tarnobrzeg affected by floods in 1997 and 2010 made it possible to draw conclusions. The positive is that we all asked in the survey confirmed the receipt of a greater or lesser extent, in-kind support material or immaterial as a result of flooding in the study area Tarnobrzeg and municipalities Gorzyce. The most often cited form of support for those affected by the floods was financial assistance (28.3%), followed by assistance in the form of materials for removing the effects of floods (22.9%). Respondents indicated that the activities that the greatest should be implemented by government organizations and NGOs should relate to activities aimed at strengthening existing levees (34.4%). Despite the experience twice the floods, the majority of respondents do not plan to change their place of residence. Such a decision is often associated with a lack of adequate financial resources - selling and buying a new home in a place where there is no risk is not possible, either due to the fact that real estate Flood lost much in value, and that the lack of people willing to purchase them. Another reason to stay in the current place of residence work is performed, attached to the house and the area. Respondents do not think about carrying to another place, because they have health problems and are no longer in the elderly.

2. Methods

The project was carried out in 2013, on a researched sample of 500 people who experienced the impact of floods in 2010. The research material was collected using a questionnaire (containing closed questions, semi-open and open) and in-depth interviews. The problem of the study was a description of flooding, i.e., among others, difficulties associated with the occurrence of the disaster, the description of the victims survive, the aid received, the assessment of aid and institutions providing aid, expectations of donors.

External research company conducted a study on a target sample of individuals that are referred to as "heads of families". Examined 500 people who have experienced the effects in the context of disaster - a questionnaire survey. Purposeful selection of people from the area municipalities most affected by the flooding, i.e. rural municipalities: Szczurowa (Małopolskie), Wilków (Lubelskie) and Cisek (Opole), and the municipalities of Sandomierz (Świętokrzyskie), Jasło (Podkarpackie), and urban – rural areas such as Bogatynia (Dolny Śląsk). Gminy na terenie których przeprowadzono badania zostały zaliczone do 18 najbardziej poszkodowanych podczas powodzi w 2010 roku.

In addition, individual in-depth interviews were conducted in the areas surveyed municipalities with 25 people who suffered during the disaster and 25 people who provided support (represented by central and local government, social welfare institutions and NGOs). There were conducted an average of 4 interviews with victims and providing support to the individual municipalities.

3. Analysis

Public institutions, such as the local council, the city council and social welfare centers during floods and after the resignation of grant aid to victims of various types, depending on the situation of the household and the size of the losses. Respondents in the study using a questionnaire interview were asked to identify which forms of support offered by public institutions using. The most downloaded form of assistance was financial support - in the first stage as a handout for basic needs after the flood - to 6 thousand polish zloty (benefited from it more than 88% of victims) in the second stage as a means for the renovation or reconstruction of residential building (took advantage of them almost 80% of victims). More than one third of victims obtained from public institutions as in-kind assistance (38%) and help remove impurities accumulated as a result of flooding (35.4%). Every fifth household also received support in the form of colonies for the child / children and 14.3% - an education allowance. If you do not take into account the households in which selected "not applicable", i.e. those which do not have school-age children, we can conclude that 60% of households whose members are school-age children, received support in the form of colonies, and 42% in the form of education allowance.
Table 1. Scale of use by households affected by the flood with various forms of assistance offered by public institutions (municipal office, social welfare center, government).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L.p.</th>
<th>Form of assistance offered by public institutions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Does the household have received assistance in the prescribed form? (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Financial assistance to meet the necessities of life to 6000 PLN</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>Yes 88,2 No 9,2 DNA 2,6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Financial assistance for the repair or reconstruction of up to 20,000 PLN, to 100,000 PLN and up to 300000 PLN</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>Yes 79,5 No 15,2 DNA 5,3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Assistance in materials (eg, Construction materials, home electronics / appliances, furniture, etc.)</td>
<td>497</td>
<td>Yes 38,0 No 51,3 DNA 10,7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Providing a replacement residence (container)</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>Yes 15,3 No 20,9 DNA 63,9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Help (physical) in removing the effects of floods - removing impurities</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>Yes 35,4 No 53,1 DNA 12,5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Help (physical) reconstruction household</td>
<td>497</td>
<td>Yes 11,1 No 62,4 DNA 26,6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Support Specialist (psychological., lawyer, family) for flood victims</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>Yes 11,7 No 40,0 DNA 48,3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Holiday trip for a child</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>Yes 19,9 No 13,1 DNA 67,1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Education allowance for children</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>Yes 14,3 No 19,8 DNA 66,0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Support for people with disabilities</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>Yes 5,3 No 11,1 DNA 83,6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Another type of assistance</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>Yes 60,9 No 25,4 DNA 13,7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that until 2010 in Poland there wasn’t any rules governing aid to victims of natural disasters, including floods. Legal basis for support of flood victims by the State direct financial assistance under the tasks of government implemented by the municipalities, are the provisions of the Act of 12 March 2004 on social assistance allowance permitting a non-refundable grant targeted person or family who have suffered losses due to natural disaster, regardless of the income of that person or family. However, these provisions beyond the general specifying the circumstances in which and who is entitled to benefits purposeful, do not specify the relevant issues in this case, including the manner and procedure for the determination of the allowance. At the central level by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Administration has issued detailed guidance on support for victims. The scale of the flood was very large and therefore it was necessary interpretation of the rules and thus describes one of the social workers I mean, yes, I say, there were many specific situations, when you do not really know how to act in a given situation, guided inquiry to the Ministry, received quick answers, so I say, well, there was a problem. We know not, for the answer you need to wait a few days, but it was not an elongated, so I speak in doubtful matters, we asked the Ministry, received such answers, how to deal with specific situations. (Sandomierz, Helper 4). An important aspect is the way the granting of aid, because, as the report describes the Highest Chamber of Control, as in the case of the so-called. Benefits to 6 thousand polish zloty to cover basic needs after a disaster to the matters related to the granting and payment of aid in a larger size (up to 20 thousand., and over 20 thousand. zl) was performed in a different way, not only in different regions of the Polish, but also within the same municipality. Thus describe social workers should receive assistance: Well, as I say. Over to the other moments the only article that applied to the granting of aid was article 40 of the Law on Social Assistance, which is so vague that it really does not explain you know the same, so to speak the same volume of aid and forms of assistance. It is said only there for the benefit intentional and that in such a situation may be granted and really that's all. Here were a tool guidelines of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Administration board, so the courts took the view, that really knows you legally cannot have it buttoned up. What else these allowances for farmers affected by the floods there was a regulation that describes who is eligible for this form of assistance, how much they need to meet the conditions and little of that for when I need to submit an application to have been considered and what happens to the administration of the complex time. So that is without consideration, it was probably a short two- or three-page regulation but not clearly shows, when it comes to benefits is targeted social assistance to repair homes and to support the current priority needs not here, unfortunately, there was no strict rules. (Wilków, Helper 3). Interestingly, representatives of households affected by the flood, who were invited to participate in the study, evaluated the extent to which public institutions receive support from their expectations fulfilled. The results show that the highest level of satisfaction of the expectations of the victims appeared in the case of support offered to children - in the form of education allowance and colonial trips (less than 12% of declarations with a low degree of satisfaction, over 67% of large). High level meet expectations was also reported in relation to provide a replacement residence (42.1% - a rather large and 35.5% - very large) and for help in removing the effects of floods (filth) - help has fulfilled the expectations of the
third victim degree rather large and at the third in a very large extent. Financial support (grant to 6 thousand. Dollars and support for the renovation / reconstruction) as well as in-kind support to the expectations of victims responded to a much lesser extent. Aid for basic needs after the flood, fulfilled the expectations of 25% of the victims of degree rather small, and almost 14% in a very small extent. With regard to support for the renovation / restoration of the highest percentage of victims declared a rather large degree of satisfaction of expectations (33.2%), but 27% found them to be rather small, and a further 11.7% for very small. Material help was assessed with the same frequency as meeting the expectations of the degree rather small and rather large, but among the strong dominant negative (18.5% - a very small degree of satisfaction of the needs and 14.3% - very large). Presents an interesting assessment of the distribution of the degree of satisfaction of expectations relating to support for people with disabilities, whereby we must remember that this aspect was evaluated by a small group of respondents (26 people). Answers "rather small" and "rather large" and "very small" and "very high" were selected with exactly the same frequencies.

Victims who have benefited from any form of support from the social welfare center, were asked to rate various aspects of the functioning of the institution relating to the provision of assistance after the flood. Respondents evaluated the effect of social assistance center with its own area municipalities by granting from 1 to 5 points, where 1 is the strongly negative and strongly positive assessment 5.

Top rated aspects of social welfare centers is the timely delivery of financial services (3.89 pts.), The rate of support after the falling water (3.79 pts.) And the availability of workers welfare centers (3.74 pts.). By far the lowest rated granted specialist support needed (eg, psychological, legal - 3.12 pts.), As well as information about available forms of assistance (3.30 pts.) And the amount of financial support paid by these institutions. All aspects were rated between 3.10 and 3.90 points, so better than average and less than well - it is difficult to speak of a large variety of evaluations of specific aspects. Differentiation is seen while in the individual municipalities. In the municipality of Jaslo until four aspects of the social welfare center has been assessed at least good (above 4.00 pts.) And it should be emphasized that in any of the other municipalities not reported any grade point average at 4.00 points. Such a positive assessment related to the treatment of victims by the social workers, the timeliness of payments, availability of staff and speed of support. In the municipality of Wolves, however, only the speed and timeliness of payments support is the only among the 11 aspects, rated at a level higher than 3.50 points. The lowest average ratings (ie 2.10 points). Noted in the evaluation of specialized legal and psychological support offered by the resort social assistance Szczurowa.

Level of satisfaction with the resulting financial assistance for basic needs (handout to 6.000 PLN) is varied in different municipalities, the it should be noted that this relationship is of moderate strength (p = 0.000, C = 0.346). Victims of the municipality Bogatynia assessed level of satisfaction of expectations for this form of aid as very high (41.8%), while in the municipality of Szczurowa this evaluation has not formulated any of the respondents. In the municipality of Wolves over ¼ of victims considered that the grant to a very small extent, satisfied their expectations, and the fifth, assessed the degree as rather small. Opinions about rather little to meet the needs were also among the most frequent victims of municipalities Sandomierz and Cisek (27.5-31.6%), and the local inhabitants Cisek much less evaluated this help as very few adequate to the expectations (3.5% of responses ).

Table 2. The extent to which financial assistance to meet the necessities of life (up to 6000 PLN), obtained from public institutions (municipal office, social welfare center, government), fulfilled the expectations of people affected by the flooding. [N=440]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place (w%)</th>
<th>Szczeurowa</th>
<th>Jaslo</th>
<th>Wilków</th>
<th>Sandomierz</th>
<th>Cisek</th>
<th>Bogatynia</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very small</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather small</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to say</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather big</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very big</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The evaluation of the level of the satisfaction of the expectations of those affected by flooding financial assistance for the renovation / reconstruction offered by public institutions shows no statistically significant relationship with the type of inhabited villages. In all municipalities except Bogatynia opinions of rather high level of satisfaction expectations are the most numerous and much less numerous than the opinion of the rather small degree to meet expectations. In the case of municipalities Bogatynia level of satisfaction with support for the renovation / reconstruction is much higher - ¾ victims.
defines it as high (37% as a rather large and the same as very large).

In order to better underline the scale of the use of support for households affected during the floods, respondents were asked, with the support of individuals and institutions which benefited in the following dimensions:

1) material support (financial and in kind),
2) support, consisting in providing information on handling matters related to the effects of floods, coping after the flood, inference on granting aid, etc.
3) Support of emotional (amusingly, understanding, hearing).

Material support for the largest percentage of victims (ie 81%) were obtained from public institutions (office of the municipality / city social welfare center). Second, the declared material support from family (47.5%), and strangers (42.1%). In the case of aid in the form of informing, advising how to cope after a flood comparable to the proportion of victims could count on friends and acquaintances, family members and representatives of public institutions (39% - 40.7%). Emotional support grant mainly family (72.4%) and friends and friends (63.4%).

Table 3. The scale of support provided by the cessation of the flood victims, from various people and institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L.p.</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Does the household have received material support (financial or material)?</th>
<th>Does the household have received support regarding information on how to perform certain tasks or to settle matters related to coping after the flood?</th>
<th>Does the household received psychological support?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>DNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Volonteer, Religious groups</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Public Institutions</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of answers concerning the frequency of obtaining various forms of support from various people and institutions shows that the support of family and friends more often repeated several or many times, when in the case of strangers and public institution it was likely a one-off or was happening only a few times. For example, multiple financial help from family and friends declared that approximately 35% of victims, in the case of strangers and public institutions less than 11%. Multiple aid consisting in advising and informing declared more than 40% in relation to family and friends, and less than 20% in the case of strangers and public institutions.

Opinions on possible victims of fraud in the breakdown of aid have been verified by a request for comment on the assertion "The aid was distributed fairly." The highest percentage of people who disagree with this statement was recorded in the municipality of the Wolves - which confirms the result obtained with a question concerning the comparison of the aid received assistance from others. Confirmation of such a state of opinion may be the report of the Supreme Chamber of Control, which showed irregularities in the allocation of funds (NIK, 2011). When conducting in-depth interviews as residents pointed to irregularities. My expectations. I was hoping that everything will be done so as it should be. So you come from welfare, have three children. It should be said, for example, a member of the family should be 1 thousand and I should get it and not received. I know that the money was and feels cheated by a caregiver or municipality, I do not know what to call it. I know that many people of good will gave money because then they asked me if it was. I do not know what happened to it. Later this second round of flooding because there were two, the first and second wave. Since the first had 6000 and got 500 zł per family member. Where’s the rest of the money? A big question mark. I will not be one of the accounted what happened here (Wolves, Victim 4). The greatest belief in the fairness of distribution of support among local inhabitants in need expressed Cisek, in which every fourth victim expressed his conviction that definitely fair distribution of aid, while only 3.5% chose the answer decidedly negative. A relatively small proportion claiming that the aid was not distributed fairly well reported in the municipality of Jaslo (9.5% definitely unfair and 16.1% rather unfair), while in Szczurowa largest percentage of people expressed the belief that, rather that the allocation of aid was not fair (31%), p = 0.00, C = 0.392

Victims also responded to the statement that “the aid was in an atmosphere of friendship and camaraderie.” In the municipalities of Szczurowa, Jaslo, Sandomierz and Bogatynia largest group of victims rather agreed with this statement. In the commune Cisek more than 30% of victims strongly disagreed with this statement, and nearly 30% corresponded to a moderate degree, which is another proof of the fact that the way the distribution of aid is assessed in the municipality
most of the six surveyed municipalities. In turn, in the municipality of Wolves, only every fourth victim expressed the belief that the aid was divided in an atmosphere of friendly and more than 60% of the respondents disagreed with this opinion, choosing the answer moderately negative (31.4%) or strongly negative (32.4%). The relationship between the municipality in which they live and the way respondents assess this aspect of aid is statistically significant and shows the average strength ($p = 0.00, C = 0.489$).

Opinion on the fact that the aid was distributed more on the basis of knowledge than the real flood losses expressed almost 60% of victims from the community Wolves, including more than 30% strongly agreed with this view. In the municipality of Szczurowa this view confirmed by over 40% of respondents, but most of them (27.6%) chose the answer moderate "rather agree". At the same time more than 41% of the surveyed residents of the municipality argued that rather this is not true. The lowest percentage of victims expressing the view that the aid was distributed according to knowledge, combined with the highest percentage convinced that this is not true - there is in the municipality of Cisek. $p = 0.00, C = 0.413$

People who suffered in the floods, asked to comment on the claim that "many people have received assistance, though they do not belong" frequently declared lack of knowledge on the subject and chose the answer "do not know". The exception is the municipality Bogatynia, in which up 45.6% of the respondents strongly agreed with this view, and another 20.6% said that rather agree with him. A significant proportion of victims who perceive this type of problem (27.6% in a decisive and 26.5% moderate) were reported in the municipality of Wilków. ($p = 0.00, C = 0.357$).

Victims also have the issue of addressing those claims that almost all of them were satisfied with the assistance - a total of 38.2% of respondents chose the answer "do not know", in the case of municipalities Szczurowa this proportion was as high as 50%. The percentage of victims who do not agree with this statement was higher than the percentage of people agreeing with him, only in the municipalities of Wilków and Sandomierz. ($p = 0.00, C = 0.375$).

Respondents could not comment explicitly on the question of whether there was a group of victims, which was omitted by public institutions in the allocation of aid in their municipality. A total of 40.5% of people abstained from the evaluation of this view. Among the clear answers most frequently pointed to the "rather disagree", and the interest definitely confirming this view and strongly rejecting it were close. The analysis showed no statistically significant correlation between the type of municipality and opinion about the omission of the allocation of aid ($p = 0.09, C = 0.290$).

With regard to the claim that the distribution of aid by public institutions more divided than the residents of the municipality merged almost identical percentage of respondents pointed to the answer "rather agree" and "somewhat disagree" (almost 22%). Among the opinion of the vast strength, however, were far outnumbered those that confirmed this negative fact (24.3% strongly agree and 4.2% strongly disagree). Noteworthy, however, far removed from the average score for the municipality of Wolves, in which only 5% of victims did not agree with the view that aid for flood victims divided residents and more than 72% agreed with this view in a decisive manner. ($p = 0.00, C = 0.577$).

Taking into account the fact that the assessment of the functioning of the centers of social assistance and support provided by not were not very high, the victims were asked to identify whether the lack of some kind of support from the social welfare center, and if so - what support was missing? Deficiencies in the support offered by the centers saw an 15.4% of respondents, with the scale of this type of declaration is varied in the different municipalities: from 36.7% in the municipality of Szczurowa, and only 2.5% in Bogatynia, ($p = 0.00, C = 0.304$)

Any shortcomings respondents mentioned yourself - in the form of open. Most attention was paid to the lack of interest, understanding, and psychological support. Second, the perceived deficiencies in informing victims - mainly on the possibilities for support. Declared the shortcomings of the amount to be awarded benefits and the lack of support in the cleaning and restoration. Among other deficiencies - exchanged in individual cases - emerged: lack of justice in the chapter support, the lack of organization of work, failure to provide fuel for the winter, the lack of support in kind and too late disbursement of the funds.
Figure 1. Absence of support provided by social welfare centers after the falling water (mentioned by respondents in the open-ended question).

Every fourth representative household that suffered losses during the flood, declared that there are things that should be changed in the functioning of social assistance center to help was more effective. More than 43% of victims did not see the need to make changes, and others - that is, almost every third respondent - have no opinion on the matter.

4. Conclusion

Flooding is an element of a nature, which is very difficult to avoid, you can only try to minimize the damage. In the event of such a severe natural disaster assistance to the government, the local government has proven necessary. The purpose of this publication is to provide information on the situation of the inhabitants of the areas affected by floods in Poland in 2010, both in terms of the support provided by the social services and financial situation, as well as mood and social expectations. The positive is the fact that the majority of those interviewed in the study acknowledged receipt of a greater or lesser extent, in-kind support material or immaterial as a result of flooding. The most often cited form of support for those affected by the floods was financial aid, and aid in the form of materials for removing the effects of floods. Residents of flooded areas are very critical of the procedure for granting aid. "Rigid" settlement dates received funds contributed to the haste in carrying out repair work, which directly resulted in the poor quality of the works. However, timely payment of benefits from the social assistance was the highest rated among the analyzed aspects of aid institutions.

References

The Correlation Relationship between Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth Case of Albania

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Abstract

Fiscal policies are important predictors of economic developments. Often government decisions on spending and taxation play an important role in speeding up or slowing economic growth. Fiscal policy in Albania has been under continuous observation thorough reform of spending and tax collection system. Fiscal policy has always been an issue of interest to policymakers in Albania because of its effects on economic growth, prices and interest rates. This paper analyzes the effects of fiscal policy on economic growth in a small country with an open economy, in developing and transition system still unfinished as Albania. The purpose of this paper is to highlight how public activity through taxation and spending policies has served to stimulate economic growth. To achieve his goal, this paper presents a broad overview of theoretical viewpoints and empirical studies focused on this issue. Correlation used and descriptive analysis will reflect the link economic growth- fiscal policy for Albania. It will also analyze the changes in the legislation on taxation and tax reforms after years of transition and their impact on economic growth.

1. Introduction

Contemporary macroeconomic literature has emphasized fiscal policy objectives, both for the short term, but also in the long term. In the short term, fiscal policy can be used to control the production cycle, as well as to stabilize the volatility of macro indicators, what is the same short-term impact of monetary policy. In the long run, fiscal policy and the financial means of debt can affect demand and aggregate supply.

Taxes make allocation of resources from the private sector to the public. The impact of the public sector in the economy is of particular interest in countries in transition. The role of the state in these countries goes in both directions: on the one hand it is subject of reforms to adapt to the new structure of the economy and on the other hand affects the creation of a positive climate for economic reforms and making other comprehensive reforms to accelerate the process of transition.

Taxes, no matter how necessary they are, stifle private decision, create a distorted allocation of resources and create excessive tax burden. Sometimes you might think that these sprains caused by taxation reflect in economic performance and could slow economic growth. Tax systems can distort private decision for two reasons: firstly can get more resources from the private sector (tax rates), and secondly can provide income in a less efficient way (tax structure). Often the negative effect of taxes can be derived from what the government decides to tax. The overall level of taxation reflects society’s choice of the size of the public sector, while the tax structure represents mostly a tool to realize this choice. Governments could consider changing the tax structure to minimize the negative effects on growth, keeping unchanged the level of public goods and services.

Since the gradual orientation towards a market economy in the early 90s, the Albanian government had intended to achieve fiscal consolidation through reduction of the budget deficit and public debt. Important changes are those that have occurred over the last decade with the adoption of new fiscal package. Some of these changes were intended to encourage incentives to business and at the same time enable the income tax. Such reforms consisted in passing progressive tax system, in that the flat tax on personal income tax and profit tax, and elimination of exemptions and facilities of the old tax system. Also, facilities for custom duties, performed as a result of trade liberalization. Other changes were also at the level of national taxes, local, excise, social insurance contributions from 42.5 % to 24.5 %, reducing the small business tax to 1.5 % from 4 %, as well as lowering the threshold for VAT registration. Regarding
public spending, they have had a downward trend as a result of the government's objective to create more funds for strategic capital expenditures.

State activity or public sector has changed over time, by adapting the trajectory of economic development. Given the political and economic developments over the years and the current situation for Albania can say that besides fiscal policy, an important role in economic growth plays quality of governance and institutions, specifically referring to the judiciary, drafting and adoption of the legal framework, corruption, policy stability, regulatory quality and firms possess information about them, the time spent in the offices of private-public employees, the number of procedures for opening new businesses, giving bribes to public officials, lobbying etc. The aim of fiscal policy, mainly in countries in transition is to achieve fiscal consolidation by keeping the budget deficit levels checked. The best way to achieve this consolidation is to reduce spending moderately, but without forgotten the priority sectors. However, the level of expenditure by those countries often is induced by their ability to collect as much tax revenue by increasing the taxable base and reducing tax rates, and other phenomena that impact negatively on it.

Economic theory provides an explanation for a negative relationship between taxes and economic growth. But, on the other hand, the development of appropriate fiscal instruments can lead to sustainable economic growth and continued. But, how have affected the changes in the fiscal policy in Albania? How is the connection economic growth - fiscal policy for this country? This material focuses in the way fiscal policy developed in our country have affected long-term growth rate.

2. Literature Review

Does the composition of expenditure and revenue affect the long run growth rate? According to the neoclassical growth models of Solow and Swan (1956) the answer is largely “no”. It attempts to explain long-run economic growth by looking at productivity, capital accumulation, population growth, and technological progress. By contrast, endogenous growth theory holds that investment in human capital, innovation, and knowledge are significant contributors to economic growth. The endogenous growth theory primarily holds that the long run growth rate of an economy depends on policy measures. The initial research was based on the work of Kenneth Arrow (1962), Hirofumi Uzawa (1965), and Miguel Sidrauski (1967), Paul Romer (1986), Lucas (1988), and Rebelo (1991).

Modern growth theory comprises at least three competing strands. The neoclassical theory of economic growth, based focuses in the inputs of physical and human capital into the production process, and on technological advances, as the determinants of economic performance. Alternative explanations for growth are based on geographical factors. Jeffrey Sachs (2001), for example, argues that locational factors such as a temperate climate and access to markets are the keys to growth. The institutional approach characterized by Douglass North (1990) emphasizes the importance of market institutions as the foundation for economic prosperity. Obviously, any discussion of the importance of tax policy on economic growth falls within this institutional approach. It is important to note that these three explanations for growth are not logically inconsistent with each other, so all might play a role, and any empirical examination of economic growth must attempt to control for all of these factors.

A number of studies have explored the impact of taxes on state economic growth. If the theory is reasonably clear, however, the empirical evidence is not. As Stokey and Rebelo (1995) state, “recent estimates of the potential growth effects of tax reform vary wildly, ranging from zero to eight percentage points”. Anyway, most, but not all, of these studies find evidence of a negative effect of taxes on various measures of state economic performance. The relationship between the fiscal policy stance and growth will differ across countries depending on their initial fiscal conditions. This also has important implications for the econometric specifications used to link fiscal policy and growth.

Tax reforms are sometimes touted as having strong macroeconomic growth effects (Eric Engen and Jonathan Skinner). Their results suggest modest effects, on the order of 0.2 to 0.3 percentage point differences in growth rates in response to a major tax reform. Nevertheless, even such small effects can have a large cumulative impact on living standards.

The report of OECD (2010) investigates how tax structures can best be designed to support GDP per capita growth. It suggests shifting part of the tax burden from income to consumption and residential property and a greater role for environmental taxes and fees.

Tax revenue may be a possible source to correct the deficit which reduces economic growth and social welfare. The empirical analysis of this study shows that changes in tax rate may have permanent effects on output, but will have only temporary effects on its growth rate in selected Asian Economies. This implies that an increase in the tax rate has permanently reduce the level of output per capita, but have no permanent effect on growth rate (Ihtsham ul Haq Padda and Naeem Akram).
Most recently, presidential candidate Robert Dole proposed a 15 percent across-the-board income tax cut coupled with a halving of the tax on capital gains, with a predicted increase in gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates from about 2.5 to 3.5 percentage points.

Adam and Bevan in their study suggest (2004) a statistically significant non-linearity in the impact of the budget deficit on growth at around 1.5% of GDP. Also the analysis suggests that while the impacts on growth of taxes and grants are reasonably straightforward, the impact of deficit is likely to be complex, depending on the financing mix and the outstanding debt stock.

Others have questioned whether tax reform would have such beneficial effects on economic growth. If tax cuts fail to produce the projected boost in economic growth, tax revenues could decline, putting upward pressure on the deficit, worsening levels of national saving, and leading to laggard economic growth in the future. One of the primary complications is that economic policies affect economic growth, and economic growth may in turn affect income equality (Clark and Lawson, 2008). In an economy globalists higher tax rates reduce economic growth of a country due to the relocation of capital abroad, in countries with the most appropriate tax rate.

3. Evidence from Albania

In the late 90’s and over the last decade, policies economic implemented in Albania have been aimed at safeguarding macroeconomic stability, reducing poverty and creating favorable conditions for a non-inflationary economic growth, as and achieve fiscal consolidation by reducing deficit budget and public debt. Public finances suffered reformations substantial and ongoing, aiming at reducing government spending and increase revenues. In addition, tax revenues suffered large reductions as a result of lower gradual customs duties due to free trade agreements, under the Stabilisation and Association Agreement with EU, CEFTA and membership in the World Trade. This was followed by an increase in local tax and national excise tax, reductions in contributions social security and health of the business tax small, and changes the threshold for registration of Tax Value Added Tax (VAT). Changes in tax legislation was finalized with the elimination of all exemptions and fiscal incentives under the old tax system, the adoption of the flat tax from 10 % in 2007 and reduce the corporate tax to 10 % in 2008. The following graph shows the performance of tax revenues and expenditures over the years for Albania.

Source: Ministry of Finance

As we have mentioned, the aim of this paper is to note the correlation that exists between fiscal policy, represented by tax revenues (taxes and customs duties, local taxes and contributions) and tax expense growth. The table below shows the correlation that exists between these variables. The data belong to a 15-year period (1998-2012). Results in this table show that between fiscal policy and economic growth in our country there is a negative relationship, and this relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation between indicators</th>
<th>Taxes and customs</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Contributions</th>
<th>Total tax revenues</th>
<th>Total expenditures</th>
<th>GDP Growth (% Annual)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taxes and customs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.856440</td>
<td>0.988338</td>
<td>0.99884</td>
<td>0.96043</td>
<td>-0.70417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Government</td>
<td>0.856440</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.895646</td>
<td>0.87806</td>
<td>0.72195</td>
<td>-0.44885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributions</td>
<td>0.988338</td>
<td>0.895646</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.99369</td>
<td>0.94341</td>
<td>-0.66167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total tax revenues</td>
<td>0.99884</td>
<td>0.878069</td>
<td>0.993699</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.95289</td>
<td>-0.68932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditures</td>
<td>0.960437</td>
<td>0.721959</td>
<td>0.943413</td>
<td>0.95289</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.68157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Growth (% ANNUAL)</td>
<td>-0.70417</td>
<td>-0.448850</td>
<td>-0.66166</td>
<td>-0.6893</td>
<td>-0.6815</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors own calculations
is statistically at average importance. Revenue from taxes and customs have a strong negative relation than other indicators, while local taxes appear to have a lower impact.

Being to analyze the issues related specifically to Albania it was noticed that there is a gap between the quality of the regulatory base, as in fiscal terms, but also in the institutional, their implementation in practice. If we refer to the policy of budgetary revenue tax rates have often been the subject of ongoing reforms to reduce the fiscal load, but little is actually done in terms of revenue administration, despite reforms, computer systems implementation, training of personnel of tax administration etc. According to the Ministry of Finance it is noted a decline in tax revenues due to the impact of the economic slowdown shows that there is a close relation between economic growth and revenue collection and highlights the fact that other factors such as evasion, corruption, the administration did not change significantly.

In the fiscal area, for the case of Albania there are very few studies made. To our knowledge, the relationship PF's economic growth for Albania’s case, it is only recently studied in order empirical. In a paper, Mancellari (2011) examines effects of fiscal policy (PF) in Albania, based on a model with four macroeconomic variables, namely: PF, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), interest rate and price level. The material was based the method of structural vector autoregression (SVAR) and impulses according to the methodology developed by Blanchard and Perotti (2002). The main conclusions of this discussion paper show that FP affects economic activity, the reduction of the burden tax has the highest multiplier cumulative of GDP, and GDP multiplier of capital expenditure is greater than as multiplier for current expenses.

An analysis by Gerti Shijaku and Arlind Gjokuta, experts at the Bank of Albania, focuses on how the composition of expenditure and government revenue impacts of long-term growth rate. The report reaches the conclusion that if the government wants to increase revenue, indirect taxes should be chosen instead to direct taxes, because as they grow, their effect on growth is smaller. On the other hand, while capital expenditure growth has been the biggest positive impact on economic growth and mitigate the effects of the crisis, the survey results show that the value of the coefficient of the debt burden is negatively correlated with the rate of economic growth. Empirical results suggest that since 2007 the link between economic growth and spending is weak, while incomes have greater negative impact on economic growth.

4. Conclusions

Fiscal policies are important predictors of economic developments. Often government decisions on spending and taxation play an important role in speeding up or slowing economic growth. By theoretical viewpoints, empirical studies and practical facts position and role of the state in transition economies is considered essential in many transition economies. For Albania, in our opinion an important role in economic performance has also played events inherited from the past. Also the contribution of fiscal policy is very important in stabilizing the main macroeconomic variables, but also for the overall development. If we analyze the issues related specifically in Albania, it is worth mentioning that there is a gap between the quality of regulatory base in fiscal terms, but also in institutional with their implementation in practice. If the government wants to increase revenue, indirect taxes should be chosen instead to direct taxes, because as they grow, their effect on growth is smaller. On the other hand, while capital expenditure growth has been the biggest positive impact on economic growth and mitigate the effects of the crisis, the survey results show that the value of the coefficient of the debt burden is negatively correlated with the rate of economic growth.

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Transformations of Efficient Market Hypothesis under the Influence of Behavioral Finance

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Abstract
The paper provides a theoretical study on efficient market hypothesis (EMH) changes under the influence of behavioral finance. Authors of the paper briefly provide the basic assumptions of efficient markets theory and remind how the top of its dominance was reached in the 1970s. At the same time the goal of the paper is to develop the unbiased and complex overview of the today’s market efficiency and show its transformations under the impact of market participants’ irrationality. In the paper authors introduce the interaction between market efficiency, market arbitrage, irrationality of market participants and highlight the importance to revise the reliability of efficient market theory assumptions in order to achieve high performance of investment portfolios. Through the behavioral finance point of view authors not only aggregate the critics EMH faces during the recent years, but also evaluate today’s opportunities for arbitrage and provide arbitrage critics. According to documented by experimental economists departures from market efficiency and taking into consideration their nature, i.e. investors’ irrationality as a result of influence of a set of specific behavioral (both cognitive and emotional) biases, an alternative to EMH approach called “The Adaptive Markets Hypothesis” espoused by Andrew Lo in 2004 is introduced. The supporters of the EMH have responded to these challenges by arguing that, while behavioral biases and corresponding inefficiencies do exist from time to time, there is a limit to their prevalence and impact because of opposing forces dedicated to exploiting such opportunities. Finally, basic financial market anomalies are presented in the paper as an example of market inefficiency. On the one hand, their persistence in the face of public scrutiny seems to be a clear violation of the EMH. On the other - most of these anomalies can be exploited by relatively simple trading strategies, and, while the resulting profits may not be riskless, they seem usually profitable relative to their risks. Summing up of the investigation presented in the paper, authors conclude that many classical EMH supporters set the cases theoretically without empirical or real measurement analysis. Therefore the discussion on EMH is still on-going, but real market analysis should be done instead of evolving EMH theoretical evaluation models, which remain theoretical and do not always work properly in the conditions of real financial market.

Keywords: Efficient market hypothesis, behavioral finance, financial market anomalies, adaptive market hypothesis, cognitive and emotional biases, financial market efficiency

1. Introduction

The efficient market hypothesis is one of the most important paradigms in modern finance and was largely accepted to hold by the early 1970s. In 1978, Michael Jensen declared his belief that “there is no other proposition in economics which has more solid empirical evidence supporting it.” The main proposition of Efficient Market Hypothesis suggests that all relevant information is known and factored into the current price of stocks. The EMH implies that any new information has been factored into the price before an investor can learn of the information and act on it. So, what the theory has said
for years is that there really is no true stock price anomaly that an investor can reasonably take advantage of.

The EMH has three levels: the weak form EMH, semi-strong form EMH and strong form EMH. Weak form of EMH – prices of asset reflects all past information which is available to the public; semi-strong form EMH – prices reflect all information available to the public and instantly change to show new information to public; and strong form EMH claims that prices show hidden an unreachable for the public information.

There are opinions and researches carried out (book: A Random Walk Down Wall Street) which explains and objects to EMH by saying that for example picking stocks is really no better than a chance. It is mentioned that random selection of stocks has the same likelihood to perform good as the research carried out looking for investment. Furthermore, taking into account main ideas of EMH (mentioned above) we should understand that it is not entirely correct. If the ideas of EMH were true there should not be “bubbles” in the market, long term opportunities for arbitrage and no rapid crashes. This also explains that if markets were efficient there should be no sudden fluctuation in prices for no reason.

Other assumption for EMH is that investors cannot outperform the market. There were examples when the market was actually outperformed by investors like George Soros, Warren Buffett of Peter Lynch. However, EMH doesn't imply that investors are unable to outperform the market. It is known that changes in information make prices fluctuate and it would be possible for an investor to “make killing” if a released information causes a huge increase in price of security investor owns. In this case EMH claims that one should not be expected to outperform market predictably or consistently. Even more, this attempt to deny the EMH could be explained like an example about lottery in which the probability of a given individual winning is virtually zero, but the probability that someone will win is very high. So mentioned successful investors like Soros, Buffett and Lynch is an expected outcome in a completely random distribution of investors. Theory would be denied and threatened if you could identify who those successful investors would be prior to their performance, rather than after the fact.

Another argument against EMH was for its statement that financial analysis is pointless and investors should not waste their time for price research. It is suggested that financial analysts and their service are valued in the financial markets so EMH must be incorrect. To support EMH we can explain that investors have different styles and taste what to buy or where to invest. Once like higher risk, others prefer less risky investment strategies. By expressing their preferences an optimal portfolio is created, a combination of return and risk which investor finds desirable. By randomly choosing portfolio this combination could not be fulfilled. Secondly, financial analysis is far from pointless in efficient markets. The competition among investors by seeking and analyzing the newest information in the market is the goal to take advantage of miss-priced stocks. This is also essential for the existence of efficient capital markets. The reason why every investor doesn’t use financial analysis is because it is very expensive. As discussed previously financial analysts have to be able to collect, analyze, evaluate and process huge amounts of information about industries, changes in scientific discoveries, economy and so on. It requires a lot of time and effort in sophisticated analysis, as well as resources into data gathering, software and computers. In addition there exist transaction costs for those analysts who frequently trade securities.

This means that all the profits received from trading miss-priced stocks have to be reduced by the amount of financial analysis and transaction costs. The upshot is that there should be as many financial analysts in the market as optimal to insure that research and transaction costs are covered by the achieved gross trading profits. So for other investor chasing miss-priced stocks would be pointless because of the costs and lack of profit.

EMH claims that new information is always fully reflected in market prices. This assumption has also had some negative argument toward it claiming that prices fluctuate and change every day, hour and even minute meaning that EMH assumption is incorrect. However, this is not entirely correct because fluctuation of market prices can be assumed as indication that markets are efficient. New information always causes price to change and no change in prices would signal an inconsistency in the markets, since new information is arriving nearly continuously.

EMH presumes that all investors have to be skilled, informed and be able to constantly analyze the flow of new information. This assumption had been criticized that not ever investor is able to perform appropriate analysis of new information or follow every event. The criticism is however incorrect, because market efficiency can be achieved even if only a small group of informed and skilled investors trade in the market, while the rest of the investors never follow the securities which they trade.

2. Informational Efficiency and Arbitrage

The main concept of the financial theory is the arbitrage, which briefly consists of taking a position which isn’t risky and making profit. For the neoclassical theory, the equilibrium of the market is incompatible with the arbitrage. In fact, the
hypothesis which claim that people prefer to be more rich than less is enough to understand, because with that supposition, even a little opportunity of arbitrage will be used by everybody and without limit because it offers to you profit without risk. Thereby with the hypothesis of no arbitrage the neoclassical finance have for central result point “the price of any asset is the expected value of its payments for a single probability distribution” (Kast and Lapied).

One of the main consequences is the well-known efficient market hypothesis that origin can be found with Fama (1965). This efficiency has an informational nature and we will say that there is efficiency when the price reflected the whole information available (Fama, 1970). But some authors like Ross say that this formulation isn’t so clear because of differences in interpretation, that could be grouped as following:

- The first define an efficiency market as being a market where all the financial assets financial are assessed correctly, given the information available at the time considered. This interpretation is due to Fama.
- The second emphasizes the non-predictability of the return. It means thanks to Ross “the returns on financial assets are very close to being serially uncorrelated and are almost statistically unpredictable”. It deals with the abnormalities defined by Malkiel like “statistically significant predictable patterns in returns”.
- The third definition treats with the possibility to beat the market like Malkiel wrote “financial markets are efficient because they do not allow investors to earn above-average risk adjusted returns”.

Obviously those three interpretations are linked but we won’t develop it there. We can just say that the second comes from the first and the third comes from the second but the contrary isn’t true. The third is considered by the neoclassical theory to be the main definition of an efficiency market. Indeed, for them it is not necessary just to find some econometrics predictabilities to claim that the market is inefficient. Or at least those predictabilities have to be enough important because of the transactions costs. For instance, Ross said “These anomalies are generally small which is to say they do not involve many dollars in comparison with the size of the capital markets and are not scalable”.

After this brief reminder, we will see what the neoclassical actors advocate concerning the rationality of the actors in order to have an efficiency on the market.

3. Irrationality and Critics about Arbitrage

If all the actors are rational, the efficiency is obvious because everybody is able to evaluate correctly the assets, no one digress from the right price. But as we see the market daily, we know that some actors are not rational at all. For the neoclassical authors this is not a matter till a majority become irrational, Markiel told “Markets can be efficient even if many markets participants are quite irrational” and Ross add “The central themes of Neoclassical finance is not based on the rationality of the average person”. In this context we may wonder how the market can be still efficient even if there are irrational actors. There is two cases to analyze, the first concerns the situation where the irrational decisions are made by independent actors and in this case all the irrationality decision are compensating each other, there is no need for any rational investors intervention. The other case in when there is a correlation between the irrational actions. Even in this case the efficiency will still be thanks to the arbitrage. In fact, the rational arbitrageurs will buy under-evaluated assets and sell over-evaluated one, like this the price will be back to its right position. Moreover, like Friedman said, the irrational actors are going to disappear from the market because they are losing money when they are buying over-evaluated assets or selling under-evaluated one.

That correlation of “irrationalities” is mainly the heart of the way if thinking of the behavioral finance. Even the terms “Noise Trader Approach” came from that, the “Noise Traders” are investors who have non-rational anticipations, who use wrong signals to act or who follow some irrationals strategic rules like the “popular model” from Shiller (1990). More precisely, the NTA is interested in market configurations in which the ignorant or irrational behavior are monitored simultaneously by a large number of investors (hypothesis of correlation) so that their impact on prices is effective and does not vanish unlike mechanically the error pattern uncorrelated.

After this correlation hypothesis made, the behavioral finance also contests the neoclassical vision which claim that the arbitrage is the only thing able to erase the movement of the prices due to some irrational behavior. The behavioral finance adds that the real arbitrage which is present in real market has a dimension of risk, to argue we can mention Shleifer (2000) “The central argument of behavioral finance states that, in contrast to the efficient markets theory, real-world arbitrage is risky and therefore limited”. The pros of the behavioral finance argue that Neoclassical made the hypothesis that assets and portfolio are perfectly substitutable. But for example the market portfolio which contains all the listed shares has no substitutes. To emphasize its arguments, behavioral finance will say that even if we can find some substitutes, there still is a risk. We won’t develop the arguments, we will just say that the proof comes from the error of evaluation relating to the arbitrage can continue and increase. To show it, Shleifer and Summers (in 1990) used the example of the Japanese shares in the eighties before the bubble burst. This example shows how the market can remain
The implications of this analysis are fundamental because "risky arbitrage" means arbitration limited when one takes into account the risk aversion of investors. It follows that the rational arbitrageurs cannot totally eliminate pricing errors. Efficiency is lost even in the case of perfect substitutes.

So with those two hypotheses, the investors are not totally rational and the arbitrage is risky and so limited, the market stop to be efficient. With the action of the irrational investors the price can deviate for a long time from its normal position and even the rational arbitrageurs can't put it back. This leads to a profound transformation of the nature of financial rationality. Indeed, it follows from this analysis that the financial rationality can't be limited only to the observation of the fundamentals. The opinion of the ignorant is now a variable which is important since prices remain permanently footprint. This is the strategic behavior stock which is therefore considered by behavioral finance. In this way, the rational investor, also called "smart money" represent an investor which not only knows the fundamentals but also take into account how the various groups of actors in the market react to price changes and influence them.

To understand this new conception, we can just remind the model of De Long, Shleifer, Summers and Waldmann (1990) which deals with some rational investors against the "positive feedback traders". The positive feedback traders buy when they see an uptrend and sell in the case of a downtrend. These authors show that the presence of rational is destabilizing: it tends to increase the difference between the market price and the fundamental value of the security in question. Because rational wants to maximize their profits, and so they have an interest in stimulate mispricing hunters.

From the presentation of the current state in the presence of different theories, now let's analyze how their confrontation is structure and how the behavioral finance leads to a new basis for the financial market. The Efficient Market Hypothesis suggests that "if the flow of information is unimpeded and information is immediately reflected in stock prices, then tomorrow's price change will reflect only tomorrow's news and will be independent of the price changes today" (Malkiel, 2003). This statement implies that any information or knowledge that was gained previous to the current day is irrelevant to the current price change, because the historical knowledge is already in the historical prices. Many economists and behavioural specialists of the twenty-first century have criticised this notion saying, that stock prices are at least partially predictable as they are influenced not only by the current information and events, but also by the psychological and behavioural elements of stock buyers and sellers, past information about the changes in stock prices and fundamental analysis of companies financial statements. In this part of the article we will introduce different views on this matter suggested by economists and behaviour specialists and to conclude we will present our thoughts about the notion.

The most enduring critiques of the Efficient Market Hypothesis revolve around the preferences and behavior of market participants. These critics of the EMH argue that investors are often irrational and predictable. Behavioral studies of market participants have proven that individuals tend to be risk averse in the face of gains and risk seeking in the face of losses and that can lead to some irrational financial decisions. Market participants predictability can also be proven by the so called "bandwagon effect". This effect describes the situation in the market when market participants are drawn to certain stocks because they see the increase in the price of those stocks. This effect can let an analyst of the stock market to speculate the increase or a decrease of demand for a certain stock. Another pattern that market participants follow is an under reaction to the new information. The full impact of an important announcement is only grasped over a period of time, so the time period before information reaches its full effect can be left for speculation. After analyzing these simple notions we can partially predict the behavior of market participants and imply that their behavior is not always rational.

The EMH also implies that past information and events cannot be used to predict future prices in any meaningful way as they are only historical data. Min Deng in his book "Death of The Efficient Market Hypotheses" states: "<...>research has also demonstrated that, normally, a 5-year-long stock price historical sequence with the transaction day as the time interval contains all the patterns of the stock price movement."(Deng, 2007). Many statisticians agree that stock price patterns exist and after difficult scientific research can be found in historical stock price data. Min Deng also states that such patterns as long-term reversal pattern or short-term momentum pattern can be found in "all the historical data sequences of any one single stock market all over the world."(Deng, 2007). Investors can use the existing patterns as a tool in portfolio management. But it is necessary to mention that stock patterns can be distorted by the investors themselves. If stock traders follow the same pattern they can commonly drive a stock price higher or lower than the stock fundamentals dictate. So the existence of stock price patterns proves that stock prices can be at least partially predicted but this does not mean that these patterns should be used as the main tool in portfolio management as they are only theoretical.

Certain fundamental valuation metrics can also be used to predict the future price of stocks. Fundamental analysis-which is the analysis of financial information such as earnings or assets of a company can help investors select...
undervalued or spot overvalued stocks in their portfolio or in the market. Such fundamental values of a financial statement as earnings or dividends can be an indicator of stock price changes. It is commonly known that investors make their decisions in order to make profit. They make profit due to positive changes in stock prices or due to paid dividends, because of that, the increase in paid dividends would increase the interest in a certain stock and a decrease would do the opposite. In the case of comparing two sellable stocks, with other factors considered as being equal, a buyer would buy the stocks of that company that pays higher dividends. Furthermore, such ratios as debt to equity ratio or return on equity can also be an indicator weather or not investors are going to be willing to buy certain stocks. So we can say that the stocks of that company that pays higher dividends.

Furthermore, such ratios as debt to equity ratio or return on equity can be an indicator of stock price changes. It is commonly known that investors make their decisions in order to make profit. They make profit due to positive changes in stock prices or due to paid dividends, because of that, the increase in paid dividends would increase the interest in a certain stock and a decrease would do the opposite. In the case of comparing two sellable stocks, with other factors considered as being equal, a buyer would buy the stocks of that company that pays higher dividends. Furthermore, such ratios as debt to equity ratio or return on equity can also be an indicator weather or not investors are going to be willing to buy certain stocks. So we can say that fundamental analysis of a financial statements of a company ca be seen as a third possible tool to predict stock prices.

Stock price predictability as every other Efficient Market Hypothesis critique has its supporters and skeptics. The leading proponent of Efficient Markets Hypothesis Burton G. Malkiel argues that: “The strongest evidence suggesting that markets are generally quite efficient is that professional investors do not beat the market... If prices were often irrational and if market returns were as predictable as some critics of the efficient market hypothesis believe, than surely actively managed investment funds should easily be able to outdistance a passive index that simply buys and holds the market portfolio”(Deng, 2007). But as we previously discussed there are a couple of cases when professional investor do outperform the market, so we can argue that stock market unpredictability is no longer a rule without exceptions.

For as much as experimental economists documented a number of departures from market efficiency because of investors’ irrationality in the form of specific behavioral biases, an alternative to the EMH that reconciles the latter with its behavioral critics called “The Adaptive Markets Hypothesis” (AMH) was espoused by Andrew Lo (2004).

Lo (2005) revisits the idea of “bounded rationality” first introduced by Herbert Simon (1955) that investors make choices that are mainly satisfactory, but not necessarily optimal, i.e. humans are naturally bounded in their degree of rationality, arguing that an evolutionary perspective is missing. With reference to Lo (2004) the points at which the optimizing behavior of individuals is satisfactory are determined through natural selection from an evolutionary perspective. Particular choices are based on past experience and “best guess” of investors as to what might be optimal and so that they generally learn by receiving either positive or negative reinforcement from their outcomes, thus in such a manner investors develop heuristics to solve various economic challenges, that gradually yield approximately optimal solutions if the economic environment does not change. However, if alterations exist, these particular heuristics no longer suit to the new environment and behavioral biases, i.e. obviously ill-advised actions, can be observed. Lo (2004) labels such a behavior as “maladaptive” rather than defining it as “irrational” since sub-optimal behavior is not unlikely when heuristics are taken out of evolutionary context.

By coupling bounded rationality and satisfaction, the AMH as the version of the EMH has been derived from evolutionary perspective and contains the following:

1. Individuals act in their own self interest;
2. Individuals make mistakes;
3. Individuals learn and adapt;
4. Competition drives adaptation and innovation;
5. Natural selection shapes market ecology;

With reference to Lo (2004), market dynamics is exactly the total sum of selfish individuals, competition, adaptation, natural selection and environmental conditions. In regard to the EMH, investors in efficient markets do not make any mistakes, furthermore any learning or adaptation occurs there, as such a market is unvarying, thus always in equilibrium, while according to the AMH approach mistakes are frequent, but investors learn from them and adapt their economic behavior accordingly, thus the convergence to equilibrium is not likely to occur at any point in time. It should be recognized that adaptation is believed to be driven by competition as opposed to occurring independently of market forces, in other words, the push for survival, thus the particular market environment is determined by the process of natural selection through the interactions among market participants, i.e. the survival of the richest in this context, while unsuccessful traders are eventually eliminated after suffering a certain number of losses. Greed and fear are defined as the product of evolutionary forces according to the AMH as well, in contrast to behaviorists’ point of view defining them as the two main reasons in the downfall of rational thinking (Lo, 2004).

In regard to the AMH, behavioral biases abound only because of heuristics adapted to non-financial context. The particular impact is determined by the size of the population with such behavioral biases compared to the size of competing populations with significantly more effective heuristics. As an instance, in the Fall of 1998, the desire for both liquidity and safety by certain investors significantly overwhelmed the population of hedge funds attempting to arbitrage such preferences, and hence entailed these particular arbitrage relations to break down, whereas until August 1998 fixed-income relative-value traders profited abundantly from such activities, probably at the expense of investor with the exercise of bounded rationality that was already in place.
seemingly "irrational" preferences (Lo, 2005). Such preferences are mostly determined by a particular evolutionary forces, and probably might have been rational enough in other circumstances. To conclude according to the AMH, investment strategies undergo cycles of profitability and loss because of, firstly, volatile business conditions, secondly, the number of investors in the market, and, finally, the magnitude of profit opportunities available at the certain time. Therefore, as such opportunities shift, so too will the concerned investors. In proof of it, after 1998, the number of previously mentioned hedge funds declined dramatically because of outright failures, investor redemptions, and fewer startups (Lo, 2005), however many of them have reappeared in recent times and their performance has significantly improved.

The correlation of irrational investors is an assumption that plays a fundamental role in behavioral finance. To generate a deviation between the fundamental value and course, it is necessary that there are initially ignorant investors, mistaking the fundamentals. We can say about this assumption that this is partly a matter strictly empirical. Indeed, it may well be that, in a given situation specific, there are, in fact, on the market, investors uninformed or hunters’ trend. However, the truly relevant theoretical question is to ask whether, as argued by behavioral finance, the presence of ignorant investors is a necessary condition for the inefficiency occurs. We know, for example, that the theory of rational bubbles answers this question in the negative way. This question deserves to be asked especially that the hypothesis that behavioral finance need not be reduced to the only presence of ignorant investors. It requires more, namely correlated ignorant investors around the same mistake. But how this theory can justify this surprising correlation? The error is inherently multifaceted, why a majority of agents "choose" the same?

To answer those questions we need the help of some works about the psychology of behavior in a situation of incertitude. We can summarize the arguments just using a citation of Shleifer “Remember that the second line of defense of the theory of efficient markets is to argue that irrational investors, although they may exist, exchange randomly and therefore exchanges cancel each other. This is an argument that theories of Kahneman and Tversky reject entirely. Empirical analyzes demonstrate precisely that people do not deviate from rationality randomly, but rather that most deviates in an identical way”.

All experimental work on the stock market finds inefficiencies in these markets. This result should be seen as usual, when it focuses on procurement of goods, experimental economics advance very favorable results with efficiency ideas. The self-referential hypothesis (Orlean, 1999), to understand it easily, it is the idea that a rational investor should consider the general opinion of the market and abandoning the idea that the general opinion is the result of a collective irrationality. Instead, we must assume that all players are rational and they are also look at what the opinion of the market to determine the most profitable investment. Here we can find the intuition of Keynes’s beauty famous contest, where price changes are due to an intuition where everyone tries to rationally anticipate what will be the market sentiment. This configuration is a complex interaction that can bring about a multiplicity of equilibriums.

4. Conclusion

The behavioral finance came with the emergence of the critics about the three hypotheses about the efficiency of the market. We saw in this paper that there are some controversies now between the Neoclassical and the main authors of the behavioral finance. Today, all the transactions and the decisions of the investors are still made with the neoclassical financial rules in the mind, but as we saw we may wonder how it will become in the next decade because the behavioral finance is winning importance every day. I’m not saying that it will give the keys and the models like the traditional theory, it is just a way of thinking which will more give you some information about the main players and how people will react in general. Finally, behavioral finance isn’t something new or revolutionary, it’s just the application of the psychology in to the financial sector.

We can say that every theory has its drawbacks but the mass of evidence promotes EMH. A huge part of students do agree that the markets are efficient. Of course, there are critics who suggest that EMH has some drawbacks and does not explain one or another fact which has occurred in the past decade. The most enduring critiques of the Efficient Market Hypothesis comes from economists and behaviorists who argue that such evidence as, predictability of market participants behavior, existence of stock price patterns, possibility to predict stock prices after performing fundamental analysis of a company, can prove that market prices are at least partially predictable. This would mean that new information is not the only factor that influences price changes. Although the paradigm of the AMH - an evolutionary framework reconciling many of the apparent contradictions between efficient markets and behavioral exceptions – might become a viable alternative to the EMH, that was not supplanted by any other single alternative theory proposed before, however, it is important to stress out that evidence which are against EMH haven’t passed their “test time” to prove that EMH can’t defend its assumptions. And as for now, efficient market hypothesis remains to be the one which describes
price changes and movements in financial markets.

References


Is there any Fisherian Link between Nominal Interest Rate and Inflation in Albania?

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to examine the implementation of the well-known Fisher Hypothesis (FH) for Albania. Fisher Hypothesis investigates the relationship that exists between the expected inflation and interest rates and to which extent holds the Fisher effect, for the period 1997-2013. The first step of the study is an introduction of the Fisher Hypothesis, its definition and the main points. The second part includes an econometric model, by using the Johansen Cointegration Test for the Albanian quarterly nominal interest rate and quarterly inflation rate, in order to explain as correctly as possible the relationship between inflation and interest rate. In the end the empirical results disclosed that there is a long run relationship between nominal interest rates and inflation. This indicates that full Fisher hypothesis does not hold but there is a very strong Fisher effect in the Case of Albania regarding the period under study.

Keywords: Fisher Hypothesis, Interest Rate, Expected inflation

1. Introduction

The Fisher hypothesis has been much discussed topic. During years the hypothesis is used as a theoretical framework because it has serious subaudition in rising up the monetary policy in a country. More precisely, interest rates play an substantial role in fighting one of the major problems of a state’s economy; inflation.

Inflation adverts to raise the price level in general. High inflation rates have always been not likely for any economy because it will reduce the aggregate demand, increase unemployment, decrease output, and very hard for the balance. While having high inflation and high interest rates prevent economic growth by discouraging investment and decrease productivity. Nominal interest rate is holder as an instrument for achieving the inflation target. Interest rate is one of the most significant tools that government uses properly to control the inflation. It affect directly in the consumer’s behaviour. The relationship between the interest rates and the future inflation has been studied in many countries and over diverse periods. Fisher Effect has been found really strong in various countries, example of United States, Canada and UK (1979).

The Fisher effect, also called Fisher Hypothesis is determined as: the one-for-one relation between the expected inflation rate and the nominal interest rate. Irving Fisher estimates the relationship between the inflation and for both real and nominal interest rates. The Fisher effect declared that the real interest rate equals the nominal interest rate minus the expected inflation rate. Ergo, the real interest rates fall as the inflation increases, but for nominal rates increase at the same rate as the inflation. The so-and-so Fisher equation which is:

\[ r = R - \pi_e. \]

The Fisher equation is an identity which regards the nominal interest rate (\( i \)), the real interest rate (\( r \)), and the (expected) inflation rate \( \pi_e \) and \( \pi \), relatively. It can be exhausted in ex ante and ex post analysis. So there are two different versions, hanging on the Information available for the inflation rate:

The ex-ante Fisher equation adapt the costs of borrowing, the nominal interest rate for the effects of expected inflation (the expected inflation rate, expressed with \( \pi_e \))

The ex-post Fisher equation break down the nominal interest rate into the real interest rate and the actual realized inflation rate, \( \pi \)

Fisher hypothesis lay down real interest rate as the difference between nominal interest rate and expected inflation rate. In order to hold Fisher Hypothesis in a strong form, nominal interest rate proceeds one-to-one with expected inflation rate. Whether the nominal interest rate and inflation rate are either integrated of order one and the two variables should
be cointegrated with the slope coefficient of unit value that the real interest rate is covariance stationary.

As recognized, cointegration concept is connected with long run equilibrium relationship between two or more variables. This empirical relationship has significant subaddition for the macroeconomic policy because, whether the hypothesis holds in the long run, the monetary policy does not affect the real interest rate, leaving the ex-ante real interest rate unaltered. This would mean that real interest rates are not connected to the expected inflation and are situated by the real factors in an economy, like the time preference and the capital productivity (et al Payne and Ewing, 1997; et al Million, 2004).

This paper examines the availability of Fisher hypothesis in Albania for the period 1997Q1-2013Q3. For this purpose, we employ Johansen cointegration test for changes on the relation between Albanian quarterly nominal interest rate and quarterly inflation rate. This method would give us more reliable results.

In this paper, there will be presented the case of Albania which is a state located in the South Eastern Europe and commanded by a transition economy. The unstable economic history that Albania has, after the Communist regime that left it steps behind the developed countries and eventually the absence of organization in the economic institutions. Apart from the fact that BoA isn't a strong financial institution as the developed countries central banks are, it continues tries to give sense to the economic situations offered in the Albanian reality.

The main objective of this paper is to find out the relation between nominal interest rate and inflation in Albania in the long run. In the first part of the paper, there will be presented a general idea about the concept of Fisher Hypothesis. Through this overall description, the paper's basic idea gets a simple understanding. The second part of the paper is dedicated to the literature review related to the fisher effect, what others have found concerning with the relation of interest rate and inflation in their countries and what methodology they used in their researches. The third part instead is dedicated Data and Methodology part by expounding the period of time that is used in the study, what method is used in order to discover the relationship between interest and inflation in long run, the regression model and its determinants. The fourth and the final part include the practical section of the paper. In this section it will be included the econometric equation containing the dependent variable (nominal interest rate) and the other independent variables (inflation rate). This part shows the results of the ADF test in order to be sure of having stationary time series. Then is performed the Johansen Cointegration Test to find out if exists a long term relationship between interest and inflation in Albania. Eventually part of the study includes the Conclusions and Implication out coming from this paper.

2. Literature Review

The hypothesis, proposed by Irving Fisher et al (1930) that the nominal rate of interest should reflect movements in the expected inflation rate has been the subject of much empirical researches in many developed countries. This asset of literature can be attributed to different factors including the main role that the nominal rate of interest and the most important, the interest real rate plays in the economy. Rate of interest real is a significant determinant of investment and saving of households and businesses, and ergo decisive in the development and growth of an economy (Duetsche Bundesbank, et al 2001).

Mundell et al (1963) and Tobin et al (1965) argue that nominal interest rates should adapt by less than one-for-one owing to the impact of inflation on wealth and the subsequently savings.

Sargent et al (1969), across a technique named geometrically-declining dissolved model of past price changes, adverted to bond market's loanable funds model. This was pursued by Gibson et al (1970), and both replicated Fisher's views, especially with regard to the method in which expectations are created. Gibson et al (1972) finally reduced such time lag to six months, wherefore emphasizing the view that expectations are created more quickly and influence interest rates greatly.

Darby et al (1975) and Feldstein et al (1976) highlight that the effects of tax would outcome in a more than one-for-one arrangement to expected inflation, whereas Shome, Smith and Pinkerton et al (1988) indicate a premium needs to be incorporated in nominal interest rates to calculation for covariance risk.

Fama et al (1976) in the analysis of U.S Treasury Bills (1953-1971) found that the nominal interest rates in market include all information about future inflation rates in time series of the past inflation rates. The findings of Fama seem to hint that, through the period under revision, the real interest rates were constant. Gibson et al (1972), by the use of Livingston survey, a model composing expectations of economists, as an alternative calculation of inflation expectations. This can prove to move along the range of the market, especially if their personal interests are at risk. Fama et al (1976) and Makin and Tanzi et al (1984), who postulated that the further high interest rates in the USA at that time could be explained by the positively probability distribution of inflation prediction.
Mishkin et al (1992) point out that the Fisher hypothesis held only during periods where inflation and interest rates manifest stochastic trends. He was one of the first to behavior a unit root test on both nominal interest rates as well as inflation.

Mishkin told that the standard Fisher equation is submited to the phoney regression phenomenon as it is explained by Granger and Newbold et al (1974) and Phillips et al (1986).

Wallace and Warner et al (1993) followed up this study by carrying out cointegration tests for inflation and interest rates. They were both found to have an I(1) process. A series of authors, through their time series analyses, tested positive for cointegration. These include MacDonald and Murphy (1989), Kao and Chiang (2000), Atkins and Coe (2002), amongst others.


Peng et al (1995) uses the Johansen cointegration analysis on three-month interest rates and CPI inflation to confirm the Fisher effect for the UK, US and France. His empirical analysis offers strong proof in favor of the Fisher relationship in the US, UK and France, whereas the inflation coefficients received for Germany and Japan are smaller than one.

Lungu (1998) agreed with Rose that an evaluation of whether nominal rates and expected inflation are cointegrated is tantamount to testing the stationarity of the real rate of interest. He did not find cointegration for the U.S. between 1972 and 1980, and attributed government macroeconomic policies as key to this outcome. Economic data is deemed distorted and agents’ formation of inflation expectations is affected. He also reaffirmed Mishkin’s view that the two oil shocks arising during the period under examination further exacerbated such distortions.

Krugman and Obstfeld et al (2003) design the Fisher effect saying that all things will be equal, a country rise in expected inflation rate will definitively cause an equal rise in interest rate, that the deposits of its currency bid a similarly fall in the expected inflation rate also will eventually cause a fall in the interest rate.

Gul and Ekinci (2006) found a long run relationship between nominal rate of interest and inflation by applying Johansen cointegration technique in Turkey; along found unidirectional relationship which flits from the interest rate to the inflation rate.

Obi et al (2009) examined the authenticity of fisher effect in Nigeria by using the cointegration and error correction technique. They receded money supply, inflation rate and found fractional fisher effect in Nigeria. They proposed that the government should invest in productive activities to increase money supply and curb inflation.

3. Data and Methodology

In order to examine the relation between nominal interest rate and inflation rate in Albania needs not only the theoretical concepts, but also need a practical and econometric study as well. This study employs quarterly data from 1997 to 2013 so for a 17 year period. The data for this research are obtained from Central Bank of Albania (BoA).

The regression model in this study is:

\[ INT = \alpha + \beta_1 INF + \epsilon \]

Where: \( \alpha \) is the intercept
\( \beta_1 \) is the estimated regression coefficients
\( \epsilon \) is the error term

GDP: Gross Domestic Product is the dependent variable
INF: Inflation rate is the independent variable

The hypothesis for this equation is represented by the following:
H0: Nominal interest rate has a significant impact on the inflation rates in the long run
H1: H0 is not true

In Figure 1 is shown the line graph where it is noticed that the variables approximately goes on together, but from time to time there are some fluctuations. In Figure 2 is shown a graphical scatter plot that shows the relationship is not phoney so it can be understood that occasional relation exists between inflation and interest.
In the first stage of the study is executed the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test at 5% level of significance in order to secure that the series used in the model are stationary time series diversely the results might not hold much significance. Further, in order to define if exists a long run relationship among the inflation and the interest rate the Johansen Cointegration Test is performed. So that to have a relationship between the variables the Trace Statistic must be greater than 50% critical value. Also the maximum eigenvalue test must be greater than 50% critical value.

### 4. Empirical Findings

In Figure 1 (a, b) (see appendix) and as well in table 1 are shown the group statistics performed in order to test the distribution of data. After checking the Skewness and Kurtosis for the variables, due to the presence of unit root on the variables the results showed to be asymmetric and not in a bell shaped. In all the three variables data neither the Skewness was close to one nor was the Kurtosis near to 5.

#### Table 1. Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>INTEREST</th>
<th>INFLATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>11.98078</td>
<td>5.462557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>8.890000</td>
<td>2.798217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>35.30667</td>
<td>39.32504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>3.750000</td>
<td>-1.576482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>7.613402</td>
<td>8.778207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>1.853169</td>
<td>2.759324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>5.393654</td>
<td>9.497927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jarque-Bera</td>
<td>55.15516</td>
<td>205.9225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>0.0000000</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>814.6933</td>
<td>371.4539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum Sq. Dev.</td>
<td>4090.300</td>
<td>5162.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
So to examine whether the series were stationary time series Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was performed. Since the calculated ADF t-statistic (-1.949) is greater than the 5% critical value of (-3.496) do not reject the null of non-stationary (NOMINT has a unit root). First result showed that for nominal interest rate has a unit root was not rejected as at 5% critical values since the calculated t-statistics for nominal interest rate was greater than the 5% of critical value. So according to these results the presence of unit roots in the underlying series points toward the non-stationary of the underlying series. So if the depended and independent both show presence of unit roots, the regression result doesn’t hold much meaning.

Null Hypothesis: NOMINT has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend
Lag Length: 14 (Fixed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-1.949222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test critical values:
1% level -4.140858
5% level -3.496960
10% level -3.177579


Null Hypothesis: INFLATION has a unit root
Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend
Lag Length: 14 (Fixed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-2.161181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test critical values:
1% level -4.140858
5% level -3.496960
10% level -3.177579


Figure 3 (a) Interest

Figure 3 (b) Inflation

This is the reason that in order to have the necessary stationary time series and to reject the hypothesis that variables
have a unit root, we are having another Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root test by performing the first difference on the
variables needed so that the regression to be significant.

### Null Hypothesis: D(NOMINT) has a unit root

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend</th>
<th>Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t-Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-7.117164</td>
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<tr>
<td>Test critical values:</td>
<td>1% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10% level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Null Hypothesis: D(INFLATION) has a unit root

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exogenous: Constant, Linear Trend</th>
<th>Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t-Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-6.957445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test critical values:</td>
<td>1% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10% level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Table 3. ADF test after taking the first difference**

Finally, after performing the First Difference of the Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test and eventually having
stationary time series is the application of Johansen Cointegration test in order to study if there is a long term relationship
between the variables. In accordance with test results it is indicated that there exists a Cointegration relation between
variables providing that Trace Statistics (70.593) is greater than 5% Critical Value (15.494). Moreover by looking at the
Maximum Eigenvalue test the max eigenvalue statistic (60.216) is greater than 5% Critical Value (14.264).

### Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized No. of CE(s)</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Trace Statistic</th>
<th>0.05 Critical Value</th>
<th>Prob.* **</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None *</td>
<td>0.615505</td>
<td>70.59354</td>
<td>&gt; 15.49471</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1 *</td>
<td>0.151859</td>
<td>10.37665</td>
<td>3.841466</td>
<td>0.0013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trace test indicates 2 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values
Table 4. Johanson Cointegration Test

In words a long run stable relationship exists between nominal interest rate and inflation rate and they move together in the long run. Thus occasional relation exists between inflation and interest rate. The increases of interest extend inflation in Albania.

5. Conclusion and Implications

In this paper is tested the relationship the cointegrating relationship between nominal interest rates and expected inflation in the Albanian economy. The results of the unit root tests indicated the variables under study were processes. The direction is from inflation, which is the independent variable, to the interest rates, being the dependent variable. The cointegration results show that there is long run relationship between the nominal interest rates and the expected inflation, which insinuate that nominal interest rates and expected inflation move together in the long run.

The Albanian case supports the Fisher effect theory. At this paper, Albanian economy in a seventeen year period (1997-2013) has been studied. Findings show witness proving the Fisher effect in those years as inflation causes at some extent the interest rates to move in the same direction. However, there isn’t seen one-to-one relationship as the theory stated.

References

Darby,M.R.,(1975),"The financial and tax effects of monetary policy on interest rates", Economic Inquiry, 13, 266-276
A Case of Restudy about the Visitor Management Issues of Stonehenge, UK

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Abstract

One of the UNESCO’s World Heritage assets Stonehenge carries a vital importance as it’s under the protection of this list and all land surrounding the monument is owned by conservation organizations. Stonehenge faced an issue of being referred to two different organizations with differing approaches to management as English Heritage owned the site itself and National Trust owned the surrounding download. Paksoy & Colakoglu (2009) investigated in their study about the site Stonehenge and has advised suggestions about its major management problems of the site. Stonehenge with its major management problems is one of the evident examples where the conflicts of the stakeholders can be monitored in a apparent way. With the different issues and its problematic locations and 2 different management styles, the problems encountered here were inspected by the researches to find out if measures have been taken since then. As there are a great number of visitors preferring Stonehenge and this number is increasing each year, the management couldn’t ignore to take urgent actions with the related problems. The researcher in this study analyzed whether their previous assumptions and propositions have been actualized in real measures.

Keywords: Heritage tourism, conservation in tourism, visitor management

1. The Need to Embrace Living Communities in Site Management

To be able to induce sustainable management and to improve sustainability in the long run especially in heritage sites become a crucial component as these sites need to be protected in all means. The associated managements could take any kind of measures but if the living communities are neglected, the all targeted and implemented policies and plans lose its importance.

It is essential that an integrated holistic approach to sustainable development and management that incorporates the views and involvement of principal stakeholders such as local residents be adopted (Nicholas, Tapa and Ko, 2009). The relationship between heritage and tourism is frequently characterized by contradictions and conflicts whereby conservationists perceive heritage tourism as compromising conservation goals for profit (Nuryanti 1996). In order to minimize these threats, there is a need for dialogue, cooperation, and collaboration among the various stakeholders involved.

As there is an always possibility that contradictions may occur in the conversation issues, the questioning of the residents beliefs and opinions about the related issue may help to reduce the tension and the stress that might be caused by the conflicts aroused and may bring out resolution with a negotiated result. If a common ground between the different interested parties can be found, then heritage tourism can be developed in a way that preserves the resources of the local community and is beneficial to all (Aas and Ladkin, 2005).

One of the core experiences of visiting a heritage space is of being there with others and bringing to the space knowledge of many other spaces. Personal experience is especially powerful (Smith, 2007: 135). In the light of the previous definition, it can be concluded that a host community consists of all those people in the host destination, whether they are homogenous or heterogeneous and regardless of whether the impacts of tourism are beneficial or otherwise (Alhasanat, 2010).

One of the great challenges in managing any cultural or natural asset is the need to mollify many stakeholders. On the surface, stakeholder consultation seems like rather straightforward process. There is often an assumption that the number of stakeholders is limited to traditional owners and user groups on the one hand and the tourism industry on the other. In reality, most assets have multiple stakeholders with differing degrees of connectivity to the asset, differing levels of legitimacy in being considered as a stakeholder (McKercher and Cros, 2002: 57).

2. Deliberate View of Visitors

If the visitors’ views are comprehended and differentiated, the management could shape their managing style in accordance. Aimed at perceiving what the visitors think of the sites they have come to see, the information from the
visitors need to be gathered and further analyzed by the site administrators.

According to Weaver (2011: 257) assessments of the extent to which this tourism heritage is developed as heritage tourism must consider its development and marketing as such, and also its actual interface with tourists. Gathering of information from the visitors could also be used for marketing purposes in understanding the visitor profile and enhancing the interaction between the visitors and the management of the site.

Poria, et al. (2005: 174) reported that individuals differ in their preferences towards the interpretation in relation to their perception and accordingly, managers of historic destinations are advised to identify tourists based on their perceptions and provide them with different angles of interpretation.

In contrast to differing perceptions of the visitors, the management could analyze whether the visitors have a mutual preference or an expectation from the site management or a mutual criticism that needs to be modified.

3. Carrying Capacity and Access Management—Control of Tourists Flow

The major impact of sites with high visitor numbers face with the matter of carrying capacity and its negative consequences if the problem cannot be handled quite properly. In sites where the visitors with a great sum end up with and especially at the same time such as in Stonehenge, the crowd management techniques are addressed as a solution.

This can only be accomplished through a multidisciplinary effort involving the different areas in which planners can contribute to understanding the synergetic dimension of economic positive externalities and the carrying capacity of vulnerable areas (Vaz et al, 2012: 289).

Understanding potential impacts of visitors on heritage assets is not easy. Impacts on host communities can be anticipated, such as when increased traffic, litter. Impacts of visitation on how tradition bearers and others use traditional knowledge, skills, and types of cultural expression can be more difficult to anticipate and plan to migrate (McKercher and Cros, 2002: 225). How difficult to project in advance every site management should be in alert of the possible impacts and take precautions to implemented and control accordingly for its efficiency.

4. Stonehenge Main Problem Areas

Stonehenge with its major management problems is one of the evident examples where the conflicts of the stakeholders can be monitored in an apparent way as with the different issues and its problematic locations and 2 different management style, the problems encountered here need to be answered and dealt in care (Paksoy & Çolakoğlu, 2009: 223). The issues and the challenges faced at Stonehenge were studied by various researchers (Baxter & Chippindale, 2005:139; Mason, 2006: 105; Young, Chadburn and Bedu, 2009: 76-79 quoted from Paksoy & Çolakoğlu, 2009: 223)

One of the problems with Stonehenge was its location as it had been located in the triangle of land between the A303, A344 and Byway 12. Being in a conjunction there was traffic, car, parking and safety hazard problems. The second main problem was the management is bi-headed. The site land was managed by English Heritage, with staff based on site and at offices in Salisbury. Site management was shared by National Trust that owns 1500 acres surrounding the site. Moreover because of the high load of visitors and inefficient visitor centre there was a significant issue of capacity management and visitor centre lacking as well.

5. Restudy of Stonehenge: What has been changed up to now?

The first WHS Management Plan for Stonehenge was published in 2000. It outlined 24 objectives, including building a new world-class visitor centre, removing the roads from sight of Stonehenge, and increasing the extent of grassland to protect prehistoric monuments and their setting (Stonehenge World Heritage Team, 2009: 4).

In their previous study the researchers Paksoy and Çolakoğlu within the highlights of this WHS Management Plan 2009 and the commentary collected from the site http://www.stonehenge.co.uk/visitorscomments.php outlined five main suggestions for the major problem areas with their own solution projections which are listed as below:

Paksoy & Çolakoğlu Suggestion in 2009 (p. 227):
I. Directions of highways have been changed but still there is a room for further improvement that could enlarge areas for visitors.

Situation Analysis in 2014:
A344 closed - the A344 was removed and grassed (Campbell-Dolloghan, 2013) - where it passes within yards of the stones (Kennedy, 2013; BBC, 2013).
Paksoy & Çolakoğlu Suggestion in 2009 (p. 227):

II. Most significant problems are due to visitor facilities, therefore their construction shouldn't be against according to the stones. Visitor centre should have been the starting point of tour. The paths built to reach here from the car park could be improved. There can be small trains used for transporting tourist with a longer route. As the tour will start in the visitor centre, visitors will be directed appropriately and the problem of overcrowd will be solved.

Situation Analysis in 2014:

In response to these negative impacts, the British Department of the Environment erected a perimeter fence in the spring of 1978 to protect the site. Though not allowed inside the fence, visitors to Stonehenge are permitted to wander freely outside the barrier for a close-up view of the stones (Timothy & Boyd, 2003:126).

At the moment Stonehenge still continues to receive high amount of visitors, during the peak periods this could reach 2000 per hour. (See below table for total number of visitors to Stonehenge)

Table 1: Total Number of the Visits to Stonehenge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Heritage (EH) &amp; ALVA</td>
<td>869432</td>
<td>883603</td>
<td>990,705</td>
<td>1,009,973</td>
<td>1,099,656</td>
<td>1,043,756</td>
<td>1,241,296</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ALVA

The percentage of visitors to Stonehenge has decreased by %1 in 2007 compared to previous year; reversely in 2008 there has been an increase of %2 compared to 2007. In 2009 there was a rise of %12. In 2010 it only increased by %2. %9 growth had been recorded in 2011. Even in 2012 there was a drop of %-5.10, by year 2013 Stonehenge had boomed its visitors by %18.9.

After the renovation Stonehenge has been reopened for service, however overcrowding and long queues still remain as a problem. According to Kennedy's study, Stonehenge's new visitor centre opened in December 2013 with £27m investment. This is a ‘fit for purpose’ building, located 1.5 miles (2.4km) from the Stonehenge (Kennedy, 2013). The new visitor centre at Stonehenge has come in for heavy criticism from some tourists who are claiming that being at the centre - which opened last month - is chaotic because of long delays and severe overcrowding (ITV, 2014). Visitors to a new £27 million centre at Stonehenge have criticised English Heritage for presiding over “chaotic scenes” as the venue struggles to cope with the number of people it receives (Telegraph, 2014).

Some of the complaints about the new experience included reports of visitors queuing for more than an hour to board the 'land train' which carries people from the centre to the stones. The journey of a mile-and-a-half has taken just ten minutes.

Even the visitors complain about some of the certain issues there is also an improvement that needs to be highlighted. The management has put into service visitor shuttle. Visitor Shuttle service operates frequently from outside the shop and there is no need to pre-book. With this service it takes 10 minutes to reach the Stones. (English Heritage, 2014)

Paksoy & Çolakoğlu Suggestion in 2009(p. 227):

III. Days of week can be separated for groups. For instance educational student groups may visit in certain days. Or the time of day can be allocated for certain groups.

Situation Analysis in 2014:

Pre-booking timed tickets is now essential for tourist groups. Advance booking is now required as entrance to Stonehenge is managed through timed tickets.

Paksoy & Çolakoğlu Suggestion in 2009(p. 227):

IV. Both site and facilities need to be managed by one authority.

Situation Analysis in 2014:

Stonehenge is still managed by two authorities: English Heritage and National Trust. The historical part, café, the visitor centre and facilities like toilet is managed by English Heritage and the surrounding 827 hectares (2,100 acres) of downland by National Trust. (National Trust, 2014)

Paksoy & Çolakoğlu Suggestion in 2009(p. 227):

V. Prices are acceptable and they are not high for a World Heritage Site. Therefore prices can be increased slightly to collect fund for a better service to visitors of Stonehenge.

Situation Analysis in 2014:

Entrance costs are still not too much high. There has been also a family discount as an additional price offer. For
2014 entrance fee is designated as £13.90 for adults and £8.30 for children.

Introducing entrance fees to attractions may help counteract the threat of inadequate public funds for site maintenance and management (Reynisdottir et al., 2008: 1076). Furthermore if the prices can be slightly increased, there could be a resolution also for too much tourist flows as well. Making historical assets more exclusive (e.g., only so many visitors or tours per day by appointment only) or more expensive are two ways around the over-use (McKercher and Cros, 2002: 224). Stonehenge management prefers to apply lower price scale for now.

6. Conclusion

In regards of their previous study the researcher in this report have tried to put forward what measures have been taken in the problematic areas of a World Heritage Site in UK, Stonehenge. It has been observed that the challenging location of Stonehenge had been improved by closing one motorway that were creating both traffic and safety hazards. Even though a new modern visitor has been designed and opened up recently, the visitors still complain about the tourist overflow and overload. Management authority could not be united under one umbrella, though English Heritage managed area where tourists visit the most exceed National Trust. Therefore English Heritage seems to manage most of the touristic facilities. Small tourist’s trains with a longer route may bring a more enjoyable travel which can include both the historical site of English Heritage and the natural land of National Trust surrounding the site as some of the tourists complain about the route’s short period of time after a long wait in the queue. There is no major change in price scale and reservation for groups. However advance booking option has been vastly improved and visitors long queues seem to be minimized compared to past. It is essential for future research to make a comparison of the other English heritage sites and differentiate among them and in seeking differences and similarities.

References


Fiscal Decentralization in the Western Balkan Countries, The Case of the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

The prolonged economic and political transition in the Western Balkan countries has left significant negative consequences on the functionality of the economic system. The enthusiasm seen from policymakers and citizens that the implementation of the economic liberalization and stabilization coupled with a lot of structural reforms would create functioning market economy and functioning institutions were not realized in a considerable level even after two decades of transition. Structural reforms essentially aimed to create functioning central and local institutions which would help the economy to achieve high economy rates whereas the citizens will get help in coping with the high cost of the transition in the function of enduring the increasing unemployment and poverty. In order for these economic, political and social objectives to be realized they were implemented among other reforms and reforms in the functioning of local democracy and growth of local financial autonomy. The paper aims to give an objective answer regarding the real level of fiscal decentralization and to recommend new ideas for advancing this process in perspective based on EU’s best practices through a comparative approach of the level of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia compared to European Union countries and Western Balkan.

Keywords: Western Balkan, Republic of Macedonia, Fiscal decentralization, economic and political transition, structural reforms

1. Introduction

The process of transformation of the political and economic system of the former socialist countries to democratic political system and free market economy in the political and economic literature is identified as a process of political and economic transition.

The management of economies based on central planning in a historic process of transition to a market economy was mainly conducted with the assistance and surveillance of main international financial institutions. Scientific circles and the major international financial institutions achieved consensus for careful management of the key issues relating to economic liberalization, economic stabilization and structural reform that was duty for implementation in institutions of post-communist countries.

In scientific circles and in the major international financial institutions for careful management of the key issues relating to economic liberalization, economic stabilization and structural reform agenda implementation in institutions of post-communist countries that pass through a difficult process of comprehensive transformation of the political and economic system full compliance was achieved.

The role of international financial institutions and in particular the IMF and World Bank appear among the most important in terms of overcoming the difficulties of the transition in the framework of cooperation and surveillance of economic and fiscal reforms in transition countries.

During the current period of economic transition, international financial institutions provided considerable technical assistance and financial support to the national authorities of the countries of the Western Balkans in their efforts of building competent institutions in the function of creating a suitable environment for the functioning of the market economy and implementation and fiscal and economic reforms.

In most transition economies in the implementation of national economic programs harmonized and supported by the IMF and the World Bank reached positive results in terms of macroeconomic stabilization, a serious reduction of the fiscal deficit and partial realization of economic growth, reducing unemployment and poverty. Financial and fiscal reforms in the countries of the Western Balkans continue to be realized in the framework of meeting the Maastricht criteria and Copenhagen in the process of integration of these countries into the European union.

Fiscal reforms as an important process of economic and fiscal stabilization is closely associated with the political, social and ethnic cohesion towards the realization of a substantial and functional decentralization of a functional local autonomy.

There are serious differences between the different countries in the Western Balkans and the EU countries in
terms of competencies and financial potential transferred as fiscal powers to local authorities. These differences are the result of the fact that a considerable number of countries analyzed implement local and regional territorial organization and have different levels of decentralized powers to local authorities.

The paper aims through a comparative analysis to measure the level of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia in relation to other countries of the Western Balkans and countries of European Union to give competent answers for the level of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia and to propose ideas for the advancement of this process as a prerequisite for the realization of a real financial autonomy of local authorities in Macedonia.

Besides the inadequacy of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia there is also a regional level of discrimination that is manifested as discrimination of rural municipalities in favor of urban and simultaneously takes dimensions of ethnic and political discrimination as a result of not implementing the law on equal regional development in terms of regional allocation of public capital investment.

Basic problems in the case of financial and fiscal decentralization in the Macedonia case relate to the inadequacy of the financial and fiscal potential delivered to the local authorities to successfully realize their competencies within the local political autonomy.

2. Decentralization in the Western Balkans as Contrasted to the European Union

The level of decentralization in terms of an increased autonomy of the local government and enabling it to provide local services at a lower cost at an increased quality for the citizens, implies delegated control over appropriate sources of finance as a guarantee that such services can be realized. Literature as well as practice on contemporary public finance shows a growing trend of finance for local and regional authorities as a precondition to provide higher autonomy in political and economic terms. In the case of the Western Balkan, the process of political and financial decentralization has met many problems and political hesitations, due to the fact that political and fiscal decentralization has not been analyzed from a functional point of view but rather from an ethno-political point of view with the purpose of deepening the ethnical and economical discrimination of minorities in multiethnic societies such as Bosna and Hercegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia.

Chart 1. Local Government Revenue as Share of GDP and Total Public Revenues in 2010

![chart](image)

Source. NALAS (2011), p.22

The current level of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia (5.6% of local public finance in proportion to the GDP and 17% participation of the local public expenditure in the general amount of public expenditure), is at the level of only 62% of the average public consumption in the EU and as such is not sufficient for the realization of the actual competencies of local authorities, neither for increasing the quality of services provided by local authorities, nor to eliminate the gaps in the level of development of the different regions (in particular the communities dominated by ethnic Albanians).
The inadequate levels of fiscal decentralization have caused deep disparities among counties of the Western Balkans as well as compared to the EU average, analyzed as incomes per capita both on the local and national level. The lowest levels are evidenced in Moldova and Kosovo, while Macedonia with an average of 192 euro local public money per capita and 1.1125 euro per capita at the central government level has a medium average performance compared with the Western Balkan countries. The local fiscal performance per capita in Macedonia is at the level of 5.9% compared to the EU level and the national consumption per capita is at the level of 10.5% of the EU level. Such data are strong prove that the level of fiscal decentralization in Macedonia is well below the EU average.

3. Sources of Local Public Finance Before and After 2001

The internal ethnic conflict in Macedonia in 2001 produced the change of Macedonian Constitution and advanced the rights of minorities in particular the political rights of the Albanian community. Sources of financing for local authorities before and after 2001 are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Sources of finance for local authorities before and after 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of finance</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Local taxes</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property taxes</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.1%-0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tax of turnover of property</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tax on property heritage: First generation, Second generation, Third generation</td>
<td>0%,3%,5%</td>
<td>0%, 2%-3%, 4%-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Local taxes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communal taxes</td>
<td>Local (fix tariffs)</td>
<td>Local with margins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative taxes</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Local with margins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tax income</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Marginally local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax on personal income (PIT)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax on additional value (VAT)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3%-3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Grants from the government of RM</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Block grants for education, Capital grants, Grants for delegated competences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Debts</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Other local income</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Other income</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>Local – Central</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparative analysis of the sources of finance for local authorities before and after 2001, shows an additional growth of 3% of the tax on personal income and 3% of VAT meaning a nominal increase of only 12% in real public finance. These are the only sources that the local authorities manage independently from the central government in Skopje.
4. The Dynamics of Fiscal Decentralization in the Period 2002-2010

The process of fiscal decentralization in financial and functional sense in Macedonia has recognized certain progress from 2002 until 2013. This progress was achieved with the direct assistance of international institutions such as the World Bank, UNDP, USAID and is led by the Ministry of Local Government and the Ministry of Finance.

The increased growth of public money for local governance in Macedonia has affected the transfer of competencies in the area of primary and secondary education. Through this transfer to local authorities were transferred funds for payment of the salaries of education personnel and financial funds for school buildings as operating expenses.

This transfer represents increases of public money for over three times in benefit of the local authorities and that essentially has no meaning in the real growth of the financial and fiscal autonomy because the capital investments in the education sector remain central government competencies. Real growth of public finance at the local level in the case of Macedonia in the period 2002-2010 from 1.4% to 2.6% of GDP ranks Macedonia among the countries of Western Balkan with high centralization of public finance in favor of the central government.

Table 2. Annual statement between GDP and municipalities revenues (2002-2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td></td>
<td>240.283</td>
<td>258.369</td>
<td>272.462</td>
<td>295.052</td>
<td>320.059</td>
<td>353.786</td>
<td>411.728</td>
<td>409.100</td>
<td>423.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mun. rev as part of GDP (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.410</td>
<td>1.718</td>
<td>1.818</td>
<td>1.889</td>
<td>2.511</td>
<td>2.665</td>
<td>5.109</td>
<td>5.656</td>
<td>5.610</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors own calculations based on official statistical data

5. Fiscal Discrimination and Underdevelopment of Municipalities of Different Regions: A Systemic Problem

Besides the low level of fiscal decentralization generally a serious problem that affects the growth of regional disparities and devalues the current process of fiscal decentralization is the unfair allocation of financial resources to different municipalities of different regions in Macedonia. Numerous analysis made by foreign experts have ranked municipalities in Macedonia in 4 groups addressing the capital of country Skopje separately. The data presented in table 3 prove the systemic discrimination of municipalities ranked from level 1 to 3 and an extraordinary financial position for the district of Skopje.

Table 3. Basic Incomes in group of municipalities for the year 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mun. - Group I</th>
<th>Mun. - Group II</th>
<th>Mun. - Group III</th>
<th>Mun. - Group IV</th>
<th>Skopje</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Municipal tax</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>2.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax on property</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>1260</td>
<td>7.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover tax</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>1520</td>
<td>3279</td>
<td>18.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public lightning</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>1756</td>
<td>9.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company tax</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>2.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax for construction land</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>992</td>
<td>3736</td>
<td>5394</td>
<td>30.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other tax’es</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>2.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative tax</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>3.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAT</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>741</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>2606</td>
<td>14.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfers from the fond for public roads</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>7.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total revenues</td>
<td>1382</td>
<td>2300</td>
<td>2770</td>
<td>3989</td>
<td>7326</td>
<td>17767</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>7.78%</td>
<td>12.95%</td>
<td>15.59%</td>
<td>22.45%</td>
<td>41.23%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis conducted by USAID and UNDP expert argues that the favored position of Macedonia’s capital Skopje and utilization of over 41% of financial funds realized in all financial lines particularly is affected by the fact that all national institutions are allocated in Skopje, great economic investments are realized in economic free zone in the region of Skopje has had direct effect on the fiscal potential of the capital of the country. Municipal and regional disparities in terms of fiscal decentralization move from - 4% for the municipalities listed in Group 3 in order to achieve -11% for municipalities listed in group 1 and 2. Existing system of public financing offers +24 % more public finance for capital Skopje at the local level despite the fact that in Skopje lives only 25% of the population of Macedonia.

Table 4. Municipal revenues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gr. Of munic.</th>
<th>No. of munic</th>
<th>Popul.</th>
<th>% of popul</th>
<th>Budget per capita</th>
<th>Basic budget</th>
<th>% of budget revenues</th>
<th>Disparity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group I</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>342,016</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>1,382.00</td>
<td>472,739,479.00</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>-11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group II</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>542,826</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>2,300.00</td>
<td>1,248,341,641.00</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>-11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group III</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>254,799</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2,770.00</td>
<td>705,844,786.00</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group IV</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>375,980</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>3,988.00</td>
<td>1,499,243,172.00</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skopje</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>506,926</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>7,325.00</td>
<td>3,713,321,231.00</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>2,022,547</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3,777.00</td>
<td>7,639,490,309.00</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: USAID, 2008

These deep fiscal disparities are systematic and have significantly canceled the positive effects of the beginning of the implementation of local autonomy and decentralization of public finance since the systemic changes of 2002. Such a discriminatory approach, not only deepens fiscal disparities among rural and urban municipalities, but also deepens the gap in development among regions depending on their ethnic structure. It should be mentioned that regions that are inhabited mostly by ethnic Albanians are additionally discriminated by the unequal distribution of public investments finance from governmental grants or from international sources but via the governmental institutions.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

- The low level of local public consumption in Macedonia (only 5-10% of the EU average), imposes the need for furthering reforms in political decentralization followed by serious decentralization of public money from central to local and regional levels.
- A decrease in the number of municipalities and the creation of functional municipalities with sufficient economic and developmental potentials, but maintaining an adequate territorial division, would enable such municipalities to have sufficient sources of finance as a precondition for financial and fiscal consolidation of local authorities in general and those in discriminated municipalities in particular.
- In order to eliminate the great developmental disparities among regions and ethnical groups a new system for fiscal equilibration that would favor the underdeveloped rural municipalities and disable future disparities is needed.
- An increase in the level of block dotations from VAT from 4% to at least 20% on a medium range by modifying the formula for VAT allocation would stabilize local public budgets and create opportunities for productive capital investments at the local level.
- A more adequate implementation of the Law for equal regional development and the investments of at least 70-100 million Euros annually in projects of benefit for the less developed municipalities and regions would help in eliminating the expressed disparities among the regions and would create opportunities for equal development in the future.
- The determination of new criteria for the allocation of block dotations by implementing transparent and public procedures based on functions and not institutions, would provide a more just allocation and would contribute to the elimination of the institutional corruption and the misuse of huge public financial funds.
- An undertaking of the debt of local authorities by the central government, combined with the elimination of the limitations for taking loans from relevant international institutions by the local authorities would support the process of stabilization and fiscal development of local authorities in Macedonia in the future.
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Evaluation of International Competitiveness Using the Revealed Comparative Advantage Indices: The Case of the Baltic States

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Abstract

As an international trade becomes crucial in the growing economies, the research measuring the international trade with competitiveness are quite limited, especially for the Baltic States. The main aim of the article is to evaluate the international competitiveness using the revealed comparative advantage indices in the Baltic States: Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia. Three different revealed comparative advantage indices were used for analysis of import and export figures for several industry sectors of the Baltic States over the period of 1998-2012. The analysis showed that the Baltic States may lose their competitiveness due to the globalization effects and increasing competition from other emerging economies. However, the enhancement of the international competitiveness of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia depends on their ability to implement the reforms in the public sector; to improve the business and investment conditions; to increase the flexibility and efficiency in the labour market.

Keywords: international competitiveness, comparative advantage, the Baltic States.

1. Introduction

The export competitiveness problems are usually dealing with the scientific or country-specific examples. In order to make export successfully the manufacturers have to offer such products and services, which are competitive, i.e. country’s export must be competitive.

There are many export enhancing policies and measures to evaluate their effectiveness, as well as a variety of ways to measure the export competitiveness (Cho, 1998; Proudman & Redding, 2000). Export results, their changes are best revealed by the ability of local companies to compete in the open world market as well as local conditions created for export expansion also contribute to that. Various authors (Krugman, 1994; Elenum, 2007; Seyoum, 2007; Bruneckiene & Paltanaviciene, 2012, Hiziroglu et al., 2013) provide different methods how to assess export competitiveness of a country (region). In order to achieve the goal some indices representing export competitiveness are examined and compared. Not only factor determining competitiveness, but also environment influencing it is under investigation from the quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Different areas of competitiveness – economic, financial, social, political, and institutional – are integrated and later explored as one system (Pillania, 2009; World Economic Forum; 2013; IMD, 2013). Nevertheless, these methods are more applicable to evaluate conditions under which it is detected whether the company is able to export successfully.

However, the scientific analysis of the export competitiveness is limited by the lack of uniform concept of competitiveness, unclear academic opinion in terms of the country international competitiveness and exports, the abundance of the determinants of export development, the impact of export development complexity. In this situation it is extremely important to find the methodology how to evaluate the international competitiveness.

The main objective of this article is to evaluate the international competitiveness using the revealed comparative advantage indices in the Baltic States: Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia.

2. Theoretical Background

Many recent studies proved that the power of country’s export competitiveness mainly depends on how the countries are able to use the effects of the trade specialization in their economies. The economic studies on trade specialization of Bernstein & Weinstein (1998), Deardorff (1980), Fitzgerald & Hallak (2004) as cited in Kilduff & Chi (2007) draws on the Ricardian comparative advantage theory and the Heckscher-Ohlin theory of factor proportions to demonstrate that both factor productivity and relative factor endowments are important determinants of specialization. However, it is accepted that these theories are not a complete explanation of specialization patterns. Rather, differences arise from the influence
of a complex countries combination of economic, technological, social, and political factors, including country-specific idiosyncrasies and data accuracy problems (Fitzgerald & Hallak, 2004; Porter, 1990).

The revealed comparative advantage (RCA) index provides quite obvious picture of trade specialization. The concept of RCA was introduced by Liesner (1958), but refined and developed by Balassa and known as the ‘Balassa index’ (Balassa, 1965). He explored the possibility of relying on various theoretical explanations of international trade to determine the patterns of comparative advantage. The popularity of the RCA index is its relative simplicity, its ability to utilize comparable data sets, such as SITC-based trade data for the analysis, and its dependability as an indicator of actual changes in underlying real comparative advantages (Laursen, 1998). RCA is a measure of international competitiveness and has gained general acceptance in the literature (Vollrath, 1991; Lim, 1997; Li & Bender, 2002; Ferto & Hubbard, 2003; Utkulu & Seymen, 2004; Saboniene, 2009; Bematonyte & Normantiene, 2009; Jayawickrama & Thangavelu, 2010; Hiziroglu et al., 2013).

Balassa’s (1965) original RCA index, which has subsequently been modified into a plethora of measures or indices, is the ratio of a country’s exports of a product to its total exports, relative to the ratio of world exports of that product to total world exports. Comparative advantage is revealed if \( RCA_{ij} > 1 \), and country \( i \) has a comparative advantage of product \( j \) on the world market. However, the RCA index meets some criticism in economic literature. According to Yeats (1985), the RCA index only shows whether a country has comparative advantage in a commodity only at one point in time and they are neither cardinal nor ordinal measures. Studies of De Benedictis and Tamberi (2004) proved, that the RCA indices are asymmetric: when a country has a revealed comparative advantage, \( RCA_{ij} > 1 \) but there is no upper bound; but conversely, when a country has a revealed comparative disadvantage, \( RCA_{ij} \) has an upper bound of unity.

Despite these criticisms, a number of studies (Utkulu & Seymen, 2004; Kilduff & Chi, 2007; Kuldilok et al., 2013) argue that the RCA indices are a useful measure of comparative advantage which can highlight specialization patterns. Moreover, government intervention and competitiveness tend to be inversely related, and products which reveal a comparative advantage could become more competitive if markets were more open (Vollrath, 1991).

3. Research Methodology

Given the paper objectives and specifics of the research, the methodology is based on the use of three types of comparative advantage indices.

- The RCA (revealed comparative advantage) index calculates the comparative advantage based on export figures:

\[
RCA_{ij} = \frac{X_{ij}}{X_{it}} / \frac{X_{wj}}{X_{wt}}
\]

Where \( X_{ij} \) represents country \( i \) export of product \( j \); \( X_{it} \) represent country \( i \) total export; \( X_{wj} \) represents the export of product \( j \); and \( X_{wt} \) represents the total export of the world.

\( RCA_{ij} > 1 \) indicates country \( i \) has a comparative advantage in production of \( j \); the greater the index, the stronger the advantage. \( RCA_{ij} < 1 \) indicates that country \( i \) has a comparative disadvantage in production of \( j \); the smaller the index, the greater the disadvantage.

- The RMA (relative import advantage) index calculates through interpreting and formulating the RCA index with corresponding import M values:

\[
RMA_{ij} = \frac{M_{ij}}{M_{it}} / \frac{M_{sj}}{M_{st}}
\]

Where \( M_{ij} \) represents country \( i \) import of product \( j \); \( M_{it} \) represent country \( i \) total import; \( M_{sj} \) represents the import of product \( j \); and \( M_{st} \) represents the total import of the world.

The Relative Import Advantage Index is very similar to the RCA. The differences are that it considers imports, represented by M, and that the interpretation is reversed from that of the RCA. A value of unity is a sign of competitive disadvantage, and values below that is an indication of competitive advantages.

- The RTA (relative trade advantage) index which includes the subtraction of the relative export (RCA) and import (RMA) advantage indexes:

\[
RTA_{ij} = RCA_{ij} - RMA_{ij}
\]

The positive value of the RTA indicates comparative trade advantages, while negative value indicates comparative trade disadvantages. If \( RTA > 0 \), then a comparative advantage is revealed, i.e. a sector in which the country is relatively more competitive in terms of trade. The RTA measures a country’s exports and imports of a commodity relative to its total exports and imports (Bematonyte & Normantiene, 2009).

The analysis is based on the annual time series data of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia in the period of 1998-2012.
This period was selected as being long enough to permit longer-term trends to be identified, and based on the availability of a complete data set for commodity groups selected. Global and domestic statistical data (export/import values, etc.) were obtained from the World Trade Organization statistics (www.wto.org). Four types of commodity groups: Manufactures, Chemicals, Textiles and Clothing were selected for the research. Those commodity groups represent the main industries in the Baltic States and also correspond to the SITC (Standard International Trade Classification).

4. Results

The empirical research findings disclosed that the RCA index only slightly changed in the manufactures and chemicals industries from 1998 to 2012 (Table 1). During this period the RCA index was quite steady in all the Baltic countries and its value was lower than 1. It means the countries did not have a comparative advantage in the manufactures and chemicals industries except for Estonia where its RCA index exceeded the value of 1 starting from 2007 and this reflects slightly small comparative advantage in the manufactures industries.

The evident comparative advantage was clearly detected in the textiles and clothing industries where the value of the RCA index exceeded 1 assuring the comparative advantage in export of this commodity group. It is clear that the diminishing comparative advantage of 2005-2007 was caused by the end of the „Multi Fibre Agreement“ that governed the world trade in textiles and garments, imposing quotas on the amount developing countries could export to developed countries. This especially landed on Estonia where its textiles and clothing industries have changed their competitiveness status from being disadvantageous to advantageous in comparison to Latvia and Lithuania.

Table 1. The Revealed Comparative Advantage Index (RCA) in Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia during the period of 1998-2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity group</th>
<th>Lithuania</th>
<th>Latvia</th>
<th>Estonia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manufactures</td>
<td>1998 0.82</td>
<td>1998 0.77</td>
<td>1998 0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999 0.88</td>
<td>1999 0.75</td>
<td>1999 0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2000 0.73</td>
<td>2000 0.75</td>
<td>2000 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001 0.73</td>
<td>2001 0.75</td>
<td>2001 0.75</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2002 0.73</td>
<td>2002 0.75</td>
<td>2002 0.75</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2003 0.73</td>
<td>2003 0.75</td>
<td>2003 0.75</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004 0.73</td>
<td>2004 0.75</td>
<td>2004 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005 0.73</td>
<td>2005 0.75</td>
<td>2005 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td>1998 0.74</td>
<td>1998 0.66</td>
<td>1998 0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999 0.73</td>
<td>1999 0.66</td>
<td>1999 0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2000 0.65</td>
<td>2000 0.70</td>
<td>2000 0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001 0.50</td>
<td>2001 0.67</td>
<td>2001 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2002 0.48</td>
<td>2002 0.67</td>
<td>2002 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003 0.50</td>
<td>2003 0.67</td>
<td>2003 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004 0.56</td>
<td>2004 0.67</td>
<td>2004 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005 0.63</td>
<td>2005 0.67</td>
<td>2005 0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td>1998 1.64</td>
<td>1998 2.80</td>
<td>1998 1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999 1.79</td>
<td>1999 2.43</td>
<td>1999 1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2000 1.28</td>
<td>2000 2.34</td>
<td>2000 1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001 1.18</td>
<td>2001 2.48</td>
<td>2001 1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2002 1.25</td>
<td>2002 2.42</td>
<td>2002 1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003 1.28</td>
<td>2003 2.37</td>
<td>2003 1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004 1.32</td>
<td>2004 2.21</td>
<td>2004 1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005 1.29</td>
<td>2005 2.04</td>
<td>2005 1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1999 2.91</td>
<td>1999 3.18</td>
<td>1999 2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2000 2.88</td>
<td>2000 3.06</td>
<td>2000 1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001 2.61</td>
<td>2001 2.95</td>
<td>2001 1.69</td>
</tr>
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<td>2002 2.39</td>
<td>2002 2.65</td>
<td>2002 1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003 2.21</td>
<td>2003 2.73</td>
<td>2003 1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004 2.04</td>
<td>2004 2.47</td>
<td>2004 1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005 1.65</td>
<td>2005 2.05</td>
<td>2005 1.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results of the RMA index showed that during the period of 1998-2012 in Lithuania and Estonia the import of clothing commodities was not competitive, but its competitiveness tends to increase, i.e., the RMA index of clothing tends to be closer to value 1 (table 2). Other industries (textile, manufactures, chemicals) are more disadvantageous during this period in Lithuania and Estonia. The local chemicals and manufactures industries have an obvious competitive advantage in comparison with imports in Latvia. The rising import pressure from the low-cost countries such as China, India, Pakistan tends to change the business models in the Baltic States – manufacturers tend to use the integrated business model from raw material extraction to final product in any industries.

Table 2. The Relative Import Advantage Index (RMA) in Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia during the period of 1998-2012
Talking about the RTA index, it is obvious, that Latvia has the comparative trade advantages in all analysed commodity group as the RTA index is positive (table 3). Lithuania is competitive only in the clothing sector and it also has changed its competitiveness status from being disadvantageous to advantageous in the manufactures sector in the year of 2009. The competitiveness of Estonia tends to decrease in all sectors during the period of 1998-2012 except for the manufactures sector with the competitive advantage fluctuation around zero.

Table 3. The Relative Trade Advantage Index (RTA) in Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia during the period of 1998-2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity group</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1998</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufactures</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>-0.65</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>-1.10</td>
<td>-1.34</td>
<td>-1.31</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>-0.98</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufactures</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufactures</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the RCA, RMA, and RTA indices it is disclosed that changes in competitiveness of the Baltic States during the period of 1998-2012 were determined by the NATO joining and by the consequences of the 2008-2010 world economic crisis. On the one hand, the EU borders have been opened and the competitiveness pressure lays upon producers and exporters from the Baltic states; on the other hand, the economic crises reduced aggregate demand and consumption challenging to search for new export markets reducing simultaneously consumption of the imported goods because of the lowering earnings. Nevertheless, economies of the Baltic States recover quickly after the economic crisis. Moreover, the Baltic countries have improved their competitiveness and it was mainly influenced by various factors facilitating business activities such as registering property, starting business, getting credit etc. For example, Lithuania is in the first place...
according to the competitiveness growth in the EU in 2012. The main disadvantages of the international competitiveness of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia are quite weak reforms in the public sector; unstable legal environment for the business and investment; low flexibility and efficiency in the labour market.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

Most studies evaluating the export competitiveness are limited by the lack of uniform concept of competitiveness, unclear academic opinion in terms of the country international competitiveness and exports, the abundance of the determinants of export development, the impact of export development complexity.

Despite some limitation in cardinal measures or asymmetry, the revealed comparative advantage (RCA) index is widely used in many studies due to its relative simplicity, ability to utilize comparable data sets and dependence on actual changes in underlying real comparative advantages.

Comparing three types of the comparative advantage indices (RCA, RTA, and RMA) in the Baltic states during the period of 1998-2012 reveals that changes in competitiveness of the countries are determined by both external factors such as entering the EU, the world economic crisis and internal factors such as changes in consumption as well as changes in economic and legal environment. The textiles and clothing industries with the relatively high competitive position are superior compared to other industries in Latvia and Lithuania while there is no clear competitive advantage to be distinguished among Estonian industries.

The rising import pressure from low-cost countries, basically changing business models in the Baltic States - manufacturers tend to use the integrated business model from raw material extraction to final product.

Enhancement of the international competitiveness of the Baltic States depends on their ability to implement the reforms in the public sector; to improve the business and investment conditions; to increase the flexibility and efficiency in the labour market.

References


What is the Impact of Savings on Growth? 
The Case of a Small Open Economy (Albania)

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Abstract

Does economic growth come as a result of increasing the saving rate of a country? Savings and Economic Growth are closely related to each other and this is why this relationship has been subject of studies for various economists through time. The aim of this study is to indicate the causal relationship that exists between savings and economic growth in Albania between the years 1992 and 2012 (after the fall of communism, during the long transition period of the country) by implementing the Johansen Cointegration Test. According to the empirical results is revealed that savings and economic growth are cointegrated, therefore showing the existence of a stable long-run equilibrium relationship. Moreover results of the study suggest that a positive relationship between savings and economic growth and the complementary role of FDI in growth. This implies that the government must pay special attention toward FDI policies in order to positively affect Economic Growth of the country.

Keywords: Cointegration, Savings, Economic Growth, FDI

1. Introduction

Can a country grow faster by saving more? Actually this is the main question arising in this study.

The Solow Model shows that higher savings leads to higher growth, but only temporarily, until the economy reaches the new steady-state. Maintaining high savings rate in an economy will cause the maintenance of a high level of capital stock and high level of output, but anyway it will not maintain forever a high growth rate. By contrast a higher saving is said to have a level effect. Only the level of income per person is influenced by the saving rate in the steady state, not its growth rate.

The World Bank (1993) developed a survey regarding the effect that savings had on economic development which revealed that countries with higher saving rates had had a faster economic growth than the ones with lower saving rates. So according to the World Bank in the developing countries policies that encourage savings will also contribute to higher economic growth. However other studies results not always have supported the World Bank’s results. Sinha and Sinha (1998) showed that causality goes in the opposite direction in the case of Mexico so the theory that higher savings cause higher growth does not hold in this case.

The literature regarding this topic is vast and it has a huge contribute into explaining the savings and growth relationship. Nevertheless, sometimes putting together in cross section equations countries with different specifics, experiences and different policies might sometimes result in misleading results. (Demetriades and Hussien (1996). Another problem with many other studies might also be the omission of the role that Foreign Direct Investment inflow plays in the saving and growth relationship.

The starting point of this study is to know whether the time series data of GDP, Domestic Savings and Foreign Direct Investment are stationary or non-stationary. Mishkin (1992) noted that economic series that had the presence of unit roots (non-stationary) in the dependent and independent variables resulted in no meaningful regression referred as spurious regression. So the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) tests were performed to find out whether the time series were stationary or not. After making sure to have stationary time series, the second step was that of employing the Johansen Cointegration Test. The paper investigates the causal relationship that exists between savings and growth in a small open economy like Albania and the complementary role that FDI plays on this relationship.

In order to avoid the mistakes made in some of the previous studies, the Foreign Direct Investment inflow was
included in this study due to its growing importance. The paper intends to uncover the impact that FDIs have on the relationship between savings and growth in the case of Albania. This complementary role of FDIs is studied as it can give an importance to the policies that the Government should take toward the developing strategies in the country.

As mentioned above, the main objective of this paper is to discover the relationship that exists between savings and growth in the long run in Albania. It is in this context that the study is structured in five parts. In the first part, Introduction covers the fundamental question whether by saving more a country will grow faster or not, supported by the Solow model and a survey developed by the World Bank regarding the effect that savings had on economic development. In part two of the paper is the Literature Review, chronologically showing studies made over time by other economists and specialists regarding the relation between savings and growth in their countries, and also representing what methodology they used in their studies. In this part is interesting noticing that results differ from country to country. The third part of the study includes the Data and Methodology part, explaining the period of time that is used in the study, the regression model and its determinants, and what method is used in order to discover the relationship between savings and growth in Albania. In the fourth part of the study are presented the Empirical Findings from this study. In this part are shown the results of the ADF test in order to make sure of having stationary time series, and then is performed the Johansen Cointegration Test to find out whether there exists a long term relationship between savings and growth in Albania. The very final part of the study includes the Conclusions and Implication resulting from this paper and gives the answer to our main question.

2. Literature Review

There are many studies that study the relationship between savings and economic growth.

Carroll and Weil (1994) found that growth Granger causes saving, but saving does not Granger cause growth. Using house- hold data they found that households with predictably higher income growth save more than households with predictably low growth. They argue that standard permanent income models of consumption cannot explain these findings, but, a model of consumption with habit formation may. The positive effect of growth on saving implies that previous estimates of the effect of saving on growth may be overstated. (Carroll, 1994) Sinha and Sinha (1998) show that the conventionally accepted view that higher saving rate causes higher economic growth does not hold for Mexico. In fact, the causality goes in the opposite direction. The conventional wisdom that higher saving rate leads to higher economic growth does not seem to bear out when careful econometric tests are performed. (Sinha, 1998). According to Andersson (1999) the causal chains linking saving and output differs across countries, and also that causality associated with adjustments to long-run relations might go in different directions than causality associated with short-term disturbances. (Anderson, 1999). Saltz (1999) explores an alternative hypothesis: that higher growth rates of GDP because increased savings. Higher growth rates of income boost the rate of savings and attract more foreign savings. The findings support the latter hypothesis in more cases. (Saltz, 1999). Sajid and Sarfraz (1999) used the Cointegration and Vector Error Correction technique to explore the causal relationship between savings and economic growth and results showed a mutual long run relationship between savings and output level. Anyway the results suggested unidirectional long run causality from public savings to output and private savings to gross national product. Savings precede the level of output in Pakistan related to long run overall results. The short run causality runs only from national savings to gross domestic product which favors the Keynesian point of view on which savings depend on level of output. Claus, Haugh, Scobie and Törnquist (2001) investigate the link between saving, investment and growth. In particular, it focuses on issues potentially important in an open economy such as New Zealand. Results showed that diversified portfolios, large inflows of foreign investment into New Zealand and investment rates comparable to those in other OECD countries suggest that New Zealand has been able to access foreign saving to meet investment demands while domestic saving does not appear to have constrained investment and hence growth. (Claus, 2001) Anoruo and Ahmad, (2001) utilized Cointegration and VECM to explore the causal relationship between economic growth and rate of domestic savings for some African Countries. They used three types of analysis: Augmented Dickey–Fuller unit root procedure, Johansen and Juselius framework and finally Granger-causality test. Results of Cointegration test suggested the existence of a long-run relationship between economic growth and growth rate of saving while results of Granger Causality test showed the contrary to conventional wisdom, economic growth causes growth rate of domestic savings for most of the countries. (Anoruo, 2001). Agrawal (2001) found that in most cases for some Asian countries, the direction of causality runs primarily from growth to savings, even though in some countries, there is as well evidence of a feedback effect from savings to growth. That is why; development policy should focus more on promoting high growth rates and less on promoting high savings rates. High savings rates in Asia are found to be due to the high rate of growth of income per capita, declining shares of dependent population, and some special institutional features, such as the high central
provident fund rates in Singapore. Interest rates are found to have little impact on savings. (Agrawal, 2001). Romm (2003) examined the aggregate private saving rate and its interaction with investment and growth through Johansen VECM and results suggested that private saving rate has both a direct and indirect (through private investment rate) effect on growth while growth has a positive effect on private saving rate. Growth enhances savings which in turn further enhances growth. (Romm, 2003). Alguicil, Cuadros and Orts (2004) presented evidences in favor of Solow’s model prediction that higher savings lead to higher economic growth as opposition to the reverse causation between national savings and domestic income found in recent empirical studies. The inclusion of Foreign Direct Investment in the model confirms the saving-growth nexus and it enhances economic growth and reinforces the connection between savings and growth. (Alguacil, 2004). Adebiyi (2005) concluded from his research regarding saving and growth causal relationship for Nigeria that the evidence from impulse response analysis and Granger causality tests show that growth, using per capita income, is sensitive to, and has an inverse effect on savings. (Adebiyi, 2005). Mohan (2006) studied relationship between domestic savings and economic growth for various economies with different income levels. The study favors the hypothesis that the causality is from economic growth rate to growth rate of savings. Based on the empirical results, the main conclusion of this study is that income class of a country does play an important role in determining the direction of causality. (Mohan, 2006). Lean and Song (2008) examined the relationship between growth and domestic savings and economics in China and found that economic growth in China is found to be cointegrated with two other variables: household saving and enterprise saving growth. In the short run a bilateral causality exists between household saving growth and economic growth, while in long run a unidirectional causality exists from economic growth to the enterprise saving growth. (Lean, 2008). Aghion, Comin, Howitt and Tecu (2009) in their theoretical model, growth resulted from innovations that allow sectors to catch up with frontier technology. In poor countries where catching up requires cooperation of a foreign investor and a domestic entrepreneur, domestic savings matter for innovation and therefore growth because it enables the local entrepreneur to put equity into the problem that would otherwise deter the foreign investor from participating. In rich countries domestic saving do not matter for growth as the domestic entrepreneurs are familiar with frontier technology leading to no need to attract foreign investors. According to a cross country regression is shown that remaining savings is positively related to productivity growth in poor countries but not same situation is in rich countries. (Aghion, 2009). AbuAl-Foul (2010) studied the long run relationship between real gross domestic product and real gross domestic savings for Morocco and Tunisia and results revealed that in case of Morocco there exists a long run relationship between the variables based on Granger Casualty test while there is no evidence of long-run relationship in the case of Tunisia. (AbuAl-Foul, 2010). Olapido (2010) used Toda and Yamamoto and Dolado and Lutkepohl - TYDL - methodology to discover the causal relationship between savings and economic growth in Nigeria and results suggested that savings and economic growth are positively cointegrated indicating a stable long run equilibrium relationship. Moreover the findings showed a unidirectional causality between savings and economic growth and the complementary role of FDI in growth. (Olapido, 2010). (AbuAl-Foul, 2010)

3. Data and Methodology

In order to examine the casual relationship between savings and economic growth in Albania, this study employs annual data from 1992 to 2012 so for a 20 year period. Data for this research are obtained from Central Bank of Albania (BoA), the World Bank (WB) and Index Mundi. Domestic Income is shown through GDP while domestic saving and foreign direct investment are presented as percentages of GDP.

In Figure 1 is shown a graphical scatter plot representation of domestic saving and foreign direct investment in relation to Gross Domestic Product (GDP). As the graph shows the relationship is not spurious so it can be understood that a causal relation exists between GDP domestic savings and FDI. While on Figure 2 is shown the line graph where it is noticed that the variables go on together, but from time to time there are some fluctuations.
In the first stage of the study is applied the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test at 1% level of significance in order to make sure that the series used in the model are stationary time series otherwise the results might not hold much meaning. Before performing the Johansen Cointegration test, is shown the regression model of the study.

The regression model performed in this study is:

$$ GDP = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{Sav} + \beta_2 \text{FDI} + e $$

Where: $\alpha$ is the intercept

$\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$ are the estimated regression coefficients

e : is the error term

GDP: Gross Domestic Product is the dependent variable

Sav: Domestic Savings is the independent variable

FDI: Foreign Direct Investment is the independent variable.

Hypothesis:

Ho: Domestic Savings and FDI have a positive effect on Economic Growth in the long run.

Hi: Domestic Savings and FDI don’t have a positive effect on Economic Growth in the long run.

Moreover in order to determine whether there exists a long run relationship among domestic saving, foreign direct investment and economic growth expressed as GDP the Johansen Cointegration Test is performed. In order to have a relationship between the variables the Trace Statistic must be greater than 5% critical value. Also the maximum eigenvalue test must be greater than 5% critical value.

4. Empirical Findings

In Table 2 and as well in Figure 3 (a, b and c) are shown the group statistics performed in order to test the distribution of data. After checking the Skewness and Kurtosis for all the three the variables, due to the presence of unit root on the variables the results showed to be asymmetric and not in a bell shaped. In all the three variables data neither the Skewness was close to zero nor was the Kurtosis near to 3.
Table 1. Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GDP</th>
<th>SAVINGS</th>
<th>FDI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.019048</td>
<td>-4.238095</td>
<td>4.951905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>6.000000</td>
<td>1.000000</td>
<td>3.560000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>13.300000</td>
<td>9.000000</td>
<td>11.080000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>-7.200000</td>
<td>-72.00000</td>
<td>1.200000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>4.881047</td>
<td>18.00807</td>
<td>3.157293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-1.256532</td>
<td>-2.884593</td>
<td>0.880233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>4.565131</td>
<td>10.96401</td>
<td>2.289625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>7.669482</td>
<td>84.62031</td>
<td>3.153387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>0.021607</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
<td>0.206657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>105.4000</td>
<td>-89.00000</td>
<td>103.9900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum Sq. Dev.</td>
<td>476.4924</td>
<td>6485.810</td>
<td>199.3699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3 (a) GDP

Figure 3 (b) Savings

Figure 3 (c) FDI
In order to examine whether the series were stationary time series Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was performed. First result showed that for GDP, Domestic Savings or FDI the null hypothesis “GDP, Domestic Savings or FDI have a unit root” was not rejected as at 1% critical values since the calculated t-statistics for the three of them were greater than the 1% of critical value. So according to these results the presence of unit roots in the underlying series points toward the non-stationary of the underlying series. As the dependent and independent variables show the presence of unit roots this means that the results of the regression do not hold much meaning.

Table 2. ADF tests for GDP, Savings and FDI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis: GDP has a unit root</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exogenous: Constant</td>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-3.390511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lag Length: 1 (Fixed)</td>
<td>Test critical values:</td>
<td>1% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10% level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis: SAVINGS has a unit root</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exogenous: Constant</td>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-3.726737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lag Length: 1 (Fixed)</td>
<td>Test critical values:</td>
<td>1% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10% level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis: FDI has a unit root</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exogenous: Constant</td>
<td>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</td>
<td>-0.546258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lag Length: 1 (Fixed)</td>
<td>Test critical values:</td>
<td>1% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5% level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10% level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Warning: Probabilities and critical values calculated for 20 observations and may not be accurate for a sample size of 19

This is why in order to have the indispensable stationary time series and to reject the hypothesis that the variables have a unit root, another Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root test is performed by performing the first difference on the variables needed so that the regression to be meaningful.
Table 3. ADF test after taking the first difference for GDP, Savings and FDI

Null Hypothesis: D(GDP) has a unit root  
Exogenous: None  
Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D(GDP)</td>
<td>-6.970467</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test critical values:  
1% level: -2.692358  
5% level: -1.960171  
10% level: -1.607051

Null Hypothesis: D(SAVINGS) has a unit root  
Exogenous: None  
Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D(SAVINGS)</td>
<td>-5.051230</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test critical values:  
1% level: -2.692358  
5% level: -1.960171  
10% level: -1.607051

Null Hypothesis: D(FDI) has a unit root  
Exogenous: None  
Lag Length: 0 (Fixed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D(FDI)</td>
<td>-4.221336</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test critical values:  
1% level: -2.692358  
5% level: -1.960171  
10% level: -1.607051

Warning: Probabilities and critical values calculated for 20 observations and may not be accurate for a sample size of 19

The final step after performing the First Difference of the Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test and finally having stationary time series is the application of Johansen Cointegration test in order to study whether there is a long term relationship between the variables. According to the test results it is suggested that there exists a Cointegration relation between variables as long as Trace Statistics (43.759) is greater than 5% Critical Value (29.797). Also by looking at the Maximum Eigenvalue test the max eigenvalue statistic (28.951) is greater than 5% Critical Value (21.131).
Table 4. Johanson Cointegration Test

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized No. of CE(s)</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Trace Statistic</th>
<th>0.05 Critical Value</th>
<th>Prob.**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None *</td>
<td>0.782109</td>
<td>43.75952</td>
<td>&gt; 29.79707</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.535121</td>
<td>14.80810</td>
<td>15.49471</td>
<td>0.0633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.013306</td>
<td>0.254520</td>
<td>3.841466</td>
<td>0.6139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized No. of CE(s)</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Max-Eigen Statistic</th>
<th>0.05 Critical Value</th>
<th>Prob.**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None *</td>
<td>0.782109</td>
<td>28.95142</td>
<td>&gt; 21.13162</td>
<td>0.0032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1 *</td>
<td>0.535121</td>
<td>14.5358</td>
<td>14.26460</td>
<td>0.0450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.013306</td>
<td>0.254520</td>
<td>3.841466</td>
<td>0.6139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 2 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

In other words a long run stable relationship exists between Domestic Savings, FDI and GDP and they move together in the long run. So a causal relation exists between Domestic Savings, Foreign Direct Investment and Gross Domestic Income. The increase of Savings and FDI enhances Economic Growth in Albania.

5. Conclusions and Implications

In this paper is presented the causal relationship that exists between domestic savings and economic growth through the Johansen Cointegration Test. The empirical results showed that a stable long relationship exists between savings and economic growth. In the study was also included the FDI and the complementary role that it plays in economic growth. As economic growth is very important for Albania, the government must pay special attention to the formulation of specific policies in order to attract foreign direct investments in the country which would also enhance savings and promote economic growth as well.

References


Economic Growth and Development Effect of Education:  
Cointegration Analysis for Turkey

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Abstract

Economic theory proposes that there is a connection between education level and efficiency, and a person contribute to the society related with his education level. Also it is accepted that characteristics of education activities effects economic, social and cultural development of the society. Human capital is of great importance for social and economic progress. Qualified work force is resulted from the education level. Investment for the human capital implied education investments which provide the increase literacy rate and information-ability levels. This is really important for both underdeveloped and developed countries. So education investments should be analyzed for understanding the effects on growth and development. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to investigate the relationship between education investments and economic growth for Turkey. We used cointegration technique for the period from 1980 to 2011.

Keywords: Education, Economic Growth, Development, Turkey, Cointegration

1. Introduction

Human capital is the most important production factor from the beginning of the economics theory. But now, the importance of this factor differentiated. Qualified work force is of great importance for the twenty-first century. Qualified work force is resulted from the education level. Investment for the human capital implied education investments.

Education investments provide the increase literacy rate and information-ability levels. This is really important for both underdeveloped and developed countries. Therefore education investments should be analyzed for understanding the effects on growth and development. For these purposes, we tested the long-run relationship between education investments and economic growth using cointegration technique. And then we interpreted the results.

2. Literature Review for Empirical Analysis

Economic growth specifies the increase in the economic activities' scale and per capita product, but economic development is related with the wealth level. In the development analysis average education year, expected lifetime, income allocation, nutrition is used to define development level. The relation between economic growth and development is result from the high correlation between the Gross National Product (GNP) and wealth criteria.

Scientific and technical information; enrollment rates, working age population’s education levels and education levels of pupils help to increase the economic growth and development in a country (Dura,1999:14). Theoretical structure of human investment was started by the T.W. Schultz. And then Denison, Becker, Harbison, Myers, Mincer, Psacharopoulos and R.J.Barro gave important contributions about human capital investment.
Schultz (1968) defined human capital investment as a useful abilities accumulation (Schultz, 1968: 277). According to this, human capital investments increase the production and efficiency. Therefore economic growth provides to increase economic growth, so human capital investments are important.

Education has consumption and production properties. The money which is paid for the education expenses is the consumption side of the education. On the other hand, educated people's increased productivity and contribution to the economic growth is the production side of the education. Because of these factors, increase in per capita income is related with human capital investments.

Denison (1962)'s growth approach is based on Cobb-Douglas production function. He investigated the relationship between development and education. He used growth accounting technique. This technique implies that if economic growth is related with capital and labor force, growth rates can be divided of these two factors. He found that the %23 percent of USA's economic growth rates were explained by the increase in the education level of labor force.

Psacharopoulos (1981) found that investments for the primary school enrollment at the less developed and developing countries had greater contribution than investments for the secondary school enrollment. Asteriou and Agiomirgianakis (2001) did time series analysis for Greece, and found cointegration between per capita income and primary, secondary and higher education enrolment rate. According to the Barro (1991), human capital is an important effect on economic growth. Based on the initial level of per capita GDP and policies of countries, when years of schooling increases, they growth fast. If developing countries increase human capital investments they can catch the developed countries.

There are some important contributions for Turkey. Studies which consider types of education and economic structure show that there is a strong relationship between per capita income and education type. They don’t find correlation between income level and primary or secondary school, but they found strong relationship between income level and higher education. In addition to this, changes in the economic structure cause to change education’s structure. For this reason, developing countries which establish new industries with transferring new technologies from the developed countries will need educated work force.

3. Cointegration Analysis for Turkey

In this paper for the cointegration results between the economic growth and education, we used Johansen and Juselius (1988, 1990) test. Our model is:

\[ gdp_t = a_0 + a_1 \text{ehar} + u_t \]

\( \text{ehar: education share of the budget} \)

\( \text{gdp: per capita real GDP} \)

\( u_t: \text{residual term} \)

If residual term is stationary, there is a long run relationship between the variables. However in case of short run, there is an error- correction mechanism which known as corrector the fault. (Engle and Granger, 1987).

In this context ECM \( \Delta gdp_t = a_0 + a_1 \Delta \text{ehar}_t + \delta u_t \) is formed as and if the coefficient of the error-correction term is statistically significant ,to see error-correction models (ECMs) work. Although Engle-Granger fairly easy to implement, approach has been criticized in some respects.

In this study, the value of variables given annually. These values are secondary and involves the term of 1980-2011. These datas are gathering from Turkish Statistical Institute (TurkStat) and Central Bank Electronic Data Distribution System and given in the table below. While the econometric estimates make, the logarithm of this variables take at the same time.

Table 1. Variables and Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gdp</td>
<td>Gross domestic product per capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prsec</td>
<td>Primary schooling rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>Secondary schooling rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highe</td>
<td>Higher schooling rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ehar</td>
<td>Education expenditure in budget</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The approach that takes into account the criticism to the Engle-Granger approach and other widely used method is the Johansen cointegration approach. For more information; Johansen, 1988; Johansen and Juselius, 1990.
3.1 Empirical Findings

In order to determine the direction of causality between variables, the first thing to be done, whether a long-term relationship between these variables is to determine. In other words, cointegration between education variables and economic growth (if any) must be determined. To do this, features of the time series of the variables are of great importance. Because while any problem is not observed in the results from the used series of stationary series, using non-stationary series may lead to obtain unreliable and economically difficult to interpret results. Therefore, before research the presence of cointegration, the time series properties of the variables used in the analysis are to be studied.

Features of the time series of the data was examined with Dickey-Fuller (DF) and Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test that are commonly used (Gujarati, 1999, Kutlar, 1998). DF and ADF unit root test results are given in Table 2.

Table 2. DF and ADF Unit Root Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient t-stat.</th>
<th>Delay Level</th>
<th>Critical Value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Δlog gdp</td>
<td>-5.79</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-3.7119</td>
<td>Stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δlog prsec</td>
<td>-4.94</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-3.7119</td>
<td>Stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δlog highe</td>
<td>-4.98</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-3.7347</td>
<td>Stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δlog high</td>
<td>-3.75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-3.0521</td>
<td>Stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δlog ehar</td>
<td>-3.97</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-3.0521</td>
<td>Stable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The estimated model includes constant and trend.

As can be observed in table 2; According to the ADF test results, all of the variables in the system, have first-difference stationary process. Accordingly, _ has a unit root in levels, but stagnated in the first differences of the variables, cointegration relationship can be ascertained.

Cointegration relationship, are both handled in the aggregate and, separately. Test results of the variables and the delay level can be viewed through the Table 3, because of the yearly cost is included and they are stabilized with the first difference. . Likelihood Ratio (LR) test indicates between the variables presence of the vector in two cointegrate. Accordingly; GDP per capita and higher education enrollment ratio GDP per capita and high school enrollment rate , according to the LR statistics, a long-term relationship is observed and margin of error of the equation is followed by a white-noise process.

Table 3. Cointegration Test Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Alternative Hypothesis</th>
<th>Trace Test Statistics</th>
<th>5% Critical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r=0</td>
<td>r≥1</td>
<td>72.226</td>
<td>53.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r=1</td>
<td>r≥2</td>
<td>38.039</td>
<td>34.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r=2</td>
<td>r≥3</td>
<td>17.000</td>
<td>19.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the Gdp and variables separately observed cointegration tests, can be viewed in Table 4. In the Table resid1, resid2, resid8 resid4 respectively; refers to the GDP's residuals that are obtained from highe, ehar, high and prsec regressions. Resid5; highe-gdp, resid6; high-gdp, resid7; ehar-gdp and resid9 indicates the residuals that are obtained from prsec-gdp regression.

Accordingly; The relationship between the variable gdp-hisghe and gdp-high is observed cointegration. We can define resid1 and resid5 which are derived from the observed residues of cointegration relationships between gdp and highe(resid1), gdp and high(resid5). So following equations are Error-Correction regression.

Table 4. Cointegration Test Results That Variables Considered Separately

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Resid1</th>
<th>Resid2</th>
<th>Resid4</th>
<th>Resid5*</th>
<th>Resid6</th>
<th>Resid7</th>
<th>Resid8</th>
<th>Resid9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gdp</td>
<td>-3.5750*</td>
<td>-1.8387</td>
<td>-2.7459*</td>
<td>2.7879</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highe</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.9696*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-4.4535*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ehar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-3.1622</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prsec</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.8869</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Is significant at the 1% level.
As can be seen from Table 5; according to the results from the equation; as resid1 variable coefficient was significant, long-term relationship between the two variables will be considered. Likewise because t statistic of the resid5 was significant, there is a long term relationship between variables. The same results also, applies to resid6 and resid4 obtained from the gdp-high regressions.

Table 5. Error-Correction Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dloggdpt</td>
<td>dloghighet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resid1(-1)</td>
<td>-1.6831 (-4.6331)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resid5(-1)</td>
<td>-0.3320 (-2.9158)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highe(-1)</td>
<td>-0.4310 (-2.2210)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-1)</td>
<td>0.6931 (2.5441)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-2)</td>
<td>0.8338 (2.9426)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-3)</td>
<td>0.8316 (2.9339)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-4)</td>
<td>0.2149 (0.5923)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gdp high</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resid4(-1)</td>
<td>-1.9172 (-3.8061)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resid6(-1)</td>
<td>-0.3016 (-1.7341)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-1)</td>
<td>0.9991 (2.2181)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-2)</td>
<td>1.3413 (2.9613)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp(-3)</td>
<td>0.6247 (2.4056)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high(-1)</td>
<td>0.9088 (4.5988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high(-2)</td>
<td>-0.4217 (-1.3140)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (t-statistics)

According to the results of the error-correction model, there is a mutual long-term causal relationship between the gdp-high and gdp-highe. Granger causality relationship between the other variables and gdp can be monitored from Table 6.

Table 6. Granger Causality Test Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>F - statics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prsec→gdp</td>
<td>2.3262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp→prsec</td>
<td>3.7528*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ehar→gdp</td>
<td>0.4283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gdp→ehar</td>
<td>0.5678</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Reject the hypothesis of there is no causality

As can be observed from the results presented in Table 6 -when taken four delay- only per capita GDP, has a Granger causal effect on the primary school enrollment rate.

4. Conclusion

The empirical results obtained from Turkey's annual data for the period 1980-2011, reveals the direction of causality vary according to the variables used. However, in detailed observations, between higher education and high school enrollment rate; and per capita national income long-term relationships were found. Also, according to causal relationship which we investigate by the error-correction model, mutual casual relationship was observed between mentioned variables. According to Granger causality test, only per capita national income has a causal effect on primary school enrollment rates. In short, enhancing aspects of education has been shown on economic growth. All of these results clearly shows us that, the funds allocated to education in the demographic structure, is extremely important elements for Turkey economic development. As subject has a social content, it imposes important responsibilities the state in this area.
Therefore, with the young and dynamic demographic structure, as a human capital-rich country, Turkey needs efficient education developments and enhancing social policies for avid and sustainable way of execution, for a growing Turkey. In other words, Turkey prepared to join the European Union needs to devote more resources to education considering with the rapid population growth and young population. Turkey in parallel with macro-economic stability, should correct the omissions of the years with devoting more resources to the education. This situation undoubtedly, will contribute to be perceived as an advantage for the EU’s future with the abilities, knowledge, education level and new technology adaptation points; rather than to be feared view with its population.

References


Accounting Web Reporting in Albania

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Abstract

Current scientific adjustments have had an outstanding encounter on the accounting and commercial environment. As supplementary states Albania has additionally been altered by events such as the progress towards employing accounting data packages, commercial web describing. Across this paper we endeavor to examine the present situation of accounting and commercial describing in Albania and the encounter that the web describing has had on the simplification of the accounting procedures. The research presents how instruments have impacted the use of the accounting arrangements and additionally supplementary describing institutions in Albania. Portraying the present progress of accounting services we give data on the portion of multimedia vendors in Albania. We find that cloud computing has been utilized extensively not merely by the confidential firms presenting accounting information’s arrangements, but additionally by supplementary firms in the area sector. An accounting information system is a system of collection, storage and processing of financial and accounting data that is used by decision makers. An accounting data arrangement is usually a computer-based method for pursuing accounting attention in conjunction alongside data knowledge resources. The emerging statistical reports can be utilized inside by association or externally by supplementary interested parties encompassing financiers, creditors and tax authorities. The actual physical mechanisms permit the AIS to work and present its functions. The research includes information for the usage of the internal controls and protection measures by the safeguard of the data in Albania.

Keywords: Accounting reporting system, information technology of accounting

1. Introduction

Initially, accounting data arrangements were predominantly industrialized “in-house” as legacy systems. Such resolutions were tough to develop and luxurious to maintain. Today, accounting data arrangements are extra usually vended as prebuilt multimedia packages from vendors such as Microsoft, Sage Group, SAP and Oracle whereas it is configured and customized to match the organization’s company processes. As the demand for connectivity and consolidation amid supplementary company arrangements increased, accounting data arrangements were merged alongside larger, extra centralized arrangements recognized as enterprise resource arranging. Before, alongside distinct requests to grasp disparate company purposes, associations had to develop convoluted interfaces for the arrangements to converse alongside every single other. In ERP, an arrangement such as accounting data arrangement is crafted as a module consolidated into a suite of requests that can contain producing, supply shackles, human resources. These modules are consolidated jointly and are able to admission the data and present convoluted company processes. With the ubiquity of ERP for companies, the word “accounting data system” has come to be far less concerning pure accounting and extra concerning pursuing procedures across all areas of business. Nowadays the technical change and the internet have altered nearly every single aspect of human life. They additionally have impacted the method deals are gave and the manner that the data on these deals is reported. Elevated and convoluted arrangements of data and contact have radically modified the world. Every single occupation, accounting encompassed, has modified because of the encounter of technology. Accounting frequently denoted to as the "information groundwork of the entity" has been one of the early spans whereas internet and web have modified nearly every single aspect. It is plausibly the period, as the new century is yet youthful, after the accountants have to comprehend the adjustments and changes that knowledge introduces in their occupation embrace these adjustments and exploit them to enhance the expertise level. They ought to additionally be mindful of the vital act they frolic as: data suppliers! for supplementary departments and people in the entity, who rely on accounting data to make precise and timely decisions. Frequently the accounting and commercial data incline to be not symmetrically public amid the interested parties. Therefore the knowledge events ought to be in the focus of the discussion of how they can be utilized to aid enhancing the quality and speed of data processing and communication. Consequently the focus of this paper is to debate and examine the rank of the web describing, one of the present trends in commercial and accounting information. We will delineate the present situation of the accounting data arrangements in Albania and how they are evolving towards being utilized above the internet. A distinct emphasize of our discussion will
be on the degree that these changes have by now been gave in Albania and how far the innate professionals are cognizant of them. The paper is coordinated as follows. In the early serving we will make a short works study concentrating extra on the aftermath of preceding studies led in web describing, cloud computing or XBRL in Albania, alongside Albanian people and companies. In the subsequent serving we will present the accounting multimedia utilized nowadays in the globe categorized according the scope of options they proposal and of sequence their cost. We will additionally familiarize a little of the Albanian accounting multimedia and a little ERP resolutions presented to internal and to external firms by Albanian merchants. Subsequent we will debate concerning the accounting and commercial web describing situation in Albania. Below this serving a short discussion concerning the use of different systems in Albania is additionally provided. Precisely we focus in the use of the hosted accounting data arrangements and how they are obtaining prop.

2. Literature Review

Attempting to study all the extant works on web accounting should be useful. Supplementary such reviews do continue, (see, for example, Epstein, 2006; Schaltegger, 2006; Gray et al., 2003; Gray and Bebbington, forthcoming), but these have a larger practitioner, rather than chiefly researcher, emphasis. Consequently, our coverage emphasizes the intellectual works alongside far less attention on the (now burgeoning) expert literature. Further, usually find it convenient to contemplate of accounting as including a number of themes. In order to give the study construction, the research indicates mainly established brief overview of the accounting literature software’s around these themes. The present inspection works on communal accounting is yet a slight sparse but examples exist. The Adams/Roberts undertaking has maintained a focus across both communal and environmental disclosure (Adams et al., 2008; and Gray et al., 2005; and Hackston and Milne, 2006). Work by Roberts (2002), Pinkston and Carroll (2006), Patten (2005), Epstein and Freedman (2004), Mathews (2005) and Robertson and Nicholson (2006) endures to retain the communal responsibility/accounting debate advancing forward whilst, simultaneously, we are commencing to discern a re-emergence of normative work projected to escort how communal accounting could be accomplished and what it could gaze like (Zadek et al., 2007; Gray et al., 2007; Gonella et al., 2008). Albania, as a growing state, is endeavoring to appeal external investments and in this context the Internet and supplementary technical changes craft good opportunities to converse commercial data in accordance alongside necessities for transparency and the timely describing on the portion of financiers (Lamani & Cepani 2011). Technical events are altering the accounting occupation extra and extra every single day. It is impossible to work inside the accounting and commercial earth and not to be exposed to, or to be needed to understand and work alongside technologies such as Electronic Fund Transfer, Point of Sales, Automatic Teller Machine, Electronic Data Interchange and Wireless Frequency Identification Device. These and others as well, have radically transformed the accounting and finance occupation across the present decades. These technologies have by now vanquished the barriers amid industrialized and growing states and have attained huge agreement and use even in states alongside a short past in the marketplace economy such as Albania. Assorted accounting multimedia and commercial describing resolutions are nowadays additionally presented above internet, whichever across cloud computing or as an easy hosted solution. Countless firms, large firms and additionally tiny ones are employing the web describing resolution as an initiative that helps them to save prices, to raise the quality of describing and to enhance the data protection (Zeneli 2013). In finished knowledge has modified the method the commercial and accounting data is exchanged and how the aftermath and interpretations are reported. In this context the Cloud Calculating comes as a method to exploit the resources that instead of being installed in a specific host are public across internet. The users of cloud ought to not be specialists alongside urbane technical vision, and neither do they demand to oversee the groundwork and grasp the resources on the cloud. Firms in the commercial sector (either banks or insurance companies) and colossal firms versus medium sized or tiny entities incline to report extra data on the Internet. Bonson & Escobar, (2012) in their discover that includes at least a dozen of Eastern European states report that a statistically momentous connection exists amid the extent of data disclosure on the Internet and firm size, the company’s attention being in the commercial sector, and the fact of retaining one of the world’s Large Four accountancy firms for auditing the company's books. This period is believed to boost and enhance the accounting data transition on the web and should additionally raise the data transparency exceptionally considering the capital marketplaces, (Noel, 2001). Plausibly due to the reason that the capital marketplace in Albania is not alert, or even to supplementary reasons, the XBRL period even nevertheless quite recognized by the professionals is not yet gave as a viable and available option amid the firms in Albania (Selenica, 2009). Studies have exposed that people as well as firms are extremely sensitive considering the protection of the data sent above the web. Cepani (2012) reports that on average 62% of the people encompassed in internet data transactions in Albania are extremely distressed concerning the privacy of information. We could quite imply an equal or even bigger
rate amid companies.

3. **Accounting Information Systems and their Application**

An accounting data arrangement is the combination of workers, records and procedures that a company uses to encounter its demand for commercial information. Most firms have an accounting manual that specifies the strategies and procedures to be pursued in amassing data inside the accounting data system. This manual features what events are to be recorded in the reports, and after and how the data is to be categorized and accumulated. A competent accounting data arrangement ought to accomplish the pursuing objectives:

- To procedure the data effectually at the least price
- To protect entity’s assets, to safeguard that data are reliable, and to minimize wastes and the potential of theft or fraud
- To be in harmony alongside the entities organizational and human factors
- To be able to accommodate development in the volume of deals and for organizational adjustments
- Organizations have countless options as selecting the accounting data arrangement adapted to their operations. They could whichever apply a customized arrangement tailored for their needs, or could select an off-the-shelf accounting request that is anticipated to gratify its arrangement specifications and criteria. The last option needs the association to examine the features of the accounting multimedia that are by now presented in the market.

The accounting multimedia plans presented in the marketplace could be gathered below four main categories:

1. *The easy accounting multimedia*: considered to be low-end plans able to procedure merely the frank accounting transactions
2. *Medium packages*: (these are mid-range plans extra urbane and that can be bought and installed or utilized across hosted resolution or cloud computing)
3. *Enumerated accounting multimedia*: (these elevated conclude customized packages are tailored to encounter the needs for data in specific industries such as hostelry or not-for profit organizations.
4. *Enterprise-wide multimedia*: (the ERP solution), that are not easy accounting multimedia but additionally have incorporated.

The biggest benefit from requesting an ERP, even though it's extremely elevated prices, is that it is not merely accounting multimedia but it additionally fulfills the demand for data of supplementary departments of the entity like the creation, marketing, human resources etc. Requesting ERP way an ongoing reorganization of the inner procedures of the firm and enhancing cooperation alongside company partners. It is a real reengineering and steady revolutionarization of the hobbies of the enterprise. The managing providers of accounting multimedia packages in Albania are the Institute of Company Modeling (IMB), Infosoft Multimedia Developer, and TPK-Solutions. Precisely Albanian companies can select to buy external produce that afterward they can change to apply and to comply alongside specific Albanian laws and regulations. This option is favored by a little colossal company in Albania, whose attention has been quite specific, like the Albanian Domination Firm, the Coffer Arrangement, and of sequence banks, insurance firms and non-profit organization. IMB was instituted in 1991 by three professors of the University of Tirana, but it was merely in 1996 that it presented its early product the Alpha Accounting. Pursuing they dispatched Alpha PMR in 1998, Telenet in 1999, AlphaNet in 2000, AlphaNet Mobile in 2001, Alpha Water Bill in 2002, Alpha Shop in 2003, Alpha RestoBar in 2004, Alpha Platinum in 2005 and in 2006 Mesonic WINLine. Amid the produce tabulated above Alpha Platinum and Alpha Accounting are extra extensively used. Alpha Accounting is a normal resolution for tiny firms as the Alpha Platinum is projected for medium and colossal enterprises and is believed to be an easy-ERP. IMB in collaboration alongside Mesonic has presently given in Albanian marketplace WINLine a maximum ERP arrangement that has been the choice of countless large Albanian corporations. Meanwhile, the supplementary firm InfoSoft Multimedia Builder Finance presently proposals Financa 5.0 that till 2003 continued in its preceding edition Financa 4.0. The last utilized to work in MS-DOS period as Financa 5.0 is presented in Windows working arrangement and relies on a extra user-friendly interface than its predecessor. It works alongside SQL an influential speech of data management. InfoSoft Multimedia Builder Currently additionally proposals supplementary produce such as Onufri 2.0 that manages the traditional assets in our country. Produce pursuing in 2008 were Bilanc 2008 Express and Bilanc 2008 Average. This firm, the newest on the marketplace has by now enticed nearly 200 clients concerning the country. Even though the newest firm TPKSolutions was the early to proposal in 2011 the web hosting resolution as an option of employing accounting multimedia versus buying the maximum package. Prior to this product its competitor, the IMB had presented the web-reporting feature on its applications. Produce presented by the three firms remarked above are aimed chiefly for tiny and medium enterprises
that have generally a manufacturing or business character, positioned in sectors like transactions, producing, diners, bars, etc. The investment sector inclines to apply data arrangements crafted specifically for banks and tailored to fulfill their specific demand for information. The produce utilized by most Albanian banks is three, the FlexCube Resolution (Intesa San Paolo, BKT, Coalition Bank), BOS (BIS and Nationwide Bank) and Midas (Raiffeisen Bank).

4. Accounting and Financial Web Retorting in Albania

Financial and accounting web describing is by now gave in Albania and is obtaining credit and prop amid the company community. Countless power bodies and associations, banks and supplementary commercial institutions as well as countless confidential firms (big and medium sized) are employing web describing solutions. Two main factors that have gave to enable and accelerate the progress of the web describing period, not merely in Albania but additionally overseas are the cloud computing and XBRL web describing language.

4.1 XBRL position in Albania

Web-reporting is frequently believed as supplementary feature for firms that use established describing rather than substituting it. One of the methods the web describing could come to be effectual is tapping on the gains that XBRL use has introduced. Extensible Company Reporting Speech is a contact average for electronic describing of company information. The commercial data can be sent employing a collection of formats HTML, PDF, hard copy. XBRL aims to furnish a solitary contact standard. XBRL is established on an easy expression that contact is extra competent and effectual if anybody uses the like language. The main aim of XBRL is to enable associations to expend less period in arranging the data and extra period analyzing therefore enhancing the decision-making process. XBRL has the possible to raise the quality of web-based describing because of the standardization of labeling and tagging. XBRL can impact the decision making procedure of its users and reduces the prices of research. Though, accomplishment depends on two factors:

1. Quality and speed of data processing
2. Progress of web technology

These two factors raise flexibility and comparability of the described data, therefore raising its value. Commercial aftermath of XBRL is clear: XBRL provides an influential revisit on investment, in particular by cutting the prices of producing and consuming information. It is a flexible resolution that facilitates the transactions of data, coordinated contact, and speeds up the transport of data and increases the transparency of described information. XBRL is an advantageous knowledge that could be prosperously adapted by the power associations, commercial sector and large companies. Although its good outlook as of 2011, a discover led inside the commercial sector discovered that none of the banks and insurance firms working in Albania uses the XBRL period to report commercial and accounting information. One discover concentrated on the rank of XBRL resolution in Albania discovered that even nevertheless XBRL is not presently requested it is a believed by now recognized by the accountants and supplementary accounting and auditing professionals. 56% of the interviewed answered that they have vision concerning XBRL, and that this data was generally consented across their intellectual studies and not by their useful work or useful trainings. Nevertheless, afterward clarified what XBRL way for the accounting earth, 93% of the interviewed professionals uttered that XBRL is demanded to be requested in Albania. The alike discover counseled assorted institutions that could benefit from XBRL implementation such as the Tax Powers (33% of the interviewed), the Commercial Supervision Powers (28%), the Registrar of Firms (19%) and Department of Finances (9%) (The staying 12% is embodied by Institute of Statistics and Nationwide Accounting Council). Given the aftermath of the above discover we could finish that requesting XBRL, even nevertheless and by now popularized believed amid the professionals in the earth seems too distant for the Albanian reality. Nevertheless this ought to not impede supplementary forms and methods of web describing to be developed. In the pursuing servings the cloud computing situation in Albania is gave and supplementary web describing resolutions presented by innate companies.

5. Web Reporting Packages Offered by Albanian Vendors

IMB (Albanian Institute of Company Modeling), early went in the marketplace alongside a plan of its own shouted "Alpha Accounting", in 1997. IMB is presently the biggest "Software House" in the state in the earth of multimedia progress for company and area association, in words of employees' number and marketplace position. IMB has industrialized a scope of plans, according to marketplace necessities, accounting standards and the latest software design technologies. Every
3 to 4 months they come up alongside a new edition of software. The scope of produce includes multimedia for accounting, commercial association, human resources association, undertaking association, etc. Requests are tailored to tiny, medium and colossal companies, according to the kind of their activity: transactions, producing, assembly, services, area ability, etc. As 2009, IMB has dispatched Alpha Web Reports request, a novelty for the Albanian multimedia market. Across this request, each authorized user of Alpha Platinum (the latest edition of Alpha Accounting) can admission his firm records, at each period, from each locale endowed that has admission to the Internet. How does it work? Early Alpha Web Reports is installed on the firm server (where the database and Alpha. Platinum server request is installed). Next user entitlements are configured to ascertain that persons who will have admission to the firm record across this program. After this is completed, each authorized user alongside a easy internet connection can produce commercial and association reports online. All these reports can be customized across the use of filters. As the main concern of this resolution is data protection, Alpha Web Reports furnish maximum protection and manipulation in grasping online reports. This assurance is endowed in countless ways.

After this early prosperous pace, IMB has lately gave its early genuine cloud resolution shouted Alpha Web. Alpha Web performs nearly the alike tasks as the desktop edition Alpha Onset (the simpler edition of Alpha Accounting) completely adequate for tiny and medium companies, but Alpha Web is easier to use and extra flexible to the collection of company requirements. Alpha Web Onset is a web request that works across the Internet as well as LAN (local network). To admission it, a user needs just password and a humble PC. This request saves period and money because:

- Does not need luxurious mechanisms (servers)
- It works on each period (Windows, Macintosh, Linux), even on mobile phones
- Maintenance and notify are automatically gave online
- Offers a easy and intuitive user interface

Alpha Web Onset in the end resolves the subject of contact amid remote points of sales and creation, warehouses and suppliers, official sectors, etc. One more multimedia provider in the earth of accounting and commercial association is Bilanci sh.p.k., preceding TPKSolutions. The firm was created in 2004 and is nowadays present in above 900 firms and institutions alongside its applications. It provides resolutions for its clients all above Albania and Kosovo. Its produce contain above 12 multimedia requests, all of them in the earth of company administration. The latest product of this firm is Bilanc Online. This plan like its competitor Alpha Web is established on cloud knowledge and proposals all the functionality of a desktop request, plus admission to the data via the web interface. Unlike Alpha Web that functionality is established on desktop edition Alpha Onset (the most frank desktop edition industrialized by IMB), Bilanc Online seems to relish the rank of the most elevated desktop edition (Bilanc Profesional) produced by Bilanc sh.p.k., plus provides real-time data admission via the Internet. As for the supplementary benefits asserted by the firm it can be said that they are quite comparable to those of Alpha Web, that in the end are benefits of cloud technology?

6. Main Findings

The established commercial and accounting data processing and consequently the act of the accountant have modified considerably because of the use of cloud computing, XBRL and some supplementary changes that permit larger flexibility and admission on data. Nowadays, relieved from the burden of recapped manual work of recording and resolving deals; accountants can instead focus their period and efforts towards elucidating and conversing information. This new act that the data knowledge has helped crafting have to be well understood by the accountants and embraced by them, so that the encounter of this occupation ought to not perish but rather be strengthened. In this paper we have debated concerning the new technologies that have gave main makeovers in accounting and commercial reporting. We present the cloud computing and XBRL, how they have penetrated the Albanian marketplace, how far they are recognized and in what extent they are being utilized by the accounting professionals.

We additionally examine the expansion of use of web describing in accounting. Given that two out of three main vendors of accounting packages in Albania by now furnish cloud computing services we difference the gains of this use of employing the accounting packages. Cloud services have additionally obtained credit and comprehensive use inside the education sector in Albania. These could intensely alter the accounting and commercial landscape in Albania and have an encounter on the necessities gave for the professionals of the field. On the supplementary side for countless years nowadays the Albanian firms are liable to file their commercial statements alongside the Registrar of the Companies. This association could be benefiting from the experience of supplementary states and could ponder the use of present technologies like the web-reporting and even the implementation of XBRL speech so that the data format is consistent. This initiative should be the commencing point of crafting a collection of finished databases alongside past commercial statements of firms that are obtainable in supplementary states and extremely helpful for scrutiny purposes. XBRL might
additionally be utilized for describing alongside the Taxation Powers and the Bank of Albania. All the present technical events call for larger attention by the accounting and commercial professionals so they can capitalize on these adjustments and not be challenging them. As the knowledge facilitates the data meeting and processing, the data becomes extra adjacent and consequently rising and in the alike period changing considerably the act of the professionals.

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Social Capital and IT Capital as a Factors Creating the Society of Knowledge

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1. Introduction

All social capital theories refer to social factors, resources and relationships between those factors. What differentiates them in the detailed layer is the question, what aspects they highlight, what theory they use, which general paradigms they are based on. The theories differ with regard to the fact, if they highlight individual or collective/corporate actors (family, class, organization, group of neighbors, nation) as social capital “owners.” Resources are another important aspect of social capital; they can considerably differ from each other in financial, cultural, psychological, social, or political terms. The third component involves relationships between the actors. It is probably central element of the concept, since it helps to single out social capital definitions. From the above it follows, that social capital can be restricted to less or more closed networks (class, family, persons), or it can have an impact beyond the observable networks of individual and collective actors (town district, town, province).

2. Definition of Information Society

The information society is such a society, where information has become the most important element of life in possession of information which determines the possession of power (Van Dijk, 2010: 367). Jerzy Stanislaw Nowak (2006: 25-49) in his article “Information Society - origins and definitions”, presents a number of definitions, which indicate that the information society is characterized by the ability to process information through the use of modern technology. The term information society appeared for the first time in 50 years of the twentieth century, in the context of the analysis of the U.S. economy sector, made by Fritz Machlup. In his work, he predicted that the sector of information services will be the fastest growing sector, which will mean that the United States will become a society dependent on knowledge and information. The next step in the development of the information society have been 70 years of the twentieth century, when modern technology has enabled the computerization of many works. According to Tomasz Goban-Class and Peter Sienkiewicz most important for this concept is to link the computers with the means of communication, which in a way beneficial effect on the efficiency of intellectual property and controlled by its production and distribution of goods (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999: 53). Therefore, they define the information society as one that: not only has developed measures of information processing and communication, but the processing of information is the basis for the creation of national income and provides a source of income for most of society (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999: 53). Features information society perfectly presented Daniel Bell describing the post-industrial society, which is characterized by:

1) Domination of the service sector in the economy, as well as the fourth sector (ie, insurance and finance) and fifth (ie, science, education, health).
2) increase the importance of professionals and researchers in the occupational structure.
3) The meaning of theoretical knowledge as a source of innovation.
4) By setting to control the development of technology.
5) the creation of new intellectual technologies that will form the basis for decision-making social and political (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999: 53).

These traits also indicate the information society plan Yoneji Masudy - the plan to create an information society as a national goal for 2000, in which he stressed the importance of raising the intellectual capacity of people, computerization of education and create a computer network (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz, 1999: 53).

In the context of education there has been a shift from individuals master in agrarian society, through an increase
in the importance of education in industrial society, to a significant share of computers in education in the information society (Goban-Klas, Sienkiewicz 1999-1954).

3. Knowledge Society

The concept of the knowledge society is a broader scope as the name of the information society, because the knowledge gained in the long process of cognition, using research methods, resulting in it shall be revealed, and thus creates information. Writing about the knowledge society, the authors of the work they have in mind mainly scientific knowledge, in the form of innovation, which is the basis of social learning processes (Lis 2013: 15-20). The development of social knowledge is dependent on academic merit, their distribution by educational systems, the popularization of the use of modern information and communication technologies (Kulpińska, 2008: 27). Can therefore be assumed that the knowledge society combines the information society and knowledge economy. It can also be defined by three dimensions: 1) the development of science, education and technology; 2) complex formation and distribution of knowledge for economic purposes; and 3) the institutions of learning. A man living in a knowledge society must be mobile and actively participate in the creation of the reality around him, he should also move freely in the sheer volume of information coming to him. Member of the knowledge society should be able to distinguish useful information from the information "junk", because as far as the information reaches the most people in the world, this knowledge is still the privilege of the few (Lis 2013: 20-24). Such a society can be divided into the following features:

1. Setting members of the public to learn throughout life.
2. Increase the number of knowledge workers, or creative practitioners.
3. Creation of scientific knowledge for practice.
4. Rely on the economy and policy knowledge.
5. The existence of intelligent organization and intelligent goods (Lis 2013: 20-24).

4. Digital Competences

As digital competences can be determined skillful and critical use of information society technology for work, leisure and communication. They are based on basic skills in ICT: the use of computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet (Piecuch 2012).

In the literature can be found also the division into:

1. Information literacy
2. Informatics literacy
3. Digital literacy

Information Literacy (information literacy - IL) can be defined as a complex set of capabilities necessary to recognize when information is needed and required that the entity could recognize the need for information, it knew how to locate, evaluate, and use effectively. In the context of new media competence can be understood as information selection, gathering information and creating information. It is connected with the change of the model of participation in the media and the transition from a passive recipient of content to prosumer. The prosumer concept has been described by Alvin Toffler in his book "The Third Wave" published in the 70s XX century. Syntactically, it is a combination of the English word professional or producer with the consumer. As indicated A. Toffler (2006), prosumer is more than a consumer. This is a person who has a vast knowledge of products and services related to the favorite brand and communicate this knowledge to others. It's someone who wants to have an active part in the development of products and services and has a higher brand awareness when making purchasing decisions. In other words, the prosumer is an active consumer who is not just a passive recipient of advertising materials. Way to stimulate the customer to action is to make the prosumer, ie co-participant of the product and its promotion. Prosumer is a partner of the manufacturer, and communication with him reminds continuous dialogue.

Informatical literacy can be defined as the ability to use technology in everyday life. On the competences consists of a good knowledge and ability to use the so-called. information society technologies (IST) in various situations: at work, at leisure, as a communication tool. Based on the basic skills: using computers and other media to capture, assess, collect, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in networking. Podstawą jest: rozumienie i znajomość głównych aplikacji komputerowych (MS Word, MS Excel, baz danych, archiwizowanie informacji), świadomość możliwości, jakie daje korzystanie z Internetu i komunikowanie się przy użyciu mediów elektronicznych (email, videokonferencje). Istotne jest również sprawne rozpoznawanie różnic pomiędzy światem rzeczywistym i wirtualnym, oraz rozumienie potencjału IST jako wsparcia kreatywności i innowacyjności w rozwoju osobistym (Sysło
5. Social Capital – Terms and Concepts

In various academic publications, there are many definitions of social capital. One can, however, try to look for some common elements of different social capital theories. Such generalization was conducted by John Field in his book: Social Capital. Key Ideas (Field, 2003). All social capital theories refer to social factors, resources and relationships between those factors. What differentiates them in the detailed layer is the question, what aspects they highlight, what theory they use, which general paradigms they are based on. The theories differ with regard to the fact, if they highlight individual or collective/corporate actors (family, class, organization, group of neighbors, nation) as social capital “owners.” Resources are another important aspect of social capital; they can considerably differ from each other in financial, cultural, psychological, social, or political terms. The third component involves relationships between the actors. It is probably central element of the concept, since it helps to single out social capital definitions. From the above it follows, that social capital can be restricted to less or more closed networks (class, family, persons), or it can have an impact beyond the observable networks of individual and collective actors (town district, town, province).

For the first time, the term social capital was used “not by some cloistered theoretician, but by a practical reformer of the Progressive Era – Lyda J. Hanifan, state supervisor of rural schools in West Virginia. Writing in 1916 to urge the importance of community involvement for successful schools, Hanifan invoked the idea of «social capital» to explain why” (Putnam, 2008, pp. 33-34). It is commonly believed, however, that the broad interest in social capital was initiated by theoretical systematization of that term by four authors: Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman, Robert Putnam, and Francis Fukuyama.

The first systematic analysis of the term social capital was developed by Pierre Bourdieu. Let us point out, that that French sociologist defines social capital as “sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an entity or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2001, p. 105). Due to being part of a network, the entity gains access to the capital owned by all network members who are linked together by the relations of mutual trust. The social capital asset owned by an entity depends on the size of network that the entity is able to mobilize effectively, on the scope of the capital (symbolical, economic, cultural) owned by every person, that the given entity is linked with, as well as on the amount and quality of those resources (Rymsza, 2007, p. 24). According to Bourdieu, social capital is one of three forms of capital, which can be used in order to gain and maintain the privileged position within the field (meaning a complex, defined as a network of objective, historical relations between positions anchored in some particular forms of power or capital). The field – just that specific position is the stake in the game. The author defines, however, forms of capital in a dynamic manner, regarding “game strategies” as activities aimed, first of all, at conversion of capitals (Theiss, 2007, p. 17). Social capital in terms of Bourdieu gives the individuals access to other forms of capital – economic or cultural ones. It is also a rational investment of economic or cultural resources.

James Coleman is another outstanding theoretician that researched the concept of social capital. He used for the first time in a scientific study the term “social capital”. Coleman is the author of definition that is regarded as the classical definition for the entire systematic approach to social capital defined as an economic perspective (theory of rational action) (Trutkowski & Mandes, 2005). It was presented in his most famous work, Foundations of Social Theory (Coleman, 1990), in which the system of sociology is based on rational choice theory. In that work, the author rejects the approach of neoclassical economics, according to which the individual strives exclusively to maximization of utility, as well as the sociological tradition that the essential causative power in respect of human actions ascribes to socially shaped standards (Theiss, 2007, p. 14). Coleman regarded social capital as “ability of humans to cooperation within groups and organizations of common interests” (Fukuyama, 1997). According to the American sociologist, social capital can be regarded as “a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within that structure. Like other forms of capital, social capital is productive, making possible the achievement of certain ends that would not be attainable in its absence.” (Coleman, 1988, p. 98). According to J. Coleman, social capital is a feature of social relationships structure supporting the concrete actions of actors conducted within that structure (Theiss, 2007, p. 14).

The third great theoretician of social capital concept – Robert Putnam – can be regarded as continuator of James Coleman’s thought. Putnam defined social capital as “features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Putnam, 1997, p. 31). However, the term social capital is used by him in a different context than by Coleman, since he attempts to find out what factors cause that twenty years after the administrative reform establishing in Italy regional governments, a significant differentiation concerning the
level of their efficiency and effectiveness can be observed (Theiss, 2007, p. 16). According to Putnam, the decisive role in the success of North Italian regions and failure of South Italian ones plays the social capital consisting of “values of associate life within the given society such as networks, standards and trust – those values make it possible for the members of the given society to increase the effectiveness of common actions and achieve objectives shared by them in a more efficient way” (Putnam, 1995, p. 56). One of the most characteristic features of social capital including trust, standards, networks of associations, is the fact, that unlike other forms of capital, it is usually public and not private good and, like other public goods, it is underinvested and not sufficiently appreciated by entities (Rymńska, 2007, p. 31). But trust is regarded by Robert Putnam as the most important component of social capital.

The fourth prominent theoretician of social capital issues is Francis Fukuyama. He occupies himself with social capital problems by analyzing the impact of culture on economy. In his publication, Trust, The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity, he argues that prosperity of a country and its ability to economic competitiveness depend on the trust level of its inhabitants (Fukuyama, 1997). It is understood as a mechanism based on the assumption, that other members of a given community feature honest and cooperative behavior based on commonly followed standards that can be derived from religious sources, legal regulations or customs.

On the other hand, social capital is defined by F. Fukuyama as ability (potential) resulting from the prevalence of trust within the society or a part of it. It can be a feature of family, nation and intermediate groups. Its most important function is the creation of new relationships between people or social groups and acting in accordance with standards defined by them. Trust is based on the assumption that other members of a given community feature honest and cooperative behavior based on commonly followed standards that can be derived from religious sources, legal regulations or customs (Theiss, 2007, p. 18). According to Fukuyama: social capital is an instantiated informal norm that promotes cooperation between two individuals, or a greater number of them (Fukuyama, 2001, p. 13)

6. Social Capital as a Factors Creating the Society of Knowledge

Formal membership in one of the officially existing associations is one of social capital aspects. However, it often is regarded as a useful barometer of social involvement. Advantages of associations were already described by Alexis de Tocqueville, who, giving the example of American society, stated as follows: Americans of all ages, all conditions, all minds constantly unite. Not only do they have commercial and industrial associations in which all take part, but they also have a thousand other kinds: religious, moral, grave, futile, very general and very particular, immense and very small […] Thus the most democratic country on earth is found to be, above all, the one where men in our day have most perfected the art of pursuing the object of their common desires in common and have applied this new science to the most objects (Tocqueville, 1996, p. 116). Also Robert Putnam states that civil associations contribute to effectiveness and stability of a democratic government due both to their “internal” impact on individual members and “external” effect on the wider community. By their internal influence, associations instill their members into habits of cooperation, solidarity and thinking about social issues. By their external impact, the dense network of secondary connections strengthens “what political scientists have called interest articulation and interest aggregation” (Putnam, 1995, p. 137). For most theoreticians not only one of the features, i.e. association of citizens, but the generally recognized social capital is the essence of civil society, and for sure a developmentally effective society (Czapiński & Panek, 2007, p. 257).

Trust is an essential component of social capital and one of its most precious types (Sztompka, 2007, p. 244). For many theoreticians, it is the key category and value, and its presence proves a high social capital level (Szawiel, 2006). As highlighted by Andrzej Sadowski, the high level of social trust between people occurring within families and voluntary established social institutions and organizations results in inhabitants’ readiness to take up cooperation, team work, in order to achieve specified objectives. Robert Putnam, one of the promoters of the term social capital, turned his attention to the relationship between social capital and trust. As we remember, he defined the term social capital as: “features of social organizations, such as trust, norms and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions” (Putnam, 1995, p. 258). Putnam clearly emphasized that trust is “an essential component of social capital” (Putnam, 1995, p. 264). Trust is, first of all, the result of positive experience related to civil cooperation and possibility to propagate that kind of knowledge among other people; that is why possibilities available to communities concerning dissemination of such information are important for the level of social capital (Lewenstein, 2006, p. 165).

Summing up many years of empirical research and theoretical analyses conducted by various researchers, David Halpern concluded that “trust and reliability are the significant aspect of normatively understood social capital” (Sztompka, 2007, pp. 244-245). Many empirical studies regard the trust level as one of the simplest and single indicators of social capital. According to Piotr Sztompka, a strong justification of such action was delivered by Putnam, who conducted a comparative research on the social capital level in a dozen of US states. For the purpose of that research, he developed
a complex social capital index, including such components as membership in voluntary associations, attendance at their meetings, participation in public meetings, mass meetings, etc., taking up voluntary activities for the benefit of community, organization of parties for friends, attendance at such parties, participation in elections and generalized trust. It turned out that the strongest correlation occurs between the acceptance by respondents of the notion: “You can trust most people” – an indicator of generalized trust, and other index components. In consequence, trust must be considered as the nucleus of social capital (Sztompka, 2007, p. 245).

According to Robert Putnam’s argumentation, being a citizen in a community means, first of all, an active participation in public matters (Putnam, 1995, p. 133). It is difficult not to agree with this statement. Another academic, Michael Walzer, wrote about the need of civic in-volvement as follows: “public interest issues and dedication to public purposes are key signs of civic virtues” (Walzer, 1980). Civic engagement and willingness to cooperation for the ben-eft of society are essential features of social capital. The higher the level of willingness to tak-ing up common actions, the higher are chances for development and a better functioning of society. According to statement of the previously mentioned Robert Putnam, “networks of civic engagement foster sturdy norms of generalized reciprocity, […] facilitate communication and improve the flow of information. And the better the flow of information between part-ners, both direct and indirect ones, the greater is their mutual trust and easier the cooperation (Putnam, 1995, p. 270).

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Older People Quality of Life Evaluation

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Abstract

Lately world well-known problem, ageing population is starting to turn into an issue for our country, Albania, as Europe is dealing with it years go. In Albania the number of elderly is increasing by about 2 % per year and the various culture and social problems facing society are burdening elderly situation. Changes from one regime to another are accompanied with change of life rhythm, change of family structure, culture differences and perception on how thinks should be. This study has its main focus on testing elderly quality of live in Tirana, as a forgoing study assessing the quality of life of older people across the Albania country. Quality of life of older people in Tirana result low and this brings the need for more attention to the elderly issue. Orientations of all academics and policymakers are focusing towards identifying effective elements and mechanisms to improve the situation of the elderly.

Keywords: elderly, quality of life, Tirana.

1. Introduction

Old age comprises "the later part of life; the period of life after youth and middle age . . ., usually with reference to deterioration. When old age begins cannot be universally defined because it shifts according to the context. The United Nations has agreed that 60+ years may be usually denoted as old age, and this is the first attempt at an international definition of old age. However, for Africa, the World Health Organization set 50 as the beginning of old age that because the general socio-cultural and demographic context is a determination element for conceptual stratification. At the same time, the WHO recognized that the developing world often defines old age, not by years, but by new roles, loss of previous roles, or inability to make active contribution to society. Most developed Western countries set the age of 60 to 65 for retirement and old-age social programs eligibility. However, various countries and societies reckon the onset of old age as anywhere from the mid-40s to the 70s. Furthermore, the fact that life expectancy beyond 80 has become widespread has shifted definitions of old age. For this study we have been referred for old age those persons who are 65+ years. In Albania portion of old people is increasing rapidly with a percentage of nearly 2 a year. According to the last census (2011) 9.8% of Albanian resident population meets the age requirement and in Tirana there are 76705 persons 65 + from 749365 in total (that's nearly the same portion with that of total population). According to the Albanian National Statistics Progressions actually perceptual of elderly people is nearly 13 %.

The ageing process is, of course, a biological reality which has its own dynamic, largely beyond human control. However, it is also subject to the constructions by which each society makes sense of old age. In the developed world, chronological time plays a paramount role. The age of 60 or 65 years, roughly equivalent to retirement ages in most developed countries, is said to be the beginning of old age. In many parts of the developing world, chronological time has little or no importance in the meaning of old age. Other socially constructed meanings of age are more significant, such as the roles assigned to older people; in some cases it is the loss of roles accompanying physical decline which are significant in defining old age. Gerontologists in many studies have recognized the very different conditions that people experience as they grow older within the years defined as old age. In the United States, most people in their 60s and 70s are in the best shape they have known. However, by their 80s most of these people will become frail, a condition marked by serious mental and physical debilitation.

That why, some gerontologists have recognized the diversity of old age by defining sub-groups. One study
distinguishes the young old (60 to 69), the middle old (70 to 79), and the very old (80+) (Rockwood K, Mitnitski A 2011). Another study’s sub-grouping is young-old (65 to 74), middle-old (75–84), and oldest-old (85+) (Tsai SY, Chi LY, Lee Ch, Chou P. 2007). A third sub-grouping is “young old” (65-74), “old” (74-84), and “old-old” (85+) (Otero-Rodriguez A, Leon-Munoz LM, Balboa-Castillo T, Banegas JR, Rodriguez-Artalejo F, Guallar-Castillon P 2010).

Old age comprises the four dimensions: chronological, biological, psychological, and social (Masel MC, Ostir GV, Ottenbacher KJ 2010). Chronological age may differ considerably from a person’s functional age. The distinguishing marks of old age normally occur in all five senses at different times and different rates for different persons (Bowling A 2009). In addition to chronological age, people can be considered old because of the other three dimensions of old age. For example, people may be considered old when they become grandparents or when they begin to do less or different work in retirement (Bowling A, Stenner P 2011).

Quality of life (QOL) is the general well-being of individuals and societies. QOL has a wide range of contexts, including the fields of international development, healthcare, and politics. Quality of life should not be confused with the concept of standard of living, which is based primarily on income. Instead, standard indicators of the quality of life include not only wealth and employment but also the built environment, physical and mental health, education, recreation and leisure time, and social belonging. According to ecological economist Robert Costanza: While Quality of Life (QOL) has long been an explicit or implicit policy goal, adequate definition and measurement have been elusive. Diverse "objective" and "subjective" indicators across a range of disciplines and scales, and recent work on subjective well-being (SWB) surveys and the psychology of happiness have spurred renewed interest.

Also frequently related are concepts such as freedom, human rights, and happiness. However, since happiness is subjective and difficult to measure, other measures are generally given priority. It has also been shown that happiness, as much as it can be measured, does not necessarily increase correspondingly with the comfort that results from increasing income. As a result, standard of living should not be taken to be a measure of happiness. Also sometimes considered related is the concept of human security, though the latter may be considered at a more basic level and for all people.

2. Methods

We carried out a study with 120 persons aged 65+, 20 of which were even been part of a semi interview. The mean age of sample was 74 (56 % women, 44 % man) years and the study take place in Tirana, the capital city of Albania. According to Official Data, Census 2011, 749 365 was Tirana resident population, from which 25 187 was 65-59 years old (12 616 Male and 12 571 Female); 22 305 was 70-74 years old (10 879 Male and 11 426 Female); 15 570 was 75-79 years old (7 453 Male and 8 117 Female); 8 561 was 80-84 years old (3 742 Male and 4 816 Female); 3 532 was 85-89 years old (1 364 Male and 2 168 Female); and 1 550 was 90+ years old (496 Male and 1 054 Female). The population female domination can be sees after 70’s.

The overall aim of the study was to contribute to the development of a conceptual framework and body of knowledge on quality of life in old age based on older people’s views. For the realization of this study are used semi-structured interviews with 20 elderly with different social living situations and application of OPQOL 35 , which was evaluated as highly reliable qualified instrument for elderly quality of life. OPQOL came as face to face interview with 120 persons ages 65+, chosen randomly. In fact it was used exclusion criteria for seniors who weren’t able to understand, to communicate or for those with mentally ill. The follow-up semi structured interviews about quality of life were carried out at same day or a day later. The aim was to interview a broad cross-section of respondents to the survey to obtain a better understanding of people’s. Data were collected by the studies with the help of a small trained group of students. All subjects who participated in this study gave their informed consent.

The OPQOL questionnaire consists of 35 statements with the participant being asked to indicate the extent to which he/she agrees with every single statement by choosing one of five possible options among "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neither agree nor disagree", "agree" and "strongly agree". Each of the five possible answers is given a score of 1 to 5 so that higher scores indicate a better QOL. Thus the total score ranges from 35 (the worst possible QOL) to 175 (the best possible QOL). The 35 statements of the questionnaire consider the following aspects of QOL: life overall, health (score range 4-20), social relationships and participation, independence, control over life and freedom, home and neighborhood, psychological and emotional well-being, financial circumstances, leisure, activities and religion. Interviews too were structured on the same way to understand better if there was any element that mainly interfere and change their perception on quality of life.

Interviews of Quality of life were organized as non-structured questionnaire with 5 non-inductive questions and open answers. Answers were written down and later categorized and analyzed. Subjects were asked: 1a) How would you describe the life you are currently living? 1b) Why would you say that? 2) What in your current life is well? 3) What in your
current life is not well? 4) What could happen to make your life better than now? and 5) What could happen in your life to make it worse than now.

From one study of older people

Table 1: Older people’s definitions of the constituents of quality of life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituent</th>
<th>Good things that give life quality</th>
<th>Bad things that take quality away from lives</th>
<th>Mentioned good or bad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (N)</td>
<td>% (N)</td>
<td>% (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relationships</td>
<td>96 (77)</td>
<td>80 (64)</td>
<td>99 (79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home and neighborhoods</td>
<td>96 (77)</td>
<td>84 (67)</td>
<td>100 (80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological wellbeing</td>
<td>96 (77)</td>
<td>63 (50)</td>
<td>99 (79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other activities done alone</td>
<td>93 (74)</td>
<td>5 (0)</td>
<td>93 (74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>85 (68)</td>
<td>83 (66)</td>
<td>99 (79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social roles and activities</td>
<td>50 (64)</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>80 (64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial circumstances</td>
<td>73 (58)</td>
<td>53 (42)</td>
<td>91 (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>69 (55)</td>
<td>46 (37)</td>
<td>84 (67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other miscellaneous</td>
<td>18 (14)</td>
<td>19 (15)</td>
<td>31 (25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Society/politics</td>
<td>1 (1)</td>
<td>43 (34)</td>
<td>43 (34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>86 (80)</td>
<td>80 (80)</td>
<td>80 (80)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bowling et al. (in press). International Journal of Aging and Human Development.

3. Analysis

The data are analysis on two ways. The OPQOL questionnaires were analyses with SPSS data analyze program. All the questions of interviews were analyses with Nvivo, an computer assisted qualitative analysis. The researchers were attended to organize comparisons between subjects and scoring in the quartiles of these indices and the rest of the sample were performed by means of the chi-squared test or Fisher’s exact test. Furthermore, unilabiate logistic regression analyses were conducted; all of them assuming the specific outcome as dependent variable and the OPQOL total score as the independent variable.

The QOL of the participants was evaluated by means of the OPQOL questionnaire, which has been validated in a multiethnic community-dwelling older population in England. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the Italian outpatient population enrolled in this study was found to be 0.78, i.e. above the 0.70 threshold of acceptability for internal consistency. Moreover, this questionnaire was recently shown not only to have excellent applicability to cognitively normal subjects but also to be applicable to people suffering from different disease. In two studies addressing the association of QOL with both frailty status and living status in an older population referred to the same geriatric service in Italy. The OPQOL questionnaire consists of 35 statements with the participant being asked to indicate the extent to which he/she agrees with every single statement by choosing one of five possible options among "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neither agree nor disagree", "agree" and "strongly agree". Each of the five possible answers is given a score of 1 to 5 so that higher scores indicate a better QOL. Thus the total score ranges from 35 (the worst possible QOL) to 175 (the best possible QOL). The 35 statements of the questionnaire consider the following aspects of QOL: life overall, health (score range 4-20), social relationships and participation, independence, control over life and freedom, home and neighborhood, psychological and emotional well-being, financial circumstances, leisure, activities and religion.

4. Results

In fact perceptions on quality of life were quite low. Tirana elderly people have more expectations on how their life should be. As it can be seen (from the Table 1) below there are gender differences on elderly perception on quality of life as a whole, even that the difference isn’t statistically important (chi-square; p=0.37) it can be seen that woman are more likely to rate quality of life as bad (chi-square; p=0.053). Only 22.5% of the studied subjects (or 27 out of 120) defined their current quality of life with positive assessments, while 50% (60/120) had a negative assessment of their current quality of life, that means that twice of subjects have bad perceptions of their quality of life. A percentage of 27.5% (33/120) of them had a neutral assessment.
Table 2: Older people rate of quality of life as a whole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of Life</th>
<th>Series 1</th>
<th>Series 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very bad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alright</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is a good quality of life:

A good quality of life for them was a good health situation in most of cases; financial security, but not the one they were paid, as all the subject were having pension and good relationship in general, with family member and with society as a whole. "We aren’t looking for big thinks. We are pleased with small, but secure future income that can fulfill every day’s needs". They remember the time when they were young and the way they interact with elderly in society. "...No one knows respect now days. But thanks God we are with arms and legs (this is Albanian way for saying that people are healthy engnaf to fulfill whatever they need) and we are capable to manage ourself. We can’t trust or even worst cant relies to no one. Even our children don’t have time to show respect, so..."

Another important issue they mention is relationship, with familiar and non-familiar persons. Having energy and capability to meet friends, to visit relatives to walk and take part in outdoor activities are another aspect that seniors evaluate as important to improve quality of life. But even this need many, at last for transportation, as it’s hard for them to use public transportation (regular bus lines not always pass nearby their home or place they need to go; or they doesn’t have all necessary facilities for elderly).

A debate discussion on quality of life is control over live, independence and freedom that aren’t discussing theme by interviews. No one of the seniors has mention this aspect regarding improving quality of live. Independence of doing activity of daily living wasn’t mention as a important aspect, as literature view refers. Pleasure of controlling themselves activity isn’t mention too. Maybe because for Albanian elderly freedom refers to political status more than everyday independence.

What is a bad quality of life:

A bad quality of life was absence of capability for everyday activities, absence of family members and income and the absence of dignity, which was mention from all the subjects. They consider policymakers as incompetent to take into count the dignity for all that hard time of period they worked to build Albania. They consider the way which Albanian society treats them as absence of dignity. "...You can see the absence of respect for the elderly everywhere. On bus station, on shops, on family, everywhere you can easy find case when an elderly is maltreat. The way young act today is totally different the way we used to act when we were at their age".

The elderly complain a lot for the life they have lived till now and for the low opportunities to better that. All of them continue to talk about the time when they were young (during dictator regime), the difficulties of the everyday life, hard work, and ................. It was easy for studies to find out the pessimist situation that elderly predict. “Now we are old and don’t have nothing. A pension that isn’t even for paying bills, no one ask how we feel and what we think, family members that never have engnaf time to talk with us, policymakers that mention our names and our situation only during election time”. The main think that make them feel bad is financial situation even that they have worked a lot their pension payment is the lowers; Pensions average is 140 USD and as can be imagine without family help the elderly can’t effort living.

The main concern for them is financial situation, which influence socio-economic situation in total. Their monthly earns which came from pension aren’t sufficient for expenses on physicians and medications, as public expenditure doesn’t supply a range of analysis and medical services they need. It’s time to say that in Albania doesn’t exist gerontology specialist and such situation complicate their daily needs; as seniors now had to schedule meeting to several specialist to conclude to a diagnose.

A debate discussion on quality of life is even psychological and emotional well-being, with is another non evaluating issue from seniors. Elderly Albanian persons doesn’t evaluate emotional situation as an important element which influence a lot quality of life. The way they feel on everyday life makes difference on dealing with different activities.
And from this point of view, such as even literature refers psychological situation isn’t specified, or at last mention form seniors to be important element on quality of life.

5. Conclusions

As expected monthly financial income was main concern but other elements as special respect and missing dignity from known and unknown was another interesting finding. The average age of sample was 74 (56 % women, 44 % man).

Quality of life of older people in Tirana is low and this brings the need for more attention to the elderly as an integral part of society. Identification of specific elements that impact more on quality of life may facilitate the design of interventions with programs dedicated reference needs.

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Regional Policy as Indicator of Readiness for Structural Change: The Case of Latvia

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Abstract

Performance of structural change could be mentioned as one of the most important factors for economic growth. This is indicated by theoretical and empirical evidence. The performance of structural change, although, is not dependent only on intention, but on the readiness also. The regional policy both at national and local levels could be an indicator for evaluation of such readiness for providing structural change. This due to the following reasons: (1) regional policy can provide inclusion and evaluation of wide range of resources necessary for structural change; (2) regional policy can alter the course of structural change and (3) regional policy can modify spontaneous structural change into the policy-driven structural change. Latvia experienced very wide amplitude of GDP's variations during the relatively short period of time. On the other hand, Latvia presents high regional differentiation and sectoral composition of the economy is among main reasons for such situation. The overall sureness of the European Union indicates on necessity to reach stability of the economic growth through the development of tradable goods' sectors. This, in turn, means that Latvia should be able provide changes in the sectoral composition of economy. How far Latvia is ready for this process? The answer on the question could be found in the evaluation of the regional development policies. The article explain how the regional policy can indicate on readiness for structural change in economy as well as highlights aspects where regional policy can be useful.

Keywords: regional policy, structural change, economy, Latvia

1. Introduction

Author considers regional policy as a factor of readiness for structural change in economy. The logic of research is based on the supposition of the author that regional policy could well stimulate, alter and modify structural change in economy. The overall sureness that structural change in economy is an important factor for economic growth (see, for example, Memedovic, Iapadre, 2010), in turn, regional policy is a factor providing efficiency and equality (see, for example, Gang, 2012) seems to be adequate explanation of topicality of the article.

High regional inequality is recognized as factor with negative consequences for development, therefore the issue on regional policy become important and is widely explained by different theoretical and practical approaches (see, for example, Gang, 2012). The understanding of necessity of regional policy, in most cases, is based on theories of convergence and divergence, trade theories etc. and all approaches consider how it is possible to reach more effective reallocation of resources through the regional policy (see, for example, Gang, 2012). The opposite viewpoint, although, indicate that reallocation of resources can be provided in favour to regions with better potential and not with bigger problems. The empirical research results, however, presents positive experience and indicate on successful catching-up examples, but with limited evidence that this occurred due to the regional policy (e.g., the example of the European Union’s regional policy) (see, for example, Shankar, Shan, 2009). In any case the regional development policy has capacity to stimulate the convergence especially in cases when economic agents are careful and not interested due to high financial risks and low returns.

On the other hand, the continuous technological progress and raising competition level makes the structural change a significant factor, which influences the competitiveness of regional economies and regional policy has to support these processes through the long-term strategic activities towards sectoral composition of economy with new qualitative peculiarities by stimulating collaboration among economic agents. Thus, the need of economic integration through the cohesion policy (reducing structural differences of economy at regional level taking into account structural problems) is one of the main reasons for regional policy and structural change (see, for example, CSIL, Joanneum Research, Technopolis Group, Nordregio, KITE 2010).

The article considers the aspects which may to be explained and developed within regional development policies and could indicate on relative readiness of an economic agent (e.g. country, region) for structural change in economy.

The article is organized as follows: section 2 explains the logic of research and offers discussion; section 3 contains conclusion and characteristics of the case of Latvia.
2. The Logic of Research and Discussion

The section 2 presents author’s intuition and logic of research. Author presents 3 issues where regional development policy could be in a form of process of structural change in economy: (1) evaluation of resources in context of long-term perspective, (2) altering the course in accordance with resource evaluation, (3) managing and stimulating of activities towards long-term strategic aims.

2.1 Regional Policy Can Provide Inclusion and Evaluation of Wide Range of Resources Necessary for Structural Change in Economy

Preconditions for regional competitiveness depend on many factors and the main of them can be organized in the following groups: human resources, financial capital, and innovative potential (see Figure 1). The above mentioned resources are crucial in possible processes of reallocation and combination through the regional development programmes.

**Figure 1.** Distribution of resources among sectors of economic activity

![Distribution of resources among sectors of economic activity](image)

**Source:** elaborated by author based on Doeringer, 1971; Hudson, 2007; European Commission, 2010; Janger et al., 2011; Rusu, 2013; Baier, Kroll, Zenker, 2013; Šipilova, 2014a; Šipilova, 2014b

The interests of economic agents can provide differences in perception of sectors of economic activity among economic agents and relative separation of them on two groups as sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept\(^1\) and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change\(^2\) (see Figure 1)\(^3\).

Possible mismatch among sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change highlights the importance of regional policy in evaluation and distribution of resources, because differences in perception among these sectors can hinder development of smart specialization through effective reallocation of limited resources. Such separation occurs due to relatively fast returns and high possibilities to reach desirable wellbeing both for entrepreneurs and employees within sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and results in more active resource flows directed to these sectors. This, although, could be characterized as short-term perspective. In turn, sectors of ‘desirable’ structural change are tended towards long-term period and can be characterized by higher financial risks and longer time needed for returns what in most cases hinder the resource reallocation in favour to these sectors.

In other words, regional development policy is one of the main tools for reaching ‘desirable’ structural change in economy through stimulating of interest among economic agents (for example, entrepreneurs and labour force) to direct activities towards sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change, for example, by implementation of development programmes.

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\(^1\) Sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept can be characterized as more attractive for labour force, entrepreneurs and capital flows due to positive returns in relatively short period of time and possibilities of career growth

\(^2\) Sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change are required by the modern trends in global economy, and are actively put into the development strategies

\(^3\) Development of such approach is based on author’s intuition and understanding of labour market’s dualism (Doeringer, 1971; Hudson, 2007) and necessity of smart specialization through the reallocation of resources towards more innovative activities (the strategy “Europe 2020”)(European Commission, 2010). Author mentions this issue in the works Šipilova (2014a; 2014b) also. The theme is developed concerning the linkage among choice of education by potential workforce and changes in sectoral composition of economy.
2.2 Regional Policy Can Alter the Course of Structural Change in Economy

Structural change in its sense means developing of smart specialization. In turn, smart specialization is considered as a tool for easy moving into the knowledge economy (Rusu 2013; Baier, Kroll, Zenker 2013) what means ‘desirable’ structural change also. The process of reallocation of resources necessary for development of smart specialization through the ‘desirable’ structural change can be hindered by persistent and historically well-founded resource flows. In general, the sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept can be considered as sectors of regional specialization. The current statement of sectoral composition of economy is related to the historical processes of economic development, specialization developed by the local economy and resources (human resources and financial capital) have been attracted and reallocated (see Figure 2).

Altering of the processes of structural change is necessary to avoid regressive structural change and achieve effective reallocation of resources. Moreover, supporting and altering of regional structural change should take into account several opposing aspects which should be managed:

1. concentration towards specialization for saving and developing sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept,
2. reallocation and concentration of resources for achieving ‘desirable’ structural change,
3. trying to go out of ‘historical’ direction of development towards challenges of the modern economy,
4. identifying innovative potential both among sectors of regional specialization as well as among sectors necessary for progressive structural change in sectoral composition of economy.

Figure 2. Input-output of the process of structural change altered by regional development policy

Source: elaborated by author based on CSIL, Joanneum Research, Technopolis Group, Nordregio, KITE, 2010; Janger et al., 2011; Rusu, 2013; Baier, Kroll, Zenker, 2013

Regional policy, also, can reach changes in understanding of sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change through the stimulation of progressive structural change in economy (e.g. towards gradual but persistent increase of share of high-technology manufacturing or knowledge-intensive services through the regional development programmes). Activities for supporting structural change, although, should not discriminate sectors of specialization as well as sectors which historically had success and provided regional identity. Therefore regional development policy could be an important tool for balancing the historical success and movement towards modern trends.

2.3 Regional Policy Can Modify Spontaneous Structural Change into the Policy-Driven Structural Change

Technological progress is one of the main factors which stimulate structural disproportions in the sectoral composition of economy because of several tendencies: (1) cyclical development of sectors of economic activity, (2) changing of accents in the processes of economic growth, (3) changing of priorities in the financial and non-financial investments, (4) changing of preferences of labour market and labour force.

Therefore, the main issue asks economic agents to make a choice among two possibilities – to emulate or to innovate (see Figure 3).

The lack of resources necessary for being able to follow the technological progress can provide situation when
economic agents direct their activities towards sectors with relative fast returns and thus stimulating the spontaneous structural change away from high-technology sector. Such spontaneous behaviour of economic agents (the structural change in sectoral composition of economy) could be modified by the regional development policy. Now local economies are welcomed to coordinate concentration towards specialization, locally well identified priorities and diversification of a regional sectoral composition of economy (European Commission 2010; CSIL, Joanneum Research, Technopolis Group, Nordregio, KITE 2010). The success can be dependent on local economy’s ability to emulate and/or realize its innovative potential through the priority investments.

Figure 3. Components of regional development policy for managing structural change in economy

Source: elaborated by author based on CSIL, Joanneum Research, Technopolis Group, Nordregio, KITE, 2010; Janger et al., 2011, Reinerts, 2012; Rusu, 2013; Baier, Kroll, Zenker, 2013

Moreover, the spontaneous structural change (as degradation of significance of certain sectors of economy or relatively low possibilities to develop high-technology and knowledge-intensive sectors due to lack of resources) can be modified into the policy-driven by setting and supporting of correct priorities and applying of correct tools as emulation and/or development of innovation through setting correct priority investments.

3. Conclusion and Insight into Latvia’s Readiness for Structural Change from the Viewpoint of Regional Policies

Author offers to consider regional development policy as a factor of readiness for structural change in economy, what is especially topical during the convergence processes. The article is designed in the framework of possible interaction between regional policy and structural change in economy. Author considers 3 issues of regional policy, as evaluation, altering and managing. The main questions should be asked by applying the regional policies in the process of structural change in economy are as follows: (1) possible mismatch among sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change, (2) choice between possibilities to emulate or to innovate, (3) balancing between the historical success and movement towards modern trends. Author concludes that regional policy could be an important tool in the processes of structural change in economy. Regional policy can be crucial in the processes of stimulating, providing and managing the ’desirable’ structural change by:

(1) Improving preconditions of economic environment towards supporting those sectors of economy which are ‘desirable’ for structural change based on detailed evaluation of resources and thus identifying innovative potential,

(2) Altering the course of structural change towards requirements of modern economy through changing an understanding of sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change by supporting innovative potential of economic sectors; but at the same time by saving regional specialization and regional identity,

(3) Modifying of spontaneous structural change into the policy-driven structural change through supporting of processes of emulation and/or realizing of innovative potential by working towards attraction of priority investments.
Purple colour indicates on the 1st aspect: regional policy can provide inclusion and evaluation of wide range of resources necessary for structural change in economy; green colour indicates the 2nd aspect: regional policy can alter the course of structural change in economy; grey colour indicates the 3rd aspect: regional policy can modify spontaneous structural change into the policy-driven structural change.

**Figure 4.** The logic of interaction between regional development policy and structural change in economy

Source: elaborated by author based on data (Figure 1, 2, 3) Doeringer, 1971; Hudson, 2007; European Commission, 2010; CSIL, Joanneum Research, Technopolis Group, Nordregio, KITE, 2010; Janger et al., 2011; Reinerts, 2012; Rusu, 2013; Baier, Kroll, Zenker, 2013; Šipilova, 2014a; Šipilova, 2014b

Inclusion and implementation of all three aspects within regional policy can indicate on readiness of economic agents to provide structural change because of clearly identified priorities, detailed evaluated resources and rationally understood obstacles for achieving the aims as well as due to correctly applied tools for effective realizing the potential (see Figure 4).

4. **Latvia’s Readiness for Structural Change from the Viewpoint of Regional Policies**

Theoretical and empirical research findings as well as the overall sureness of the European Union indicate on necessity to reach stability of the economic growth and thus convergence also through the development of tradable goods’ sectors and innovative activities (see, for example, European Commission, 2010). This, in turn, means that Latvia should be able to provide changes in the sectoral composition of economy towards high-technology and knowledge-intensive sectors of economy due to the following reasons:

1. Latvia experienced very wide amplitude of GDP’s variations during the relatively short period of time,
2. Sectoral composition of economy in Latvia demonstrates dominance of non-tradable sector, especially of those sectors which are oriented on domestic market and have relatively low productivity level comparing with manufacturing,
3. Latvia presents high regional differentiation and sectoral composition of the economy is among main reasons for polarization among capital city region and other regions,
4. In most cases regions specializes in low-technology and labour intensive sectors, as agriculture or services oriented on domestic market.
How far Latvia is ready for the ‘desirable’ structural change in economy? The answer on the question could be found in the evaluation of the regional development policies in the framework of the logic of this article.

Latvia, despite some unfavourable tendencies in sectoral composition of economy, gradually moves towards development of innovative foundations in economic growth through the structural change in the sectoral composition of economy what is indicated both by data on employment and value added (see, for example, Šipilova, 2013; Šipilova 2014c). Although, this process could be more successful in case if regional development policies include all three aspects mentioned above.

At this moment, regional development policies in Latvia (Latvijas Republikas Saeima, 2010; Latgales plānošanas regions, 2010; Kurzemes plānošanas regions, 2004; Rīgas plānošanas regions, 2008; Vidzemes plānošanas regions, 2007; Zemgales plānošanas regions, 2008) do not provide the answer on the following questions:

1. How to stimulate changes in perception of sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change and decrease mismatch among these sectors?
2. Whether all regions in Latvia and country as a whole should understand the ‘desirable’ structural change in the same or different manner taking into account historical development of economy and specialization?

Latvia from the viewpoint of regional policies is coming closer to be ready for ‘desirable’ structural change in the sectoral composition of economy, but detailed evaluation, definition and inclusion into regional policies of sectors of ‘wellbeing’ concept and sectors ‘desirable’ for structural change is needed as well as the evaluation of possibilities to emulate or to innovate should be provided.

5. Acknowledgement

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Tax Evasion and Set Backs of the Shadow Economy in Albania

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Abstract

Various business enterprises operating in the informal sector of the economy are attracting more and more attention. “Cheating the government” is a thriving practice in most countries, not only for countries still in a transition of economic development, but also for countries that have developed fiscal systems. Tax and customs fraud remain a real challenge for Albania’s fiscal administration. Several studies conducted in Albania prove that the degree of informal business transactions continues to be above the regional average at around 30%. The tax burden is viewed, in both empirical and theoretical studies, as the main determinant of tax evasion and the shadow economy. A fundamental difficulty in analyzing tax evasion is the lack of reliable information on taxpayer compliance. The anticorruption efforts have to focus on a real reform of the administrative system, whereas the citizen’s perception on corruption is mainly based on personal experiences in direct connection with the state institutions. After all, tax evasion is illegal, and individuals have strong incentives to conceal their cheating, given financial and other penalties that are imposed on individuals who are found cheating on their taxes. Both the public sector as well as the private sector should become more responsible, so that the public institutions are able to carry out their obligations under integrity conditions and without external pressure or implication. This paper gives an overview of fiscal evasion with a special focus on Albania. In particular, we concentrate on fiscal policy implications.

Keywords: Tax evasion, Corruption, Fiscal policies, Informal economy

1. Research Objectives

There are two main reasons for focusing on tax evasion. First of all, it is directly linked to large budget deficits and hence to lower investments in public goods. Besides being of general interest from an economic point of view, this means that the effects may differ significantly depending on the level of development of a country. This is the first major issue of interest. Second, studying tax evasion creates the opportunity to study the decision making process related to the informal sector at the individual level.

2. Research Methodology

Several methods have been developed to measure evasion. Even though they are all subject to imprecision and controversy, in sum they give a good picture of the dimension of tax evasion. One method involves surveys. These surveys are typically designed to elicit taxpayers’ attitudes about their reporting, but such surveys can also be used to estimate non-compliance. A main advantage is that they include many socio-economic, demographic and attitudinal variables. Another research method would be to analyze information that is posted on the web from various organizations regarding tax fraud, such as the electronic bulletins of: OECD, World Bank, USAID, Albanian Statistics Institute (INSTAT), as well as the Albanian Ministry of Finance website.
3. Introduction

The shadow economy comprises legal business activities that are performed outside the reach of government authorities. These activities typically fall into two categories that remain common across Europe. The first is undeclared work, which accounts for roughly two-thirds of the shadow economy. It includes wages that workers and businesses do not declare to the government to avoid taxes or documentation. Undeclared work is widespread in construction, agriculture, and household services (such as cleaning, babysitting, elderly care, and tutoring). The other one-third comes from under reporting, which is when businesses—primarily those that deal heavily in cash, such as small shops, bars, and taxis—report only part of their income to avoid some of the tax burden.

What fuels the shadow economy and what motivates to engage in it? There are four main factors:

Savings: By working outside the active economy, participants can avoid taxes and possibly social security payments, circumvent tax and labour regulations, and sidestep paperwork. A strong causal relationship exists between a country's tax rate and the size of its shadow economy. This relationship is especially pronounced during downturns.

Lack of a "guilty conscience": The shadow economy is often considered a normal part of society. This attitude is prevalent in countries where the perceived quality of state institutions and benefits is low or confidence in the state has been shaken.

Low risk of detection: Participating in the shadow economy is illegal. The chance of getting caught and being fined by the government entities is low so more individuals will consider the risk worthwhile. Thus, reducing the shadow economy requires a clear legal stance and the strength of law enforcement.

Ease of participation: Paying with cash makes it easier to engage in the shadow economy, since cash payments cannot be traced. The shadow economy is clearly a cash-based economy, and cash is the fuel that keeps the engine running.

4. Economic Context of Albania

Albania is a country that changed from a controlled economy during the communist regime to a democratic country with an open economy in 1990. Although the country is rich in natural resources, the economy is mainly bolstered by emigrant annual remittances, services, and the agricultural sector. In contrast to many other transition economies, macroeconomic stability in Albania in the early 1990s was followed almost immediately by a non-inflationary economic upsurge with the exception of 1996 and 1997, when Albania was faced with a major economic crisis triggered by the collapse of the pyramid investment schemes. Total liabilities of these schemes were estimated at almost 50% of GDP in 1996. The economic impact of the crisis was severe; the Albanian lek lost half of its value. The loss of wealth in the pyramid schemes took the economy in a depression, remittances from abroad fell heavily (minus 47%) which directly reduced investments in construction and other industries.

Table 1: Key Macroeconomic indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Million (ALL)</td>
<td>2.947</td>
<td>2.927</td>
<td>2.913</td>
<td>2.904</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The average inflation rate</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Deflator</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real GDP Growth</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Billion (ALL)</td>
<td>1,089.3</td>
<td>1,148.1</td>
<td>1,222.5</td>
<td>1,297.7</td>
<td>1,346.2</td>
<td>1,407.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Rate</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INSTAT, Albanian National Bank, Ministry of Finance, World Bank

In the period after 1998, Albania experienced rapid economic growth (real GDP growth rates of more than 7% per year), low inflation and a stable currency. Albania continued to pursue a sustainable economic policy until 2009. The economy was able to absorb the impact of the financial crises that rippled around all international markets in 2008. The risk of the financial crises reaching the Albanian economy was far closer due to the fact that a huge number of the world's biggest economies were experiencing a full out economic crisis. Over the last 2-3 years, the effects of the global crisis have made the Albanian economy more sensitive, decreasing the GDP growth rate yearly until it reached 1.5% in 2012.

The slow decrease of GDP comes due to the close exposure the Albanian economy has with Greece and Italy.
The main channels through which the Albanian economy is affected by developments in these countries are: demand for exports in report to remittances and foreign direct investment. In 2012 the country's economy was characterized by a slow but positive growth, stimulus fiscal policy, a relatively stable exchange rate, reduction of risk premiums, and low inflationary pressures from the demand side.

Table 2: Fiscal indicators based on a consolidated budget. Million (ALL)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Revenue</td>
<td>291,238</td>
<td>298,981</td>
<td>324,721</td>
<td>330,469</td>
<td>332,758</td>
<td>360,661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Aid</td>
<td>4,228</td>
<td>4,430</td>
<td>4,605</td>
<td>3,811</td>
<td>4,020</td>
<td>11,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Taxes and Customs</td>
<td>205,292</td>
<td>208,870</td>
<td>223,019</td>
<td>235,509</td>
<td>235,922</td>
<td>255,169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income from Local Gov't.</td>
<td>11,307</td>
<td>12,149</td>
<td>11,898</td>
<td>11,791</td>
<td>11,073</td>
<td>12,003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income from special funds</td>
<td>47,822</td>
<td>49,812</td>
<td>53,647</td>
<td>56,627</td>
<td>58,513</td>
<td>60,916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-tax revenue</td>
<td>22,588</td>
<td>23,720</td>
<td>31,552</td>
<td>22,731</td>
<td>23,230</td>
<td>20,578</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main sources of income for individuals remain: self-employment, pension and employment in the private sector. Poverty, especially in rural areas, remains a particular phenomenon. Regional differences are significant in terms of geographical distribution of industrial development zones. The Tirana-Durres region has become the most important economic center and commercial area of the country, while other regions remain behind from major developments. As is noticeable from Table 2, the majority of the budget revenue in Albania comes from taxes and customs, which constitute about 18-19% of GDP, followed by income from special funds including income from social and health insurance by about 4-5% of GDP.

Albania as a country that has recently entered the free market economy, feels it is necessary to increase the level of income, to stabilize economic equilibrium problems and the balance of payments ultimately leading to increased economic development. Analyses show that in the country's economic performance, fiscal policy has played a leading role. For this, the design of fiscal policy always considers as an important factor the behavior of tax participants and their ability for tax-evasion.

The transition process that Albania is going through has highlighted many problems, one of which is the quality and effectiveness of fiscal policy, with the aim of creating a stable relation between its objectives and the instruments used to achieve them. In designing the fiscal policy the government has taken into consideration tax systems of developed countries, but taking into account the characteristics of less developed countries (like countries in the former communist eastern bloc) where administrative skills are limited. During the transition period, the attention is focused on expanding the tax system and its effectiveness.

The fiscal policy experience of developing and eastern European countries, recommends the use of tax incentives to encourage savings and investments. The stimulus used to promote foreign or domestic investments, to avoid risk volatility of investments, as well as increasing the speed in realizing the investment. In Albania, exemption or relief from taxes is used in the early years of development projects and programs in industry and agriculture. This stimulation should not extend beyond the limits that otherwise would not be effective and practical. The impact of such policy should be considered as a state subsidy, which has affected the income and standard of living. This requires the government to review the fiscal regime to suit the stages of implementation of the investment. Tax incentives are monitored by a law that is relatively new and is gradually improving. The main taxes overseen by this legislation are: value added tax (VAT), small business tax, corporate tax, personal income tax, property tax.

A modern tax system relies on all tax sources, but two are the most important:

1- Personal Income Tax

This type of tax constitutes the most important element of modern financial systems. Progressivity of rates and the largest number of contributors to this tax provide significant revenues for the government. Personal income tax plays an important role in sharing the tax burden by income level, realizing in this way, a distribution of national income.

2- Small Business Tax

Besides the application of a number of taxes, other important factors that constitute the entirety of public revenues are:

- Taxes
- Contributions
- Customs
- Excise Taxes
5. Administering Taxation and Taxes

In Albania taxes and fines are administered by the tax authorities: the Directorate General of Taxation (DGT) in the Ministry of Finance and its offices in communes, municipalities and districts that depend on this department, costs for which are financed from the state budget. The fight against tax evasion is one of the primary duties of the tax administration, and should start first in the ranks of its workforce with possible links to corruption, as an offering made by dishonest taxpayers, who are trying to distort the image of tax authorities and the administration they represent. Exactly the presence of this phenomenon and its spread, naturally leads to the reduction of income taxes.

6. The Situation of the Informal Sector in Albania

The informal economy in Albania, according to official estimates accounts for about 30% of the total economy, while according to international financial institutions accounts 45% of the total Albanian economy. Terms: under the table work, second job, invisible, hidden, clandestine, will constitute work that is illegal and unregistered. Besides this complex of secret employment is also work performed invisibly, which takes place in a family working environment (very difficult to analyze). All these activities are not likely to be accounted for when they are in each case based on "friendly" relations and reciprocity. Under the table work is part of the informal work in the so-called "uncontrolled economy".

The decision to hide an activity can come from many factors:

- The business activity operates under fiscal evasion
- The business activity avoids required contributions, avoiding legal norms, or not respecting norms on working hours, and minimum wage, etc.
- Activity lacks the necessary authorizations directions for further development

The black economy is a complex of activities in production, services and use of products, in order to avoid statistical records. This category includes the so-called black work as unpaid labor that is performed by the unemployed, retirees, housewives, students, and working a second job undeclared.

A special kind of gray economy is also the hidden criminal enterprises, which includes all kinds of illegal activities such as: smuggling, prostitution, gambling, drugs, and organized theft. Hidden economy and undeclared labor create in the system, a deformation in statistics directly proportional to its relative size that make less accurate the analysis of the real economic situation. The Albanian labor market has undergone major changes after 1991, economic transformation has caused substantial changes in the structure of production sectors and employment. Private sector development is done parallel to the informalization of the economy in general and in particular illegal labor. Economic sectors where illegal employment faces relatively high levels are:

- Construction Sector
- Small and medium production enterprises
- Service Sector
- Transportation Sector
- Trade
- Private fishing activities, etc.

One of the sectors where it is most palpable the failure of the legislation is in the construction sector and production of building material. This sector is estimated as:

- An activity that is exercised anywhere without geographical conditioning or restrictions
- A profitable activity in current market conditions and has the premise for tax evasion in connection with fictitious income statements and not paying contributions
- One of the sectors with the highest risk in relation to work accidents

Analysis of illegal labor or informality serves to explain the economic situation of a country and in particular the consolidation of basic state institutions, the level of its implementation, level of corruption, etc. Clearly stated informality is nothing else but fewer taxes for the state budget. So the more taxes and fees hidden and undeclared for the state, which unfairly benefit a group of people, the greater the consequences for society.

7. Value Added Tax (VAT)

Implementation of the VAT is a very important step towards the perfection of the fiscal system modernization. VAT as a modern, transparent and equitable tax, based on the modern system of self-declaration of taxes, to be paid through the completion of a monthly statement. The success of the deployment of VAT depends on the way the tax authorities
organize basic functions that must perform its employees, functional connections that exist through all phases of its implementation process and the experience of other countries. Lack of motivation increases the risk of corruption for the staff directly involved in tax collection activities. Therefore modernization of tax administration should be one of the priorities.

In the tax legislation, for a violation of taxable persons in regards to VAT, there are different penalties that include fines from 10,000 Lek to 1,000,000 Lek, business closure, partial seizure of wealth and publicizing the name of the taxpayer that does not pay its dues. The main cases of violations are:

- Failure to register
- Registration not done in proper form
- Non-issuance of an invoice
- Issuance of an invoice with the wrong information
- Failure of not declaring the taxes on due dates
- Not declaring the correct sale price
- The request for a tax credit which the tax-payer has no rights
- A sales invoice issued from unregistered enterprise
- Making a false or erroneous statement
- Non-payment of taxes by the due date
- Failure to maintain appropriate records
- Non submission of records and documents upon request
- Preventing or not allowing an inspection by the government authorities

Figure 1. VAT from domestic transactions by economic sector 2011-2013

Source: Ministry of Finance

8. Small Business Tax

Small Business Tax is a tax on income that is applied on businesses who exercise an independent private activity that generates profits from trade, handcrafted products, various services like transportation, health, etc. This tax is calculated proportionally from income generated from the sale of services as well as fixed fees for some other services which are directly deposited in the state budget. Throughout the country there are more than 30,000 unregistered small business taxpayers and to have an effective tax system it is necessary to enroll all of them in the tax liability scheme.

Failure to register is a serious problem in tax collectors. A program to increase the value of the tax collected in the small business sector, should prioritize registration (to ensure that small businesses are inside the tax network). This group of taxpayers pays taxes based on the assessment that they themselves make and declare as income and are checked at random, due to the lack of controllers in proportion to the number of small business owners. Inspectors should be encouraged with rewards and compensation for exceptional work, in relation to tax revenues collected by the inspector.
9. Social Causes Enhancing Informality in Institutions

- Demographic Growth
- Unemployed
- Very low pensions
- Very low income for households
- Support of unemployment is very low
- Women available for the permanent and part-time domestic work
- The low efficiency of fiscal controls and other institutionalized control bodies
- Limited controls by the local authorities for people who work more than one job
- Work Unions do not protect their members
- Law obligations in relation to formal employment are negligible

10. Impact of Bribes and Other Crimes in Private Enterprises

According to data published by United Nations Office on Drug and Crimes (UNODC) “BUSINESS, CORRUPTION AND CRIME IN ALBANIA” for 2013 the impact of bribery and other crimes in private businesses rank corruption as the second highest obstacle in operating a business, after the high level of taxation. In Albania, 35.7% of bribes are paid in cash. The average amount of a bribe is about 53,000 leke, which is equivalent to 904 Euros-PPP\(^1\). About two-fifths (40.8% of all bribes are paid by businesses before the service, while 26% paid after the service is completed). The main purposes for paying bribes are speedy procedure (39.1%), finalizing procedure (16.8%), and special treatment by the authorities (7.2%). In addition, 13.5% of paid bribes serve no immediate purpose. Percentage of proliferation of bribes paid to public officials is the highest for police officers (12.5%), customs workers (12.3%), tax and revenue authorities (10.7%) and employees of municipalities and communes (10.2%).

Prevalence of bribery shows significant differences between business sectors in Albania. Among the five sectors researched, services in accommodation and food have the highest percentage of bribery (20.3%), followed closely by transport and storage (20.1%), construction (18.7%); industrial production, the supply of electricity, gas and water (14.1%) while wholesale and retail trade have the lowest percentage of bribery at 14.1%. Compared with regional averages by economic sector, all sectors in Albania have significantly higher spread rates of bribery. Accommodation (20.3 versus 9%), transport (20.1 versus 9.9%) and construction (18.7 versus 12.2%) have a percentage that is significantly higher than the regional average, while industrial production (14.1 vs. 9.2%) and trade (14 versus 10.3%) have a rate that is somewhat closer to the regional average.

Figure 2. Prevalence of bribery by economic sectors in Albania and the region of Western Balkans (2012)

Source: UNODC. Business, corruption and crime in Albania: Impact of bribery and other crimes in private enterprises in 2013

\(^1\) EU-27 Purchasing power parity of the euro (EUR-PPP) used to make the amounts given in national currencies included in the survey comparable internationally.
Change in the proliferation of bribery by economic sector exerts direct influence on the calculation of the percentage of bribery spreading nationally. Figure 2 shows the basic composition of bribes paid in five economic sectors in Albania. Wholesale and retail trade sector constitutes the largest share (62.7%) of bribes paid, due to the fact that this sector constitutes the largest business sector in Albania at 43.8%.

11. The Shadow Economy in Europe

The size of the shadow economy in Europe reached a 10-year low in 2013, and is now estimated at €2.15 trillion. On average across Europe, the shadow economy is as large as 18.5% of economic activity. Almost two-thirds of the shadow economy is concentrated in Europe’s five largest economic powers—Germany, France, Italy, Spain, and the United Kingdom. However, in Eastern Europe the shadow economy is much larger in relation to the size of the official economy than in Western Europe. In Austria and Switzerland, the shadow economy equals roughly 7% to 8% of the size of those countries’ official GDP, compared to Poland, which has a shadow economy of €95 billion, compared to an estimated GDP of €400 billion, or 24%. In Eastern European nations such as Bulgaria, Croatia, Lithuania, and Estonia, the shadow economy is almost 30% the size of the official economy.

The economic crisis that began in 2008 confirms that in 2009, the first full year of impact, the shadow economy surged 0.5% relative to GDP. Figure 3 juxtaposes the development of the shadow economy in absolute euro terms with its size relative to GDP. Although the 2009 increase may not have been massive, it broke a steady long-term trend in which Europe's shadow economy declined in comparison to GDP. The accompanying reduction in the absolute size of the shadow economy is compelling evidence of the depth of the continent's economic decline. While more individuals sought alternatives to the official economy, the shadow economy could not compensate for the decline in the real economy. Improving economic conditions since 2010 have helped recover this lost ground.

Figure 3: The Shadow Economy in Europe

Source: Friedrich Schneider, Johannes Kepler, University of Linz Austria, A.T. Kearney analysis.

By 2011, the shadow economy was below pre-crisis levels, and in 2013 the shadow economy is expected to shrink to an all-time low level relative to GDP. The size of this improvement, however, will depend on the speed and degree of economic recovery in the second half of the year.

12. Cost of Comparative Analysis of Tax Abuse between Albania and the Region as Well as Other Countries

USA has the highest loss to tax evasion of any other country in the world. In most countries total losses to tax evasion are bigger than the amount spend on healthcare. More than 1$ in every 6$ is not subject to tax precisely because those earning it deliberately ensured that it would be hidden from the world’s tax authorities. The ratio is higher in Europe, where the shadow economy in which tax evasion takes place represents more than 1euro in every 5 euro. There are states like Greece and Italy, where economic collapse looks likely and where the threat to the stability of both European and global economies is centered, that ratio is worse, more than 1 euro in 4 euro is the shadow economy in these countries.

Tax evasion is always a crime. By definition, tax evasion is illegal, while tax avoidance by definition does not technically break the law. Tax evasion becomes both a crime against society and democracy. That is because both societies and democracy can fail as economies falter when the demands for government services increase in times of
economies crises and the people willing to make payments for them are too few in number, as consequence tax evasion is at the core of the crisis in the world’s economies.

According to a report published by the Tax Justice Network which has made a survey for 145 countries:
- Total tax evasion in excess of US$3.1 trillion, or 5.1% of global GDP, is due to activity in the shadow economy.
- Only a minority part of this is due to tax havens.
- Total healthcare spending worldwide amounted to $5.7 trillion. Tax evasion cost, on average, 54.9% of healthcare spending.
- The un-weighted average rate of tax evasion to healthcare spending is 110%.

As is seen from the table below "The Cost of Tax Abuse", Albania is ranked 93 in the world, having Size of the Shadow Economy at a level of 34.3%, comparable with countries in this region ranging from Italy at 27% Italy to Macedonia at 37.5%. Government spending as % of GDP in Albania is 32.3%, low value compared to the other countries surveyed. Shadow Economy as % of healthcare spending in Albania is 123%, while the un-weighted average rate of tax evasion to healthcare spending for over 145 countries was in fact 110%. Total losses to tax evasion are bigger than the amount spent on healthcare.

Table 3. The Cost of Tax Abuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record Number</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GDP per head of population</th>
<th>Size of Shadow Economy</th>
<th>Tax burden overall</th>
<th>Tax lost as a result of Shadow Economy</th>
<th>Shadow Economy as % of healthcare spending</th>
<th>Cost of tax evasion, local currency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>86.651</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>2,218,255</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>190,755,799</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>1,254,086</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>60,705,991</td>
<td>33.793</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>553,881</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>142,914,136</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>648,161</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>38.498</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>529,547</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>38.803</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>389,000</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>48.250</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>63,838</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>21,436,000</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>52,889</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>3,843,126</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>5,674</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>3,194,972</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>4,043</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>2,057,284</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>3,428</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source of data see "The Cost of Tax Abuse" briefing, November 2011

13. How to Combat Shadow Economy?

Figure 4 illustrates the two primary areas in which authorities have fought the shadow economy. The first are general measures to address the shadow economy directly; these have historically been the prevailing tactics, and they have seen an additional boost during the downturn. These include first and foremost rules, controls, and penalties, along with the strengthening of human and technical capabilities to ensure law enforcement. Reducing red tape, especially by simplifying tax forms and enabling electronic submission, has become ubiquitous; meanwhile, providing incentives for not participating in the shadow economy through the material advantage of lower taxes and social security contributions, or by creating a guilty conscience has dropped in priority. Fostering financial inclusion and thus reducing the size of the shadow economy as more people have access to banks.
Figure 4. Addressing the shadow economy through direct measures and cash displacement.

Source: A.T. KEARNEY analysis

The second area of measures, cash displacement, is more complex, since it means changing habits and coordinating actions among many stakeholders, including governments, banks, payment providers, and merchants. Planned initiatives must build on one another to ensure improvement, starting with creating the infrastructure and ending with rewarding consumers for using non-cash options. We have identified several ways that electronic payments can encourage cash displacement and help reduce the shadow economy.

Discourage cash circulation - Easy access to cash, particularly with no-fee automated teller machines (ATMs), slows down the transition to electronic transactions.

Encourage POS uses - Most day-to-day transactions, especially those worth less than €15, are cash-based. Creating incentives for individuals to use their cards in these situations is an easy way to change behavior.

Increase electronic payment - In any economy, governments are among the largest initiators and recipients of payments, and they can serve as role models by adopting electronic payments. Governments have many options, including mandating that salary payments for public sector workers are made to checking accounts, that unemployment benefits or pensions are distributed to prepaid cards, that taxes and fines are paid online, and that cards or money transfers are used for all public sector purchases.

14. Conclusions and Findings

Tax evasion is a serious problem, not only for economic development countries still in transition, but also in countries that have a developed fiscal system. Fiscal evasion is a behavior, which is in contrast with the previously established rules for specific fiscal provisions, that foresees administrative fine as well. It is a violation of law nonpayment of predetermined taxes. Tax avoidance is not against the law, it consists a business, which is conducted in a legal way, in order to avoid creating a taxable base, thus reducing tax liability.

The biggest losers are the ordinary citizens of the informal economy, because the informality inhibits long-term economic growth and productivity increases; creates unfair competition; hampers the growth of small and medium-sized (the main sources of employment); and leaving millions of workers without basic rights, such as health insurance and pensions. Also entails a significant loss of tax revenue, reducing both the quality and quantity of public services. Inevitably also increase income inequality and social injustice.

15. The Causes of Tax Evasion

The causes of tax evasion are complex and difficult to detect. If all causes of fiscal evasion would I be totally understood, an optimistic view would be created leading to its elimination or reduction in a less alarming size.

1. Organizational structure and functionality
   It is important to recruit personnel for inspection and tax assessment. These activities can be improved by increasing the quantitative and qualitative abilities of the personnel.

2. Legislative System
   Instability in the setting of laws leads to a continuous chaos in administrative provisions, in addition to creating serious problems for the adequate modernization of a professional working staff. It also leads to the deterioration of links
between taxpayers and revenue service, due to the great difficulty of knowing the exact time and deadlines to fulfill tax obligations.

3. **Balance of tax claims**
   Even if all legal proceeding ended, it typically takes 10 years for a final court decision.

4. **International legal framework**
   The current international legal framework, especially the European Economic Community, compels us to verify the existence of significant differences in tax burden.

5. **Tax Burden**
   There are different opinions in Albania about the size of the tax burden. There are those who think that this burden is high and those who think that the tax burden is unsustainable, given the current level of development.

16. **The Consequences of Tax Evasion**

Tax evasion causes difficulty in financing the planned expenditure. The main principle of collecting taxes and fees in general is for the public interest. So a shortfall in public revenues means less investment in infrastructure, little investment in education, cultural activities, science research, healthcare, etc., a reduction of public goods in general is detrimental to society. Regarding the fight against tax evasion, it is important to specify that tax evasion depends on two factors:

1. Efficiency of public administration
2. Profit made by avoiding tax contributions

   The Ministry of Finance has a defiant task not easy to implement tax simplification because it needs to clearly define its strategies, possible loopholes and limits, which can operate to benefit the government whose primary duty is to fight tax evasion. Avoiding concealment of revenues from private enterprises there must be an efficient cooperation between the financial administration, tax inspectors, and authorities through the timely exchange of data necessary for making the necessary checks and required the establishment of a desirable control structure. Special care and importance should be given to taxation policies that apply to the country. The tax system must be characterized by fairness in taxation.

17. **Recommendations for Reducing the Level of Informal Economy**

1. Reducing the informal economy seems like a national duty, therefore requires government intervention and action. Governments can intervene by reducing fiscal pressure, thus facilitating the tax system and reducing costs associated with regulatory compliance, strengthening the implementation of new standards, etc. The government should also eliminate barriers to competition, improving business registration processes, increase transparency of public procurement and improve access to borrowing money. This is because the complex rules for licensing, for the labor market and bureaucratic barriers raise the informal economy.

2. Statistically countries with lower taxes tend to have a lower level of informal economy. Tax breaks only stabilize the informal economy but does not reduce it, and therefore the tax system should be improved with simple taxes in general, logical for citizens and applicable in terms of the Albanian economy. Building bridges between contributors and benefits from the fiscal system, seen as the main way that encourages citizens and businesses to cooperate in the formal economy

3. Continuously strengthening state institutions increase their confidence to remain public roads safer for an extension to the formalization of the economy and the constant reduction of its informal sector.

4. Countries with more corruption have higher informal economy. The fight against corruption, understood as strengthening and consolidation of state institutions, as civic consciousness and individual accountability increases, and strengthening and modernization of public administration remain premise that this sector come gradually diminishing.

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Application of Small Area Estimation of SME in Albania for Survey Research Method of Analyse

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Abstract

Challenges in identifying the appropriate electoral system and institutional arrangements to achieve inclusiveness require developing an adequate knowledge of the local electorate and identifying a combination of electoral system and affirmative action which best suits the structural as well as institutional context. The capacity of public administration was weak; the system, stemming from a party focused environment, was highly politicized. Corruption was pervasive in every facet of the public sector. Citizens feared public administration and did not trust it to provide even the most basic services in a fair or impartial way. It highlighted the problems of Albania's economic governance capacity and, from an administrative standpoint, reaffirmed and highlighted the inefficacy of a public administration, unable to enforce its laws and regulations. As the public's confidence in Albanian institutions had been significantly eroded by the recent events, restoring the public's trust in the government became the main priority of the government. In this paper research we are trying to analyze empirically: 1) the impact of Application of Small Area Estimation of SME in Albania, 2) reforming in Albanian public administration, like Balkan countries. Based on positive political theory and the benefit principle of taxation, we are present new math models of ASEA survey and the concrete results of ASEA.

Keywords: ASAE survey, Administrative system, Implementing financial reforms, Accountable & Administration strength, Math method of survey.

1. Introduction

This study empirically examines the impact of debt management policies on borrowing costs incurred by state governments when issuing debt in the municipal bond market. Based on positive political theory and the benefit principle of taxation, it is proposed that states that adhere to best practice debt management policies transmit signals to the credit ratings, investment community and taxpayers that the government should meet its obligations in a timely manner, resulting in lower debt costs. This was my entire point with temporarily nationalizing the banks

The EU remains Albania’s main trading partner, providing 64.1% of Albania’s imports and receiving 70.2% of exports as of September 2010. Trade with Italy and Greece, although steadily declining since 2008, continues to represent the largest share of EU trade, with a combined 40.8% of imports and 56.4% of exports as of September 2010. Other major trading partners include Turkey, China, and Germany. (Anthony, R. N. and Dearden 1980)

The impact of CEFTA in Albania’s trade with member countries has been small. Albanian case study during this on the outcome of electoral systems and local politics and how more inclusive systems of local governance can be developed. It was emphasis that the choice of electoral system can create opportunities for greater representation of women, ethnic minorities, the poor and other disadvantaged groups in local government. Structural as well as institutional factors pose major challenges faced in achieving this outcome. Affirmative action was not seen as a viable long-term solution for achieving increased representation of these groups.

1.1 Albanian transition and needs for changes in public sectors.

Albania Government worked with donors on the public financial management agenda by strengthening core public financial management units (Ministry of Finance, Supreme Audit Institute, Procurement Directorate within the Office of the
Prime Minister) as well as the financial management units within each line agency (e.g., budget departments within line Ministries). On matters relating to public sector human resource management, the reform strategy envisaged addressing this issue in two major stages: civil service reform and broader public sector human resource management reform. During the stage, the reforms aimed to create the managerial and professional nucleus required to lead any serious efforts to improve the accountability and performance of public institutions. There was some progress as regards the establishment of technical infrastructure for electronic signature.

In January, the National Agency for the Information Society was accredited by the National Authority for Electronic Certification to provide the public administration with certificates enabling it to process electronic documents as from September. The first application, to be used by the General Directorate of Customs, is being set up. Licensing of a second private e-certification service provider is ongoing. The number of businesses that have been given e-certification increased to about 500. The implementation of e-signature by the state authorities has yet to be verified. In the area of corporate accounting, preparations for aligning legislation on accounting and national accounting standards with the acquis have started. The National Accounting Council increased efforts to strengthen its capacity by training its staff and working on a series of internal guidelines. The membership of the Council’s board was revised in May. In the field of auditing, the Public Oversight Body continued its monitoring activities and was involved in a direct review of the quality of auditing of public interest entities.

1.2 What is Small Area?

Small Area is a small geographic area within a larger geographic area or a small demographic group within a larger demographic group. The sample size in the domain of interest is too small to use a standard estimator. Most small area estimation methods borrow strength from related or similar areas using auxiliary data. There is growing demand from the public for reliable small area statistics. At the design stage, we don’t consider attaining precision at the state and function code level. However, we have to handle this challenge at the estimation stage.

Let $g$ represent state and $f$ represent function code level. We want to estimate the total of employees or payroll information at the state by function level:

$$
Y^{gf} = \sum_{i \in U^{gf}} Y^{gfi}
$$

where $U$ is the universe of function codes in all states, and $U^{gf}$ is the universe of function code $f$, state $g$. Thus, $U^{gf}$ is subset of $U$, that is, $U^{gf} \subset U$. The sample size for function code $f$, $n_f$, is less than or equal to the sample size $n$, that is, $n_f \leq n$. The domain of sample for function code level $f$ of state $g$ is the intersection of the sample domain of state $g$ and the universe of function code $f$ and state $g$. $S^{gf} = S^g \cap U^{gf}$.

In some cases, the changes in Employment statistics are relatively stable. Therefore, a linear regression is suitable for some state by government type cells as done prior to Fiscal Year (FY) 2009. However, due to small sample sizes and poor fits on many cells, a small area estimation method (SAE) is more appropriate. SAE is only applied on PPS sample. For certainties, the direct estimate was used. Information on Births and Non-Activity (B&N) units is not available at the sampling stage. Therefore, we sample B&N separately from the PPS and Certainties sample.

Figure 1 briefly shows how we estimated the variable of interest in each cell of state by function code table. We applied the design-based direct estimator (Horvitz-Thompson), and the synthetic estimator in each cell. The direct estimator has high variability due to the small sizes. On the other hand the synthetic estimator reduces the variability but introduces some bias. Therefore, we introduce the composite estimator, which is a weighted average of those two estimators. We also modified the direct estimator (modified direct) from borrowing strength from similar cells to smooth the direct estimator. We will go through each of our estimators in detail in subsequent sections. Source: SAE Wahinton research 2007
Figure 1SEA Washington research, briefly shows how we estimated the variable of interest in each cell of state by function code table. We applied the design-based direct estimator (Horvitz-Thompson), and the synthetic estimator in each cell. The direct estimator has high variability due to the small sizes.

The roadmap for the reform of accounting and auditing for the period 2013-2015 was approved in August. The independence of the Public Oversight Body and its funding remain to be addressed as part of the reform. Some progress was made in the field of company law through the adoption of legislation in the area of cross-border mergers. Some progress was made in the areas of corporate accounting and auditing, but legislation remains to be aligned with the acquis. The Public Oversight Body needs to be strengthened. Overall, preparations are moderately advanced method, which we are make like methodology in this paper research.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

A general design-based direct estimator for the total is:

\[ \hat{t}_{y, sf} = \sum_{i \in S} W_{i, sf} Y_{i, sf}, \]

where the weight, \( w_i = \frac{1}{\pi_i} \), and \( \pi_i \) is the inclusion probability for unit \( i \) in state \( g \) and function code \( f \). In this paper, we also denote \( \hat{t}_{y, sf} \) as \( \hat{t}_{y, sf}^{HT} \).

2.1 Decision-based estimator

The Decision-based (DB) method helps to estimate the synthetic in each cell by providing a stable state total as a reliable estimator in a large area covering all small areas, states by function code level. DB was a process of testing the possibility of combining the strata. This strengthened statistical models for the area of estimation. Source: SAE Washington research 2007

The state total was estimated by a single stratum weighted regression (GREG) estimator specified as follows:

\[ \hat{t}_{y, GREG} = \hat{t}_{y, n} + \hat{b}(x_{s} - \hat{t}_{x,n}), \]

where \( x_s = \sum_{i \in S} x_i \).

2.1.1 Direct estimator (Horvitz-Thompson)

Countries wishing to join the EU can proceed from one stage of the process to the next, but only once all the conditions at
each stage have been met. In this way, the prospect of accession acts as a powerful incentive to reform. The EU policy on enlargement ensures that the process is meticulously managed, so that accession brings benefits simultaneously to the EU and to the countries that join it. At that time, Albania’s administrative system was considered chaotic and ineffective. Its administrative culture - a combination of many influences - emphasized security over service delivery. (Blake, R.R & Mounton, J.S.) The capacity of public administration was weak; the system, stemming from a party focused environment, was highly politicized. Corruption was pervasive in every facet of the public sector. Citizens feared public administration and did not trust it to provide even the most basic services in a fair or impartial way.

2.2 Public Administration and EU policy of enlargement in Albania

The responsibility for the relatively high standards of living involved here certainly does not rest completely with unionism. Clearly, one must also examine such a variety of other factors as skill levels, industrial ability to pay, imperfections in the product market, and industrial productivity (among others) in explaining these wage levels. And one can readily cite such unionized areas as the boot and shoe industry and the meatpacking industry, where the overall situation often allows no real wage improvement at all and, consequently, none is received by organized labor.

But the hazards of accepting the more impressive union bargaining totals at their face value are not particularly relevant in this context. Misleadingly or not, such dollar amounts often symbolize in a highly visible fashion the ability of unionism to effect dramatic wage gains. And, as the gap between the incomes of the blue collar and white collar worlds continues to widen, a greater willingness to consider union membership may conceivably be the result. Indeed, appreciation of the fact that snobbishness for some of the increased willingness of at least teachers and to undertake such a consideration.

2.3 Variance Estimation

Due to the complexity of the two-stage sampling design with the cut-off technique, we calculated the approximate variance (AV) of the composite estimator. AV is estimated on the non sub-sampling sample. Besides, there are B&N units, which are very small and contribute a small amount in the survey total. We assume the variance on B&N is ignorable. Source: SAE Wahinton research 2007

The coefficient of variance, CV, is estimated by \( \frac{\text{Var}(\hat{y})}{\hat{y}} \), where \( \hat{y} \) is the composite estimated on PPS, certainties, and B&N.

The government units were sampled by state and government type. However, the variance is required for the cell of state and function code, which we don’t know the size in advance. Therefore, in order to estimate the variance for the cell state by function code, we treated each combination \( D = (\text{state, function code}) \) as a domain in the sample, which is identified by the indicator \( I_0 = 1 \) if the unit belongs to \( D \), and 0 otherwise. We used Taylor series method for the variance estimation in which the variation among different units of the same function code was taken into account. The domain total is:
H 2. It is probably also only a question of time before considerably more aggressive, imaginative, and empathetic leadership than organized labor now possesses comes to the fore, which would also make widespread white collar unionization more likely.

2.3.1 The impact, performance and cultural development in Albania and Balkan.

After the fall of socialism, Albania largely succeeded in providing targeted assistance to the poor when compared with other low-income countries (Alderman 2002). And, despite strong turmoil, Albania has found its way to becoming a democratic nation-state with a commitment to gender equality. These can be seen in the approval of a democratic constitution in 1998 and the ratification of international agreements, like the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination in Albanian public administration. (Calloni 2002) Weak lending, affecting both households and investors, reflects tighter credit standards applied by banks amid a high and rising share of non-performing loans and subdued credit demand due to economic uncertainties. In an effort to reinvigorate lending, the BoA adopted specific regulatory changes in March aiming at releasing financial resources for banks and channelling them towards lending to the private sector, but so far credit growth has not picked up.

In general, the Albanian banking system remained well capitalised and liquid. The net results of the banking system in 2012 amounted to €26.71 million, reflecting a significant increase compared with the previous year. The capital adequacy ratio increased to 16.7% in May from 15.6% at the end of 2011, with each individual bank remaining above the 12% regulatory minimum. The ratio of liquidity assets to short-term liabilities as of the end of December 2012 increased to 36.7%, comfortably exceeding the minimum regulatory requirement of 25%.

Deposits were the main source of financing and parent-bank credit lines were significantly lower than at the end of 2011, strengthening the banking system’s resilience to foreign shocks. However, banks’ exposure to credit risk has increased, as the ratio of non-performing loans rose further to 24.4% in the second quarter of 2013 compared to 21.2% a year earlier.

This has led to a surge in loan loss provisioning, up by 24.3% in June on an annual basis.

Total assets of the non-banking financial sector stood at 2.8% of GDP. The insurance market, in which foreign capital has a 50% stake, increased its gross written premium revenues by some 9% in 2012 but its share of GDP remains low. The securities market focused on government bonds and saw two new investment funds start up. The voluntary pension market grew by 83% in 2012 from a very low base and is still in the very early stages of development.

One of the main gender concerns in Albania today seems to be the missing link between putative and real equality in terms of access to employment, businesses, credit institutions, health care and social services. There are also questions about gender equality in civic participation and political decision-making. Albanian law prohibits gender discrimination and job segregation in public and private employment.

H 3. The Albanian reforms aimed to create the managerial and professional nucleus required to lead any serious efforts to improve the accountability and performance of public institutions.

Balkan countries and Albanian government, on the other hand, should meet its obligations in a timely manner, resulting in lower debt costs. Although the field of entrepreneurship in Balkan is recognized as being of fundamental importance for Balkan economy, and many researchers throughout the world have turned their attention to it, there’s, as yet, no agreement as to the research object in this scientific field.

The composite estimator was used to estimate the survey totals in each cell (state by function) of the ASPEP. As mentioned earlier, the composite estimator is the weighted average of the two estimators: the design-based and the synthetic. The composite balances out the instability of the unbiased due to small sample sizes with the synthetic quantity. The weight pulls the estimate to the design unbiased estimate when it has enough data, and towards the
synthetic estimate when there is insufficient sample size in the small area (Rao, 2003). Source: SAE Wahinton research 2007.

By applying the methods described, we created Table 3 which is a typical illustration of our data analysis. Those methods included a combination of Decision-based estimation and an application of a SAE method. Table 3 is for the variable, Full Time Equivalent Employment, in several randomly selected states. The 2007 data (census data) is included in the Table 3 to see the changes of the variable overtime from different estimators. It is not used to evaluate different estimators. However, for some stable variable like Full Time Employees, 2007 census data is useful to see the performance of the estimators. The conclusions are as follows:

- When there were no observed sampled units, we used the synthetic estimate where the design-based direct estimates were not present. For example, there were no samples units in higher education, we obtained a reasonable synthetic estimate.
- The synthetic estimates were stable in small size areas where the design-unbiased estimates were very volatile.
- The modified direct estimates were closer to the 2007 census values.
- When the sample sizes were big enough, all the estimators performed well and they were close to each other.
- The composite using the modified direct estimator was close to the 2007 Census values most often.

Table 2: The heads of central and local government institutions, Source: Albanian BB for Albania, report 2011

2.4 The economic dimension of regional cooperation

Regional cooperation is essential for increasing prosperity and economic growth. Economic development is a key issue if the WBs countries are to make better, faster progress towards European integration. In many areas, such as trade, energy and transport, because of the limited size of each WBs country and the fragmentation of the economic space in the region, there is no other option but to embark on intense regional cooperation as the only realistic way forward. Enhanced regional cooperation in the economic field is just plain common sense. Beyond the intra-regional challenges, the ultimate goal is to reconnect the WBs countries fully with all their neighbours, EU Member States and candidate countries alike.

3. Research Goal and Data Collected

The Development Credit Agreement (DCA) states the objective of the project to be: The objective of the Project is to assist the Borrower to improve its capacity with regard to policy formulation and coordination, and administrative performance so as to create conditions that will encourage the Department of Public Administration of the Borrower to improve their service delivery. This paper presents two applications: Decision-based and Small Area Estimation methods. They were applied to the estimation of Annual Survey of Public Employment and Payroll. SAE provides the composite estimate which smoothes the design unbiased estimators in small areas by introducing the synthetic term. The synthetic estimate is more reliable when derived from the Decision-based estimates. This property cannot be obtained from a simple regression synthetic.

With these two methods are combined, we obtained better estimates than those of using direct estimators or with linear regression where the linear relationship is weak or even does not exist.
3.1 Albania’s administrative system and public sector.

At that time, Albania’s administrative system was considered chaotic and ineffective. Its administrative culture - a combination of many influences - emphasized security over service delivery. The capacity of public administration was weak; the system, stemming from a party focused environment, was highly politicized. Corruption was pervasive in every facet of the public sector. Citizens feared public administration and did not trust it to provide even the most basic services in a fair or impartial way.

Source: (Dumi A, MJSCER Roma Italy, vol 2, nr 4, 2013)

4. Methodology

4.1 Research Goal

In this survey we aim to identify the Application of Small Area Estimation of SME in Albania. During the first years of the reform, the government focused on improving the legislative framework to ensure that its objectives could be achieved. By 1999, and prior to the approval of the credit under review by this ICR, the Government had identified and adopted a large number of measures which provided important institutional capacity to strengthen the public administration. As regards horizontal issues, the government allocated about €6.8 million in 2013 for direct support and national investment schemes in agriculture and agro-processing. Agricultural production in 2012 increased slightly, mostly due to improved production in fruit trees and olives.

Here, \( Y \) represents the survey total of key variables: full-time employment, full-time payroll, part-time employment, part-time payroll, part-time hours, full-time equivalent employment, total payroll, and total employment. We describe all the estimators used in our estimation process: Direct (Horvitz-Thompson), Decision-based, Synthetic, Composite, Modified Direct, and the Composite estimator. \( \text{Source: SAE Wahinton research 2007} \)

Part of the growth is linked to the government direct support schemes that have encouraged the planting of new trees. While exports increased, the trade balance has improved marginally. There has been good progress with agricultural statistics. Since the beginning of 2013 the National Statistics Institute (INSTAT) has been responsible for agricultural statistics. The Census of Agricultural Holdings was conducted in October 2012.

Bias of the synthetic estimator is the biggest disadvantage for synthetic estimation. Departures from the assumption may lead to large biases. Empirical studies have mixed results on the accuracy of synthetic estimators. The bias may not be estimated from the data. The variance estimator for the complicated composite estimator derived from a Decision-based method needs separate research which will be presented in a future paper.

5. Research Data and Indicators of Performance

We have some outstanding issues which need further research. We need to develop a simple and good variance estimator formula for the composite estimator other than a resampling method. Regarding the weight, \( \varphi_g \), in the composite estimation method, we replace \( \varphi_g = 0.5 \) when it was negative. Lahiri and Pramanik (2010) extended a method from Gonzalez & Waksberg (1973), which used Average Design-based Mean Squared Error (AMSE) to stabilized the \( \varphi_g \). We will apply this method in our production in the future. We will also explore in more detail the application of the Empirical Bayes method with an alternative assumption other than normality. Finally, we will apply this method for other surveys in the Governments, like the Annual Finance Survey (AFS).

6. Conclusions

Bias of the synthetic estimator is the biggest disadvantage for synthetic estimation. Departures from the assumption may lead to large biases. Empirical studies have mixed results on the accuracy of synthetic estimators. The bias may not be estimated from the data.

The variance estimator for the complicated composite estimator derived from a Decision-based method needs separate research which will be presented in a future paper. Carmines, E.G & Maciver, J.P. analyzing models with unobserved variables: Analysis of covariance structures. This paper presents two applications: Decision-based and Small Area Estimation methods. They were applied to the estimation of Annual Survey of Public Employment and Payroll. SAE provides the composite estimate which smoothes the design unbiased estimators in small areas by introducing the

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synthetic term. The synthetic estimate is more reliable when derived from the Decision-based estimates. This property cannot be obtained from a simple regression synthetic.

With these two methods are combined, we obtained better estimates than those of using direct estimators or with linear regression where the linear relationship is weak or even does not exist.

7. Future Research

We have some outstanding issues which need further research. We need to develop a simple and good variance estimator formula for the composite estimator other than a resampling method. According to preliminary results, the total number of agricultural holdings is 324,013, compared to 350,654 in 2010. The share of holdings keeping livestock fell from 84% in 2010 to 71% in 2012. The work on setting up a functional land cadastre continues to progress very slowly. Under the Law on agricultural cooperation companies, new cooperatives have been registered for the production of oil, cereals and vegetables. The work on creating a functioning electronic agricultural information system (farm register, animal register, etc.) must intensify in order to create a basis for sound financial management of national and EU assistance. (Albania 2013 Enlargement Strategy and Main Challenges 2013-2014)

Supported by the Structural Adjustment Credit (SAC), and Public Expenditure Support Credit, the government undertook a number of pivotal actions which defined the framework of reform. Among them, Parliament revised the Civil Service Law in November 1999, and an independent Civil Service Commission (CSC) was created and staffed. (Bishop, E. B. 1986)

Credit lines are considered as a limit granted to a customer for use within a specific period of time. Micro businesses often use working capital to pay short term obligations as inventory or it can be also utilize for long term projects such as renovations or expansion. If working capital dips too low, a business risks running out of cash. (Albania 2013 Progress Report Enlargement Strategy and Main Challenges 2013-2014).

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Social Space of the Regional City and a Development of Roman-Catholic Parishes in Socio-Historical Aspect

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Abstract

In Poland, the Roman Catholic parish is a common and most stable local socio-religious institution which is an important part of life of the inhabitants of cities, towns and villages. It seeks to meet the basic needs of religious believers, and usually leads social, cultural and charitable roles. An important element of the parish community becomes the bond formed between the faithful, defined as lasting sense of identification with the local community and inhabited by her territory. In Poland, in the postwar period, followed by a rapid development of the industry, were created in large cities, which resulted in a change in the socio-demographic structure of the population. At that time the country was in the zone of influence of the Soviet Union, and the state power exercised Communists who created a repressive totalitarian system. Only after the fall of communism in 1989, and the change of regime Poland is among the countries that build democracy consent to the standards of civil society. Conducted sociological studies showed that in Rzeszów since the mid-sixties, followed by a dynamic development of the structures of the parish, and the parish has become an important center for the faithful of socio-religious. The presentation includes the results of empirical studies, which are an example of the development of structures in the regional church in Poland, along with a comparative analysis of the dynamics of socio-demographic changes.

Keywords: sociology, social sciences, regional development, Roman Catholic parishes, regional city

1. Introduction

In Poland, a Roman Catholic parish is a common and most stable local institution, which plays a primary role in the lives of residents of cities, towns and villages. A parish – a basic unit within the structure of Roman Catholic Church is a subject to nonstop influence of various social processes. In Poland, after the Second World War, both the industry and big cities developed rapidly, what affected the social and demographic structure of the country population. Back then, Poland was in the Soviet Union zone of interest, power was held by the communists who created a repressive totalitarian regime. Only after 1989, when the communism had fallen and the system had changed, did Poland become one of the democratic states, building a civil society.

A Roman Catholic parish within a rapidly changing social situation in Poland is a very interesting subject of research considering both the period of the communists oppressive policy on religion, and the following twenty years in an already democratic Poland. At that time, in Western Europe, in the realms of society modernization and religion privatization, the process of secularization escalated and resulted in the decreasing influence of religion on public life. Ever since, the power of religion and its institutions (parishes, too) is dwindling, as well as their ability to affect various segments of social network. Due to pluralism and individualism, religion becomes more and more a personal matter, and every person uses it with regard to their special needs. This results in limiting the impact of Roman Catholic Church on social life, as well as in separating religion from morality, religious subjectivism and in accepting only selected articles of faith. The bond between believers and their parish weakens, churches become empty, some are even transformed into museums, culture centres, and some are sold and intended for public utility (e.g. for shops, shopping centres).

The dynamic, both spatial and demographic development of Rzeszów was coupled with industrialization, modernization, technical progress and Weber’s rationalization. As a result, there appeared basic factors which, according to the renowned sociologists (such as Max Weber, Emil Durkheim, Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann), support society secularization. What is more, during the communist era, the government attempted to eliminate religious institutions, especially those of Roman Catholic Church. Religion was fought against administratively and the main objective of this oppressive policy was the complete atheization of the society. It was obvious that these methods were designed to strengthen secularization trends consistent with the lay Leninist society paradigm. Thus emerge extraordinarily interesting research problems: To what changes was a Roman Catholic parish in Rzeszów a subject in the times of modernity? Was the religious and social role of a Roman Catholic parish in the intensively modernized and administratively atheized
society of Rzeszów dwindling since the 1960s (when the sociology of religion was dominated by the argument on secularization)?

The research presented in this article was based on primary and secondary sources. The primary sources are, among others: source materials from parish archives (statistical data, parish reports, parish registers, chronicles etc.) and data published by the Central Statistical Office of Poland (GUS) and the Institute of Catholic Church Statistics (SAC). The secondary sources are: 40 qualitative interviews with a diocese bishop emeritus and with the former and present parish priests of Rzeszów parishes, or with people appointed by them.

2. The Dynamic, Spatial and Demographic Development of Rzeszów

Two months after the Second World War was over, on 7 July 1945, Polish authorities issued a decree in which Rzeszów was appointed the capital city of a voivodship. This decision had a significant effect on the city comprehensive development. The communist elite of Rzeszów wanted it to be the symbol of the authorities success and a model socialist city. The city socialist character and the supremacy of people's government was to be emphasized by the massive socrealistic edifices, the monument of the Revolutionary Deed seated on the junction of two main roads, the huge panel blocks of flats and industrial plants. The spatial, industrial, social and demographic development of Rzeszów was a priority. The growing administrative importance of Rzeszów meant creating many offices and public institutions, and establishing the city as the centre of the region political and cultural life. People from different milieus arrived, artists, people who organized new local authorities and arranged the city space. The city prestige was enhanced by schools, large academic centres, and big production plants offering employment and housing. Because many industrial and trade centres came into being, the demand for workforce increased within various professions. Both the city residents and people from neighbouring villages came to Rzeszów to work and live in the newly built housing estates.

The population changed under the influence of many factors. The most important ones (between 1946 and 1989) were the migration (about 47%), population growth (about 30%) and the modification of administrative division (about 23%). The size of migration was impressive – by the end of the 1970s almost 75% of Rzeszów residents were not native to the city¹. This process continued with a varied intensity up to the end of the 1980s and was inhibited in the 1990s by the beginning of political transformation in Poland. In the 1990s, the influx of new inhabitants declined by 50% and was accompanied by constant emigration (Malikowski, 1989: 96-100; Idem 1991: 152; Solecki, 2002:126-127).

However, the population of Rzeszów was incessantly growing because of the high population growth. Throughout the post-war period, up till the 1980s, Rzeszów was, demographically speaking, a young city.

The population size depends on the city territorial expansion onto neighbouring villages which make an attractive residential area. Between 1951 and 2010, the borders were expanded four times by annexing neighbouring villages. As a result, the area of Rzeszów increased fourteen times, for in 1951 it amounted to 8km², and now it comes to 116km². The biggest territorial expansion took place between 2006 and 2010, and it amounted to 62.68km², that is 54% of the city current territory (Malikowski 1991: 153; Urząd Miasta Rzeszowa).

Diagram 1. The population dynamics in Rzeszów, 1945-2012.


As mentioned above, the migration, population growth and territorial expansion decided on the size of Rzeszów.

¹ By native to the city the author means ‘born in Rzeszów’.
population. The increase in the number of residents was one of the elements that created this big regional centre. In 1950, the city population amounted to 28,100, and in 2012 it came to 181,200, so it increased sixfold. The highest population growth dated between 1970 and 1990, and amounted to 70,900. The most important factors which stimulated this influx were: (1) low degree of urbanization of areas where the immigrants came from; (2) Rzeszów attractiveness in view of lack of other big cities nearby and (3) local government policy which favoured selective migration. Currently, the city is divided into 29 districts. (Malikowski 1991:151-155; Idem 1989: 21-23, 87-100; Bonusiak, 2010: 144-145; Urząd Miasta Rzeszowa).

3. The Reorganization of Parishes in Rzeszów

The dynamic spatial and demographic development of Rzeszów was a new and difficult challenge to the parish ministry. Together with the construction of big housing estates, especially panel blocks of flats, on a one parish territory, the number of residents grew quickly. The parish was no longer able to serve its purpose, that is to meet the religious needs of Roman Catholics. Creating new units of church administration was a necessity. In 1949, two new parishes were established in Rzeszów, and two years later a rural parish was annexed by the city and the number of parishes amounted to four. Despite growing religious needs, no new parish was established for the next fourteen years in Rzeszów, due to the policy on religion of the governing party. The communist activists and urbanists assumed that the city would be of purely socialist character and that no new sacral buildings or units of church administration would be created. In order to carry out these plans, only the activists of merit were summoned to Rzeszów to implement an oppressive policy on religion, especially towards Roman Catholic Church. That is why in 1966, in the city of 70,000 residents there were only four parishes (Rocznik diecezji przemyskiej, 1952: 46, 101-102; Rocznik diecezji przemyskiej, 1966: 123-125; W. Bonusiak: 145).

The implementation of this utilitarian, but slightly unrealistic in the reality of a totalitarian regime, strategy was quite difficult in view of the communist authorities resistance. When establishing new parishes, the biggest ones – those of the largest population – were divided. Despite numerous difficulties, most of all Rzeszów parishes were established in the 1970s and 1980s. In June 1991, there were 22 parishes in the city, three of which had more than 10,000 parishioners (11,000, 11,600 and 15,000). Eighteen of them were established after 1945, during the period of a cold war between the totalitarian regime and Roman Catholic Church. By implementing the plan of organizing parish structure in Rzeszów, the church authorities, together with the laymen from the already existing parishes, delimited new parishes. In the meantime, new churches were built in every new parish thanks to the parishioners, although the spatial plan did not include any new sacral buildings (Schematyzm diecezji przemyskiej, 1991: 262-282; Wierzbieniec, 2005: 75).

After the communism had fallen, during the political transformation accompanied by the democratization of public life and by the emergence of civil society, the parish structure in Rzeszów developed without much ado and with the help of residents – accordingly to their needs, activities and finances. This process of parish structure concentration is continued since 1992 by the bishop of Rzeszów, Kazimierz Gorny (Pierwszy Synod Diecezji Rzeszowskiej, 2004: 47-49, 79; Nabywaniec, 2010: 167-169).

Figure 1. An outline of Rzeszów parishes in 2010.2

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2 The position of a number indicates the location of a parish church in the city.
In order to meet the parishioners needs, the church authorities established four new parishes between 1995 and 2006. What is more, between 2006 and 2010, four rural parishes were annexed by the city. Consequently, at the end of 2010, there were 30 parishes on the territory of 29 city districts with 178,000 residents, 149,000 of which were Roman Catholic (that is 84% of the city population), on 116 km². Statistically, an average parish area comes to 4 km², while an average number of parishioners in one parish amounts to almost 5,000. In reality, the number of parishioners in each parish varies greatly. There are eight parishes in the city with less than 3,000 parishioners. It should be mentioned that the first and the oldest Rzeszów parish was one of the most populated parishes in the 1950s and 1960s (over 30,000 parishioners), and is now one of the less populated (2,900 parishioners). In addition, within the city borders, there are eight parishes with 3,000-5,000 parishioners, six parishes with 5,000-7,000 parishioners and eight parishes with more than 7,000 parishioners, and only one of the latter is of more than 10,000 parishioners (the cathedral parish – 10,500 parishioners). Twenty four parishes are under the care and jurisdiction of diocesan priests, six remaining are led by priests from monasteries and congregations. One of the greatest achievements of Rzeszów parishes is good infrastructure and not too extensive territories, as the distance to all parish churches is less than 4km. Obviously, it would be best if the parish territory overlapped the district, and if the parish church was situated in the centre of a district. Unfortunately, in many Rzeszów parishes, especially those situated in the city centre, this rule was not observed, and for this reason the parish borders divide the districts. The situation is much better in the former rural parishes lately annexed to Rzeszów, because their territories overlap the districts, however, most of the parish churches lie out of the district centre (Own calculations on the basis of: Schematyzm diecezji rzeszowskiej from 01.12.2010).
Diagram 2. The growing number of parishes in Rzeszów, 1945-2010.

Source: Own study.

Establishing new parishes affected the number of priests in Rzeszów. In 1984, there were 19 parishes in the city (with 138,648 parishioners) with 84 priests, so statistically there was one priest per 1,651 parishioners. There were 61 diocesan priests in 15 parishes, and 23 monastic priests in 4 parishes. After the reorganization of Polish dioceses in 1992, Rzeszów became the capital city of the Rzeszów diocese and the number of priests increased, as they were involved not only in parish work, but also employed in many church offices. In 1993, 2 bishops and 132 priests, including 49 monastic priests, lived in 22 Rzeszów parishes. In 2000, the city was divided into 24 parishes with 157 priests, what made one priest per 919 parishioners. At the end of 2010, there were 2 bishops, 208 priests (30 parish priests, 58 vicars and 120 other clergymen) within 30 Rzeszów parishes. Statistically, there is 7 clergymen per one parish of 5,000 parishioners, that is one priest per 714 parishioners. The relatively high number of priests results from the city being the capital of a diocese. There are many diocesan institutions in Rzeszów, where the clergymen fulfill various functions. The diocesan priests account for 71% of all clergymen, whereas monastic priests for 29%. Diocesan priests serve in 24 parishes, while priests from monasteries and congregations (the La Salettes, Franciscans, Piarists, Salesians, Missionaries of the Holy Family, Dominicans) serve in 6 parishes. Most of the priests (25) live in a parish led by diocesan priests, where a Senior Priests Home is located. Except for that one parish, it is the monastic parishes which excel in the number of priests, and this has a great impact on the specific character and quality of pastoral service. In most parishes, the vicars or other clergymen help the parish priests in their work. There are 3 parishes in Rzeszów, where there is only one priest. Between 1984 and 2010, the number of priests in Rzeszów increased by 148% (diocesan priests – by 143%, monastic priests – by 161%) (Own calculations on the basis of: Rocznik diecezji przemyskiej na rok 1984 (ed. H. Borcz): 1984; Schematyzm diecezji rzeszowskiej 1993; Schematyzm diecezji rzeszowskiej 2000; Schematyzm diecezji rzeszowskiej 2010).

4. The Activity of Parishioners While Establishing New Parishes

The spatial development of Rzeszów, the growing number of residents and the reorganization of parish structure made it necessary to build new sacral buildings. The biggest agglomerations of Roman Catholics were the housing estates of panel blocks of flats. Thus the necessity of building churches and chapels, so that each local Roman Catholic community had their own temple. Sacral buildings were supposed to lay the foundation for the parishioners spiritual life and various congregations of laymen. New churches were particularly in demand in the big housing estates where people from rural areas settled in new apartments, together with their traditional religious models based on the faith of their fathers. Their religiosity was closely connected to the institutional Church which prescribed a model of religious life combining values, rules and religious behaviour patterns, as well as roles to be performed by its members. Both the attitudes and behaviour of lay believers were shaped to fit the model of life promoted by the Church and all related expectations. The priest, as a representative of the hierarchic Church, enjoyed respect of the local community (W-1, W-10, W-19).

In the People's Republic of Poland, the development of churches chain was inhibited by the local authorities and security service which by implementing the communist policy on religion limited the pastoral activity of the Church. The city authorities applied various methods to obstruct the construction of new temples. Their strategy was usually delaying
and hampering all procedures related to sacral building, and then issuing a negative decision. The decision was most often motivated by the lack of building materials or of demand for new churches. Office clerks were really persistent when issuing permits for the construction of sacral buildings in new housing estates. The nuisance caused by music, chanting and bells was the reason for negative decision – such a building should not be located in the middle of a modern housing estate. Besides, the law did not see a church or a chapel as a building of public utility, so it could not be a part of the spatial plan and the possibility of obtaining a parcel of land was virtually none. These made up impediments were a cover-up for the communist policy of gradual atheization of the society. The parishioners, however, were not easy to intimidate or discourage. At that time, the neglect of society basic religious needs was the source of serious conflicts with the authorities during the construction of parish churches in Rzeszów (W-19; W-22, W-23. See: S. Bober, Persona non grata. Biskup Ignacy Tokarczuk i władze PRL, wyd. 1, Lublin 2005: 146-151, 206-221; A. Garbarz, Działalność duszpastersko-społeczna arcybiskupa Ignacego Tokarczuka, Rzeszów 2006: 312-317).

The development of sacral building in Rzeszów, both in the communist era and in the following two decades, was very dynamic. Between 1975 and 2010, 22 parish churches were built or extended in Rzeszów. Nowadays, within all Rzeszów parishes, there are 30 parish churches, 4 succursal churches and 28 chapels. Often, these monumental buildings are a part of a pastoral centre. All parishes, with one exception, have their own temples to meet the needs of their parishioners. The youngest parish is currently building a church, though it has a wooden chapel where the masses are said.

Most of the city churches were built after 1980. Previously, the temples were located in temporary, improvised chapels. In Rzeszów, sometimes, the chapels were arranged in private houses or quickly constructed barracks. They were secretly prepared and then consecrated by one of the bishops. These chapels were illegal, so the parishioners stayed in for days, and nights, praying and preventing security service from seizing the building. (W-10; W-2; W-21, W-27; Schematyzm diecezji rzeszowskiej 2010)

The development of parish structure in Rzeszów had a great influence on the parishioners activity. The cooperation of priests and laymen in establishing the parishes and constructing churches released the spirit of diligence, generosity and dedication, and brought back self-confidence. Carrying out an uneasy, both financially and logistically, task required teamwork and a big share of time. Solidary cooperation strengthened the ties among parishioners and priests. The authority of priests was built up, as well as their role in the local community. Many people felt more emotionally connected to a church built at such an expense of their money and labour. Sharing this effort was an opportunity to get into relation with each other, it intensified devotion for common cause and deepened attachment to emotionally connected to a church built at such an expense of their money and labour. Sharing this effort was an opportunity to get into relation with each other, it intensified devotion for common cause and deepened attachment to

A parish was usually the first integrating agent within the new social space and diverse population structure.
Church Statistics SAC that parishioners obligated to participate in Sunday masses account for 82% of the total number of parishioners. The remaining 18% are Roman Catholics who for various reasons have no legal (canonical) or moral duty to participate in a mass (e.g. children under the age of 7; old, disabled or ill people, etc.). Because there is always a group of parishioners among the *dominicantes* which receives Holy Communion, so there is the possibility of determining the second important religiosity indicator. It is the *communicantes* ratio – the percentage of parishioners who take Communion in comparison to the total number of those obligated to participate in a Sunday mass. (Zdaniewicz, Adamczuk, 2000: 451-452; Gudaszewski, 2006: 73-74).

The collected statistical data made it possible to determine that in 2010, 80,000 parishioners took part in selected Sunday masses, what accounts for 54% of all Rzeszów parishioners. According to the methodology of the Institute of Catholic Church Statistics, the *dominicantes* ratio amounted to 65.6% and was slightly lower than the *dominicantes* ratio for Rzeszów diocese, which amounted to 66.8%. At the same time, the *dominicantes* ratio in Poland came to 41%. When comparing these *dominicantes* ratios, one can notice that Rzeszów parishioners are much better at performing their duty of a Sunday mass presence than average Poles, thus it can be deducted that they feel more closely connected to their parishes. (Own study. Compare: Sadłoń, 2010; Gudaszewski, 2006: 77-106).

During that Sunday survey in Rzeszów parishes, 22,464 parishioners took Communion, what accounts for 15.1% of all the parishioners and for 18.4% of those obligated. This result is almost identical to the result of the Institute of Catholic Church Statistics for Rzeszów diocese, where the *communicantes* ratio amounted to 18.3% of the obligated in 2010. Same year, the *communicantes* ratio in Poland came to 16.4%. (Own study. Compare: Sadłoń 2010).

From what Rzeszów parish priests gather, in the last few years a slight increase of the *communicantes* ratio goes hand in hand with a decline of *dominicantes* ratio. This trend is confirmed by the results of national research. The upward trend of the *communicantes* ratio indicates that religiosity of many people becomes more mature and deepened as they try to truly participate in a mass and receive Communion. The *communicantes* ratio is also growing because of the responsible and active involvement in the activities of parish groups and associations. Their members consolidate their communion with God and neighbours through spiritual and intellectual formation, and active participation in parish life. (W-2; W-10; W-36).

The bond between the parishioners and the Church is expressed through taking part in the activities of local Catholic groups and associations. Being an active parishioner means involving in the Church apostolic mission of ensuring that Christian rules are permeating the entire human existence. That way parishioners can oppose secularization and privatization of religion, affecting modern society, and bring back sacrum into the public. They also show the potential of Roman Catholic religion in times of social modernity. The place where laymen can really engage themselves in the Church life is a parish. Parishioners participate in its microstructures and become members of religious communities and associations. Thus, the Roman Catholic laity becomes co-responsible for the parish, co-operates with the clergy and supports them in various activities and initiatives designed for the common good.

In 2010, there were about 420 groups (representing 90 associations and movements) in Rzeszów parishes with about 28,500 members (19% of all city parishioners). Usually, parishioners organize themselves in Parish Pastoral Councils, Parish Caritas Teams, the Living Rosary, Catholic Action, the Domestic Church, Catholic Families Associations, both Radio Maryja and Radio Via Friends Associations, the Friends of the College Seminary Association, Parish Choirs. Young people prefer: the Light-Life Movement, Catholic Youth Association, Altar Servers, Academic Pastoral Care, Parish Scholas. Temperance movement plays a very important role in local parish communities, especially the Crusade for the Liberation of Man. Organizing such groups and associations is recommended by the Synod of Rzeszów Diocese (According to own study).

In an industrialized and urbanized society, contemporary Rzeszów parishes try to oppose secularization and religion privatization. Their activity is aimed at the development of parishioners spiritual life, desecularization and deprivatization. What is more, it shows the potential of Roman Catholicism which can effectively affect modern society. The parish evangelization activity is not limited to tasks typical of religious and church institutions (these are the basic forms of the Church presence in public life), but it endeavours to include the most important aspects of human life. Parishes promote Christian culture, support patriotic and religious organizations, inspire charity, launch prevention campaigns, help the addicts, run kindergartens and social therapy centres, organize summer camps for children, care for parishioners intellectual formation, co-operate with local government units and other institutions. Of course, church infrastructure does not serve only the religious needs of the parishioners, but also the cultural ones. Very often, national holidays and local festivities are celebrated in the churches or parish houses. Concerts are held there, as well as exhibitions, lectures, symposia, performances, commemorative meetings, meetings with special guests, and Christmas parties for various groups and associations etc. (W-2; W-8; W-27; W-36).

Despite many pastoral events taking place in Rzeszów parishes, the bond between parishioners and their parish is
loosening. Both the political transformation, and the society adaptation to a liberal and consumer way of life have caused changes in Rzeszów parishes. Part of laymen do not identify themselves with their parish, and do not get involved in the parish life, apart from formal matters. Those people see their parish as a sort of religious service agency. A modern parish is a place where the paradigm of evangelism and the paradigm of secularization meet. The process of religion privatization is developing. Nowadays, every person decides where is religion in their lives, is it important or is it not? More and more parishioners prefer loose relationship with their parish, they only declare themselves as Roman Catholics and formally appear in parish books. Believers do not identify religiosity with the Church, it is their business. Part of Rzeszów residents, especially the young ones, do not act according to objective and universal moral rules, but are guided by their subjective and conformist convictions. There is a dissonance between both the fundamental articles of faith, and the common philosophy of life and behaviour of the baptized. The involvement of many Roman Catholics in the life of local parish communities is usually shallow, because its form is usually traditional and superficial (W-2, W-19, W-23; W-36) Zob. Marianski 1997: 143-164; Idem, 2004 (a): 69-71; Idem, 2004 (b): 344-361).

5. Conclusion

Rzeszów is undoubtedly a very interesting subject of research for a religion sociologist, as it is the only voivodship city where the city development was accompanied by the development of parish structure, despite oppressive communist policy on religion. What was a true social phenomenon, was establishing new parishes and building new churches without legal permits, as the communist authorities would not issue one. The authorities did their best to transform Rzeszów into a leading socialist city without pastoral centres and churches. Nevertheless, these actions were to no avail, and new parishes and new temples were erected despite reprisals and penalties. Owing to the determination of local clergymen and laymen, on entering new, democratic reality Rzeszów had well-organized parish structure, unlike other Polish cities with parishes of several thousand or even a hundred thousand parishioners. In the following years, depending on Rzeszów residents needs, the structure of parishes was reorganized. In 2011, there were 30 parishes in the city, all of diverse territory and number of parishioners.

The process of creating smaller parishes, both in terms of space and population, improved the church structure functionality. Smaller units were more effective in meeting the parishioners religious needs and in strengthening the parish community ties. This was extremely important when the authorities attempted to fight off religion, as it helped local parish communities to survive, and boosted laymen religious and public activity.

The transformation of a Roman Catholic parish in Rzeszów shows that industrialization, social modernization, technological progress and rationalization did not implicate secularization of the city. From the early 1960s to the end of 1980s, an inverse trend could be observed, as both the religiosity and the parish activity of the Rzeszów laymen was very dynamic. Minor changes in Rzeszów Roman Catholics attitudes and behaviour are noticed since 1995. These include a slight decrease in the number of parishioners participating in Sunday masses, accompanied by an increase in the number of parishioners receiving Communion. Furthermore, the bond with the parish is weakening and the parishioners morality is no longer so strictly based on the rules of Roman Catholic Church. The sociological research indicate the growing discrepancy between the real moral attitudes of Roman Catholics, and their general religious declarations and the Church doctrine.

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Development of Legislation in Support of the Hospital Health Service Funding Reforms

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1. Preface

Not only the health system in Albania, but also the health systems of other European countries are coping with the challenge of hospital service financing and search for contemporary tools and techniques. A financially sustainable system and universal access of the entire population to hospital health services are vital for socio-economic development of the country. Access of all citizens to hospital health care is one of the essential principles of the Constitution concerning health and social insurances.

Hospital Health Service in Albania is actually financed by historical budget, a method which neither encourages health service providers nor guarantees quality health services in the country. Hence the policy in terms of hospital funding has to be changed with the intention to improve outcomes, decrease the services cost and increase the quality of services.

2. The Goal of this Study

The issue of reforming the way in which public hospitals are funded is one of the processes that has currently become part of a broad public debate, because all strata of the population are interested for the outcomes of this reform. We intend to analyze in this study the legislation on which the funding of hospitals is based and identify those legal interventions that will support the need for changing the hospital financing methods, always with the aim to increase access of the population and equal enjoyment of the right to receive healthcare.

In order to realize this goal, we have identified and analyzed the legal acts regulating the financing of hospitals, focusing on the opportunities and constraints that different forms of financing are posing. At the end of this analysis, we have presented some conclusions and recommendations in terms of necessary changes that will enable reforming of public hospital service financing.

The legal basis of the analysis:
- Law no. 9106, dated 07.17.2003 "On the hospital service in the Republic of Albania"
- Council of Ministers Decision no. 140, dated 17.02.2010 "On health care services financing from compulsory health insurance scheme", as amended.
- Law no. 9741 dated 21.05.2007 "On higher education in the Republic of Albania", as amended

3. Analysis of the Current Situation

Starting from 2009, the hospital care funding is performed through the process of contracting of above mentioned health providers with Health Insurance. Through the Health Insurance Institute (abbreviated as ISKSH), which was the responsible body for the administration of the health insurance scheme, the budget for 39 hospitals is funded, but 38 of these hospitals operate through treasury branches and only Durres regional hospital receives its funds directly from HII and manages them in bank accounts under at second level banks under its own name. Out of 39 hospitals, 4 of them are university hospitals, 11 are regional hospitals (Tirana has no regional hospital) and 23 are municipal hospitals.

This process started with an amendment to the law no. 7870, dated 13.10.1994 "On Health Insurance in the Republic of Albania", upon the Council of Ministers Decision no. 1661, dated 29.12.2009, which defined the methods and

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2 Steve Keen, reforming hospital payment in Albania, World Bank Report, Tirana 2012
elements of contracting, especially the way in which hospital employees were paid.

Law no. 7870, dated 13.10.1994, "On Health Insurance in the Republic of Albania" regulated three important moments:

1. Involvement of the hospital services in the compulsory insurance scheme (Article 4, 2, c).
2. Authorization of the Council of Ministers to approve the services to be covered by the scheme (Article 4, 2, c).
3. Determined the legal means through which the funding was going to be executed, that is the contract that hospitals should bind with health insurances. (Article 26)

Once the important step of involvement of hospitals in the health insurance scheme was undertaken, the hospitals activity was regulated under Law no. No. 9106, dated 07.17.2003 "On the hospital service in the Republic of Albania", which is still in force.

Although the law on hospitals, a terminology that is practically used nowadays, dates back to 2003, it has been always appreciated as a law correctly drafted based on a broad vision, because it created since the beginning the appropriate terrain for various funding opportunities in hospitals and it especially established some elements that aimed at the transformation of hospitals into autonomous service units.

Our assumption that this law founded the ground for the coverage of hospital services from health insurance schemes is based on the fact that it sets out the following:

- Public hospitals are funded from health insurance institutions (Article 24).
- Public and private hospitals can sell their services to health insurance institutions of the Republic of Albania and to foreign countries (Article 26).
- Describes the ways of funding the public hospitals activities (Article 28).
- Obligation to report, at the end of the financial year, to the Ministry of Health, health insurance institutions and any other institution that has contributed with funds for the development of their activities (Article 30).

This law also provides for the following forms under which the public hospitals are funded:

a) payments through the budget;
b) the payment per resident;
c) payment for service;
d) payment per case;
e) payment per similar diagnosis groups.

The law also stipulates that hospitals develop their financial activity in accordance with laws and bylaws applicable to institutions with an independent budget. Such a labelling was used up to now only for some institutions that had alternative funding sources and not just the state budget. So in this sense, the law prepared a suitable ground and paved the way for using another method of financing.

Alternatively, the law elaborates the ways of managing hospitals through collegial bodies, which have broad competencies in terms of general management function.

Governing Bodies of county hospital authority are:

- Administrative Council
- Directorate
- Medical Council

The Administrative Council is composed from members of the county council, the municipal council and prefecture, who represent the local government interests and a group of representatives from the district health institutions such as the physician’s order, the hospital, health insurances including the nurse in charge of the district hospital.

The Administrative Council is entitled to make decisions concerning health policies of the county hospital and make proposals concerning the draft budget, its allocation and destination. It is also empowered to appoint the district hospitals directors.

The County Directorate of Hospital Authority stands at the second rank of governing bodies escalation. The County Directorate of the Hospital Authority comprises of:

- Executive Director
- Technical Deputy/ Director
- Economic Deputy/Director
- Nurse in charge

As it is already seen, the Executive Director accomplishes all the executive functions and in the capacity of the representative of the Directorate he/she is authorized to keep relations with third parties and employees of the hospital.

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follow implementation of the hospital technical-economic indicators, head the work for drafting the economic and financial budget and submits to the Administrative Council for approval the breakdown budget for each hospital, service and ward and controls the implementation of the budget.

The medical committee is part of the County’s Hospital Authority Directory, which is the directory’s technical advisory body and is composed of the hospitals directors that operate within the county hospital authority and the service chiefs or their representatives elected by the services.

The medical commission is headed by the chairman elected through a secret ballot on the basis of criteria established by the Minister of Health. The medical commission mainly proposes to the County Directorate of Hospital Authority rules concerning the technical aspects of the organization and the quality of health services provided by the hospital.

I would like to also underline as a conclusion that this law creates legal spaces that the hospital has different funding sources, but also various payment methods. The fact that law provides for the hospital governing bodies and their respective powers may indicate that the hospital will have the necessary autonomy and will operate as a self-acting autonomous unit. But what matters here is that as the law was adopted beforehand there doesn’t exist the necessary climate to enforce it. Regardless of the innovated concepts concerning self-funding and autonomy, it was not really implemented. Boards were never founded and operated and no any initiative was taken to change the way of financing hospitals in spite of what the law stipulated.

The hospitals law arranges the activity of regional and municipal hospitals, while the management of the University Hospital Centre is regulated by Law no. 9741, dated 21.05.2007 “On higher education in the Republic of Albania”, as amended. Under this law, the Board is the highest governing body of the University Hospital Center (QSUT) chaired by the Minister of Health or a delegated deputy minister and it has four members:

a- Rector of the higher education institution;
b- The Faculty of Medicine dean;
c- Chairman of the Faculty of Medicine Professors Council;
d- Director General of Health Insurance Institute (HII).

The Board approves development policies and strategies and drafts technical and financial programs of the Hospital Center activity, in line with government policies on health, higher education and research. It also elaborates the strategic development plan of the University and Faculties of Medicine. The main responsibility of the Board is to elect candidates for Director-General of the University Hospital Center, who is appointed by the Prime Minister, as well as to elect the Deputy Director General and service chiefs. In terms of financial management, the Board approves the draft budget, the University Hospital Center structure and organogram, approves the report on financial activity and the balance sheet and it also approves the statute and bylaws on its operation.

General Directorate of University Hospital Centre is the only executive body which, under the supervision of the board, leads and organizes the medical, financial, administrative and technical activity of this center, while the CEO is the authority of the University Hospital Center that deals with management.

Despite of their importance both as tertiary hospitals as well as university centers for young doctors education, even these institutions do not have the appropriate level of institutional and financial autonomy to cope with various financing methods. Despite of the fact that their Board is effective, it hasn’t enough autonomy for the use of cash, because the budget for these institutions is pre-determined by the Council of Ministers.

With the inclusion of the hospitals in the health insurance scheme, starting from 2010 and in the ensuing years, the annual law of the state budget, in Section 5, which specified the health insurance budget included a paragraph, which predicted that the hospitals budget shall be elaborated from the Council of Ministers by a specific decision.

Thus, among the acts we are analyzing is the Council of Ministers decision no. 140 dated 17.02.2010 “On healthcare financing from the compulsory health insurance scheme”, as amended. This CMD was issued in support of the above laws and it abrogated CMD No. 1661, dated 29.12.2009.

This Decision regulates in detail the issues of hospitals financing and contracting and namely:

- determines funding by historical budget as a method for hospitals funding. HII shall fund contracted services based on historical budget until the drafting of the services costs. (Item 18, Paragraph I.)
- Defines the structure of the hospital budget.

The contracted budget of the hospital has the following expenditures items:

a) Salaries and other expenses for the staff salaries;

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4 Prof Aurela Anastasi, Dr. Eralda Çani; An analysis of the legal and constitutional framework of public administration bodies in Albania, October 2008
b) Contributions to social and health insurance for the personnel;
c) Goods and other services. (Point 18, Paragraph II)
   - Elaborates rigorously the total budget of each hospital according to the structure of expenditure items
     reflected in an annex table attached to this Decision.
   - Defines the total fix number of employees of any hospital
   - Restricts the ability of budget reallocation to the following directions only:
     • Redistribution from "expenditures for goods and services" to "Wages and insurance" can be done only
       within a threshold of 2%;
     • Redistribution from "Wage and insurance" to "Expenditures for goods and services" is only possible
       within a threshold of 5%.

The decision sets the framework of contracts that HII binds with hospitals for funding health services
offered by them.

The bilateral contract should specify among others:

a) services for each hospital;
b) methods of recordkeeping and reporting;
c) the method of the hospital’s payment;
d) indicators of quality and performance;
e) ways of exercising control from HII;
f) referral system and method of identifying the insured;
g) ways of resolving disputes

As an administrative contract 5 establishes, alters or revokes a legal relation in the sphere of public law, we may
say that the contracts made by HII can be considered as administrative ones. This is furthermore highlighted by the fact
that the contract has always two parties that are one body of the administration (HII or its authorized local structures) and
the public health institutions (hospital). These contracts meet the requirement of legality and legitimate cause as they are
authorized and supported by law. These contracts may be also altered or terminated unilaterally by the administration
only when there is a public interest that makes this change necessary. 6 In such cases the parties try to reach
understanding, but if they fail to reach such an understanding, the final decision will be taken by the court.

However, this law does not refer to the development of payment methods to the hospitals, but it is focused on the
definition of the formal aspect of the funds allocation and dates and procedures of their allocation.

As hospitals are autonomous entities, procurement of drugs is carried out by regional hospitals themselves. By the
end of 2010 and onwards and in accordance with HII instructions, hospitals report to HII7 on the following:

- Current expenditures (only with HII funds) in total.
- Detailed expenditures for each service,
- The average cost per case in inpatient services
- Daily expenditures per patient in inpatient services
- Full costs for without beds patients (lab, imaging, etc.)
- Average day stay of patients in hospitals by services
- The bed’s utilization rate

Hospitals are currently financed by historic budget, therefore the budget is provided as divided into three main
items of expenditures:

- The salary and other staff rewards (600)
- Contributions to social and health insurance paid by the employer at a rate of 16.7% over gross wages (601)
- Goods and Services (602). The hospital buys through these funds drugs and medical materials, pays bills for
electricity, water, phone, food, cleaning, fuel and other transportation costs, maintenance of tangible assets,
travel and per diem, rents for premises, equipment or vehicles, etc.).

The hospital must cover through the available funds all of its annual needs, liquidate all the expenditures it has
made, or purchase as much services as the available funds.8

Finally, but not less important, we would like to review Law no.10383, dated 24.02.2011 "On Compulsory Health
Care System in RA." The law especially regulates ways of making payments to service providers, including hospitals.

5 Administrative Procedures Code, article 6
6 Sokol Sadushi. Administrative Right, Vol.2
7 Jens Holst, Infosure Evolution, Health Policy Consultancy on Albanian health Insurance, Berlin, 2008
8 Zyrhada Kongoli, the regulating framewrok of hospital autonomy in Albania, USAID report, 2012
The law provides for that the competent authority for determining the forms of payment is the Administrative Council of the Compulsory Healthcare Insurance Fund.

Forms of payment must meet the only following criteria:

- To ensure access of the population to services,
- To ensure cost effectiveness of services
- To guarantee the growth of their quality.

The Fund shall be able to pay the health services delivered by service providers, including hospitals, if the following will be realized:

a. Primarily, health services are included in the so-called package of health services.
b. Secondly, service providers have contracts with Compulsory Healthcare Insurance Fund as a conditions for hospital health services payment. The law requires first of all involvement in the health service packages, and secondly making of contracts between the Fund and hospital service providers.

Concerning payments, the law presents a special document/procedure, which is the claim for payment. This basic document specified by the law in order to arrange the funding is verifiable, and the procedures for filing a claim for payment and their verification are defined in the Fund's internal acts. (Regulations)

3.1 Service packages

Health service packages are standard packages of health service benefiting, which include primary health care services, hospital care, reimbursable drugs and drugs for hospital usage and medical consumption materials. Comprising elements of the package are associated with their costs in cash.

Health services included in the package should be assessed in advance based on some criteria defined by the law:

The health care packages include:

- visits, medical examinations and treatments at public primary healthcare centers and public hospitals;
- visits, medical examinations and treatments at private primary healthcare providers and private hospitals;
- drugs, medical products and treatments from health services contracted providers

Criteria for inclusion of the services into packages are various.

a) medical: the degree on which the service affects the improvement of life quality by refraining the further deterioration of health and increasing the life expectancy;
b) economic: cost ratio of the services effectiveness and the availability of financial resources of the Fund;
c) social: the patient's solvency, availability of services and the number of beneficiaries in relation to the population.

The procedure for drafting and adopting the service packages and their costs pursue the following route:

Technical committees - drafts the draft packages
Administrative Council - approves draft packages
Director General - drafts the Financial Statement and submits it to the Minister of Health for procedure.
The Minister of Health the draft packages and Financial Statement sends them to the Council of Ministers for final approval.

Technical committees dealing with drafting of packages consist of experts representing medical, economic and social interests and their nominative composition is determined by the Administrative Board of the Fund.

3.2 Contracting with the Fund

The Administrative Council adopts procedures and criteria for making contracts and payments. Intending to ensure the best possible and qualitative health services, contracts with service providers are made after preliminary verification if they meet some certain conditions. According to these criteria, hospitals have to achieve some set standards.

The contract is made with public health service providers and specifies coverage of all services included in the package of services, as well as with private health service providers, which cover services that remain uncovered by the public system.
4. Payment Models

We are briefly providing some of the most possible forms of hospital services packages payment.9

5. Payment by Global Budgeting

The total budget of the institution is defined according to this method of financing, allowing the respective institution to use the budget according to its needs. This way of financing requires that the institution has the necessary autonomy to divide the budget by its own and skillful managers capable of using the given budget efficiently.

Global budgets are a mixture of fixed payments before expenditures for certain services are made over a period of time (e.g. one year).

This way of hospital funding has some advantages both for the hospital and the FUND in the capacity of the funder. Advantages: So this method combines simple administrative procedures with several incentives to further upgrade outcomes, reduces importance of a detailed information, makes management easier and cheaper, removes restrictions on items or articles to be needed and authorizes decentralization and local autonomy in health care expenditure.

- Simple administrative procedures may be combined with several incentives to increase the results to be achieved.
- Needs for information are reduced
- Cost Saving
- Fund Safety
- Easier (free) administration
- Restrictions towards demands for articles or items are removed
- Services coordination and planning are improved
- Elimination of unnecessary services
- Decentralization & Local autonomy for expenditures in health care sector

Some disadvantages of this way of funding are that it doesn't offer strong incentives for the results, just like some other payment systems that are based on the results to be achieved. But if the service unit is small, global budgets may damage health safety necessary to protect patients.

6. Payment for Services

Through this way of financing, the hospital as a service provider receives funds only for the health services provided to the patients.

It is observed that when payments are made in this way, specifications or calculations of surgical procedures and preclinical services are more direct, something that may improve the patient access.

Incentive to conduct a greater number of procedures may probably have an adverse effect on the quality and overall expenditures. There is an incentive to improve efficiency when expenditures exceed the reimbursable percentage, but we don't have an incentive when percentage exceeds expenditures.

- It is administratively direct for the payer and provider.
- specification or calculation of surgical procedures and preclinical services that may improve the patient access are more direct.
- The stimulus to realize more procedures may have an adverse effect on the overall quality and costs.
- There is an incentive to improve efficiency when the costs exceed the reimbursement percentage, but there is not any stimulus when the percentage exceeds the costs.

7. Payment for Stay Days in Hospital

This method of financing concerns the total number of hospitalized patients within a certain period of time.

Specification or calculation of surgical procedures and preclinical services are more direct through this method as well. They can improve patient access, serve as a stimulus to have a greater number of hospitalizations, but may have an

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9 Steve keen, Reforming hospital payment in Albania, World Bank Report, Tirana 2012
adverse effect over the overall quality and costs. This mode of payment may provide an incentive to improve performance efficiency in the hospital, when costs exceed the amount of funding for stay days in the hospital, but it doesn't serve as an incentive when the funding value exceeds the cost.

- It is administratively direct for the payer and provider.
- Specification or calculation of surgical procedures and preclinical services that may improve the patient access are more direct.
- The stimulus to realize more procedures may have an adverse effect on the overall quality and costs.
- There is an incentive to improve efficiency when the costs exceed the reimbursement percentage, but there is not any stimulus when the percentage exceeds the costs.

8. Payment per Case

It is used to provide:
- A specific package of health care services
- For a certain category of the population
- For a fixed payment per person
- For a certain period of time

Per capita payments are widely used in primary health care service. In continuance of financial analysis, the general opinion prevailing among specialists and experts in the field is that financing has to be changed through prospective methods, starting with the shift from historical budget to the global budget probably combined with funding per case when the patient is discharged from the hospital at the extent designated by the Administrative Council of the Fund.10

9. Conclusions

We would like to provide as follows the legal basis for the change of financing methods and the areas where changes will occur:
- Law no. No. 9106, dated 07.17.2003 "On the hospital service in the Republic of Albania".
- As the annual budget law needs some amendments, that part of Article 5, which defines the Council of Ministers as a body that approves and elaborates the hospital budget and that forces hospitals to use treasury account by not allowing them to carry unwithdrawn budget has to be abolished. The so far definition doesn’t contain any trace of autonomy and makes hospitals totally rigid and incapable to profit payment and manage their money.

CMD, no. 140, dated 17.02.2010 "On hospital health care service financing from compulsory healthcare insurance scheme", as amended, should be abrogated.
- The FUND’s statute should provide for:
  - Hospital’s budget must be prepared / negotiated with the Health Insurance Fund. Funds will be provided on monthly basis for the fix share and on quarterly basis for the indicators share.
  - Levels of hospital employee salaries should be determined by Health Insurance Fund Administrative Council.
- Changes to the bylaws (Statute, Regulations) on the hospitals operation has to be introduced with the intention to strengthen autonomy in terms of the right to make decisions, manage money and make contracts with third parties. Interventions should also be made to promote the implementation of the powers concerning the role of the Hospital Administrative Council and the Executive Director.
  - Hospitals should have their own bank account in the second level banks, rather than operate via treasury branches.
  - Hospitals should prepare protocols and calculate costs under the monitoring of the Health Insurance Fund.
  - The Budget Management Committee has to be founded as a subsidiary body of the Director General of 10 Steve Keen. Reforming hospital payment in Albania, World Bank, Tirana 2012
the Hospital Authority.

The analyzed legal basis is as follows:

- Law no. No. 9106, dated 07.17.2003 "On the hospital service in the Republic of Albania".
- Law no.10383, dated 24.02.2011 "On Compulsory HealthCare Insurances in RA".
- Council of Ministers Decision No. 140, dated 17.02.2010 "On hospital health services financing from compulsory healthcare insurance scheme", as amended.
About Some Manifestations of Antonymy and Synonymy in the Terminology of Economics

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Abstract

In terminology, different from the general language, the synonymy was considered as a harmful occurrence in handling the problems of terminology, but acceptable. On the platform of general language, it is difficult to study the terminological lexicon in the synonymic connections as separate entities, unless they are viewed as an integrated lexicon in the general lexicon. It becomes possible to study the synonymy in terminology within a field of knowledge, like polysemy and homonymy. In terminology synonymous connections are built on the base of semantic equivalents and as such they impinge the system, although they appear for internal and external linguistic causes, which lead to their inevitable birth. On this viewpoint they are examined as a damaging occurrence and in the process of terminology standardization they contain a focal direction of the work for their removal, by determining through them the standard term.

Keywords: antonymy, synonymy, terminology of economics.

1. General issues

Synonyms are different words with identical or similar meanings which constitute a rich class in Albanian language. Thus, we have two, three or more words that indicate the same thing, the same feature, the same action or the same phenomenon, such as, izbrazët-bosh, ndikim-influencë, përvojë-eksperiencë, shmang-evitoj, tregti-pazarllëk. (Eng. empty-hollow, impact-influence, experience-experience, evade-avoid, trade-bargaining).

Synonymy, as a concept, in the general language as in any language, as well as in Albanian is viewed as a positive phenomenon, as an expression of the diversity and the wealth of language. Synonyms, as a basis have a set of semantics, its semantic proximity, but also its semantic equivalents. The latter is like a basis for the absolute synonyms (binaries) where in the general lexicon they are at a limited quantity.

The causes of the occurrence of synonymous terms (binaries) of the synonymy in terminology are different:

• they can be created in the course of development and formation of terminology, when the effort is made to introduce the most suitable foreign or native term into the language. Cases of binary connections can be brought here, which may constitute the most extreme manifestations of the creation of synonyms in the relevant field, due to the competition of foreign terms as well and native ones in the stream of time, which is observed more in Albanian, like: fond i paprekshëm-fond i pandarë-fond i pandashëm; çmim sezonal-çmim stinor, (xhiro) likuide-(xhiro) me para në dorë (Eng. intangible fund-undivided fund-indivisible fund, seasonal price-seasonal price, (giro) liquid - (giro) cash).

• they arise as a result of the conceptual development; from the emergence of new concepts and the phasing out of old ones from language;

• during the efforts for the insertion of native terms into terminology which as a process can be evaluated in a twofold way:

As an overload of terminology, which creates confusion in communication, but also as a way of terminology perfection, where the authentic terms are really more convenient than the foreign ones and thus respond to the

characters of the terms, like for example, single meaning, accuracy, etc. As an example, in Albanian we may bring the gradual elimination of the binary units following the times until today, but also in their zigzag path: produkt-prodhim, (drejtimi) unik i ndërmarrjes-(drejtimi) njësor i ndërmarrjes (Eng. product-production, unique (direction) of the company- monistic (direction) of the company).

2. The Manifestation of Antonymy

As a result of antonymy, words pair into groups according to their semantic similarity. Each of these groups can be constructed according to some characteristic features:

- according to the opposition or proximity or similarity of words within a context;
- according to the scope of use;
- according to the lexical meaning of the word.

The antonymy appears as a linguistic phenomenon with a systemic character for the general language, as well as for the terminology of economics, since through it, connections from opposites are created; thus, it is a bonding phenomenon of meanings or concepts in opposition to each other. Regarding terminology, this phenomenon can occur in varying degrees depending on the character of the field.

This phenomenon appears even in the terminology of economics, especially in its basic vocabulary. As a rule, adjective units may oppose since they indicate quality, whereas nouns do less so because they indicate concrete objects: homogenjë-heterogenjë, uniform-jouformum, mikrostrukturë-makrostrukturë (Eng. homogeneous-heterogeneous, uniform- (not) uniform, microstructure-macrostructure).

As a rule, in the terms of compound words, their constituent elements oppose, but not the compound words with each other, e.g., in prodhim i lartë – prodhim i ulët (Eng. high production- low production) the two compound words do not oppose each other but the constituent elements do: i lartë – i ulët (Eng. high - low).

In the composition of terms, terms can be elements themselves which oppose when the compound word is composed by two terms, or two common words may oppose, like for example, i madh – i vogël (tek kapital i madh – kapital i vogël). (Eng. large - small (in large capital - small capital).


Here we will present some antonymic pairs, which have wider use in the terminology of economics:

- jo-: (meaning 'un-', 'non-', 'in-', 'i' and 'ab': aftësi-joaftësi (Eng. ability-inability), bujqësor-jobujqësor (Eng. agricultural - 'un'or 'non'agricultural), ciklik-jociklik (Eng. cyclic - noncyclic), ekonomik-joeconomik (Eng. economical-uneconomical), fitimprurës-jofilimprurës (Eng. profitable-unprofitable), formal-joformal (Eng. formal-informational), industrial-joindustrial (Eng. industrial - nonindustrial), kalimtar-jokalimtar (Eng. transitional-intransitive), kapitalist-jokapitalist (Eng. capitalist-noncapitalist), klient-joklient (Eng. consumer-nonconsumer), kompetent-jokompetent (Eng. competent - incompetent), kryesor-jokryesor (Eng. main-(not)main), liquid-joliquid (Eng. liquid-(non)liquid), mali-jomal (Eng. goods-(not)goods), material-jomaterial (Eng. material - immaterial), modern-jomodern (Eng. modern-(not) modern), natyror-jonatyror (Eng. natural - unnatural), nikoqir-jonikoqir (Eng. host-(un)host), normal-jonormal (Eng. normal-abnormal), objektiv-joojektiv (Eng. objective-nonobjective), original-jooriginal (Eng. original-unoriginal), përcaktues-jopërcaktues (Eng. determinable-undeterminable), përdorues-jopërdorues (Eng. usable-unusable), praktik-jopraktik (Eng. practical-unpractical), prodhues-joprodhues (Eng. productive-unproductive), punëtor-jopunëtor (Eng. hardworking-(not) hardworking), real-joreal (Eng. real-unreal), rentabël-jorentabël (Eng. profitable-unprofitable), tatimor-jotatimor (Eng. taxable-untaxable);

- pa-: (meaning 'without', 'less' and 'un-':) i afti-i paafetë (Eng. skilled-unskilled), me afat-pa afat (Eng. limited-unlimited), i ambalazhuar-i paambalazhuar (Eng. packaged-unpackaged), i besueshëm-i pabesueshëm (Eng. reliable-unreliable), i caktuari-pacaktuara (Eng. set/defined-undefined), i deklaruar-i padëklaruar (Eng. declared-undeclared), i dëmshëm-i padëmshëm (Eng. harmful-harmless), i dobishëm-i padobishëm (Eng. useful-useless), fуг- i pasufi (Eng. strength-without strength (impotent)), i formuar-i paformuar (Eng. formed-unformed), i fuqishëm-i pafuqishëm

Manifestation of Synonymy

There are different opinions about synonymy in terminology. The presence of synonyms within the terminological system is categorically denied by some researchers and is named as an occurrence which damages the terminology. Other researchers accept the synonymic character of the terms. About the phenomenon/occurrence of synonyms in the general literary language, other researchers do oppose the occurrence of doublets in terminology. These researchers, by bearing in mind the differentiation of semantic nuances in the scientific context consider that these semantic nuances with time will weaken and will level, therefore in the frame of the scientific context all synonyms are doublets.

It is obvious that the terminology of economics in Albanian as a terminology of a developing country, should be characterized, and indeed characterized by a multi variant of terms for naming different concepts, which appear in the form of binary pairs, but sometimes also in binary verses. If this terminology is viewed in terms of today’s situation it can be noticed that in general the quantity of binaries has shrunk over time especially in comparison with the past, when it was in the developing and consolidation process. In particular, after the 80’s in Albania with the launch of a more organized work in the area of processing Albanian terminologies, the attempt was also made in the field of economy to Albanize its terms, which was reflected in some textbooks and in particular in some dictionaries/glossaries directly or indirectly related to the field of economy, as, "Glossary of terms of political economy", "Glossary of Finance and Accounting" and other. In Kosova is published "Glossary of Business, Economy and Finance" in English-Albanian Albanian-English. In this case it should be emphasized that this work in the area of refining the terminology of economics, contributed in its use in textbooks and especially in the discursive practice.

In continuation we will present some examples of the manifestation of synonymy in the terminology of economics: asistencë sociale-kujdes shoqëror (Eng. social assistance - social care), buxhetishtetë-buxhetishtetëror (Eng. the budget of the state - state budget), centralizim i financave-qendërdirëm i financave (Eng. centralization of finances - finance centered), çëmim sezonal-çëmim stinor (Eng. seasonal price-price determined by the season), çëmim bazë-çëmim të pandryshueshme (Eng. basic prices-fixed prices), decentralizim i çëmive-sëndëmërim i çëmive (Eng. decentralization of prices), depoziti me afat-depoziti e kushtëzuar (Eng. term deposit-conditioned deposit), ekonomi shumëformëshe-ekonomi shumësektorëshe (Eng. diverse economy-multisectorial economy), fond i paprekshëm-fond i pandarë (Eng. untouchable fund-undivided fund), hua-borxh (Eng. loan-debt), i likuiduar-i shlyer (Eng. liquidated-deleted), i zbrazët-bosh (Eng. empty-hollow), kursi valutë-kurs valutor (Eng. exchange rate-exchange rate), likuidim-shlyerje (Eng. liquidation-deletion), liquidoj-shlyej (Eng. liquidate-delete), listë e pagesave-listëpagesë (Eng. pay-roll-pay-sheet), mall-artikull-send (Eng. goods-article-item), markzë-
shtesë tregtimi (Eng. added margin-trading), mbiprodhimi-superprodhimi (Eng. overproduction-superproduction), mbjellje e llogarisë-ndalim i llogarisë (Eng. account closure-account ban), përvrijë-eksperiencë (Eng. experience), prodhim-produkt (Eng. production-product), rabat-zbritje tregtimi (Eng. rebate-trading discount), saldo-mbjetje llogarite (Eng. equity-account residue), shmhang-evitoj (Eng. evade-avoid), shpenzimet e buxhetit-shpenzime buxhetore (Eng. budget expenses-budget expenditure), tatimfitimi-tatimfitim (Eng. tax for profit-profit tax), tregj-tazarëllik (Eng. trade-bargaining) etc.

Unfortunately, it can be noted, that after the opening up of Albania and Kosova with the world, especially after 2000, introducing the process of market economy and globalization there is some limitation in the standardization work of the field in question which has led either to the cessation of work to remove binary terms or to the return to foreign terms, especially derived from English (or parallel use of foreign as well as Albanian terms).

6. Conclusion

Semantic phenomena in terminology have to be treated with the specificity of their appearance in this lexical subsystem, compared with the general lexicon. From this perspective it is important to underline that the characteristics of occurrence of the synonymy and the antonymy can be brought out fully, when viewed within a particular field of knowledge, as is in our case the terminology of the field of economics.

By looking at the terminology in question from the view of occurrences of the phenomenon of synonymy, it appears that the Albanian terminology of economy is overloaded with synonymous terms even in its functional condition today, especially in the subfield of economy, finance, etc.

Antonymy as a semantic phenomenon even in the terminology of economics, different from the semantic phenomena above; is closer as a phenomenon with the general lexicon since it appears as a positive phenomenon, motivated by the systemic character of terminology. In the economics terminology, antonyms usually are revealed as part of compound words/phrases, like, i lartë-i ulët, i madh-i vogël tek prodhimi i lartë – prodhimi i ulët, kapital i madh – kapital i vogël (Eng. high-low, large-small, for high production - low production, large capital - small capital).

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Rio+20: A Missed Opportunity

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Abstract

The Rio + 20 were a landmark event in addressing serious environment & economic crisis affecting the world. The Earth summit was a historical opportunity to set the world on correct development trajectory. Negotiators from 191 countries came together to chart a road map for sustainable development and poverty eradication. But the developed and developing countries could not wipe out their differences and reach consensus on the definition of green economy. The new draft was in favour of developed countries. The current draft agreement is bereft of necessary vision and commitment for eradicating poverty and tackling environmental degradation to deliver sustainable development. The document is still empty and very weak in addressing daunting and grave concerns of women, youth and children, farmers, indigenous people and workers. It has failed in addressing the reproductive and sexual rights of women. There are no strong commitments to women’s rights to land, property and inheritance. The main objective of this paper is to explore that how Rio +20 has become a victim of reduced commitments by developed countries to support the developing countries in the quest of their development. This paper is an academic endeavor to reflect that how the summit is a missed opportunity to tackle the most important environmental issues. There is an increasing rift between fashionable environmental issues focused on by rich countries and the prosaic needs of the rest of the world. The document is an offense to the future generation since the governments have agreed to maintain the status quo on so many issues that will severally affect the future generation. The document is a far cry from the ambitious response to world’s mounting social, economic and environmental crisis. It has missed the opportunity to shift global agriculture onto a path towards ecological sustainability and justice for the hungry.

1. The Context

The world is facing a mounting crisis. Nature is being subjected to unprecedented destruction and loss due to the relentless plundering of its resources. Everyday we depend on the diversity of plants animals for our food, fuel, clothing, medicines and raw materials. In recent years, the global financial crisis, food crisis, volatile oil price, degradation of ecosystem combined together resulted in the intensity of the problem to a considerable extent. These multiple and inter-related crisis call into the question the ability of a growing human population to live peacefully and sustainably on this planet of the demand the urgent attention of the governments and citizens around the world. The systemic crisis is food, fuel, finance that come to a head and is on-going in many countries -have their roots in an economic paradigm that has not accounted for the value of nature and its array of life -- supporting services. There is no core recognition that the multiple crisis that we face are caused by current anthropocentric development model rooted in unsustainable product and consumption patterns and financialisation of economy that are all based on and exacerbate gender, race and class inequities.

No any positive advance in the negotiations process going on within official conference was found. The discussion was confirmed to a set of take proposals concerning the implementation of new international environmental governance. The Green economy is more stage of capitalistic accumulations. Nothing any green economy substitutes the economy based on extraction of fossil fuels, or models of consumption or industrial production. On the contrary, this economy opens up new territories to the economy that exploits people and environment, increasing the myth that unlimited economic growth is possible. The failed economic model which is dressed in green submits all vital cycles of nature to the market rules & to the domination of technology. Tran genies, agro-toxics, synthetic biology, artificial life, geo-engineering & nuclear energy are narrated as technological solutions to the multiple crises even though they do not address the real
causes\(^1\). Furthermore, the expansion of agro industrial food system, one of the biggest causes of environmental, economic and social crisis is promoted, deepening speculation about food and promoting the interests of global agribusiness industry at the expense of local, peasant, family, indigenous peoples productions, thus affecting the health of all. The formal process proposes to implement forms of global environmental governance, which role would be to administer and facilitate this “green economy” through the World Bank and other financial institutions which would result in a new cycle of debt and structural adjustment dressed in green. There can not be democratic global governance without ending the influence of corporations on the United Nation\(^2\).

The Earth summit was a historical opportunity to set the world on correct development trajectory. Negotiators from 191 countries came together to chart a road map for sustainable development and poverty eradication. The theme was green economy. But developed and developing countries denied to wipe out their differences. Developed countries were not prepared to avoid their extravagant way of living, while developing countries somehow stood firmly on their green commitments. The countries could not reach consensus on the definition of green economy. The outcome was a document which neither showed the ways for saving the environment nor ways to alleviate poverty. There had been agreement on less then 25 per cent of the draft compiled by the United Nations. On June 15, 2012, the last informal negotiations, when the co-chairs reported that very little progress have been made.

The new draft favored developed countries. The Indian negotiators had made the reporters realize by convincing developed countries to keep the phrase “Common But Differentiated Responsibility”in the draft. Some countries held the view that though the outcome is balanced, it is not ambitious. By midnight, all issues barring those of high seas and self-determination of people under foreign occupation had been decided. It was about four in the morning when the text was agreed upon finally. The next day, the agreed draft was printed by Brazilian Presidency and circulated among negotiators. But it could not be called as a conference document as it had not yet been formally adopted by a plenary. Unlike previous UN conferences, while all the negotiations drafts were released to the public despite being under deliberations, the text was marked by utter secrecy. The Brazilian government left no stone unturned working on the draft, but it disagreed to obtain premature comments from the non-government organizations & activists. The outcome did not satisfy all. Outside the negotiation chambers, the civil society groups slammed the outcome document as one without ambitions. Some even called the conference Rio minus 40 because they viewed the outcome as regressive. Some negotiators said they had agreed with a spirit of compromise. It did not give enough considerations to the circumstances of each country. The European Union required setting ambitious targets & action-oriented goals for each country. It hindered it under phases of green economy as a tool for sustainable development. The aim was to set green targets under which economic and development parameters could be gauged.

China and Japan were unhappy. The African union which forms an integral part of G77+ China and the European Union wanted that the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) turned into a specialized UN body in the lines of UNDP or UNICEF. They wanted it to be called United Nations Environment Organization. The strong opposition of the US, Brazil, India, China & some other countries made the African Countries to withdraw their demands. Japan held the outcome as not ideal. China was unhappy with the section on trade measures and technology transfer. The US was dejected that the reproductive rights of women were not recognized and priority themes for sustainable development had not been finalized. Although the high level meeting came 20 years after the 1\(^{st}\) Earth summit, a majority of 17 principles chartered in 1992 have not progressed, with many areas of concern experiencing rapid degradation. The main principles laid fourth at the Earth Summit of 1992 have been rampantly broken to the point that today’s levels of green house gases are rising more rapidly than before the U.N convention on climate change came into being. In the year 1992, sustainability had 3 legs; economic prosperity, social equality and environmental protection. There is a leg missing. It is the leg of democratic participation, the voice of people. Rio+20 have an elongated economic leg that makes the sustainability table a rather wobbly affair. The economic leg offered in Green economy opens up the path for co modification of nature and poses the critical problem of the proposal. The UNEP’s analysis of green economic agenda suggests that the only way to ensure sustainability is by getting the economy right which is fundamentally wrong.

2. Alluring Promises on Green Economy

The United Nations is showcasing the alluring promise of a green economy focused on global warming. The summit is wrong headed & wrong targeted along with severe negligence of environmental concerns of the vast majority of the world. The term green economy was coined prior to the first earth summit in 1992 to provide links between economics

\(^1\) rio20.net/en/documents/the--issues-at-rio
\(^2\) For detailed description see  http://rio20.net/en/documents/the issues-at-rio

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and sustainability. But now it has gained a new impetus in a world where climate change is already a reality, commodity prices are rising and basic resources such as clean air, arable land and fresh water are increasingly scarce. As recently released report “Towards a green economy- pathway to sustainable Development and poverty Eradications” shows the market economy as currently constituted has resulted in the misallocation of capital in an unprecedented scale. The challenge ahead is to reconcile the emerging economic reality with the social values and ethics needed to produce a balanced and an inclusive green economy.

Global warming is by no means our main environmental threat. The deaths caused from floods, droughts, heat waves and storms amount to just 0.06 per cent of all deaths in developing countries. In comparison, 13 per cent of all third world deaths result from water and air pollutions. A highest number of people die from health problem that result from lack of clean water, sanitation, from breathing smoke generated by burning dirty fuels indoors and from breathing polluted air outdoors. The UN provides an amateur narration of the summit along with instances of its envisioned green economy in action. We see scary pictures of dry river beds along with plenty of pretty solutions like wind turbines and solar panels. In a world where billions people go to bad hungry, and where six million die each year from air and water pollutions in the developing world likely have a different set of priorities for their future. In this context we can say the leaflet of UN “The future we want” is a matter of irony. The leaflet cheerfully claims that China’s shift to a low carbon growth strategy based on the development of renewable energy sources has created jobs, income and revenue. Over the past 25 years, China has quadrupled its CO2 emission. China’s decades long economic expansion has lifted 600 million people out of poverty, but the enormous pollution that it has entailed does not fit into Rio+20’s green narrative. In a world played by serious problems caused by air and water pollution, the breezy focus on unrealistic solution is deeply disturbing. The green growth is more like green washed growth—a merely cosmetic change to the business-as-usual approach that gave as global financial crisis and that perpetuates poverty and exacerbates inequality.

The current draft agreement is lacking of any sense of necessary vision and commitment required to tackle the twin challenges of eradicating poverty and tackling environmental degradation to deliver sustainable development. It has no clear tangible objectives, time frames or financial commitments to solve pressing global challenges such as climate change, food insecurity and gender inequality. The climate change, food insecurity and unequal distribution of rights are pressing burden shouldered by the poorest people. They are increasingly affected by mere severe disasters such as floods or droughts. They have limited safety nets to rely on in times of hardship. The women and girls are most vulnerable people who are often responsible for providing food and water to their families. They have no rights to own land and participate in decisions that affect their lives. We can deliver equity and social justice for poor women and men through tackling food insecurity and gender inequality. Unequal rights, lack of opportunities and access to resources remain as serious obstacles to social and economic development of the world’s poorest people. Building resilience for poor families and to protect their lives and livelihood from climate change impacts and other shocks is essential to overcome poverty. There is lack of ambition and urgency by global leaders to tackle these important challenges3.

The Rio+20 does not commit on extractive industries. It forces indigenous people out of their homes & endangers their livelihoods, refusing their right to dignity. It supports conditional transfer of technology which will exclude millions of youth from accessing the opportunities of decent work & fail to address the issue of armed conflict. The ordinary people’s perspectives, concerns, issues and views are simply out weighted by politics of aid/finances/conditionality’s and subsidies. The summit is a missed opportunity to tackle the most important environmental issues. The UN and countless politicians have chosen to focus on trendy issues like global warming and a green economy instead of important issues like air and water pollution. Nine hundred millions people are malnourished; one billion lack clean drinking water, 2.6 billion lack sanitation, and 1.6 billion lack electricity. Every year, about 15 million people die from diseases. While the rich countries are worrying about global warming and enamedor with alluring solutions, there are far more important environmental issues at stake for the third world. Today’s crucial environmental problems of air and water pollution leave six millions people dead every year. There is an increasing rift between fashionable environmental issues focused on by rich countries and the prosaic needs of the rest of the world4.

Critics have argued that today’s green economic policies only make minor carbon reductions at a very high cost & promise million of jobs with large subsidies. This in turn raises costs for the rest of the economy & causes on the equal or greater number of job losses elsewhere. The green economy framework does not consider immediate concerns of developing world like mal-nourishment, lack of sanitation, clean drinking water, communicable & neglected diseases. 13% of all deaths the developing world is attributable to air & water pollution5.

4 http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/obituaries/
5 Ong Suan Ee – S. Rajaratnam School of International studies, Singapore. “After Rio+20: What Is The Future We Want”
The green economy was included as one of the two key themes of the conference, but without a common understanding of the meaning of the term. The EU was one of the key exponents of its introduction and was keen to see what it called a green economy roadmap – with targets, indicators and goals adopted at the summit. Developing countries and many in civil society expressed concerns that the term green economy was being used to replace the agreed multilateral conceptual framework for sustainable development. Further to this, the developing countries expressed concerns that these negotiations might pave the way for environmental issues to be used as the basis of trade protectionism. Whilst in the UK context, the term ‘green economy’ is regularly used to refer to incentives for low carbon development, internationally it is being used to drive the expansion of activities that enable environmentally negative activities to expand such as monoculture tree planting, the growth of biofuels, increased carbon offsetting and the setting up new markets in biodiversity and forests. This is often led by multinational companies which are focused on the brown economy, but who are using the opportunity of Rio to green wash their activities. Chapter 2 fails to set out how regulatory frameworks could and should be used to phase out unsustainable economic activity. Regulation is merely recognized as one of a ‘mix of measures’ alongside voluntary and other approaches.

3. **Centralized Global Economy**

Rio+20 assured “inclusive and sustainable” economic growth without putting forward proposals or changes to the dominant economic system. The Green economy is one more stage of capitalistic accumulation. This economy opened new territories to the economy that exploited people and environment. Since 1992, the global economy has become more accumulative and centralized which goes against the principle of sustainable development goals. A series of crisis such as climate, food, power, energy and financial emerged due to over-exploitation of national resources, over consumption and the capitalist nature of economy. Most of the world resources are in the hands of around 5 per cent of the richest people. In the past two decades, the rich and poor gulf has increased. The development goals must assert social and economic equality and environmental protection. The green economy can not solve the problem until the current architecture is changed.

Rio is minus 20 meaning thereby the summit was more a step back than anything else. The political trenches between industrialized world and the developing countries remain as deep as before. Many conflicts have largely remained unsolved, but even more complex in the meanwhile. Due to the consensus principle applied in UN conferences like Rio, a disagreeing party needs to be convinced and can not simply be outvoted. This causes international negotiating processes to be slow and painful. The decisions on environment and development need to come with major structural and financial implications in order to have any effect.

4. **Non-Inclusive and Non-Participatory Conference**

The document is an offense to the future generation since the governments have agreed to maintain the status quo on so many issues that will severally effect the future generation. No doubt, the civil society was given an opportunity to bring proposals to the table but no heed was paid on them. Majority of political leaders come only for a family picture and a complaisant speech in front of an almost empty plenary without further engaging with their colleagues on sustainable development issues. It is an missed opportunity even to launch a dialogue at the highest political level. The Brazilian president and conference host Dilma Rousseff declared that Rio+20 was the most inclusive and participatory conference in history and a global expression of democracy. But in the final days of negotiations, civil society groups were shut out of the official conversations. The calls for greater participation were ignored and after some secret closed-door meetings, Brazilian facilitators produced the final text with no possibility for alteration. The document was a far cry from the ambitious response to world’s mounting social, economic and environmental crisis. Originally, the UN had promised each of civil society participatory groups the chance to give a 2 minute final symbolic statement. Sadly speaking, in the last day of conference, the civil society groups were barred from making any final statements.

5. **Less Emphasis on Sustainable Consumption Patterns**

There is need to reduce food waste and post-harvest losses. The relevant provision of the document has failed to

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6 www.rioplus twenties.org/3 p-1289
7 http://searching for sustainability.blogspot.in/2012/06/reflections-on-rio-20-resistance-of.html

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address the issue with sufficient priority and urgency given that 1.3 billion tons of food or one third of global food production is wasted each year. It has missed the opportunity to shift global agriculture onto a path towards ecological sustainability and justice for the hungry. It has not provided sufficient and appropriate context for sustainable development goals to guide the future development processes. It is revisiting of the 1992 first Earth summit to reassess priorities and formulate action to ensure sustainable development. The major problem in these twenty years has been the failure of the governments to implement their commitments which is especially true of rich countries.

6. Less Importance on Access to Universal Energy

Development, a once-a-decade meeting aimed at reconciling economic and environmental aspirations, has produced a non-binding declaration, committing the world's politicians to modest goals. The proposals set out at the beginning, such as providing universal energy access and doubling renewable by 2030, have been left on the cutting room floor. The Rio +20 outcome document does not give governments the urgently necessary framework to shift financial resources away from unsustainable and inequitable energy systems to necessary investments in decentralized renewable energy systems. Although there is welcome recognition that renewable technology and energy efficiency are necessary for sustainable development, there are not targets of timescales and no real indication of how transformation will occur, including no mention of technology transfer or finance. None of the provides either the vision or mechanisms to enable the poorest communities and the countries to ‘leap frog’ the dirty energy development pathways followed by the rich, industrialized countries. Paragraph 129 “notes” the launch of UN Secretary General’s “Sustainable Energy for All” initiative. This initiative does not form part of the official summit process. It was welcomed in the earlier draft, but has now only been noted. The initiative is attempting to address the challenges of climate change and poverty, but its targets lack ambitions and the process had been corporate led, with little participation of civil society or the people it is purporting to help.

7. Rolling Back of Women Rights

The women worldwide are outraged that the governments failed to recognize women’s reproductive rights as a central aspect of gender equality and sustainable development. Reproductive rights are universally recognized as human rights. There were no strong commitments to women’s rights to land, property and inheritance. The critical connection between climate change and gender is not mentioned at all. Women, children, indigenous people and the impoverished are heavily impacted by increasingly dire consequences of climate change. Equally critical is potential contribution to climate mitigation and adaption that could be made by women, yet their essential role in leading and participating in desperately needed climate solutions is not mentioned. The text of twenty years ago was again reiterated and reinforced. The document is still empty and extremely weak in addressing daunting and grave concerns of women, youth and children, farmers, indigenous people and workers. It has failed in addressing the reproductive and sexual rights of women.

The women major group is dismayed and alarmed that there is no reference to radioactive pollution and its devastating impact on our health and our environment, including rivers, foods and air. They called for immediate shutdown of nuclear power. In many countries of the world, women produce up to 80 per cent of the food, cultivating land that they do not own, gathering foods from forests to which they have no entitlements. The rush for resources along with minerals & bio-fuels has removed a vast number of women from their lands which were cultivated by them for years together. The women demanded an immediate interruption to land grabbing.

There are no concrete measures to assure women’s rights to access to and control of natural resources that are the basis of their livelihoods. Women are disappointed that the document does not clearly ensure free, prior and informed consent for all communities impacted by so called Green Economy investments. Women demand “no go Zones” for mining, agro-fuel and forestry companies. In order to ensure that women, indigenous peoples and local communities have access and control over water resources, women call for no privatization of water resources. Women are very concerned about increased focus in private financing and decrease of public revenue for sustainable development. There is no commitment for new financial mechanisms such as Financial Transaction Tax. The women called for elimination of subsidies, including indirect subsidies that caused negative effects in eco-systems & local communities. The Rio +20 has not set up stronger governance for sustainable development. Women call for a seat for a representative of civil society’s women organizations in the expert penal for the SDGs. There is the need of Rio+20 to take concrete measures to fully implement women’s rights and women’s leadership and to protect the rights of the most vulnerable members of our

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There is reference to women’s “unpaid work” but without recognizing the unequal and unfair burden that women carry in sustaining care and well-being. This is further exacerbated in times of economic and ecological crisis when women’s unpaid labour acts as a stabilizer and their burden increases. Reference to the root causes of excessive food price volatility, including its structural causes, is not linked to the risks and burdens that are disproportionately borne by women. Development is not sustainable if care and social reproduction are not recognized as intrinsically linked with the productive economy and reflected in macro-economic policy making. Reference is made to the critical role that rural women play in food security through traditional sustainable agricultural practices including traditional seed supply systems. These are of severe indication of future danger unless the government stops giving importance on export-oriented agribusiness. The wrong headed policies are not properly addressed due to corporate interests that are protected in the Rio +20 outcome. The Northern governments supporting for such corporate interests have covered the sustainability paradigm in so called green economy. Their attitude is tilted towards the economic pillar, emphasizing sustainable eco-growth over equitable development & without any ecological limits. Within this section, women were treated as supplier of labour, but not recognized as right holders. While the Rio principles including common but differentiated responsibilities are reaffirmed at Rio+20, the outcome is imbalanced across the three pillars of sustainable development without sufficient attention to gender and social justice, including women’s rights. It fails to tackle the systemic inequalities of the international monetary, financial and trading systems; and prioritizes economic growth over the ecology and equity. No progress and commitments for women’s rights and rights of future generation in sustainable development was found in the document.

8. Reduced Commitments by Developed Countries and Lack of Transparency

The agreed draft was printed by the Brazilian presidency and circulated among the negotiators. But it could not be called as a conference document as it had not yet been formally adopted by a plenary. Unlike UN previous conference where all negotiation drafts were open to public despite being under deliberation, this text was marked by utter confidentiality. The Brazilian government left no stone unturned working on the draft, but it disagreed to obtain premature comments from the non-government organizations & activists. The civil society groups slammed the document as one without ambition. As the outcome is regressive, they viewed the conference Rio minus 40. Although this summit came after twenty years, a majority of 17 principles chartered in 1992 have not progressed, with many areas of concerns experiencing rapid degradation. It is the largest suicide note in history. Nothing is new and specific. The U.S refused to be bound by any international standards that will affect its citizens and their choices. The fast growing economies like India, Brazil, China and South Africa disagreed to curb that would affect their rate of growth. The poorest nations still find a way out their acute poverty and environmental disasters that visit them with regularity. The green economic policies are more ambiguity without any specific programme or plan. In 1992’s Rio conference, the principle of common but differentiated responsibility was enshrined in the Rio declaration but not everyone endorsed it. The United States refused to accept the Kyoto proposal or endorse Biodiversity convention. The economies of the industrialized world were in stable. Hence, they were willing to make some financial commitments to assist the developing countries. Today, the industrialized North is in trouble, preoccupied with its own economic crisis. In the present summit, these countries were silent on committing funds.

It was discouraging that there was more talk than action about the pre-negotiated document. It was a far cry from a success. The Rio +20 falls short of justified expectations in addressing serious environmental and economic crisis affecting the world. Rio +20 has become a victim of reduced commitments by developed countries to support the developing countries in the quest of their development.

9. Jargons and Repetitions in Zero Draft

There are strong pressures to accommodate the desires of various governments and interests to make sure that their issues or concerns are at least mentioned. The few potential gems of the zero draft are lost in the devulge of vague promises. Based on the record of four decades, there is little guarantee that the governments will follow through on these negotiated grand plans. The “zero” draft is a preliminary version. The ‘19’ page Zero draft titled as “the future we want”

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9 Rio+20, women’s major Group United Nations Rio +20 summit
10 http://www.pambazuka.org/en/category/features/83215/print
11 Cited from EPW editorial (2012)
has too much jargon and repetition, many abstract incremental promises and goals. Given the experience with past UN mega-conferences, there is a real danger that by the time the leaders get to Rio, they will be asked to endorse a document that will have ballooned in length to more than 100 pages\(^\text{12}\).

10. Disagreements in Sustainable Development Goals

There was a disagreement, principally between the developed and developing countries, as to how to decide which issues or “themes”. Many developed countries wanted to see a focus in environmental goals while developing countries wanted the goals to reflect all three pillars of sustainable development-economic, social as well as environmental. The second major division was it the SDGs were to be “universal goals” subject to Rio principles and in particular Common but Differentiated Responsibilities (CBDR). The US and EU argued strongly that these goals should not be subject to the Rio principles and specifically CBDR. The compromise had been to launch a negotiating process to agree them in the run up to 2015 which noted that they were to be based on Rio principles but did not explicitly mention CBDR.

11. Absence of International Financial Architecture

On the positive side, the section of chapter six recognizes the importance of enhancing financial support to help developing countries for sustainable development, but there is only one reference to new and additional finance is with regard to south – south and triangular co-operation and nothing to suggest that there will be new finance from the north to south. Paragraph 263 offers some useful wording on debt restructuring, debt relief and financing although it would have been stronger if debt “prevention and resolution” had been explicitly mentioned. It is not paragraph 258 and 259 in improving the quality and the quantity of Overseas Development Aid (ODA). Aid architecture is important; but there is a glaring absence of most international financial architecture areas such as; capital flows and controls, financial and trade policy space, macro-economic policy conditions, financial regulations and the role of banks, the international monetary system and global reserves and financialization of foods, commodities and nature. Paragraph 266 stresses the importance of fighting corruptions and illicit financial flows but incredibly, does not mention accountability mechanisms or monitoring of the private or public sector\(^\text{13}\).

12. Weak Political will and Presence of Corporate Interests

The Rio +20 was fully a reflection of weak political will of developed countries to provide enhanced means for developing countries in respect of implementing the objectives of green economy. Many countries including India rejected the unilateral measures & trade barriers under the guise of green economy. Green economy should be bottom-up & democratized. The cost of green development should be affordable for the poor. The summit did not include a call to end subsidies for fossil fuels. The countries gathered together reaffirmed the need to achieve sustainable development without mandating how, reaffirmed commitment to strengthening international co-operation just not right now; & reaffirmed the need to achieve economic stability with no new funding for the poorest nations\(^\text{14}\).

The corporate-driven agenda remained a rising threat to people & nature. It was a prescriptive green economy road map aggressively pushed by developed countries. The so-called green economy was based upon fossil fuels, destruction of environment by establishing extractive industries & other capitalist investments. The various multinational corporations like Oil Giant Shell were active in lobbying at Rio +20. The green economy was used for increasing markets in the guise of using natural resources as driver of growth that would lead the way for financialization of nature. More corporations moved against the people’s rights, democracy and nature, kidnapping the common property of mankind to save the financial-economic system .Transnational corporations continued to commit their crimes with the flagrant violation of the rights of people and nature with impunity. Likewise, they used to advance their interests through militarization, criminalization of livelihoods of people and social movements promoting deterritorialization in the field and in the city . It would cause the plunder of world’s remaining natural wealth & privatization of critical services, products & technologies through public-private partnerships.

\(^\text{12}\) http://switchboard.nrdc.org/blogs/ijcherr/the greatest challenge of 2012.html

\(^\text{13}\) Further discussion see Friends of the Earth (2012):

13. Summing Up

Most of it repeats promises made at previous earth summits and in some cases omits key references because attempts by some countries to step back from previous commitments. What is completely lacking is the vision or ambition that characterized the original Rio Summit in 1992 or anything that will challenge the systemic nature of the environment, development and economic crisis. What is critical now is for an open and transparent process, including civil society, to negotiate a set of appropriate SDGs that make up for the vision and ambitions that has been missing in Rio. What the Summit should have done is reviewed progress on the sustainable development agenda over the last 20 years, identified gaps, and what steps are needed to address them. Such a process would have identified that failure of mainstream economic policies to operate within environmental limits or in the interests of majority of the world’s population.

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Privatization Policy of Hydrocarbon Sector was Not Effective

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Abstract

This article aims to reflect, economic policies applied and their effects in the hydrocarbon industry during the period of 1990-2014. In the context operations are made out to reform the sector. These policies has aimed the achievement of objectives for liberalization of the sector and encouraging foreign direct investment, to have an impact overall economy and petroleum sector in particular. The purpose of this analysis is to see the effect of these policies and the economic impact reflected in the policies of the government. Through the analysis shows how it has impacted on economic growth, tax policy and employment.

Keywords: Privatization, Albetrol, ARMO, hydrocarbons, eficiense, Tax and HDI.

The privatization of the Albanian economy began in 1991 initially with separated capital separate and later affecting industries and other branches of the economy, the weight and importance of which was growing and that constituted an essential element of economic development in the future.

Despite the official statement describing a series of legal and sub-legal acts, the truth is that important non-strategic sectors passed very quickly under a privatization, where the rules of the game were often not respected and therefore unjust enrichment process came under a great attack of counter-accusations, where politics had its own goals for political capital. Many of these other companies privatizations took place, many of them changed their destination and many of them disappeared leaving no sign.

The most profitable process of privatization was the privatization of houses. People got their homes, some of them transformed and turned into businesses, some of them were lost as a result of abandonment of cities built by the system. However, if there is an industry that has give a lot to the country's economy are apartments. They gave rise to the development of the construction industry, playing with the hunger for comfortable houses, the need of small business, which can be maintained with little money, and had great mitigation conditions of the state.

Errors were large because the property passed into the hands ineffective manager, inexperienced and often without proper training and were few of them, who benefited from the privatization of economic.

Albanian State in 1998, after taking some legal steps to protect state property, sanctions the privatization strategic sector, including the hydrocarbon system, therefore oil cycle up, med and down stream.

First legal Amendment was the detachment of this small sector of commerce by transferring this totally to the private sector. The second step was CMD No. 756 to create separate companies for research of oil extraction, processing and sale of its derivatives in huge quantities and oil services company.

In this phase scientific research center of oil and gas was also separated, passing under the Ministry of Economy. The reason for such a division was the large fragmentation of the sector and creation of companies that can survive separately. Experience showed that with the exception of two companies, none of them managed to survive. And they both remained tied up at the moment, when one of them finally passed state owner.

What distinguishes this from other industries, not just the fact that they present an integrated system, but also the fact that their connections were multiple and created in 50 years, when they are faced with challenges that dictatorship was required to perform.

Their 50 years old result was that they created and kept an army of 45 thousand employees, they had created three towns of employees, have created a more modern infrastructure than others and had developed a generation of very good technocrats, and that for the sake of truth with the tools and the conditions they had, for whom it is an honor to speak.

Privatization was seen as a necessary tool for the new economic system. Since the late 80s, the industry was experimenting with concession contracts, directing research in the sea. In the years 1992-1998, it experimented and introduced privatization of sectors, which it is not considered strategic for the development of the hydrocarbon sector. Over 15 enterprises and the assets were sold quite large.
They left from the system two cargo parks cargo, a bus transportation park, three enterprises buildings, three special service enterprises, drilling activity was reconstructed from 6 to 1, one seismic undertaking was liquidated and two oil refineries. It reduced activities within other units. The contraction reached that number of strategic workforce fell to 15 thousand employees and this plans required time, even in these conditions had more workforce.

What stigmatized this scenario was continuous production decline, because they eliminate all forms which can intensity increase or maintain current levels of production. This fact increased the absence of strict laws for the administration of state property, accompanied with high costs of production and sales.

Besides all this performance, then its not even stay policy, which had seen these sectors as sectors that could extend its employment policy and collection militant vote for their power.

Being stuck between a political moral degradation on the one hand and law enforcement on the other hand, the negative effects on management present the ups and downs from the phase in which administrators and politicians feared implementation of the law. This situation has created a situation almost ridiculous with state property were the laws look beautiful on paper and the application is careless. Under this chaos started and continued the process of privatization.

By privatizing the government intends to achieve several goals, whose effects are measurable and comprehensible.

1- To achieve accountant provide additional budgetary resources through ownership change.
2- To reach as better manage this property away from abuse and the theft, which were made social property.
3- To increase the level of tax inflows into the budget.
4- To raise the level of employment and individual revenues.
5- To influence on the economic growth of the country.

The hydrocarbon industry is not just a fasson industry, but an industry, which implies economic growth and has amplified, engaged in work and income level.

Beyond theoretical bases, the practice in this industry is a double-edged sword.

Was the revenue growth affected by a failed privatization?

Hydrocarbon sector privatization can be conceived and implemented in two forms.

a- The form of privatization and managing part here obtain the government agreements with multinational oil companies, which take on the management of the existing fields and apply then investment in of the latest technology. As a consequence have increased the oil-extraction, increasing reserves and production growth, which in the final analysis, lead to revenue growth. This is the case the passage of oil oilfields in the hands of multinational companies. This in the form of contracts with production. The division was and remains a form of foreign direct investment (FDI).

b- The classic form of privatization or selling the control of wealth. In this case we change the form of ownership, and this is the case of ARMO Company sha.

In Albania the process of transition them is different. The first process is the result of Bilateral agreements and not auction. While the second case is the result of an auction.

The main distinction that which differs is the fact that after some time the state restores the property to himself, while in the second case no. It should be noted that this return is also accompanied with consequences left by the utilization of natural resources. With current rates of extracting turns out that Albania after 25 years will say goodbye to existing reserves.

Another crucial distinction is the selling price of such property. Unlike the classical privatization, where the buyer pays the entire amount, here buyer pays only the management bonus, which can be a bonus signature or production bonus. Lower values under $ 1 million show that this process has been compromised.

In the form of the sale of wealth, as the case legally ARMO was seeking a subject with potential technical, managerial and financial. According to the contract the buyer for the period 2008-2013 will commit the modernization by investing 250 million euros. The facts indicate otherwise. Society is collapsing with inability to pay, with multiple debts and no case has shown the technical potential. So this is not about investing, although the monopole was approved for the first year of trading of D2 diesel on the market, by removing this right illegally, by Constitutional Court.

What happened to the production and processing of the crude oil?

1- Production of crude oil has increased at the national level. Processing of crude oil at the national level is decreasing. So is noticed growth of crude oil for export and import growth of crude oil byproducts.

As seen from the table, since 2005 when it started PSC (production sharing contracts) with Bankers and than accompanied by ARMO sha privatization, resulting the following information:

Source: Department of Customs Albania
Albanian oil exports abroad for the period 2005-2012, in value and quantity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount (All)</th>
<th>Quantity (ton)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1,903,109,235.00</td>
<td>79,119.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>3,293,554,203.00</td>
<td>138,848.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>7,362,170,546.00</td>
<td>260,278.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>10,037,775,827.00</td>
<td>276,850.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>12,067,423,717.00</td>
<td>370,013.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>29,044,294,085.00</td>
<td>571,172.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>41,723,328,212.00</td>
<td>750,636.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>56,725,307,763.00</td>
<td>1,023,795.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Albanian production in 2005-2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Albania</th>
<th>% to european production</th>
<th>Albania</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bbl</td>
<td>bbl</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ton metrik 1TM=7.3bbl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2,250,641,640</td>
<td>2,549,492</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>349,245.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2,107,765,661</td>
<td>2,852,136</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>390,703.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1,987,637,485</td>
<td>2,372,956</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>325,062.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1,894,512,305</td>
<td>2,203,242</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>301,814.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1,818,785,463</td>
<td>1,967,748</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>269,554.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1,696,072,937</td>
<td>3,968,671</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>543,653.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1,558,166,797</td>
<td>5,673,673</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>777,215.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1,452,468,528</td>
<td>6,155,835</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>843,265.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>1,386,556,470</td>
<td>6,218,673</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>851,873.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16,152,607,285</td>
<td>33,962,425</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>39,102,960</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we compare the data show that during the period of 2010-2013, oil processing in Albania turns out in minimal levels. Regardless to whom the source above is referred there are uncertainties concerning quantities produced it results that the companies contracted by the Albanian government have produced oil abroad, becoming a source that contribute negatively to the economic growth and reduce the weight of job sector and the encouragement of employment that connects this industry.

Can the foreign companies be guilty ,foreign companies, when those that initially have created the luxury to export or Albanian oil extracted ? No ,foreign companies have seen their interest fairly narrow by creating possible spaces of evasion via transfer pricing or the purchase of services or foreign investment with a very high cost. Who is the cause that the number of employees has decreased? To illustrate the latest fact, resulted wage differentials as well as for the services rendered by foreign or domestic.Transferring the capital abroad for free or unobstructed , the tax administration inability for strict control, create spaces of abuse.

Observing Bankers Petroleum's balance sheet shows that by 100% of the total revenue realized from oil produced it pays 10% mineral endowment , 6% pre-existing and 1% diesel won to the state or Albetrolit (the state company oil),so for the years 2011, 2012, 2013 has been entitled to 83-84% of all the oil out. This situation, added the fact that all is exported accompanied with a reduction of processing capacity in the country.

The oil import data show that imports quantity has increased with a stabilization in the latest 3-4 years for overcoming the price, indicating a rebound in demand to the price effect.

Employment

Does that privatization realized the employment effects? Development of the area is characterized:

- In an indirect bearing which evaluates the impact of the exploitation of hydrocarbons in employment, income residents in these areas and in the final evaluation of economic benefit.
- Link benefits forced that measure the impact of income derived from this activity directly or indirectly to increased economic level of the area.

These links of economy and the exploitation of hydrocarbons estimated economic parameters which are called multiplier factors. The parameters more used to evaluate the impact of external factors in the economy are:

1. Benefit multiplier implies the growth of the total value of production in all branches of the economy as a result of the exploitation of hydrocarbons in the area up to one entity (the parameter used in the multiplier).
2. Multiplication of revenue size examines the impact of income benefiting from workers employed in hydrocarbon exploitation activities considering the indirect effects on the economy.

3. Factor employment multiplier estimates the number of job vacancies and those that arise indirectly as a result of exploitation of hydrocarbons in oil-bearing areas and its processing.

Based in world literature follows that direct and indirect impacts during the use of hydrocarbons to create Vacancies, to increase the income of residents and the public are of major importance. Some concrete data on the importance of this industry in the economy of a country that characterized for rich oil resources, as provided by the U.S. PWC study (2011). Based on this study:

For the year 2009, from industry of use of hydrocarbons were created 9.2 million vacancies direct or indirect means. 5.3% of the employment opportunities.

- The income that were profited directly or indirectly from this branch were $ 534 billion (approximately 6% of revenues). Analikisht employed directly in the exploitation of hydrocarbons and its processes totaled 2.2 million. 477,000 of them worked in research and in exploitation of oil-bearing layers 79,000 for various drilling made in these areas.

- 226,000 employees at its research of shale oil layers. The general revenues of employees working in these branches amounted to $ 80 billion and total value reached $ 175 billion.

Based on these data follows that:

1. The employment multiplier factor is approximately 4.2 meaning that for every new job created in the branch there are 3.2 vacancies in the economy of the country.

2. Likewise 3.2 multiplier value of income that goes to $ 1 a worker who receives directly from the industry gained $ 2 more for workers in other branches and for every $ 1 increase in the value of production increases value of $ 1.3 production throughout the economy.

Also the benefits of the state itself are enormous. Entities, except for taxes paid for other services (property tax, property transfer).

In Colorado in 2007 has become a study (CERI 2007) the indicator of employment multiplier is 3.4 of the research branch for carrying oil layers and their exploitation, while gaining 1.31 multiplier factor. Oklahoma (OSU, 2008) multiplication factors of employment and profitability were evaluated at 4.22 and 1.75.

Exponential multiplication factor for vacancies amounted to 3.65, meaning for every vacancy created by the activities offered 2.65 vacancies in all sectors of the economy. Factor indicator of income multiplier was 2:57, i.e., for every $ 1 of direct benefit from the work of the employees in the sector gained $ 1.57 to the economy.

An extensive literature with examples from many states provide information on the positive and negative impact of the use of hydrocarbons in the area's economy and the country. Various hypotheses suggest that the exploitation of hydrocarbon industry and other natural assets do not always have a positive part in social and economic development in many countries not so much developed, not because the use and heavy equipment where exploitation of natural resources occurs.

As a support to this theory is the poor economic situation the countries rich in natural treasures of Africa, while the economically strong countries such as Korea and Japan are of poorest from natural resources.

However being supported by some researchers (Davis, 1998, Ahammad & Clement, 1999, Clements & Johnson, 2003) the negative impacts from the use of hydrocarbons in some cases should not be generalized.

In many countries that are being developed, or so-called developed countries, exploitation of hydrocarbon and natural gas plays a important role in providing opportunities for foreign investment, export growth by improving the balance of the import-export of the country. Exploitation of hydrocarbon affected positively on the economic development of Botswana, Morocco, Namibia and South Africa, but not for Sierra Leone, Zambia and Liberian.

Often the exploitation of hydrocarbon industry has not profitable results for society and the state in the countries in transition, of the reason for political situation in the these countries (eg not functioning democratic ideology, corruption the phenomenon etc.) and for this reason comes not a good exploitation and appropriate of natural resources of the country (Moore, 2001).

Based on these studies and in world different experiences to we can not create a correct theory, or obtain a correct and argued answer to question whether a hydrocarbon activities will be to the benefit of society of for the benefit of economy of that country, because every case is unique. As highlights in his study Pedro (2004) the question should not be formulated if there should be or not the exploitation of hydrocarbons but how to do this exploitation and what criteria must accomplished that this industry can have a positive impact on the economy of the country and be beneficial to society.

Being concentrated on the Albanian reality, economic development model will precisely determine the importance
of developing the industry's of exploitation of hydrocarbons and other natural resources. Development options that are mentioned often support the cost of cheap labor, the development of economy based on knowledge, economic development based on natural advantages that give us the geographic location, among which are the richest oil-bearing layers.

Often the cheap labor, which is confirmed by global experience, there is not a strong factor to have a competitive economy. Precisely this economy is not competitive in poor countries and in those in which labor time is cheap. Also even though the country where the policy applies to cheap labor force, becomes attractive to foreign investment, economic development would not be in favor of the majority of the population, on the contrary, economic development based on knowledge, influences positively the competition by increasing the average income at national level and by improving life standards of the society.

Evaluating the positive aspects of using natural resources of a country is noticed that this selection influences for sustainable development by affecting the growth of the national economy, increase competitiveness, and the improvement of Standards of life for different layers of the population.

A positive factor of the use of natural resources is that this branch represents a steady competition, for reasons that it cannot be transferred anywhere. In this branch, positive impact includes not only the national economy but it is also a opportunity for the country of huge investments of foreign (due to the nature of the investment), for better incomes for workers, increase of the possibility to export, the benefits from various state tax etc.. Also plays an important role at strengthening of the country geopolitical, because natural resources are limited geographically. This is more for hydrocarbons, the role played by these natural resources for the benefit of energy which is a global problem.

In theory these conclusions lead us to the fact that these levels of oil extraction, Albania should not have been with a 71% debt and 17% unemployment by the end of 2013.

The fact that investments in this branch which except high salaries and the circle should have direct placements has only one conclusion. According to Bankers the aid activity performing other service companies employ 1,600 people. While the number of employees for the company is 458 employees. According to this fact turns out that this investment has report to those directly employed and indirectly by 1 direct employees to 3.5 employees indirectly. This conclusion of Bankers seem exaggerated, but it does not say that Bankers how many thousand dollars they invest in a new job.

If we consider the key personnel of the company, which includes nearly 50% of the salary and 50% of the foreign subcontractors firms turns out that all of their analysis does not stands in theory.

Normally we would have positive effects on the economies of the area, its infrastructure realizing new construction in the road network, employment for the area residents and secondary organizations raising that will be required, preparation of specialists for different processes of exploitation, who will be able to work abroad with the acquired experience, interconnection that this branch will have with other branches of different activities and that gives them the opportunity of development.

The infrastructure and poverty level of these areas has increased. This is explained by the fact of lowest fiscal burden of the local residents, at a national level.

**Tax Effects**

Judgment on the tax effects should be seen in the economic context. Hydrocarbon industry is among the industries that throughout its global history, but also Albanian, undergoes a continuous growth of the fiscal burden. This becomes more evident after the 90s. Until 2003 APC State Corporation (contribute 65% state tax. tax pay in from one operating business in the hydrocarbon field with a fiscal burden that had contributed about 6-7% in budget state). This weight was higher in 90 years, because the state benefit on average 70% of the the production value.

Salaries of employees occupied 50-60% of the costs, directly affecting the increase of aggregate demand. While it was also a considerable source of revenues in the form of income from tax, social security and health. If there is one sector where the effect of shock therapy was felt less was this industry that survived the competition and confronted the absence of laws, despite of high corruption that accompanied this period. Until 2008, the industry did not apply mineral endowment.

This has led to increased budgetary revenues due to new tax legislation. Up to 1998, all contracts with anticipated production division 50% cost coverage, which meant that the state had passed Isaiah, the title certainly worth 30%. This made the company because Premier Oil, the company that had taken Patos exploitation Navy to declare failure and move on. While the company took advantage of a legal space where bankers cost coverage was up to 100% of the of the final costs opex and capex. There is not an explanation that instantly with its departure, Bankers took her place.

Observing the progress of taxes, the tax basic that pay the foreign societies is the royalty, because the firms are
currently covering their capex. Only 1% of extracted oil revenue goes to the state. Cluster of royalty has marked progress. This is due to high production levels and 2.5 multiplier of the price of crude oil. This becomes more apparent in 2008, when prices jumped over 2 times.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bankers</td>
<td>20,468</td>
<td>33,682</td>
<td>63,941</td>
<td>78,361</td>
<td>94,294</td>
<td>326,979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Albetrol</td>
<td>3,309</td>
<td>7,617</td>
<td>4,032</td>
<td>9,491</td>
<td>6,087</td>
<td>30,536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Stream Oil</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>1,616</td>
<td>1,666</td>
<td>2,620</td>
<td>6,895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24,172</td>
<td>41,896</td>
<td>69,139</td>
<td>89,518</td>
<td>103,001</td>
<td>369,410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And as marks an increase royalty, VAT marks a drastic decrease because foreign companies were excluded from paying VAT on services in Albania and also for export sale is excluded from. This is a complicated situation, because in this case the state makes balancing with imported -products, but did not recover the revenue that Social Security had to deal from processing, TAP, other local taxes and special. And finally the effects of depreciation of the national currency and the decrease of purchasing power in the country.

This day there are employees who have not received salaries over 4 months, foreigners who are paid 30 times more (although the law sets limits 1; 7 minimum wage and moreover there is a tendency of lowering wages, as is the case ARMo sha. number of employees has had a strong tendency of decrease, which was felt more in the early years 1992-1998 and then this sector has constantly been at the center of the political cyclone, the replacement of powers. Nevertheless the trend has been decrease.

Referring to the progress of the number of employees in 2005 we have:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>company</th>
<th>year2005</th>
<th>year 2013</th>
<th>difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Albetrol Sha Patos</td>
<td>4,038</td>
<td>1,890</td>
<td>-2,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Armo Sha</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>-700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Servcom Sha</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>UMN Patos shpk</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>UMN Kuçovë Shpk</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bankers</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>+247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Institut Naftes</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Stream Oil</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>+46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>IEC Visoka</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>+0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,020</td>
<td>4,048</td>
<td>-2,972</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown are lost jobs not least but 3000 employees.

It should be noted, the economic strategy, decrease of state role in economy, should bring at higher rates opening of new jobs and higher wages. In fact the phenomenon is reversed.

If we refer to the U.S. economy in the field of hydrocarbons, it is running "full gas", where it provides 84% of its needs and one of the indices is that they see how this branch of industry generates extra jobs or closes. The level of generation of these countries is the basis of why this country has progressed and is the engine of job openings countries. Our model does not generate jobs, therefore we can say that we had a a failed privatization.

Increase of production has served to increase exports and increase foreign equity returns. Today most of the services in this sector are carried out from foreign companies subcontracted by concessionary companies, closing the door of technological innovation mechanical bases, drilling activity and special works. Though these have been at cost 2-3 times lower.

Fiscal leverage haven't served as a premium for growth. Observing the economic growth, that while the extractive industries grow at high rates, processing industry continues into decline. For the period 2010-2013, although growth rates in extractive industry are 25%, processing industry continues its deterioration with a decline of 3.23% where the main role is played by the oil processing industry, construction sector as 4.82% and supportive services 25.3%.

The effect becomes even clearer when we compare its extractive industry with hydrocarbon extraction industry in particular. In this case there is a lower rate.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Production of brut oil</th>
<th>Rate of Growth %</th>
<th>Rate of Extraction %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>349,245.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>390,703.50</td>
<td>+11.87</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>325,062.50</td>
<td>-16.8</td>
<td>31.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>301,814.00</td>
<td>-7.15</td>
<td>36.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>269,554.50</td>
<td>-10.68</td>
<td>-9.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>543,653.50</td>
<td>+101.69</td>
<td>38.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>777,215.50</td>
<td>+42.96</td>
<td>39.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>843,265.00</td>
<td>+8.5</td>
<td>21.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>851,873.00</td>
<td>+1.02</td>
<td>16.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.72</td>
<td>21.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By making a review article concluded:

1- Privatization of the hydrocarbon sector is made in terms of the rescue and keeping as low the public debt, whose rescue is only used as the current solution and not long term. Albania was not ready to undertake this process, where it lacked administrative logistics, legal and long-term experience and strategy of hydrocarbon system in particular and energy in general.

2- As well as any other natural resource, this industry is affected from the global conjuncture. Today its reserves are limited discovered and moreover Albania since 1990 adds no new source. Add new oil reserves are reserves that geological discovered and associated with increased coefficient of oil-extracting existing reserves. Existing contracts and existing rates after 25 years, Albania has this source of exhausted. While the future of oil prices is expected to pass the order of $ 200 / barrel in the next 10 years.

3- The privatization of ARMO sha only provides the money of privatization, meanwhile, has created multiple debts where the state has lost over 50 million in the form of uncollected liabilities from state companies and agencies paying tax, and the amount of the share capital in the company. ARMO sha Company provide up to 40 million annual revenue in form of taxes and carry out the work-interception ratio 1 directly to 3. Today the sight is to the import. The company only has one bank debt, that accumulates around 50 million euros. The company’s residual value does not exceed 2 million. So the state won in 2008, 120 million euros this year and has lost no less but 40 million each year. Meanwhile, this company owes the state company on 38 million euros, following debts from 2008 and later.

4- Oil sources are donated and assets of foreign companies represented by the value of reserves, which occupies 90% of capital, while the value for the Albetroli claims, as manager of this property. In fact by PSC (production sharing contracts), the foreign company is entitled to the cost of oil and oil gain.

5- State policy has led to the reduction and weakening the rural development, employment and ultimately also in status quo tax effects. In essence, the economy has not gained

For the above we recommend:

1- Make the sector efficiency of crude oil processing, setting benchmarks and incentives that this sector to get its brightness back. This is realized through renationalization of this property, turning it into a profitable company and the creation of new competitive conditions and its resale.

2- Reviewing all contracts ALBPETROL sha, in order to protect national interests, today and for the next generation. With the current situation we have decreasing and devaluation of the national currency, the emergence of the capital and opportunities for tax evasion.

3- Building fiscal policies that aim at directing the sale of of crude oil inside Albania and which discourage the exports.

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Law No. 9946 dated 30.06.2008 "On Natural Gas Sector."


Regulation of the oil industry, since 1977 (Approved by the Council of Ministers with the document no. 3654, dated 20.12.1976)

Licensing Terms for offshore and onshore Hydrocarbon exploration and exploitation in


International energy statistics

INSTAT Albania

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Country-Level Determinants of the Shadow Economy during 2005-2013: 
The Case of Greece

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Abstract

In 2008, the average share of shadow economy in Europe was 19.4 percent, in 2012 – 19 percent, while in Greece these values of shadow economy were bigger: in 2008 – 24.3 percent and in 2012 – 22.3 percent of share of shadow economy. The scientists having researched shadow economy focused on the motives / reasons that prompt businessmen to operate underground. Shadow economy as a hidden factor is difficult to measure, making it necessary to use multiply observable indicators to approximate the extent of the shadow economy (Ruge, 2010). That is why such global organisations as the World Bank and others announce annual figures of shadow economy in most countries, including and evaluating their macroeconomic factors. The analysis of the scientific literature revealed that, in general sense, shadow economy emerges in such spheres as taxation, social security and labour aspects of undeclared work, so the aim of this article is not to measure the scope of shadow economy, but to identify what country-level determinants from the spheres mentioned above have the strongest impact on the scope of shadow economy in Greece during 2005-2013. The results of the research will enable to develop the recommended directions that could be followed seeking to reduce the scope of shadow economy in Greece.

Keywords: shadow economy, country-level determinants, Greece.

1. Introduction

The actuality of the topic. The size of shadow economies is a reflection of individual incentives to conceal their activities. Existing literature has identified a number of factors (e.g. the burden of taxation or regulation, the quality of government, legal enforcement, corruption, etc.) that create such incentives (Bose, et. al., 2012). Shadow economy very strongly correlates with economic cycles (Kearney, Schneider, 2013): the periods of economic downturn cause the increase of unemployment rate and the decrease of income. This raises fears and uncertainty about the future. That is why a part of individuals back out to the shadow, find extra jobs in which salaries are paid in „envelopes“ and so forth. 2008 is the year considered to be the beginning of economic crisis. Comparing 2008 with 2009, it can be seen that the percentage of shadow economy from GDP increased by 0.5 per cent in all Europe while in Greece the share of shadow economy reached 24.5 per cent; in 2009 it increased by 0.5 per cent and made 25 per cent. In 2013, calculated share of shadow economy was 23.4 per cent, and this was the smallest rate of shadow economy in Greece during the analysed period.

Shadow economy in Greece was analysed by such scientists as Katsios (2006) and Manolas et al. (2013). According to Katsios (2006), underground economy is considered as one of the main negative effects deriving from serious structural problems of the Greek economy. The main determinants of the Greek shadow economy established by the author include tax and social security contribution burdens, intensity of regulations, public sector services and the corruption. These determinants were treated as the main referring to the qualitative analysis of the scientific literature. Using panel data for a group of 19 countries for the 2003 – 2008 period, Manolas et al. (2013) found that the quality of governance, the regulatory framework in the product, labour and credit markets and the tax burden both in the sense of the direct cost on entrepreneurial activity and the cost of compliance to the tax administration framework, are the most...
important factors affecting underground economy. The calculations revealed that there are strong links between hidden economy and corruption level in Greece in 2003 and 2008. The results of the research show that not all determinants were included in the calculations. That is why the analysis of the scientific literature has enabled the authors to fulfill this gap.

The scientific problem research level while analysing shadow economy:

- **Determinants of the shadow economy** within a standard Structural Equation Model (35 countries); Ruge, 2010; MIMIC model (24 countries); Herwartz et al. 2013; the relationship between unemployment rate and shadow economy in USA (Dell’Anno, Solomon. 2008); Schneider et. al., 2010; Acosta-Gonzalez, et. al. 2014.

- **Policy approaches available for tackling undeclared work** (Williams et. al. 2013; Williams, Nadin, 2012; Bourne, 2011).

- **Research of the business sectors with the highest rate of informal economy** (Williams, 2007); establishment of the motives and types of businessmen operating in the country (Williams, Nadin, 2012; Williams, Nadin, 2013; Williams, Martinez, 2014); Pathak, et. al., 2013; Ojo, et. al., 2013; Pathak, et. al., 2013.

- **Benefits and drawbacks of informal economy** (Hope Sr., 2014).

- **Definitions and theoretical approaches of the informal economy** (Godfrey, 2011).

- **Nature of shadow economy in Baltic states** (Williams, 2010).

The scientific problem has been formulated as follows: which country-level determinants are the main and have the most significant influence on the scope of shadow economy in Greece?

The purpose of the article is to establish and evaluate the main country-level determinants that have the most significant impact on the scope of shadow economy in Greece.

The purpose has been detailed into the following objectives: 1) to systematize country-level determinants and their impact on shadow economy; 2) to introduce the methodology of the research; 3) with reference to the results of mathematical calculations, to establish the main and the most influential country-level determinants of shadow economy in Greece during downturn.

The methods of the research include systematic and comparative analysis of the scientific literature, the analysis of the statistical data, correlation, multiple and simple regression analysis.

The first section of the article systematizes the country-level determinants that have the impact on the rate of shadow economy; the second section introduces the methodology of the empirical research including three calculation stages; the third section presents the interpretation of the results of the empirical research and, finally, the article has been finished with conclusions.

2. **Theoretical Consideration about the Impact of Country-Level Determinants to Shadow Economy**

According to Williams and Nadin (2012a), in the scientific literature, “45 different nouns and 10 adjectives have been used to denote the “informal economy” (p. 896). The most used synonyms of informal economy are “an official”, “hidden”, “black”, “cash-in-hand”, “shadow” economy, underground / undeclared work / economy / sector. Illegally accounted economy in its general sense appears in the three following fields: the tax, social security and labour aspects of undeclared work (Williams, Nadin, 2012 a, 2012 b). The only distinctive feature between declared and undeclared work is that undeclared work is not declared to the public authorities for tax, social security and labour law purposes (Williams, Nadin, 2012b, p. 1759). To perform shadow economy research, Enste (2010) followed the definition defining that “the shadow economy includes unreported income resulting from the production of legal goods and services, either from monetary or barter transactions – and, hence, includes all economic activities that would generally be taxable were they reported to the (tax) authorities” (p. 560). According to Schneider et al. (2010), shadow economy includes all market-based legal production of goods and services that are deliberately concealed from public authorities for any of the following reasons: 1) to avoid payment of income, value added or other taxes; 2) to avoid payment of social security contributions; 3) to avoid having to meet certain legal labour market standards, such as minimum wages, maximum working hours, safety standards, etc., and 4) to avoid complying with certain administrative procedures, such as completing statistical questionnaires or other administrative forms.

Systematization of the scientific literature on the country-level determinants that have the impact on the scope of shadow economy has enabled to establish the main ones which are usually applied while performing empirical research in this field (see Table 1).
Table 1. Country-level determinants of shadow economy (source: compiled by the authors with reference to Herwartz et. al. 2013; Ruge, 2010; Enste, 2010; Schneider et. al. 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author, year</th>
<th>Country-level determinants</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Herwartz et. al. 2013</td>
<td>Labour market conditions</td>
<td>Unemployment rate; the share of self-employed in the labour force;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taxation</td>
<td>VAT rates; the level of tax rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rule of law index</td>
<td>The share of public employment in the labour force; the share of collected tax revenues in the tax base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GDP per capita</td>
<td>Purchasing power standards (PPS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The rate of labour force participation</td>
<td>The level of employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall state</td>
<td>Wealth &amp; development level; administrative system; constitutional trust &amp; values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruge, 2010</td>
<td>Tax system</td>
<td>Tax and social security payments; tax complexity &amp; surveillance; tax moral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Labour system</td>
<td>Labour market regulations; unemployment; participation rights; labour wages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall regulation</td>
<td>Tax burden (measured on the total tax and social security wedge, including employer contribution, less cash benefits of an average single earner; VAT);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Labour</td>
<td>GNP per capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enste, 2010</td>
<td>Product market regulation</td>
<td>Tax morale; unemployment rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of official institution</td>
<td>IW regulation index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schneider et. al. 2010</td>
<td>Monetary indicators</td>
<td>The currency outside the banks and the currency outside the banks plus deposit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Labour market</td>
<td>Labour force participation rate; growth rate of the total labour force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State of the official economy</td>
<td>GDP per capita</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysing country-level determinants that have the impact on the scope of shadow economy in both theoretical and practical level, the researchers face with problem since there is no clear-cut division between indicators and causal variables. Both causal variables and indicators might be included in the calculations of shadow economy scope and treated as synonymous factors. Further in the article, the results of previous scientific research on plausible impact of country-level determinants on shadow economy have been reviewed.

Labour market conditions. One of the indicators describing the conditions in the labour market is unemployment rate. With reference to Ojo et al. (2013), the informal economy moderates unemployment, although in numerous cases undeclared work does not provide any social guarantees and is low-paid. Unemployment is a cause for the increase in the supply of labour to the informal sector (Sookram et. al., 2009). The calculations aimed at identification of the impact of the determinants on shadow economy (Williams, 2007; Williams, Nadin, 2012b) also include self-employment and total labour force determinants. The majority of businessmen start-up their activities hiding a part of income and thus not paying taxes while the self-employed get wages in “envelopes” due to adverse circumstances, take up illegal works and so forth. All this increases the scope of shadow economy.

Taxation and Social Security Contribution Burdens. People engage in shadow economy activities for a variety of reasons – especially in response to government actions, most notably, taxation and regulation. High taxes as well as social security contribution burdens are the main motives for the emergence of shadow economy. The impact of these determinants was analysed by many scientists (Schneider et al., 2010; Ojo et. al., 2014; Sookram et. al., 2009). With reference to Schneider et al. (2010), the more significant is the difference between total cost of labour in the official economy and the after-tax earnings from work, the greater is the incentive to avoid this difference and to work in the shadow economy. According to Ojo et al. (2013), unofficial earnings such as tax evasion, avoidance of labour regulation and other government or institutional regulations, non-registration of the business and so on are all illegal activities which have a strong impact on personal motivation to remain in the shadow. Lisi, Pugno (2010) and Sookram et al. (2009) emphasize that lower taxation and lower start-up costs also reduce the hidden sector. The analysis of the previous research proposes that conclusion that higher taxation results in a higher undeclared share of income.

3. Methodology

With a view to establishing which country-level determinants have the most significant impact on shadow economy in Greece, several methods were selected: correlation analysis and multiple/simple regression. Seeking the accuracy of the calculation results, the period of 2005-2013 was selected. The course of the research included three stages. Firstly, correlation was calculated. Only the determinants with correlation coefficient equal or higher than 0.60 were selected for further stage of the research. Independent variable (y) – size of shadow economy - was expressed as percentage of GDP; independent variables (x) and their correlation coefficients have been presented in Table 2.
In the second stage, multiple regression has been calculated only for the determinants with value $r$ higher than 0.6:

- tax payment (x20);

### Table 2. The results of correlation analysis for Greece (source: compiled by the authors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable, mark.</th>
<th>Short description of the independent variable</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business freedom (x2)</td>
<td>Business freedom is an overall indicator of the efficiency of government regulation of business. The quantitative score is derived from an array of measurements of the difficulty of starting, operating, and closing a business. The business freedom score for each country is a number between 0 and 100, with 100 equalling the freest business environment. (Source: Heritage Foundation)</td>
<td>-0.462757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate, percent (x7)</td>
<td>Total unemployment is described as a percentage of total labour force. Unemployment refers to the share of the labour force that is without work but available for and seeking employment. Definitions of labour force and unemployment differ by country. (Source: International Labour Organization, Key Indicators of the Labour Market database)</td>
<td>-0.619904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (purchasing power parities EU-27) (x6)</td>
<td>It corresponds to the GDP per capita based on purchasing power parity (PPP). GDP PPP is gross domestic product converted to international dollars using purchasing power parity rates. GDP at purchaser’s prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. (Source: World Bank, Doing Business project (<a href="http://www.doingbusiness.org/">http://www.doingbusiness.org/</a>).)</td>
<td>-0.612733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation as a percentage of the working age population (x5)</td>
<td>It corresponds to the labour force participation rate, total (% of total population). Labour force participation rate is the proportion of the population that is economically active: all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. (Source: International Labour Organization)</td>
<td>0.046949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom from corruption (x4)</td>
<td>Corruption erodes economic freedom by introducing insecurity and uncertainty into economic relationships. The score for this component is derived primarily from Transparency International’s Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI). The CPI is based on a 10-point scale in which a score of 10 indicates very little corruption and a score of 0 indicates a very corrupt government. (Source: Heritage Foundation)</td>
<td>0.557257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total labour force, thousands (x9)</td>
<td>The total labour force, or currently active population, comprises all persons who fulfill the requirements for inclusion among the employed or the unemployed during a specified brief reference period. (Source: ILO)</td>
<td>-0.632545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General government final consumption expenditure as percentage of GDP at current prices (x10)</td>
<td>General government final consumption expenditure (formerly general government consumption) includes all government current expenditures for purchases of goods and services (including compensation of employees). It also includes most expenditure on national defence and security, but excludes government military expenditures that are part of government capital formation. (Source: United Nations Statistical Database)</td>
<td>-0.041971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports of goods and services (% of GDP) (x13)</td>
<td>Exports of goods and services represent the value of all goods and other market services provided to the rest of the world. (Source: World Bank)</td>
<td>-0.320715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports of goods and services (% of GDP) (x14)</td>
<td>Imports of goods and services represent the value of all goods and other market services received from the rest of the world. (Source: World Bank)</td>
<td>-0.154788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic credit to private, % of GDP sector (x18)</td>
<td>Domestic credit to private sector refers to financial resources provided to the private sector by financial corporations, such as through loans, purchases of no equity securities, and trade credits and other accounts receivable that establish a claim for repayment. (Source: International Monetary Fund, International Financial Statistics and data files, and World Bank and OECD GDP estimates)</td>
<td>-0.652392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final consumption expenditure (% of GDP) (x11)</td>
<td>Final consumption expenditure (formerly total consumption) is the sum of household final consumption expenditure (private consumption) and general government final consumption expenditure (general government consumption). (Source: World Bank national accounts data, and OECD National Accounts data files)</td>
<td>-0.558167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total tax rate (% of commercial profit) (x19)</td>
<td>Total tax rate measures the amount of taxes and mandatory contributions payable by businesses after accounting for allowable deductions and exemptions as a share of commercial profits. Taxes withheld (such as personal income tax) or collected and remitted to tax authorities (such as value added taxes, sales taxes or goods and service taxes) are excluded. Source: World Bank, Doing Business project (<a href="http://www.doingbusiness.org/">http://www.doingbusiness.org/</a>).</td>
<td>0.951848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax payment (number) (x20)</td>
<td>Tax payments by businesses are the total number of taxes paid by businesses, including electronic filing. The tax is counted as paid once a year even if payments are more frequent. Source: World Bank, Doing Business project (<a href="http://www.doingbusiness.org/">http://www.doingbusiness.org/</a>).</td>
<td>0.753257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
− tax rate (x 19);
− domestic credit to private (x 18);
− total labour force (x 9);
− GDP per capita (x 6);
− unemployment rate (x 7).

In the third stage of the empirical research, simple regression has been applied to estimate the scope of shadow economy and tax rate during the period of 2005-2013.

4. Empirical Results of the Research

As it can be seen from Table 3, R-squared for all multiple regression variables is equal to 0.97. It means that the model by 97 per cent explains variability of the independent variables response data around the shadow economy mean, however, value p is statistically important only for total tax rate (X 19). Both total value p (0.08) and values for other variables are statistically unimportant. Due to this reason, simple regression for variable X 19 was applied (see Table 4).

Table 3. The results of multiple regression for the shadow economy and country-level determinants (source: compiled by the authors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-82.3361</td>
<td>45.5448</td>
<td>-1.8078</td>
<td>0.2124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic credit to private (X18)</td>
<td>-0.0157</td>
<td>0.0207</td>
<td>-0.7611</td>
<td>0.5261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax rate (X19)</td>
<td>0.5399</td>
<td>0.1162</td>
<td>4.6468</td>
<td>0.0035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax payment (X20)</td>
<td>-0.0146</td>
<td>0.0644</td>
<td>-0.2272</td>
<td>0.8414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total labour force (X9)</td>
<td>0.0207</td>
<td>0.0105</td>
<td>1.9778</td>
<td>0.1866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (X7)</td>
<td>0.0330</td>
<td>0.0383</td>
<td>0.8631</td>
<td>0.4790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (X6)</td>
<td>-21.3977</td>
<td>16.8079</td>
<td>-1.2731</td>
<td>0.3310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.9715</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>0.8840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.3096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.E. of regression</td>
<td>0.4183</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.4656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum squared resid</td>
<td>0.3500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>1.8407</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.8154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>11.3625</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob(F-statistic)</td>
<td>0.0830</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of simple regression showed that R-squared is 0.90, value p is statistically important and it is lower than 0.05. Schwarz criterion value in Table 4 is lower than that in Table 3. Thus, final conclusions of the empirical research have been based on the results of simple regression. Graphical interpretation of the results has been presented in Figure 1.

Error column reveals that during the period of 2008 – 2010, actual shadow was higher than it had been fitted which could have been caused by the financial downturn taking place at the end of 2007.

Table 4. The results of simple regression for shadow economy and tax rate (source: compiled by the authors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>6.9685</td>
<td>2.2059</td>
<td>3.1589</td>
<td>0.0160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax rate (X19)</td>
<td>0.3817</td>
<td>0.0464</td>
<td>8.2146</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.9060</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.0556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>0.8929</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.E. of regression</td>
<td>0.4060</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum squared resid</td>
<td>1.1543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>-3.5288</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.1340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic</td>
<td>67.4801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob(F-statistic)</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The results of the empirical research have revealed that in order to reduce or regulate the scope of shadow economy, tax rate could have been used as the most influential determinant during the period of 2005 – 2013. The total impact of other determinants made only 7 per cent since omission of them from the regression caused only 7 per cent variation loss. Thus, tax payment, domestic credit to private, total labour force, GDP per capita and unemployment rate have insignificant impact on the scope of shadow economy. The analysis of the impact of country-level determinants on the scope of shadow economy during the downturn in Greece has not been carried out due to too short data series. Although statistical data on shadow economy shows that during the downturn the shadow was only a few per cent lower than that during the pre-crisis period, this result could have been caused by the increased unemployment: in 2008, unemployment rate in Greece made 7.7 per cent while in 2013 it rose up to 27.3 per cent.

5. Conclusions

Country-level determinants that influence the scope of shadow economy in Greece are considered to be the most influential. Although the group of country-level determinants includes up to 15 factors, only a few of them - unemployment rate, GDP per capita, total labour force, domestic credit to private, tax rate and tax payment – are statistically significant and have the impact on shadow economy. Calculations confirmed the results of the theoretical research by showing that tax rate ($R^2 = 0.9$) is the determinant having the most significant impact on shadow economy emergence and development. The impact of other determinants mentioned above is considerably weaker since omission of them from the regression caused only 7 per cent variation loss. The results of the research could be considered by the government of the country taking measures to reduce the scope of shadow economy. The authors of the article recommend carrying out a detailed analysis of the components of current tax structure in business and other spheres. This could contribute to introduction of the taxes which would not appear to be the fundamental motive to act in a shadow.

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Manipulative Function of Corporal Media

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Abstract

The changes that have happened lately in Balkan media put in front corporal journalism, which instead of being in service of citizens more often is becoming the powerful weapon of media owners. The journalism paradigm, according to which it is supposed to serve all of the citizens, in modern conditions, it slowly transforms into open serving to capital owners and bearers of ideological power. No doubt this endangers the foundations of democracy. Instead of rule by the people it turns into dictatorship of corporal elite, whereas media by constructing of conceivable, narcissistic and esthetic narrative seduce public opinion. Analyzing in structure more complex, but also in content more unified sphere of media activity, the author focuses on developing abyss between rich and poor on the Planet, deducing how new media philosophy into the society center instead of citizen as a subject puts the consumer as the object of the public. Insensibly the character of journalism has been changed: in corporal society it becomes corporal itself.

Keywords: media, corporatism, ownership, democracy, ideological power

1. Introduction

Transition of East European states which started two decades ago, with the Berlin Wall fall brought major changes in this area to nations in all life spheres, also in that referring to media. Perennial reality was changed, from socialism to capitalism, with dominant ideology of neo-liberalism.

In such changed circumstances, media politics was directed to making of independent and democratic forms, and independence was defined was as termination of the state influence on media. Media changed ownership, from the state hands moved to private capital world. The privatization was mostly performed in opaque manner, which often lead to appearance of corruption affairs, and also to creation of monopoly because it was not taking care about concentration of media ownership.

Today, here the relations between media and politics, that is the state have been significantly changed. Several big world media companies from Germany, Switzerland, Scandinavian countries, and also United States have bought many the most circulated and influential media in these countries. On markets of Serbia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia and Hercegovina and Romania, for many years the most present company has been German VAC. Today it is Switzerland Ringier. As for domestic media owners, they have been mostly recruited from the class of so called businessman, that is people who, until the change of regime have been in favor of former socialist leaders.

It was expected that the change of ownership in media would bring in more freedom, more investigative journalism, more analytic texts, but this has not happened. The journalism paradigm, according to which it has to serve to all citizens of the world, in modern circumstances, slowly turns into open serving to capital owners. Thus the foundations of journalism profession have been endangered, and also the democracy itself.

1.1 Topic, aims and basic hypothesis of the work

Due to all this, in this article, we will analyze the changes that have happened in modern journalism in the countries of Southeast Europe with special attention to Serbia. Our aim is to point to the fact that changed media philosophy in the

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center of society puts a consumer as an object of the public instead of a citizen as the subject. The world is actually at the crossroads, because manipulative and in this way directed communication indicates the hidden mass tyranny, which seduced by planned, strategic calculations and technologically powerful impacts think and act in the way the tailors of the spiritual weaving prepare in their corporal workshops.

American liberal dogma which is the most present in the countries of Southeast of Europe promoted the new market rules and wealth as the life ideal. Its domination was especially supported by the transformed media, which by constructing of persuasive narcissistic and aesthetic narratives very successfully mastered the public opinion in these countries. However, here is still talked about serving the general, public interests, but more often it is about open serving to capital owners and through them the bearers of ideological power.

Hence, the starting hypothesis in this article, counting on the corporations' power and ideology of corporatism is that the journalism itself has become corporate, in other words the part of the new power structures. The new ownership elites by media pictures in the mind of auditorium are embedding the projected meaning so as to by spinned placed terms blunt the critical awareness and offer the desired sense. All the time amusing-tabloid forms are forced, and critical investigating approach is pushed on the margins. The openness of the order where everything may be said is demonstrated by the opening of new papers, magazines, journals, radio and TV stations, numerous blogs and social networks. Moreover, many media mean much scattered attention, which recipients brings less time for thinking and search for solutions.

1.2 Applied methodology

In this article we applied many different methods and research techniques adopting them to our topic and objectives. The most common is the method of media content analysis, by which we tried to point the ways the media in the hands of new owners have been creating the general picture of society we live in. By comparative method we compared the media practice in several Balkan countries. We applied series of other methodological proceedings: from speculation of experience research to introspection of social media role observation, to analysis and synthesis of media contents. By using of historical, normative and analytic method, we obtained the scientific research on the question on changed, mostly manipulative function of media in Southeast Europe countries. By the synthesis method we formulated the conclusions and on them defined the recommendations we consider important for establishment of social more responsible media position.

2. Findings

2.1 Profit and group interests

The establishment of the ownership type of media happened in the middle of sixties of the last century when corporations, suddenly started buying shares of prominent newspapers. “The trigger was Wall Street revealing of the most kept secret of the American press…that the most of daily papers are profitable” (Bagdikian, 1992:11-12). Most of great American newspapers, such as “New York Times”, “Washington Post” or “Los Angeles Times” were founded in 19th century. The founder was “the powerful Patriarch” who knew the job, extraordinary entrepreneur, he managed on greatest challenges, Adolf Ochs, for example, 1986 bought “The New York Times” for $75,000, and the company, seven decades later was worth millions.

After The Second World War, 80% of daily papers in United States of America were diversified in family ownership, but 1989, the proportion was reverse – 80% of ownership was corporate. Or, in 1981, 20 corporations owned 11 000 magazines, and seven years later the number of owners was – three (Bagdikian, 1991:14).

Ben Bagdikian, in the sixth edition of “Media Monopoly” in 2000 (and the edition is the fact, because the numbers were reduced from edition to edition) asserted the trend: “In 1983, fifty corporations controlled most of mass media, the greatest “merging” (connecting, enlarging companies) in the history cost 340 million dollars… In 1987 remained twenty nine of fifty companies… In 1990 from twenty nine the number was reduced to twenty three… In 1997 were ten, and the business of Disney- ABC, the greatest until that time was worth 19 billion dollars… In 2000 the merging of AOL-Time Warner reached as much as 350 billion dollars which is 1 000 times greater amount then the greatest business in

2 According to definition of Stuart Price “the meaning is the reference, event or activity by which the sense is transferred to people” (Piece, 2011:21)
3 Roman philosopher Seneca explained this two thousand years ago with these words: “To be everywhere means to be nowhere"
Accordingly, there are fewer players, as *Mother Jones* magazine published by the end of 2006, that eight big media companies provide majority of Americans with news and information (Disney, AOL-Time Warner, Viacom, General Electric – owner of NBC, New Corporation, Yahoo). Afterwards, it was talked about five companies. “Fewer players, less freedom”, intellectuals claim critically (Shah, 2009). Bagdikian explained that such a few people may sit at one table, make agreement about everything and that they in reality make private Ministry of Information. Although it formally does not exist, the consequence is obvious – western media easily harmonize about following of important events. “Actually... they function in this way, as they get instructions from some managerial center such as CC KPSS (Zinovjev, 1999:52).

Warner A. Meier, the member of Euro Media Research Group and the professor in Zürich, determined that, apart from “ten colossal conglomerates dominating the global media market”, this phenomenon is very little examined. Meier quotes the American researcher Christopher H. Sterling that “it is surprisingly little of research – and they are mostly marginal... Most of are the assumptions or anecdote like remarks or mere results presentation about ownership” (Meier, 2002:209). This is not strange because of the social media industry role which “plays important role in identifying of inequality in wealth, power and privileges. When the flow control of information, knowledge, values and images is in hands of those who share the power with dominating class, then this class can define what will circulate in mass media with the intention to maintain the structure of class inequality which it has the benefit of” (Meier, 2002:299)

Alas, in the nineties of the last century, liberal- democratic world clashed with sinister reality that the theory on press freedom was most often formulated in the way to protect media owners. That is why it is “ a little odd to represent the view that private ownership of media guarantee the right of each citizen to broadcast any content. In the approach to media based on political economy it is pointed that private business interest in media restrains in the same way the freedom of speech as much as different forms of limitations imposed by governments” (Chambers, 2007:128). The Political economy theory (the corpus of opinions and researches of predominant inquirers from the end of the last century) starts from that the giant corporations treat news as merchandise “which aim is to gain the profit for its shareholders”. The consequences are that “cheap amusing shows, such as quizzes, in program schedule are in advantage in relation to quality documentaries”, as long as “new form of investigation journalism focused on consumers. At present, number of magazine-type shows are made, in which are offered pieces of advice and exposes about different domestic and everyday topics such as holidays, food, mortgage on real estate and personal finance” (Chambers, 2007:136-137).

In such changed circumstances, entertainment took over in media the greatest space and doubtlessly influenced the essence of the journalism itself. Michael Eisner, former “Walt Disney Company” General Manager, on internal meetings used to say: “We are not obliged to history. We are not obliged to art. We are obliged to massage. To make money is our only aim” (Shah, 2009).

From the old model in which it was thought about democracy and called to the First Amendment, conventions and codes, and money took from under the table, entered the model of cartel in which only interests of connected persons and groups are important. Media organizations in Southeast Europe are “ mostly owned by big transnational corporations which connected control over financial interests not only in telecommunications, entertainment industry and tourism but also in oil industry, paper production, real estate and nuclear industry” (Chambers, 2007:131).

Thus, by global commercialization of media, at the end of the last century, the awareness on general interest was lost, and information started to be treated as means for high profit achievement and mass seducing. In Southeast Europe countries appeared many new media, but in them messages are standardized with the use of identical value system. What is the basic change is the appearance of tabloid forms and tabloid media. Today, it is all the same whether one in hands holds Belgrade Politika (Serbia), Zagred Jutarnji List (Croatia), Skopje Dnevnik (Macedonia), Sofia Trud (Bulgaria), Sarajevo Dnevni Avaz (Bosnia and Herzegovina) or some similar widely circulation newspapers from the country of Southeast of Europe: information is template, look alike each other as peas in a pod, there are most of the big pictures, easy topics... media reports in them are more often results of political settlements between elite of media owners and elite of government, and this is more than obvious. In Romani, once the German VAC as the owner of widely circulated paper “Romana Libera” gave to journalists “ Guide to writing” according to which they should not “criticize too much” the ruling party.5

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2.2 Elite Symbiosis

Corporatism is the real master of global processes. Hiding under it auspices, in the complex capital society, government spreads charisma on its democracy, does not accept any criticism on own responsibility for social standard decrease, increase of unemployment, ecological devastation of the Planet, military compulsion, sanctions and similar punishment forms of disobedient nations. Almost all important information is selected first, worked out and constructed according to wishes of the corporate elite, but it is not publicly recognized. Everything is hidden behind different serials such as “Big Brother”, “Farm” and similar which impose the life models. In television program in the Southeast Europe countries, according to our research, such and similar series take more than 60% of the signal time broadcasting.

Corporate techno-structures are the owners of global media companies, and by appointing of managers, especially editors, on responsible posts, they fulfill the dream on communication space total control. This is mostly appropriate to authority structures, especially in Southeast Europe. For, at the time of traditional print, radio and television “gaining of approval” was simpler and easier, because by the censorship of texts or electronic contents provided control easily. Internet and social networks increasingly popular in the countries of Southeast of Europe enable each man to interpret in his own way, create, control and monitor conflicts, events, problems. Hence, the authority elite needs monitoring over media reality, which is structured of the myriad information and meanings of which in many countries it could not respond. Responsibility and guilt are implanted into one party, and alternative opinions fall behind from globalized media.

Totalitarian regimes in this part of the world went from the global stage relatively peacefully, with the important mission of western propaganda which created conditions for ideological movement gradually changing the Eastern Block citizens’ mind. The temporary global system is composed of the regions, corporations, religions, invisible organizations, interest oligarchies and political movements, with the high level of communication interdependence. There is more truth, for domestic and foreign public, according to interests of those in whose hands are the reins of the communication management. The modeling of the world according to new patterns is founded on camouflaged ideas of political domination, military hegemony and unconcealed arrogance towards those who think differently.

Governments, not only in Southeast Europe, but in other countries as well, use mostly the connections of authority elite and media ownership elite in order to put under the control the influential media, directly influencing the formation of public opinion. The citizens’ right “to know everything” is more declarative than real, but in order for the masks not to fall down too soon, the narrative about democratic capacities of public services which “no one can influence on” is created. In practice, politicians combining legal certifications and close connections with the tops of media corporations, with the help of big advertisers manage the communication space. In Hungary, the Prime Minister Victor Orban with the change of the law significantly narrowed the space for independence of state media; in Croatia the law on HRT was changed so the first man is to be elected by the Parliament; In Serbia the set of media laws is announced to be changed; In Slovakia the change of authority majority lead to the change of public TV service director although the Parliament Board for Culture and Media unanimously adopted her report on work...

Corporatism is the shadow of actual changes, the true winner of missed ideologies, real master of global processes. In complex capital society, authority spreads charisma about its democracy, hiding that it does not include any criticism of own responsibility (decrease of living standard, unemployment increase, ecological devastation of the Planet, military compulsion, sanctions and similar punishment forms of disobedient nations and so on). Almost all important information are selected first, worked out and (re)constructed according to wishes of the corporate masters, but it is not publicly recognized. The freedom ritual is camouflaged with the “care and responsibility” for the safety of each individual, and when rare lonely once speak about Big Brother and about monitoring of all communication flows, the ordinary man is suspicious about sincerity of such intentions. The object of manipulation is the last to know that is the subject of manipulative activities, believing that the given message is true. Something similar happened at the time of Nazism. Hitler promised to worker “disempowerment of the means of production”, while at the same time the factory owners were guaranteed “protection before the strike”. Both believed him, because he controlled their subconscious: pictures of hope

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6 Noam Chomsky revealing propaganda model under the control of state bureaucracy, register five filters that censor information contents: “1) size, ownership and profit orientation of mass media; 2) marketing activity and influence of advertisers; 3) news source; 4) anti-aircraft artillery and attacks on media; 5) anti communism as monitoring mechanism” (Chomsky, 2004: 153-207)

7 “The main power of all fascism variations between two World Wars – there were different forms from Mussolini’s originals, via Hitler’s national socialism to Roosevelt’s liberal Fascism - was in corporatism. That appearance and that term is very important for the future of democracy and capitalism. because the corporal power will outlive the fascism, mutate in after war societies, fasten its position in the cold war which gave significant part of legitimacy for its functioning and be taken over as social –economy base from the key power of 20th century –USA”. (Reljic, S.(2014): Crisis of the Media and Media Crisis, Belgrade: Official Journal, pg 105).
for better tomorrow arouse masses from the lethargy, pre election noise totally suppressed rationality, and with the crisis impoverished Weimar Republic believed in mystique phrases on chosen people. Ever since almost has nothing changed in elite intentions- only technologies became faster, more sophisticated, more convergent, more persuasive.

Traditional links that only more than one decade ago bind citizens of Southeast Europe states for ethnic, social or cultural origin with the technological revolution suddenly weakened giving the space to growing information tide. Established corporal media, as priority see only their own and the interest of the authority elite, and are ready to replace the professional reputation with the stacks of bills which for short time provide strategic positioning on the market.

3. Conclusion

Modern civilization is ruled by interwoven mass media networks along which flow myriad of the same and similar contents, making foundations of global economy and politics. Print, electronic media, publishing houses, movie companies, public relations agencies, telecommunication and computer industry form firm and universal information ring which encompasses the Planet. The world is in turmoil: the power of muscles is replaced by the power of mind, instead of force and coercion it is ruled by information and propaganda. In difference from the states of industrial society, incentive of the third wave is created which needs great amount of energy, food and – information.

In corrupted journalism the perception is with plans moved from experience and facts to imagination and announcements, producing transformation that deprives reality of the truth value. Knowledge about others is created though memory because only images are remembered. The power of symbols theoretically belongs to the public sphere, which should be independent and free, but with liberal concept and understanding that information is only merchandise as all other commence the battle for monitoring and imposing. The idea on general interest in media of Southeast Europe is significantly marginalized, because it is more than clearly imposed fact that information is the source of profit.

In the era of twenty four hour news distribution, journalists less and less search, check and investigate. Mostly, they only retell what comes to them from influential power centers. When the story is made it is transferred further in the way that many call “the logic of the herd”. Investigative journalism is defeated, and the idea that media serve to ordinary people, is equal to a dream about democracy as an order of free and equal people. Modern media in the countries of Southeast Europe today represent commercial and political institutions which have the interest on the first place, while the truth is desirable only when it is in accordance with dominant corporal interest. Burdened with economic difficulties, for most often they work for extremely low salaries, without health and pension insurance, journalists accept their changed role. In this way is changed the character itself of the journalism which in the society ruled by big multinational corporations becomes corporate itself.

4. Proposals

Estimating that the corporate journalism seriously imperiled the foundations of journalist profession, we are free to propose the new model of media system functioning.

The model starts from three attitudes - (Hypo)thesis;
1. That media is the product and producer of modern society;
2. That choice of role of media model in society depends on global social development model;
3. Choice (orientation) for social-democratic model of transition with social responsibility represent that autonomy of each part of the society ( it also means media system) is the condition for democratic integration of the whole and its successful social development.

Having in mind these starting hypothesis and principle, we may point that the draft of democratic model of media role in modern society, with which the manipulative role of media would be reduce at the lowest possible level has to have the following determinants, characteristics:

a) Dominant shareholders form of ownership, which would make journalist co-owners and co-managers, responsible for the professional image and competitiveness of media;
b) Autonomy of editorial-in relation to political and ownership sphere;
c) High professionalism of journalist (affirmation of ethics and occupation);

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9 " Memory allows us to hear what is unheard and to see what is invisible. Hence, I repeat, no wander if a soul, which keeps in itself what it is not anymore, adopts that what it has not been yet; because it suits it more and is closer to it: it throws and stretches into future, and that what passed and is finished it freed and kept it only in memory", remarked Plutarch (Pythian Dialogues, 1990, pg 83)
d) Participation, as a form of co-decision of all employed in media system;
e) Market competence and verification of competitive ability and social profitability.

All these elements in their union in the model of media system in social practice may make it more quality and more efficient in relation to hitherto models and promote media as responsible actor in society in the function of objective informing and forming of the critical citizen public, without which there is no responsible and democratic society.

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India’s Missing Daughters: An Ominous Sign for Democracy

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Abstract

The continuing devaluation of women in economic and social domain, lack of property rights and the increasing scourge of dowry are found for strengthening son preference trends as reflected in the current census figures. The drop in girl child sex ratio may be attributed the notorious nexus of tradition and technology. The collusion between people, the medical fraternity and the administration has resulted in worsening of the sex ratio and failure of the Act to make a difference. Patriarchy is the root cause for the institution of male rule and subordination of female in the society. Bringing daughters is viewed as a liability and sons are preferred as the saviors of seven generation of ancestors. A hardened conscience and disregard for the sanctity of life is the reason for widespread abortion and female foeticide. The skewed sex ratio seems to impact both the treatment of Indian women in particular as well as the health of Indian democracy in general. Reversal of the declining trend is a must to ensure stable economic and societal growth. Programmes that aim to reduce the excessive son preference and increase the value of daughters to their parents should be given top priority.

Keywords: Sex ratio, missing women, sex determination, female foeticide, son preference.

1. Introduction

The disparity in sex ratio illustrating the population of many Asian countries has grounded a number of authors to argue that there is considerable excess female mortality in Asia. Broadly, they argue that abandon of female children and deprived conditions for women add to the dreadfully low percentage of females in the population1. The loss of female children due to sex selective abortions & female infanticides will create an unbalanced sex structure of the population in the country & will have serious demographic & social consequences. Moreover, these practices reflect the social discrimination against the females & are in serious violation of fundamental human rights of women & children. They also do not conform to the principle of gender equality in a modern civilized society & beg the attention of the government & society at large for their reprisal. The offspring selection favoring man is prevalent, thereby indicating that the life of female is not valued, but actually despised. The speed of clinics offering sex determination tests & abortion services in the country during last two decades facilitates the increased use of these techniques.

Prior theoretical and empirical economic arguments on gender imbalance emphasized on household level economic incentive affecting imbalance in sex ratios2. It is a matter of deep concern that the girl child sex ratio had dropped from 927 to 914 girls per thousand boys, confirming the worst apprehensions of those working to uphold women’s rights. It has raised serious concerns about the direction of development which was leading to growth without social justice. The continuing devaluation of women in economic & social sphere, the lack property rights, and the increasing scourge of dowry were visibly & tragically strengthening son preference trends, reflected in the current census

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1 For detailed discussion see Sen 1990; Coale 1991; Klasen 1994.
2 See In this context for income sides (Becker 1991, Rose 1999), earning opportunities for women (Bardhan, 1974; Rosenzweig and Schultz, 1987, Duflo 2001, Qian 2008) and the status of women within different kinship systems (Dyson and Moore 1993, & Chakraborty and Kim 2010).
2011 figures. The literature on sex ratio highlights on the function of siblings in son preference. It is well established that preference against a daughter is strongest in the absence of a son. There are also studies that put forth biological factors, to elucidate the sex ratio imbalance. The total failure of central government & official agencies to take necessary steps to reverse the trends was reprehensible. Preliminary data from 2011 census have recorded many districts with sex ratios of less than 850. The ratio in urban areas is significantly lower than those in rural parts of the country. Reports suggest evidence of violence & trafficking of poor women & forced polyandry in some regions with markedly skewed ratios. The overall steep & consistent decline in the ratio needs serious review.

The all India sex ratio in 914 girls for 1,000 boys, which puts the country right at the bottom of global charts, worse off than countries like Nigeria (965) & neighbour Pakistan (958). According to the report, only China with whom ironically, India is competing in economic growth sweepstakes-with 832 girls per 1,000 boys ranks below India. Unsurprisingly, the state of Punjab is cited as the worst offender-the ratio has dropped from 875 in 1991 to 798 girls for every 1,000 boys in 2001. The worsening in the country's hugely skewed sex-ratio is largely due to misuse of pre-natal diagnostic technique despite stringent laws banning their use for sex selection & consequent increase in cases of female foeticide.

Advance science & technology has had its adverse effects. The sex-selection in a globalised economy had dragged even the foetus to the market place. Atrocities against women in various forms have been an integral part of the civilization since ages. However, India has unabashedly been home to some barbaric acts against this gentler breed of humanity, starting from dowry deaths & sati, going up to female infanticide & female foeticide. In spite of a massive influx of legal regulations barring the female foetuses technology facilitates a series of selective abortions after pre-natal sex determination, techniques such as Amniocentesis were introduced in 1975 to identify any genetic abnormalities. Sadly, these were become tool for sex determination & proved to be a call of death for tiny unborn female foetuses. What is most alarming is that the Child Sex Ratio (CSR) is mere skewed in “Bermuda Triangle” which includes the land rich & affluent lands of Punjab, Haryana & UP. The national capital, New Delhi, is also known to be on the top of the list. Against this backdrop, the aim of this study is to analyze the reasons why the proportion of baby girls is steadily declining.

2. Inter-state Child Sex Ratio (CSR): Highlights in 2011 Census

The lowest-ever child sex ratio of 914 over shadowed an increase in the overall sex ratio, which is now 940-the highest nation wise since census 1971 & a shade lower than 1961-as it reflects a continued preference for a male child. The overall sex ratio (number of females for every 1,000 ratio) has shown improvement, from 932.91 in 2001 to 940.27 in 2011; a good part of this can be explained by the greater national longevity of women & improvements in health care over the years. It is unfortunate that there has been a steep fall in the child sex ratio, which measures the numbers of girls for every 1,000 boys in the age 0-6 year’s age group. The sex ratio in the 0-6 age group has been continually declining since 1961 but the fall from 927.31 in 2001 to 914.23 in 2011 is worst since independence. This trend & scale of decline in rising India is shocking.

The child sex ratio (0-6 years) in Haryana & Punjab is lowest among all states. Haryana has 830 female children & Punjab 846 against per 1000 male child. The highest child sex ratio is in Mizoram (971 females against 1000 males) & Meghalaya (970 females). At the district level, Lahul & Spiti in Himachal Pradesh had the highest sex ratio in the age group of 0-6 at 1,013 while in Twang (Arunachal Pradesh) it was 1,005. It was shamefully low in Jhajjar & Mahendragarh (Haryana) at 774 & 778.

The census figures indicate an increase in sex ratio in 29 states & Union territories, with women out numbering men in Kerala. There were 1,084 women against 1,000 men in Kerala, followed by Puducherry where the figure was 1038. Daman & Due has a sex ratio of 618, next only to Dadra & Nagar Haveli at 775. Among the districts, Mahe (Puducherry) was the highest sex ratio of 1,176, followed by Almora in Uttarakhand, where it is 1,142. In Daman, it is lowest at 533, & in Leh of Ladakh, it is 583. The three major states of Jammu & Kashmir, Bihar & Gujarat have shown a decline in the sex ratio compared with the figures of census 2001, while 29 states & Union territories have shown an increase.

In Orissa, census 2011 does not bring good tidings for the girl child in Orissa. There has been significant drop in the number of girls from the last census. Their ratio till the age of six vi-a-vis boys has declined from 953 in 2001 to 934 in

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3 All India Democratic Women’s Association (AIDWA) 2011.
4 See in this context Bhat and Xavier 2007.
5 More discussion see in this context Norberg 2004; Oster 2005.
6 For more elaborated discussion see infochangeindia.org, accessed on 30 June 2011
7 As quoted from http://www.savegirlchild.org/declining sex_ratio-html
8 As Reported by Dhar (2011)
2011 (as against 1,000 boys). Of the total 50,35 lakh children surveyed in the state, 26.03 lakh are boys, while 24.32 lakh are girls. Among Eastern states, Orissa cuts the poor figure projecting a count of 934 girls in comparison to 1,000 boys. The neighboring states like Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Andhra Pradesh & West Bengal have 964,943,943 & 950 respectively. But the girl child population of Orissa is better than many northern Indian states (Punjab, Haryana & Delhi). Compared to the all India child sex ratio of 914, it is slightly better have in Orissa but the rate of decline was faster (1.9%) compared to the national average (1.4%) in the decade 2001-11. The state has been witnessing in the steady decline in sex ratio in the same age group since 1971. From 1,168 in 1971, it fell to 995 in 1981 & 967 in 1991. But the 1971 figure was an improvement over 1961’s 1,035.9

The census 2011 made a clear revelation that the child sex ratio had dropped from 927 to 914 girls per thousand boys, confirming the worst apprehensions of those working to uphold women’s rights. The statistics once again raised serious questions about the direction of development which was leading to “growth” without social justice. It can only be explained by the deadly application of the son preference on a growing scale- though the instrumentality of sex-selective abortion or female foeticide. Attempts to tackle female foeticide through bans on sex-determination tests have been largely ineffective. In his essay “Many faces of gender inequality”, (Frontline, November 9, 2001). Amartya Sen drew on 2001 census data to highlight the fact that India split into two when it came to the sex ratio in the 0-6 age group: the South & the East had a decent ratio revealed a deeply disturbing picture. Even though the regional split concealed many micro level variations, the contrast was striking. Despite progress made in the economic & educational fronts, the biased mindset against the girl child is still a reality. This fact has a direct link to poverty, which needs to address with greater vigour. Female foeticide may be the primary reason for the worsening scenario, but it is certainly not only the one. Most couples, whose first-born are boys do not have a second child. It is not the same if the first born is a girl. We must address gender discrimination seriously, lest the democratic imbalance should have serious consequences10.

The 2011 census sounds an alarm over the falling child sex ratio. It is not the poorest & least literate people & communities who are responsible to it, to the contrary, the reverse is true. The census 2011 shows that the states with worst child sex ratio (CSR) are not the most backward. The prosperous agrarian states of Haryana & Punjab bear that ignominy with the neighbouring industrial hubs of Delhi & Chhattisgarh just slightly better. Uttar Pradesh has a better CSR than Mahararastra & Gujrat, while Bihar is even better than the national average.

Within states, rural areas tend to have a better CSR than urban areas. The 2008 sample Registration System numbers bears that rural areas had 918 girls for every 1,000 boys under four as opposed 905 in urban areas. The rural urban divide is largely northern & eastern phenomenon with the sharpest divides in Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand & Himachal Pradesh but also Gujrat. There is little urban rural difference in southern states. Breaking the numbers down further, 150 most backward districts, as identified by the central government, had far better CSRs than the rest, according to 2001 census-they had an average of 947 as against 921 for the rest. The gap between backward & non-backward districts was particularly high in the states like Gujarat, (923 to 873) Jammu & Kashmir (992 to 932), M.P (948 to 924),Rajasthan (936 to 905) and Orissa (964 to 934).This trend was not found largely in Southern states. Nor is high literacy necessarily a good proxy for a healthy gender balance. The latest census numbers show that Mahararastra, with a literacy rate of almost 83%, has CSR of 883, while Chhattisgarh, with just 71% literacy (61% for women) has CSR of 964.

In 2001, the districts level data showed that the most literate districts with greatest access to technology had much worse CSRs than the least literate. The top 10 districts of literacy in UP had a CSR of 887 compared to the bottom 10 for whom the number was 937, a difference of 50. The same trend prevailed in Gujarat, Rajasthan, Bihar, Haryana & West Bengal. This indicates that mere education has not been enough to correct a deep societal & cultural bias that India seems to have against girls. The sex ratio is worst in the prosperous coastal districts. This is because selective abortion is more rampant here. The drop in girl child sex ratio may be attributed the notorious nexus of tradition & technology. Traditionally, there is a preference for the male child. And technology is helping eliminate the girl child.

It is agonizing to know that gender bias & deep rooted prejudice & discrimination against girl child, which have been there down for centuries, are now found to begin in the womb itself. The girl child in the womb faces the peril of pre-birth elimination i.e female foeticide. Globalization & commercialization of the medical profession as well as human relations, propelled by large publicity in mass Medias, have also played a part making the sex-determination test & aborting female foetus desirable. No place is safe for women, not even in their mother’s wombs. They are put to death before they are born11.

9 Reported by Pradhan (2011)
10 More discussion see this context Sen 1990, 2001, 2003
11www.wscpedia.org
3. Causes of Decline in Female Sex Ratio

The imbalance in India in respect of sex ratio is more acute & more likely the reflection of three major factors (behavioural)

(i) This imbalanced ratio is indicative of pre-natal sex determination by parents.
(ii) Infanticide as a result of parental neglect of female children in terms of foods & health care allocation
(iii) When parents use contraceptives differently depending upon the sex composition of their existing children, such as using contraceptives only after having had a son. All the three factors reflect a strong cultural preference among Indian parents for sons over daughters. The low & declining juvenile sex ratio in the country is a matter of grave concern not only because it violates the human rights of unborn & infant girls but also it deprives the country of the potential economic & social contribution of these missing women.

One might assume that improving literacy & schooling among Indian women would work to reduce the parental preference for sons. But the evidence for this is not encouraging. Much of the evidence points to the worsening of the juvenile sex ratio with increased female education for this has to do with negative effect of female literacy on fertility. Educated women tend to have fewer children than less-educated women & in the context of a strong son preference culture, the lower levels of fertility lead to greater pressure on couples to have boys instead of girls12.

4. Diagnostic Procedures/Sex Selective Abortions

The practice of aborting the female child after pre-natal sex determination is spreading fast among those sections of that society such as muslims, the tribals & low caste Hindus-which were earlier free from the pernicious evil. It is obvious that these cultural & historical factors can not explain the acceleration in the process of eliminating the girl child that is now rampant in all parts of the country, more so in urban & metropolitan areas. There is enough evidence to show that the girl child in India is falling prey to the profit driven ultrasound industry & doctors who commit foeticide. The seeds for this were sown during the 1970s when the family planning to control the population gained priority in the country’s health policy. When the experts at All India Institute of Medical Science (AIMS) developed the technology for sex-determination it was touted as the panacea for India’s population explosion. The fact that all the cases in which it was tested led to the elimination of the girl child was conveniently ignored. The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act was also passed about the same time with the ostensible objective of empowering women to discard unwanted foetuses. Again, the fact that women in Indian social milieu had little choice in this matter was glossed over. The late 1970s & the 1980s saw large scale abortions in government hospitals after sex-determination. In fact advertisements were issued on how would be parents could save themselves the cost of huge dowries by paying a paltry amount for the services of sex determination & subsequent safe abortions. The steady decline in the sex ratio suggests that marked improvements in the economy & literacy rates do not seem to have had any impact on this index. In fact, the easy availability of technology has accelerated the process & the privatization of health sector has worsened the trend13. A study by Jha et al. (2006) of the centre for Global Health at the University of Taronto published in a recent issue of a British medical journal The Lancet gives an interesting inside into the scenario in India. The study has found that the girl-boy ratio fell from 906 girls per 1,000 boys in 1990 to 836 in 2005; an annual decline of 0.52 percent. The decline was much greater in families where mothers had 10 or more years of education than in those where mother had no education. It was pronounced in wealthier households than poorer households. But, if the first child had been a boy, there was no fall in the girl-boy ratio for the second child over the study period, strongly suggesting that families particularly those that are wealthier & educated, are selectively aborting girls if their first born child is also a girl14. The pre-natal sex determination, followed by abortion of female foetuses, is the most plausible explanation for the low sex ratio at birth in India.

5. Statutes

The Pre-Conception & Pre-Natal Diagnostic Technologies (PNDT) Act15 was enacted in 1994 a fully developed industry

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12 Quoted from Deolalikar 2009
14 See also Dhar (2011)
15 To check the decline in sex ratios and to stop female foeticide, the Pre-conception and Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Act, 1996 and the amendment PNDT Act 2003 has been introduced. The main purpose has been to ban the
for elimination girl child had established itself. Neither the government nor the medical fraternity seemed serious about the enforcement of the PNDT Act & the industry continued to prosper. How inadequate has the enforcement of the PNDT Act has been judged from the fact that despite the apex court’s directive that the Central Supervisory Board (CSB), set up under the Act, should meet at least once in three months, the CSB had not met once in three years till it was reconstituted last February 2011. Reports state that there were 843 cases of violence of PNDT Act during the last 17 years of which only 55 led to conviction16. A powerful Lobby of doctors & companies selling ultrasound- machines cater to sex-determination market. Though the number of clinics registered under the PNDT Act is around 40,000, social activists estimate the number to be much more. The Multinational Companies (MNCs) selling these machines only require an affidavit from the purchasers that these machines would not be used for sex determination. Reports say that Chinese ultrasound machines are also floating the market. The CSB has recommended sealing of all unregistered clinics & giving the law more teeth. It has also asked the medical council of India to de-register doctors found to be indulging in sex determination & illegal abortions. The arrival of mobile ultrasound machines has made the task even more difficult. The past performance of the Indian Medical Association & MCI (Medical Council of India) in curbing the menace has been dismal. The problems of implementation are ubiquitous. The scenario is totally bleak. The collusion between people, the medical fraternity & the administration has resulted in worsening of the sex ratio & failure of the Act to make a difference.

6. Patriarchal Structure

There is strong tradition of a preference for a son & patriarchal form of society. The system extends support to the institution of male rule & subordination of female in the society. Patriarchy strongly influences the society, despite the constitution’s attempt to bring about an egalitarian social order. It has its palpable impact in social, religious, legal, political & economic organization of society. Women’s work is also socially devalued with limited autonomy in decision making. The intersections of caste, class & gender further worsen the situation. There has been the neglect of nutrition, health care, education & employment for girls under the dominance of patriarchal culture. The system has spawned practices such as female infanticide, dowry, bride-burning & sati.

In rigidly Patristineal system, main productive assets are passed through the man line, while women may be given some movable goods in the form of dowry17. Strong son preference is an inherent characteristic of this system. Son preferences can be effectively reduced if daughters are considered for inheritance. There is need to accept bilateral kinship systems, where kinship relations are maintained through male & female lines18. Patriarchy is the not root cause of this disease; eradication can only be effected by direct attack on patriarchy.

7. Moral Blindness

The system being patriarchal in character, its norms would leave little choice to the girls to decide for themselves. The reduction of girls population is not because of the natural population divide but a state that is arrived through conscious choices & the anti-girl child gender bias. Gender inequality is a burden on societies & is often socially determined. Ironically, & this is the paradox that it is modern and globalised society that is promoting heinous practices like female foeticide, sex detection tests & induced abortion of female foetuses. Bringing daughters is viewed as a liability & sons are preferred as the saviors of seven generation of ancestors19. One behaves unethically in relation to girls & women, while maintaining a positive self-image. Ethical feeling also causes one to condone the unethical behaviour of others. Such “motivated blindness” tends to disregard issues that work against patriarchy20.

8. Disregard for the Sanctity of Life

Abortion, though sounds milder, is nothing but taking a person’s life. Our lives come into existence by a process which is too beautiful to describe. Any one who has held a new born baby would know this fact. This process starts right in day

use of sex-selection techniques before or after conception as well as misuse of prenatal diagnostic techniques for sex selective abortions and to regulate such techniques.

16 Reported by Sharma (2011).
17 for more discussion see in this context Das Gupta, et al., 2003, Agrawal, 1994
19 Cited from Sitaram, S. (2011)
20 See for details Jacob (2011)
one of conception, in the wombs of our mother. Therefore, taking someone body’s life, even one’s own child before he or she is born for reasons such as graced for a male child, want of money, avoiding social embarrassment & unwillingness to take the responsibility of bringing up children, amount to murder. This heinous act should be abhorred at all costs. A growing disregard for the sanctity of human life has led to the liberalization of abortion laws world over.

A society has to kill its conscience before it kills its children. In the west, while the killing happens to maintain its sexual freedom, it the East it happens to satisfy its greed for having male babies. In the heinous crime, whether it is the greedy gynecologist or the radiologist or greedy family which asks for abortion, the conscience is killed first before the baby is killed. Foeticide is nothing but infanticide happening in a much earlier state. It appears as if education has not done much to arrest moral degradation of people. This is proved by the fact that abortion practices are higher among the educated lot. A hardened conscience & disregard for the sanctity of life is the reason for widespread abortion & female foeticide in particular.

The girl child is still looked upon as a burden, a curse, a community with limited guarantee, even in this enlightened age. The delivery date is awaited with great trepidation. The parents-in-law hover over the hapless girl, vultures waiting to swoop in case she commits the grievous sin of delivering a daughter. The husband is all set to prove his manhood & God save his life if she proves him wrong. The fault is all hers, despite the various messages flashed on television. The ‘Y’ chromosome turns into the ‘WHY’ chromosome, since matrimony is often a matter-of-money21. The mother orders her daughter to bring a glass of milk to her brother. After a whole day of back-breaking work at home, why is she expected to take a glass of milk to her brother, who has done nothing more strenuous than studying & playing? But of course, he is the son of the house, the apple of his parents.

9. Family Planning Programme

Our family planning programme gave undue importance to accepting the small family norm. Media, especially radio, television & posters, convinced people about government programmes & also to make use of advanced technology so that choices in family size can be ensured. The aim of population policies was to achieve a fertility decline, but in northwestern India, this decline was characterized by a strong son preference & gender bias. The government policy pursued the acceptance of small family norm but did not take any initiative to reduce a son preference, & this policy had an impact on the incidence of foeticide22.

One of reasons for the presence of fewer girls is the net wealth out flow on the occasion of a girl’s marriage. Despite the Anti-dowry Act, the practice continues & is spreading all over country. The menace of dowry deaths has increased manifold in Punjab, Haryana & Rajasthan. In this way, a daughter becomes an avoidable social & economic burden23.

10. Discrimination Against Women in Socio-Economic Activities

A son’s utility is reflected in the economy of family labour provided by him in the family business, earning a wage & salary through mobility, looking after old age parents & also attracting dowry. It is evidence that in a socially segregate society, similar to India, industrialization leads to rising dowry payments through increasing within-group wealth inequality due to a movement away from the traditional occupation structure24. This reveals that a son is a most valued asset to the family, whereas girls are not given such opportunities to perform all these activities, instead, a perception of economic liability is highly attached with daughters. This has resulted in widespread practices of sex selective abortion. The wage rates also differ across the regions for males & females & these also affect the sex ratio25. People feel that their earnings would have enhanced as compared to the household with a daughter, if they had been a son.

11. Ancestral Worship

Ancestral worship adds another dimension to the need to have male offspring. Son preference is necessary to ensure one’s prestige during one’s life time & after death also for performing a series of funerary rituals. People feel that they will

21 See more detailed on Menon (2011)
22 See for details Das Gupta (1987)
23 Bhalla (2006)
24 See in this context Anderson 2003
only be able to achieve mokshya through their sons\textsuperscript{26}. These types of social order need a big reform. Religious pundits should give the preaching that the girls are as valuable as boys & the mindset that militates against the girl child may not take place. Society should introduce a system where both sons & daughters can perform religious rites for their parents.

In India, the state has enacted various women specific & women related legislations for the upliftment of women & to safeguard their interests. Various five year plans have laid greater emphasis in women’s economic role, & have also identified core development issues of women such as health, education & employment. A great deal of attention is being paid to the states & well-being of the girl child by the government, UN agencies, NGOs & welfare organizations. If a girl child does not have a right to be born, then where will all these efforts will go. It is now acknowledged that these provisions are basically useful to women belonging to the educated, urban & high-income groups and are not helping in changing the life Indian poor women. Rural customary laws continue to regulate women’s right in matter of gender & development policy. In the rural & urban areas, parents continue to live with their sons, & it is still rare for married women to contribute to their parent’s well being\textsuperscript{27}. The main reason for gender bias is female infanticide where females are not allowed to born given misunderstanding that females are looked upon as burden by the parents. Discriminations against girls are much higher where mothers are literate\textsuperscript{28}. In most cases, literacy is just confined to formal degrees; mindsets are primitive. People feel that the returns of cost & time investments in a male child will be much higher compared to a female child, who eventually moves to her husband’s home after marriage.

12. Implications

Amartya Sen (1990), who raised the alarm of missing daughters in the nineties & other scholars hold that sex selective abortions are not only intrinsically cruel & reflections of low value that society places on women, but the resulting skewed ratio impedes the development of democracy and security. Democracy is a government of the people, by the people & for the people. It rests upon fundamental human rights of equal opportunity/ treatment & freedoms to speak, act & believe in a way that allows people to achieve their dreams. Sen (1999) in his book Development as freedom argues that anything that negatively impacts the ability of an individual to enjoy freedom is an unfreedom which can arise from either inadequate processes or inadequate opportunities. Adverse sex ratio reveals the most glaring example of an unfreedom in which freedom is snatched away from a baby girl. In case of foeticide, the right to life itself is denied to a girl child even before she is born, rendering all his rights & freedoms irrelevant. Apart from its threat to its democratic principles, Indian sex skewed ratio seems to impact both the treatment of Indian women in particular as well as the health of Indian democracy in general.

One of the obvious consequences of the continued skewed sex ratio would be the shortage of brides. Sociologists agree that such a state of affairs encourage abuse, notably in trafficking, drug abuse & physical violence against women. “Put bluntly, it is a competition against scarce women”. Societies with adverse female sex ratio have indicated the presence of customs like polyandry, abduction & purchase of women. It is strongly felt that contrary to raising the status of women, adverse sex ratio would increase the incidence of rape, prostitution & violence against women. Due to shortage of brides, men belonging to lower social class are pushed to receiving end. The poor are forced into a long or permanent bachelorhood –a status widely frowned upon in India. The poorer among the farming community in Malwa region of Punjab are forced to practice polyandry for twin reasons of scarcity of women & for warding off the fragmentation of smaller land holding.

As stated above, the shortage of women in society leads to violence against women rather than improving their states. The situation is made more complex since couples do not wish to beget girls as they fear that it would be difficult to bring then up with dignity & also because of the continued threat of violence they may have to face. Therefore, the society is caught in a vicious circle. The fear of violence towards women is a cause for female foeticide. The prevalent patriarchal framework places an ideological bar on the discussion of alternative approaches to achieve gender equality.

In order to maintain the patriarchal order, ethics are allowed to fade away & never given serious consideration, & thinking & behaviour are conditioned accordingly. Overall, male chauvinism is detrimental to women empowerment, women as an active agent for development, participation in & guiding their own development. To deal with patriarchy in a complex society like ours may be set as the ultimate goal to address gender issue, but the process would be fairly complex & can take a long time through dialogues & discussions among the segments of society with a view to achieving a system where both men & women have equal status & say in determining the course of society as well as individual

\textsuperscript{26} See Jain (2006)
\textsuperscript{27} See for details Bora (2007)
\textsuperscript{28} See for details Jha et. al (2006)
family development.

13. Necessity for Gender Impartiality

The strict implementation of law alone will not eliminate the problem, unless the system of patriarchy is not changed. The major barrier to mainstreaming gender justice & scaling up effective interventions is gender inequality based on social cultural issues. Although selective abortion of female foetuses stands as a causal, still patriarchy has a major impact on the outcome. While women are guaranteed equality under the constitution, legal protection has little effect in the face of prevailing patriarchal culture. India needs to confront gender bias openly. It is true that every evil act by a human being ultimately has its source in the heart of the person. Our hearts are deceitful above all things & no one understands it really well. In the light of this we, the human being, who were foetuses to start with, whether lawmakers or doctors or the common man, should make all our decisions, especially when it comes to abortion with a clear conscience & should refrain from thwarting the sanctity of human life.

Apart from this, the most important are wide ranging & serious programmes to enhance the status of women & girls; ensuring education & livelihood skills building for girls, ensuring economic opportunities for them, ensuring their representation in political processes & in short, making them valuable & equal partners with men in families, societies & national development. Education & affluence seem to have a decline in the sex ratio; the decline was higher in case of women with ten years or more of education than for mothers with no education. Such a trend calls for closer study of the factors that reinforce the son’s preference, especially in the states & districts with a worsening ratio.

Indiscriminate abortion of female foetuses is the reason for this skewed ratio. Naturally, if abortions were not done, there would be about 952 girls born for every 1000 boys. The exact numbers of abortions due in India, for obvious reasons, is not known. Had an equal number of male foetuses also been killed, this genocide would not have been known. It is a regrettable fact that when there are people to fight for women’s right & animal rights, there are not many who uphold the sanctity of human life. But then, this has been the trend seen since 1961, every census shows a reduction in girl child compared with the previous one. This is not “this census specific” but more a recurring & continuing trend.

The declining trend of child sex ratio can undercut both social & economic progress drastically. The government must take every step possible to address it, from naming & shaming states that are the worst offenders to providing incentives for raising girl children. It is the responsibility of the state to ensure the equal economic & social rights of all women, girls & children, along with violence free existence for them.

Any serious view of law in the states with the worst child sex ratios should begin with quarterly reports they are required to file in diagnostic centers, laboratories, & clinics, & the action taken against unregistered bodies, search & seizure, & the outcomes of awareness campaigns. Not all states have been filing such reports regularly. The level of involvement of Laggard states in implementing the PNDT Act can be gauged from the fact that in Haryana a crucial notification in setting up Appropriate Authorities was not published in the gazette for 12 years from 1997, & it has to be reissued as an ordinance with retrospective effect. But then, while enforcement measures may have salutary effects, the more challenging task is to make India a less male-dominated society. The place to start for that mission would be parliament and State Legislative Assemblies. Political parties must lead by enabling 33% representation for women in legislatures & raised their visibility. Liberal scholarship for all levels of study & improved economic security may tilt the balance for the less affluent sections.

14. Conclusions and Suggestions

Terming the decline in sex ratio (0-6 yrs) as an emergency, civil rights workers say there is lack of political will to address the issue which requires a national policy from the government before the situation goes out of hand. The solution is nothing but strict implementation of PNDT Act. The central supervisory board which must meet every six months has been non-existent for three years. There needs to be move towards those families who, under the influence of the rampant small family norm and son preference, stop producing children when one or two sons are born (Perwez et. al. 2012). It is important to recognize one of the reasons for preference of son over daughters is inheritance laws in India. The inheritance laws provided the right of inheriting ancestral property to only male. It is widely believed that some of worst manifestations of gender discrimination in India, such as female foeticide & dowry can be traced back to biased inheritance laws favouring sons (Deolalikar 2009). In 1975, Kerala was the first state in the country to change its

20 Quoted from Jacob (2011)
inheritance laws to provide women the right to inherit ancestral property. During last two decades, a few stalwart states such as Andra Pradesh, Karanataka, Maharasta & Tamil Nadu have also changed their inheritance laws. In 2004, the Indian parliament introduced & passed Hindu succession (Amendment) Bill, which removed the discriminating provisions of the 1956 Act & gave daughters a right to their parent's property (Singariya 2012). What is needed is overall social attitude transformation, where girls are seen as asset than liability. What is urgently required is to make change in the mindsets of the parents through sustained Information Education & Communication (IEC). The urgent need is to tighten the existing legislations like PNDT Act, which aims at preventing female infanticide. The NGOs which aims at women empowerment should take this important issue on their agenda & as a part of their many interventions, should bring pressure on the concerned government to implement legislations so that child sex ratio can not be adverse. There is an urgent need for women SHGs who should take active lead in educating their SHG members & others in the society through organizing the social campaigns aggressively.

Further in reducing son preference social reformer activism as well as state policies can play an important role. Increasingly, the family size is getting smaller. The state should initiate one son & one daughter norm, so that imbalances in the child sex ratio could be removed. The availability of reliable & affordable old age pensions, social security & life insurance programmes in rural & urban areas will possibly reduce the excessive dependence on sons. Had there been effective risk coping institutions in rural & urban areas, the son would not been prioritized over the daughter.

What is needed to combat the scourge of low juvenile sex ratio is a package of interventions in villages having the most imbalanced sex ratios, & an educational curriculum at the primary & middle school levels that highlight the importance of equal treatment for boys & girls in the family. Even with such a package, it will take years for attitudes to change & for the practice of pre-natal sex-selection & neglect of female children to end. Unless India manages to reverse the decline in the juvenile sex ratio, its demographic transition will remain incomplete (Deolalikar 2009). Society organizations should continue to mobilize the community in order to encourage them to allow girls to be born. In order to improve sex ratio, various projects like “Meri Shakti Meri Beti” should be introduced in various states.

State of world’s children 2007 is a scathing indictment of the efforts of both central & state governments to enforce laws against sex selective abortion, as well as killing of new born girls. Campaigns to encourage people to view girl children as socially & economically desirable do not seem to have made much of impact either. Tackling this requires a sensitization campaign along the lines of Human immunodeficiency virus infection/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) (Campaign). The apathetic attitude of administration coupled with inefficient legislative implementation further adds to the woes of girl child in India, facing elimination & discrimination in their very right to life. The District collectors should take legal actions & if possible, furnish, those “Sonography centres” who are not ready to implement “Silent observer”. The steps should be initiated for promoting “Save the baby girls campaign “through the help of schools, colleges, through Nair Service Society (NSS) & other programs. Keeping watch and taking actions like cancelling medical practice registrations, on those private doctors, who are involved in “Kill the baby girl” campaign in majority of urban, & rural areas. Various motivational incentives should be taken to those couples who stop their issues after “One/Two” baby girls issues like reservation in school & college admission, reservations in government jobs, housing loans with concessional interest rate to the couples with “One/two” baby girls issues, free education to the girls up to graduation. The strategies given above, if implemented sincerely, then it will help to control the declining sex ratio. Therefore, the health planners & demographers should take this serious issue into their account in years to come.

India’s declining sex ratio raises difficult questions-about the welfare of India’s daughters, as well as the security of its entire people-those lawmakers, civil society representatives & the citizens of India need to ask them. What may be at stake is the very existence of India as a democracy with a proud tradition of unity in diversity. A concerted effort by the medical fraternity, the law, political leaders, NGOs, Medias, teachers & the community itself is the need of the hour.

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Goods’ Assessment in the Crossroad Created from Customs and Tax Practices, Lack of Cooperation and Uniformity of Rules and Laws

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Abstract

The goods’ value for customs purposes should be primarily based on what is actually paid for these goods. In the Albanian practice, the intervention on the value of the bill is not something new for neither parts involved in this relationship which can unequivocally be described as complex and dynamic. Customs’ administration can use as a way of assessment the method of the discounted value. Said this we understand that it carries the right to verify and compare this value with the cost of declared goods and its purpose is to calculate the tax on profit. As long as the purpose of the customs’ and tax’s administration is the same we judge that these two institutions of the same structure should not operate separately but coordinate and cooperate together. The coherence between the value for customs purposes and that for tax purposes can serve as a very important controlling tool for state administration in general. In order to function and be utilized properly this controlling means should be firstly decomposed. Then it should be clearly understood the relation between customs valuation and inventory costs. Through this paper, we aim to make an analysis of the methods of evaluation and assessment for customs purposes and costs’ valuation of commercial companies for tax purposes. The analysis highlights their similarities and differences.

1. Introduction

Taxes affect directly the level of demand and employment. Fees and taxes also affect the level of savings and the investment type (Gayer & Rosen, 2010, p. 37). They influence the distribution way of resources which often lead to inefficiency. The level and structure of taxes determine the level of disposable incomes, and the direction in which they go or the net incomes are distributed (Meiszkowski, 1996, p. 1104). The pre-tax incomes realized by an economic operator among other things, also depend on the value of imported goods. The tax on income paid by commercial importing companies mostly depends on known costs. If the customs value for raw materials, semi-finished or finished products is low than the cost of sold goods will be low too. This way the amount of taxes paid by the derived incomes will be higher. Taxpayers, which in our case are economic operators, prefer low customs value and high costs for the sold goods as both these components reduce the base and the paid tax thus realizing their main economic purpose, which is a higher profit. The same as in many other issues the goal of tax and customs administration as well as in this case goes on another direction to that of the economic operators (Nations, 2013, p. 41). Their main purpose is to collect as much revenues as possible. As long as we agree that there is a relationship between legal rules and norms of tax and customs assessment we can say that the coherence between the value for customs purpose and that for tax purpose can serve as a very important tool for the control of state administration in general. Initially, this article will discuss goods’ assessment for customs purposes and further proceed with the goods’ assessment, inventory and expenses for tax purpose. Under this approach we aim to highlight their differences and their similarities and concluding it with suggestions and recommendations.

2. Goods’ Assessment for Customs Purpose

Customs’ valuation procedure must ensure a fair, impartial and uniform system excluding the use of fictitious, arbitrary customs values and things not found in law. It should be based on clear, simple and right criteria in accordance with commercial practices. All the WTO member countries, as well as Albania which is member since September 2000, are obliged to implement the Agreement on Implementation of Article VII in the “General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade” (GATT) of 1994. Before we have a look at the methods of assessment for imported goods we think it is important to specify what the statistical value of imported goods involves or simply said the goods’ value.
2.1 Goods’ value

In order to calculate goods’ value we add some other elements to the paid price which should not be included in the actual paid or payable price. Elements which have been in charge of the buyer but are not included in actual paid price of the bill, are as follows:

- Commission and mediation expenses excluding purchasing commissions
- Goods’ holder costs
- Packing cost which includes both the materials and the work that is done

Furthermore in order to determine the custom’s value we also add the right apportioned value of goods and services that we are going to list below to the actual paid or payable price. Of course we should bare in mind that this add-on will be made in cases where and to the extent that it is not included in the bill's price and when they are carried to the place of entry into the customs territory of our country. The above elements are:

- Materials consumed in the production of imported goods and embedded in them.
- Matrixes, molds etc used for the production of imported goods
- The engineering, designing work etc, made outside our country and necessary for the production of the imported goods.
- Payment on the right of intellectual property and the license right
- The value of any part of the proceeds of any subsequent resale, disposal or subsequent use goes to the seller of the goods.
- The costs of transportation, insurances, and loading to the place of entry in RA

Besides the elements that should be added we should also mention elements which are not included in the custom’s value. Not included elements involve:

- Payment on the right of reproduction in our country
- Payment on the right of distribution or resel in our country
- Payment after importing which are related to fitting, maintenance, technical assistance, taxes and transportation costs.

2.2 Valuation methods

Once we have shed light on the goods’ value, let’s see what the methods of custom’s valuation are. All goods imported into the territory of the Republic of Albania should be evaluated in accordance with one of the six methods provide in the Custom’s Code of Albanian Republic.

I. Transaction value

This evaluation method is provided in the Custom’s Code (CC) Article 35, paragraph 2, letter a. The transaction value is the good’s actual paid or payable price when sold for export to the country of importation adjusted in accordance with regulations prescribed by the legislation in force (Frederik Zhara, Shamet Shabani, 2005, p. 111). The actual paid or payable price is the total payment made or to be made by the byer to the seller or in favor of the seller for the imported goods.

II. The transaction value of identical goods (CC Article 35 paragraph 2, letter b).

According to this method imported goods can be assessed with reference to the transaction value of identical goods sold for export in the Albanian Republic or exported at about the same time as the goods which are being assessed. Identical goods are goods produced in the same place, which are the same in every aspect including physical characteristics, quality and reputation.

III. The transaction value of similar goods (CC Article 35, paragraph 2, letter b).

The custom's valuation methods have hierarchical nature. Said this we understand that if none of the first two methods is not applied for different reasons we can move on the third method which assesses imported goods under the transaction value of similar goods. According to this assessment method the base of the assessment is the transaction value of similar goods sold for export to the Albanian Republic and exported at about the same time as the goods which are being assessed (Frederik Zhara, Shamet Shabani, 2005, p. 111). Similar goods are goods produced in the same place, which are not similar in every aspect but have similar characteristics and component materials and perform the same functions. Quality, reputation and trade marks are determining factors for similar goods.

IV. Discounted value (CC Article 35, paragraph 2, letter c).
According to this method the assessment is done with the value based on the unit price of similar or identical goods. These similar or identical goods must be imported and sold within the country in the largest amount to people not related to the sellers. Further more the sales are discounted certain expenses inside the country. When calculating the custom’s value using the discounted value method we should be careful and take into consideration the following:

- Selection of the right price
- Time of sale and conditions under which the goods are sold
- The largest aggregate amount

Besides selecting the right price we should pay particular attention to elements such as sale time and the conditions under which the sale is/was done. There are two main conditions. The first condition is that all the goods we refer to must or should be imported on or around the date of import. The second condition relates again to the fact that these goods must be imported within 90 days from the date of the imported goods that are being assessed.

Following the above considerations, the next step is the application of certain discounts which are listed below:

- Commissions or profits for general expenses
- Transport and insurances
- Customs’ duties and other taxes
- Other costs
- Commission that is usually paid or agreed to be paid, additions which are usually made for profit and general expenses (including direct and indirect costs which are used to advert the goods in question) connected with the sales in the Albanian Republic, the goods of the same category and kind of imported goods.
- Import Custom Duties and other payable fees which should be paid in the Albanian Republic due to importation and sale.
- Common expenses related to transport and freight insurance as well as the additional costs associated with these two categories.

V. Calculated value (CC Article 35, paragraph 2, letter d).

Through this method we will see the production of imported goods and calculate the goods’ costs. It consists in determining the materials and the production costs, which in this care are:

- All direct labor costs
- All installation costs
- Machines used in manufacturing
- Indirect costs such as factory maintenance, and supervision as well as paying overtime working.
- Material costs such as containers, packaging, and services costs.

Besides determing the materials and the manufacturing costs we can not leave outside of the focus the benefits and costs that are equal to that reflected in the sales of the same class or kind goods as well as the benefits and general expenses as a whole. There are other general expenses, such as salaries, rent, marketing, legal fees, and telephone, depreciation, as well as office equipments, services, capital equipment and employee benefits.

VI. Methods of available data (CC Article 39)

When the customs value of imported goods can not be determined under section 34 or 35, it is then determined on the basis of available data. In the customs practice this is known as reference value. Information sources are based on the following:

- International bulletins such as STELL WEEK, METAL BULETIN, TEC DOC, etj.
- International publications such as QuattroRuote, Tuttu Transporti , Zacke, etj.
- Confirmed invoices
- Published prices by Eurostat OBT, UN Comtrade.
- Statistical data.
2.3 Goods’ valuation for tax purposes

Every state has its rules, laws, norms and fiscal packages and indisputably politics and business are essential for their success. There is no “one size fits all” — but there are lessons that can help guide countries as they move forward in the reform process. (OECD, 2011, p. 18). In Albania all financial statements are constructed under Law No 766 ‘Accountings’ and other rules and guidelines of the Ministry of Finances. The statement of expenses and incomes shows the difference between total revenues and total expenses (The Assembly, Instruction No. 5 date 31.06.2006 “For income tax, changed”, 2019, p. 19). The financial statements are formulated in such a way as to reflect the needs of all users (The assembly, Law No. 8438 date 28.12.1998 “On Income Tax, changed” 2014, p.6). The main users of financial statements can be the owners and the managers, the lenders and the other creditors, the government for micro and macro planning, tax authorities for tax assessments and SME agencies in order to assess the required support of micro units (Accounting, 2009, p 7). The tax base on which the tax rate of the profits is applied, is defined on the basis of the financial statements and their attached annexes. Taxes paid in customs on imported goods are part of the expenses of a company. However, before we talk about expenses let’s mention the reasons of changing profits before tax. Possible changes in profit before tax, so in the gross one may come from one or several factors together, such as: (Xhafa, 2005, p. 129):

- Increase or decrease in the sale’s volume
- Increase or decrease in the price of unit sale
- Increase or decrease in the costs of unit sale

Let’s treat the third factor, which in fact is the focus of this paper. Expenses are outflows, because they are reductions in the economic benefits during the reporting period, which result in reduction of assets and increase of liabilities and they increase the capital of the reporting entity, excluding those related to contributions from the capital participants (Accounting, 2009, p 5). Costs are devided into two main groups, in the costs of sold goods and general expenses that every business creates but which are not associated with the manufacture of products. We can distinguish two separate assessment categories for the entry and exit inventories made in the stores. Inventories are initially measured with costs (IKM, 2006, p. 72). The cost of inventory balances must include all the costs of acquisition, transformation (processing) and others until the product is brought to the place and situation in which it should be. The calculation of acquisition costs is done by subtracting from the purchasing price the discounts obtained on the purchasing price (rebates margins) and adding the other purchasing costs in order to bring them to the present situation and than are further devided in internal and external. External expenses include the following elements:

- Mediation commission costs associated with purchasing.
- Transit costs
- Transport and insurance costs conducted by third parties
- Customs costs
- Costs of non refundable taxes

While the internal cost includes stevedoring and transport by own means it does not include elements such as:

- Costs of supplying function such as those for selecting bids, tenders, contracts’ planning, making orders, admission control etc
- Costs after entry
- Financial costs such as interest for trade loans taken for purchases, etc

However, it belongs to financial units to decide whether to include certain expenses in the production costs. In any case it should be guided on one side by the need of setting the most realistic margin provided by each product, which emerges as a difference between the selling price and the costs of production and on the other hand by adhering to the care principles which require not allowing costs or risks crossing without a safe covering source from one period to the others. In order to make a more accurate assasement of the elements entering the assets in stock form we should first make the distinction between identifiable elements and the dissolved ones, ie that after entry can not be identified one by one. Let’s take a look on the assessment of identifiable elements. Initially the reporting unit should record the inventory when in control, when expecting economic benefits and then its cost can be estimated reliably. Specific identification of costs means that specific costs are defined to elements belonging to identifiable inventory balances. This method can be used for identifiable elements whether purchased or produced by you. It can be used when there is a large amount of dissolved elements. Regarding the assessment of dissolved elements we can say that accounting standarts predict that this stock category can use the methods with reference to law and an alternativemethod as well. FIFO (first entry, first exit) and that of weighted average are the reference methods accepted by the law. According to reference methods the materials that enter first in stock should be the first to come and so on. This way the stock that remains at the end of the
period contains the latest entries in the stock. According to the other method that of the weighted average, the cost of every item is determined from the weighted elements such as the cost of analog items at the beginning and then the cost of purchased/manufactured items during the period. This average can be calculated periodically or for every new movement in the stock according to the specific situation of each economic unit. An accepted alternative method is that of LIFO (last entry first exit). This method assumes that stock elements which are purchased or produced last are the first to exit. Thus, consequently balances at the end of certain periods consist of elements which have been put in stock a long time ago.

3. Conclusions and Recommendations

International business relations, regardless of the sector or the country where transactions are executed face different problems related to the assessment of goods. These problems arise because the goods’ assessment is something which is handled by the customs administration as well as the tax one. The problems increase even more as long as the rules according to which the goods’ asseement is made change. Making the assessment according to same basis, rules and practices would be in the interest of all parties participating in the goods’ assessment. Customs and tax administration seem to to share the same rules and concepts but do not interact in carrying out controls which will unquestionably bring what is more important, thus the same practices. After treating this topic we come in the conclusion that the problem of good’s assessment arises for two main reasons:

First, even though customs and tax administration are part of the same department that of Ministry of Finance, they use differen bases for the same reason which is that of raising public revenues. Tax administration raises more revenues from the tax by increasing sales prices and the customs administration on the other hand increases the value of the bill in order to achieve more public revenues. This is all translates into more costs for the companies. Secondly, both these bodies apply different rules for the same issue such as the good’s assessment.

There are certain terms which condition the preparing of a new package of legal acts in the fiscal field. Among them we find the globalization in the economic field, volume growth of import and export, the increasing tendency for getting free from barriers, customs tariffs and new challenges that business is facing. Further more today we are looking for improvements and unification with the legislation of the European Union. In this context, finding adequate legal provisions, its content meaning and especially the simultaneous application of several customs and tax provisions is a primary and responsible task for the institutions that operate in the fiscal field. Cooperation between the two above mentioned institutions is seen as neccessity. Customs and tax administrations should increasingly cross and exchange informations between each other. National and international transactions require harmonized tax and custom assessment, clear and easy rules and norms in order to be understood by each party participating in the transaction. They also require decrease in the financial impact related to the goods’ assessment. What we require in this time and complicated market is that companies should not be perceived as source of incomes but as partners. All parties need solutions and it is obvious that it requires inclusiveness, harmonization and national or international standardization.

References

Determinants of Capital Structure: Evidence from Banking Sector in Albania

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Abstract
The aim of this paper is to give a panorama on theoretical and empirical study of capital structure in Banking system in Albania, its components and the factors affecting the decision how to efficiently allocate the capital needed for the second level banks. There are many factors and determinants which affect the capital structuring within a bank. The question each manager should do and the approaches the analysts and researchers have done will be analyzed in this paper. The most important components of capital structure are its determinants and how they affect the leverage ratio. In this paper will be introduced an econometric regression analyses about second level banks in Albania. The sample is composed of some important determinants of four biggest second level banks in Albania for years 2007 - 2012. Size, profitability, growth and tangibility are used as independent variables, while leverage ratio is the dependent variable. The empirical study determines if these variables are important over the capital structure and whether the independent variables are significant over the leverage ratios of the second level banks.

Keywords: Capital structure, Leverage ratio, debt financing, equity financing, determinants of capital structure

1. Introduction
One of the foremost necessary decisions of managers within a company is to find a suitable financial instrument to finance their company and production. Capital structure is one of the most debatable and important points in financial management. It includes project finance, dividend policy, issuing of long term debts, buyouts, financing of mergers, etc. The optimal capital structure is obtained when there is a minimal cost of capital and a maximizing dividend to shareholders.

When a company is founded and starts to grow, capital is required. The sources of the capital are provided by two main sources; debt capital or equity capital. Debt capital has two advantages: First, the interest will be deducted from the tax base and thus reduce the real cost of debt; the second, the creditors provide a good return, thus during periods when the company's profits is increasing they do not share with the firm's partners.

However, there are two disadvantages of this mixed debt capital,: First, the debt ratio would increase the risk of the firm and the firm's interest burden will rise higher. Second, the profits of the company and the company faced difficult the days leading to the liquidation of the firm's interest is insufficient to meet the start of a process. As a result, the debt capital during good days pushes the partners to the corner, and during bad days would bring them a hefty bill.

Determinants of capital structure in financial institutions differ from non-financial institutions due to issues peculiar to these institutions. For banks, which constitute the largest portion of financial institutions in Albania, liabilities relating to legal capital regulations are the most important factors determining the capital structure.

In the first part of this study the factors affecting capital and capital structure will be analyzed, in the second sector the approaches of capital structure and how they are used and in the third sector the determinants of capital structure and also an empirical analyze how these determinants as profitability, capital adequacy, size and tangibility relate to the total debt ratio. In the empirical studies the will be used the banking sector of Albania. As in Albania operate 16 second level banks, and is one of the most developed sector we will see how these banks use to manage the debt ration.

2. Literature Review
Capital structure is one of the most discussed topics from entrepreneurs, managers and other people interested on the way the companies and firms are allocating the financial assets. Many academics and economist argued about this topic
and the relationship of the capital structure determinants and total debt ratio. Modigliani and Miller were the main researches regarding the capital structure, their components and theories, having a high interest and popularity in finance cycle. In their publication on “Capital Structure Irrelevance Theory” (1958) were carried out many conclusions about the capital structure theories called MMI. Also in their publication in MMII (1963) included one of the absent component, the tax effect on the capital structure.

In publications of Robichek And Myers (1966) they argued that the debt in corporations and companies is a strong reason in order to avoid the bankruptcies, they force the investors to finance their promised payments on their debts.

The developments in corporate finance last 20 years have produced a plenty of ideas how capital structure matters in firm’s value and firms investments decisions. Dewaelheyns Hulle (2009) made the difference between the capital structure in Private and Public Firms. The private firms were not financed only from internal but also from external financing, which have an important impact on decision. Although the private firms have limited access in in financing debt, they still expand their activities using the internal financing until they meet their needs using the Pecking Order Theory, Mayers (1984).

According to Song (2005) the determinants of capital structure are dependent from the nature of the debt financing. Each determinants has a different impact on short term and long term debt. In her research concluded that size and tangibility have opposite effects in short term and long term financing debts.

Akhtar, Husnain and Mukhtar (2012) in their research paper found that the determination of capital structure do not need science but only number analysis to determine the factors used for debt, equity and financing.

3. Determinants of Capital Structure

The capital structure decisions are affected from several determinants which are the main factors that help managers take decisions on capital structuring. Main determinants of capital structure are: capital adequacy, tangibility of assets, size and profitability.

There are huge numbers of empirical studies on capital structure determinants, and almost all the studies are related to relationship of leverage ratio and determinants mentioned above. These empirical tests have measured significance of various variables using diverse methodologies and are focused on country specific, industry specific and firms to find the determinants of capital structure. Although these many researches, the analyses and studies results are almost the same.

3.1 Dependent variables

To build the analyses the leverage or debt ratio is used as dependent variable, total debt, short term debt and long term debt. Many researchers have used the book value to calculate and estimate the debt ratios and leverage of the firm and they use the three variables because it is dangerous to use only total debt, because of the inability to give an exact conclusion. The reason is the inability of examining the factors affecting the short and long debt to be identified.

3.2 Independent Variable

3.2.1 Capital Adequacy

The capital adequacy is generally the banks strength and stability as it is the measurement of capital ratio to its assets: loans and investments. So the increasing in capital increases the risk of earnings variations in the future. Therefore the most concerning problem of the managers, are the control of the firms and the concern of creditors to limit default risk. Capital structure can be positively related to long term debt and negatively related to short term debts according to hypothesis of ceteris paribus.

3.2.2 Tangibility

Greater will be the ability to issue secured debts if the firm’s assets are more tangible (Booth, 2001). When a firm has a large amount of fixed assets, it can borrow with relatively lower interest rates from creditors. So a firm with greater fixed assets borrows more than a firm with low amount of fixed assets as the interest will be lower. Therefore there is a positive relationship between the leverage ratio and the tangibility of assets.
3.2.3 Banks Size

There exists a conflict between the viewpoints about the relationship of leverage relative to banks size. One says that there is a positive relationship between the leverage and banks size. The large banks do not consider the bankruptcy costs as a variable in determining the level of leverage. Therefore larger banks have less chances of bankruptcy. The second assumption consists on the negative relationship between the leverage and banks size (Rayan and Zingles 1995), as there is asymmetric information on large banks. This reduces the chance of undervaluation of new equity issues and thus leads to using more equity financing.

3.2.4 Profitability

There are some theoretical predictions conflicting in the relationship between leverage and profitability. According to pecking order theory, firms with high ratios of profitability, uses their own financing rather than outside sources. According to Jensen (1986) predictions, he stated that there is a positive relationship between the financial leverage and profitability if the banks control is effective.

The Trade-off theory points out that more profitable firm are less exposure to bankruptcy risk. According to this theories related study, there is a negative relationship between profitability and leverage ratios.

4. Data and Methodology

In this study the data and methodology are based on the dates of the capital structure of four second level banks operating in Albania. For theoretical studies, factors affecting this important issue of the banks are analyzed, given the positive and negative consequences of each, approaches and theories and their valuations over years and the determinants affecting the capital structure. Determinants will be analyzed based on the published data by banks using the program SPSP, giving the relationship between depend variable of leverage ratio and independent variables of capital adequacy, tangibility, size and profitability. For the empirical study and regression analysis and formula used for a regression of determinants of capital structure is:

\[ \text{Hypothesis:} \]
\[ \text{H01: There is no significant relation between Capital Adequacy and Bank Leverage.} \]
\[ \text{H02: There is no significant relation between Bank Size and Bank Leverage.} \]
\[ \text{H03: There is no significant relation between Tangibility and Bank Leverage.} \]
\[ \text{H04: There is no significant relation between Profitability and Bank Leverage.} \]

5. Econometric Model

\[ \text{Leverage}_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{SIZE}_{i,t}) + \beta_2(\text{PR0Fi}_{i,t}) + \beta_3(\text{TANGi}_{i,t}) + \beta_4(\text{CAPADEQi}_{i,t}) + \epsilon_i \]

Where:
\[ \text{Leverage: 1 minus Equity all over the Total Asset} \]
\[ \text{Size: Natural Logarithm of Total Assets} \]
\[ \text{Tangibility: Total Logarithm of Total Assets} \]
\[ \text{Profitability: Profits before Interest and Tax plus Interest Expense all over Total Assets} \]
\[ \text{Capital Adequacy: Bank's core capital expressed as a percentage of its risk-weighted asset} \]

5.1 Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>R Square</th>
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<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
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<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
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\[ \text{~ 484 ~} \]
5.2 Coefficients

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<tr>
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<th>T</th>
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5.3 ANOVA

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</table>

a Predictors: (Constant), capital adequacy, profitability, bank size, tangibility
b Dependent Variable: leverage

Table 1 above shows the result from the data analyzed for this study. As can be seen in the table above, the model estimated give almost a perfect result as compared to the various theories as well as empirical literatures reviewed on the determinants of capital structure among banks generally. The estimated model above has an R2 and Adjusted R2 88.4% and 78.2% respectively as its coefficient of variation. This indicates that majority of the variations or changes in the capital structure of the understudied bank in Albania a largely determined by the dependent variables selected for this study. This is further supported by the F-Statistic which is given at 16 and significant at 1% level of significance from the F-Statistic Prob. This shows that the coefficients of the variables in our model are statistically different from zero. The Durbin-Watson Statistic estimated at 2.48 indicates that there is no trace of serial correlation in the error terms of our model which may render it a spurious regression. Still on table 1 above, it can be observed that all the determinants of Bank Leverage in our model are statistically significant at 1%.

6. Conclusions

In this paper provides a general overview of capital structure and how the firms finance their operations by debt financing or equity financing. It includes the factors affecting the capital structure and their importance; the main questions each manager should do while taking the risk of operating, factors affecting the decisions about the financing, approaches which gave a theoretical and empirical result over the years about the changes on the overview of the capital structuring.

The sector of determinants of capital structure gives the reasoning opinion that the determinants of capital
structure factors are the best mix of numbers to choose the financing by debt or equity. The main determinants mentioned above are the highest influential factors to determine the leverage of the banks.

As a result of this research findings, it is found that the main determinant factors which contribute to the bank leverage level of the Banking industry in Albania between the years 2008 to 2013 are mainly capital adequacy, tangibility, bank size and profitability with all of these factors conforming to sign expectations based on previous empirical and theoretical findings.

References


<table>
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<tr>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Leverage</th>
<th>Tangibility</th>
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<th>Profitability</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Annual Reports from selected Banks for years 2008-2013*
Lithuania’s Export Diversification According To Technological Classification

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Abstract

The ability of export to withstand different shocks of demand and supply is extremely important for sustainable export growth. One of the ways to reduce the impact of these shocks is diversification of the exported production by products and geographical markets. In this article, the authors analyse Lithuanian manufacturing industries with different technological levels and distribution of the export by geographical markets and products. Also, export concentration indexes have been calculated and compared by the qualities mentioned above. For the analysis we use the data from the bases of Lithuanian Department of Statistics (Statistics Lithuania) for the year 2011. The analysis showed that the export of traditional technology industry, which is extremely important to Lithuanian economics, is best-prepared from all sectors to withstand unfavourable external effects. Also, considering the fact that traditional technology industries are not homogenous and their subsectors create the products of different value added (also very high), it can be stated that this sector can be competitive in long term.

Keywords: technological level, manufactures, export diversification, concentration index, Lithuania.

1. Introduction

In the post-crisis period, Lithuanian export has become the main factor of economic growth and it has managed to avoid negative effects. Anyway, evaluating future prospects, declining dynamics of Russian economics and the recession in Euro zone, it can be stated that negative impact of these factors on Lithuanian export is presumable. Openness of economics determines the fact that economics can be injured by external economic upheaval, but the volume of the effects much depends on the degree of export portfolio concentration. As the majority of the research shows (Pineres, Ferrantino, 1997; Al-Marhubi, 2000, ESCAP, 2004; Songwe, Winkler, 2012, Cottet, Madariaga, Jegou, 2012), higher degrees of export concentration are strongly correlated with greater volatility in export earnings and economic growth rates. Contribution of industry sectors with different technological level to the growth of the economics of the country is diverse. Strategic orientation of Lithuanian economic development towards the sectors of medium – high value added has partly determined significantly lower state attention to the promotion of traditional technology industries. For instance, considering the innovation promotion system, it is important to note that the companies of tradition technology industry use relatively smaller amount of the support due to their lower absorption abilities. Nevertheless, the government ensures adequate measures to help industrial companies increase their innovative abilities and so absorb the biggest amount of the support designed for the creation of innovations (Ernst & Young, 2012). The sectors of high value added and high technologies still make only 2 per cent of all export value in total Lithuanian export structure while the biggest part is taken by lower technologies, or so-called traditional technology industries. That is why export changes in this industrial sector have a significant impact on total economics of the country. Significant contribution of Lithuanian traditional technology industry to the development of all manufacturing industry and total economics has been confirmed by numerous scientific researches (Pridotkiene, Laskiene, Venckuviene, 2013; Saboniene, Masteikiene, Venckuviene, 2013; Saboniene, Masteikiene, Venckuviene, 2013). Considering significant impact of exports on total economics of the country, we aim to compare export diversification levels of particular industry sectors that have been divided into different technological levels and answer the question which Lithuanian manufacturing industry sector is most protected from possible external upheavals and ensures higher stability to the economics of the country. This way, the aim of our research is to analyse export diversifications of particular Lithuanian manufacturing industry sectors by products and markets and calculate export

1 The authors acknowledge the funding of The Research Council of Lithuania to make the research by project No. IEP-01/2012.
concentration degrees which would enable to identify export market diversification levels in particular industries.

2. Methodology and Data

Scientific literature proposes various ways to measure export diversification. The choice of a measure usually corresponds to different definitions, dimensions, forms and levels of diversification. The measures of diversification are as follows: The Commodity – Specific Cumulative Export Experience Function (CSCEEF), the Absolute Deviation of the Country Commodity Shares, the Commodity Specific Traditionalist Index (CSTI) and the Variance of the CSTI. The most commonly used measures of export diversification are the Concentration Ratios (measuring product or geographic concentration) (Samen, 2010). Several measures have been developed to estimate concentration ratios. The Herfindahl -Hirschman index (HHI) is the most widely used measure of the degree of market concentration. HHI shows how a product market is concentrated in a few countries or homogeneously distributed among several countries. Likewise, it shows how exports of particular countries or country groups are concentrated on several products or otherwise distributed in a more homogeneous manner among a series of products.

Herfindahl – Hirschman index as the measure of the degree of market concentration by countries and geographical regions may be expressed as follows (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2012):

\[
HHI_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}} \quad \text{where: } HHI_j \text{ – concentration index of a country or country group, } x_{ij} \text{ – value of export for country } j \text{ and product } i, \\
X_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} \text{ – total export, } n \text{ – number of products.}
\]

Herfindahl – Hirschman index as the measure of the degree of market concentration by products may be written as follows (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2012):

\[
HHI_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}} \quad \text{where: } HHI_i \text{ – value of concentration index for product } i, x_{ij} \text{ – value of export for country } j \text{ and product } i, \\
X_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij} \text{ – total export, } n \text{ – maximum number of individual economies.}
\]

HHI value can vary between 0 and 1. When total export consists only of a single group of products or the products are exported to a single country – trade partner, the index gains its highest value. An index value that is close to 1 indicates a very concentrated market. On the contrary, the bigger is the number of exported product groups or export countries the lower is a possible value of the index. Value 0 reflects a completely equal distribution of products or countries.


- \( HHI < 0.01 \) indicates a highly diversified market;
- \( 0.01 < HHI < 0.15 \) indicates an un-concentrated market,
- \( 0.15 \leq HHI < 0.25 \) indicates a moderately concentrated market,
- \( HHI \geq 0.25 \) indicates a highly concentrated market.

The HHI calculations are performed using Lithuanian export-of-goods data, disaggregated to the Classification of Products by Activity (CPA 2008) at 2-digit and at 4-digit group level. The choice of CPA classification has been determined by the fact that it enables to select the volumes of the export of the products which are exclusively of Lithuanian origin. Since our aim is to evaluate diversification level of the export of the products that have been manufactured in Lithuanian industry, our analysis does not include the data of re-export. For the analysis, we use the data from the Lithuanian Department of Statistics (Statistics Lithuania) bases for the year 2011.

Exports are divided into 20 product groups, which are then allocated into 4 broad categories according to their technological intensity (i.e. low, medium-low, medium-high and high-tech) (Table 1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of technology</th>
<th>Industries</th>
<th>CPA 2008</th>
<th>Level of technology</th>
<th>Industries</th>
<th>CPA 2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High-technology industries</td>
<td>Air, spacecraft and related machinery</td>
<td>C30.3</td>
<td>Medium-high-technology industries</td>
<td>Electrical machinery and apparatus</td>
<td>C27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>C21, C26</td>
<td>Motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers</td>
<td>Chemicals, excluding pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>C29, C20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Computer, electronic and optical products</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chemicals, excluding pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>Machinery and equipment, n.e.c.</td>
<td>C28</td>
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<tr>
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<td>C16, C31</td>
<td>Ships and boats</td>
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<td>Furniture</td>
<td>C17, C18</td>
<td>Rubber and plastics products</td>
<td>Coke and refined petroleum products</td>
<td>C22</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paper products, printing</td>
<td>C10, C11, C12</td>
<td>Coke and refined petroleum products</td>
<td>Other non-metallic mineral products</td>
<td>C19, C23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food products, beverages and tobacco products</td>
<td>C13, C14, C15</td>
<td>Basic metals and fabricated metal products</td>
<td>Other non-metallic mineral products</td>
<td>C24, C25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products</td>
<td>C32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other manufactured goods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** adapted by the authors with reference to Hatzichronoglou (1997).

Table 1 provides the details of the classification of the industries into high, medium-high, medium-low and low-tech. This system proposed by Hatzichronoglou (1997) is used in the official OECD (The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) manufacturing industry classification according to technological intensity.

3. **Finding and Discussion**

3.1 *The analysis of Lithuania’s manufacturing industry*

In this analysis, we aim to establish the main sectors of Lithuania’s industrial export dividing them by their technological intensity and comparing them with each other by the four following indicators: gross output, share of value added in gross output, share of value added in gross value added and share of the export in total export of manufacturing industries.

Figure 1 reflects the results of the analysis. In this figure, gross output has been shown as the total amount of domestic trade and export.

**Figure 1.** Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export, gross output and value added in its particular sectors in 2011

![Figure 1](image)

**Source:** Authors’ analysis.

Considering particular industries, highest gross output has been created by coke and refined petroleum products, attributed to medium-low-technology industry. In 2011, their gross output made 5811 million euro or 30 per cent of manufacturing industry’s gross output (see Figure 1). The other product group is food products, beverages and tobacco products which are attributed to low technology industry. Their gross output the same year made 3939 million euro or 20.3 per cent of manufacturing industry’s gross output. Chemicals and chemical products (excluding pharmaceuticals)
are attributed to medium-high technology industry, and they also take a significant part in manufacturing industry’s gross output structure. In 2011, the gross output of these products reached 2307 million euro which made nearly 12 per cent of manufacturing industry’s gross output. Further analysis has revealed that apart from these three biggest sectors, the biggest share of gross output has been created in low-technology or so-called traditional technology industry. Next positions have been taken by medium – low, medium- high and finally – high-technology industries. The latter makes only 2 per cent of manufacturing industry's gross output.

Economic growth and well-being of the population during the long term can be ensured only by reorientation to the sectors of high value added. Therefore, the indicator of value added is much more informative evaluating particular industry sectors. With reference to the results of the analysis, it can be seen that all three sectors that generate the highest gross outputs, create the lowest values added. This is particularly true of C19 product group - coke and refined petroleum products manufacturing. This is because all mineral fuels are imported and processed in one factory - “Orlen Lithuania” - without creating high value added. The values added created by medium traditional industries and medium technology industries are similar (range from 41 to 48 per cent). However, as it could be expected, these values are lower than the ones created in high technology industries. For instance, in the manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and pharmaceutical preparations, value added makes 50 per cent of gross output.

Anyway, analysing the share of value added in manufacturing industry’s gross value added, it can be seen that the highest value added in Lithuania is generated in low-tech-industry. In 2011, the value added generated in this sector made 55 per cent of gross value added in all manufacturing sector. Medium-low-tech industry generated 25 per cent, and medium-high-tech industry – 17 per cent of gross value added. High technology sector which is considered to be a priority sector in Lithuania creates only 3 per cent of gross value added.

Evaluating Lithuanian industry sectors by export values, it can be seen that medium-low-tech industry makes the biggest share (45.47%) of exports. 38.41 per cent of the exports in this share goes to coke and refined petroleum products. As it has already been stated, this industry generates relatively low value added while the biggest share of gross value added is made by imported intermediate products (mineral fuels), so this sub-sector can be treated as re-export. What is more, the value of these products depends on global oil prices, so it is very unstable and due to its volumes distorts the indicators of other sectors. Evaluating the volumes of export excluding petroleum products, it can be seen that the share of exported low-tech products is the biggest. The export of this sector makes 32.62 per cent of the total value of the export. With reference to the data of 2011, medium-high-tech sector made 20.01 per cent, medium-low-tech sector excluding petroleum products – 7.07 per cent, and high-tech sector - only 1.9 per cent in the structure of total industry export.

Since traditional technology industry makes the biggest share of value added and export in Lithuanian manufacturing industry, due to its significantly high volumes in total manufacturing industry’s structure even the smallest export changes in this industry can have a significant impact on total economics of the country. On the other hand, strategic priorities of Lithuanian economic development declared by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania anticipate that Lithuania should transfer from traditional technology industries to highly innovative technologies during the long term. That is why export changes in all sectors that are able to manufacture with higher than average value added are extremely important to economics of the country.

One of the ways to decrease the adverse effects on export is export diversification by markets and products. In further section, we are analysing export diversification levels in the sectors with different technologies and comparing them.

### 3.2 Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export structure by countries

The structure of low-technologies export by countries has been presented in Figure 2. The biggest share has been taken by the export to Germany (16 per cent), Russia (9 per cent) and Sweden (9 per cent). The export of Lithuanian traditional technology industry production to other countries is lower, but it shows the obvious orientation the EU countries.
Different distribution of the countries can be observed in the structure of medium-low-technology industry export (Fig. 3). Here, the biggest share of production is exported to the Netherlands (16 per cent), Estonia (13 per cent) and Latvia (11 per cent). Although the biggest share of the production is exported to the EU countries, the export to Ukraine (9 per cent), USA (6 per cent), Canada (4 per cent), Russia (2 per cent), Norway (2 per cent) is also significant.

Analysing the diversification of medium-high-technology industry export by countries, it can be seen that export to Germany again takes the highest positions – in 2011, its share in total export made 20 per cent (Figure 4). Other significant export markets are France (8 per cent), Sweden (7 per cent), Poland and Russia (6 and 6 per cent). In the export of this industry production, the EU countries are also prevailing.

Very similar distribution of the countries can be observed in the structure of high-technology industry export (Figure 5). Here, the biggest share of production is exported to Germany (13 per cent) and the EU countries. Export to Latvia (8 per
cent), Finland, Russia (7 and 7 per cent), Sweden and USA (6 and 6 per cent) is also significant. On the other hand, high-technology industry exports its production to more different countries in comparison to total Lithuanian export. The production of high-technology industry is exported to such global markets as China, United Arab Emirates, Hong Kong, Mexico, South Korea and others, but in small quantities.

**Figure 5.** High-technology industry export structure by countries in 2011

Source: Authors’ analysis.

The analysis of export distribution by countries in different industry sectors with different technological level revealed that all Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export is obviously orientated to geographically close countries – the EU countries and Russia. Export concentration to Russia and the countries economically related to it such as Latvia, Estonia, Byelorussia, Ukraine is strong enough, and this poses a threat for the development of Lithuanian export. The threat is associated not only with quite changeable Russian internal demand but also with possible political decisions which, as it is considered, have influenced the recent events in Lithuanian foreign trade. Prohibition to import Lithuanian dairy products to Russia and strengthened Lithuanian truck control have caused a lot of damage to Lithuanian exporters. Export to the EU countries provides greater stability, but it must be considered that even here markets are strongly interrelated, so demand fluctuations in any country, especially in such big one as Germany, can have the impact on internal demand of other countries. Thus, immunization of Lithuanian export by diversifying export markets as well as stronger orientation to global markets – Asia, Africa, North and South America – are necessary (by the opportunity).

### 3.3 Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export structure by products

Analysing export structure by products, 4-digit group level CPA classification was used. Figure 6 presents the structure of Lithuania’s low-technology industry export by products. As it can be seen from the figure, export by products in this sector is rather differentiated, but some product groups are predominant. The biggest share of the export is made of dairy and cheese products (12 per cent), other furniture (10 per cent), seats and parts thereof; parts of furniture (8 per cent), tobacco products (7 per cent), processed and preserved fish, (6 per cent), other outerwear (4 per cent) and other builders’ carpentry and joinery (3 per cent). In 2011, all these products made 50 per cent of total low-technology industry export.

**Figure 6.** Low-technology industry export structure by products in 2011

Source: Authors’ analysis.
Considering the structure of medium-low-technology industry export by products (Figure 7), it can be seen that the export of this industry is highly concentrated in a single product group - refined petroleum products - which makes as much as 84 per cent of total export of the sector.

Figure 7. Medium-low-technology industry export (including refined petroleum products) structure by products in 2011

Source: Authors’ analysis.

As it can be seen from Figure 7, the export of the other products in this industry makes insignificant part in comparison to refined petroleum products. That is why it is purposeful to analyse this sector in more detail excluding refined petroleum products. The structure of medium-low-technology industry export by products excluding refined petroleum products has been presented in Figure 8. In this case, a much greater degree of product differentiation can be observed, although only four product groups make more than 50 per cent of total export of this industry.

Figure 8. Medium-low-technology industry export (excluding refined petroleum products) structure by products in 2011

Source: Authors’ analysis.

Figure 9 presents the structure of Lithuanian medium-high-technology industry export by products. As it can be seen from the figure, export in this sector is concentrated in two main product groups while other products compose a small part of the export. In 2011, fertilisers and nitrogen compounds and plastics in primary forms together made 62 per cent of total export of the sector which means that medium-high technology export is not highly differentiated by products.

Figure 9. Medium-high-technology industry export structure by products in 2011

Source: Authors’ analysis.
Considering the structure of high-technology industry export, which has been presented in Figure 10, it should be noted that export of this sector does not show high product differentiation either. Only a single product group - measuring, testing and navigating equipment – made 45 per cent of total export of the sector. This sector is not big – it consists only of some product groups, but their export volumes have been distributed unevenly.

**Figure 10.** High-technology industry export structure by products in 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>HHI by countries</th>
<th>HHI by products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low-technology</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium-low-technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>including refined</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>0.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petroleum products</td>
<td>moderately</td>
<td>highly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excluding refined</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petroleum products</td>
<td>moderately</td>
<td>moderately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium-high-technology</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-technology</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Authors’ analysis.

All the figures explicated above reveal that Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export does not show high differentiation, considering both equal export distribution among countries and the production exported. Slightly higher diversification can be observed in low-technology-industry export. However, more precise level of export diversification can be established by invoking concentration indexes.

### 3.4 Evaluation of Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export concentration

For more precise evaluation of Lithuanian manufacturing industry's export concentration, Herfindahl – Hirschman indexes were calculated. These indexes were calculated for each industry with different technological level. Export concentration was evaluated by countries and products. For medium-low-technology industry, evaluating export concentration by products, HHI was calculated twice: including petroleum products and excluding them. The values of the indexes have been presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.** HHI values of Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
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<th>HHI by products</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>petroleum products</td>
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<td>High-technology</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Authors’ analysis.

As it can be seen from Table 2, export concentration by countries in all manufacturing industry sectors is moderate. It shows that demand shock, linked with the main countries – trade partners, could have a significant impact on industrial export. Considering export concentration by products, the only low-technology industry export is well-diversified and can be treated as unconcentrated export. Medium-low-technology industry export by products could also be treated as moderately concentrated if it was evaluated excluding refined petroleum products. Medium-low-technology including refined petroleum products; medium-high-technology and high-technology industry exports are not well-diversified and can therefore be treated as highly concentrated exports. It proposes that Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export should be better diversified by both countries and products.

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4. Conclusions

The article is aimed at the identification which Lithuania’s manufacturing industry sectors are more capable to withstand different demand and supply shocks raising due to the global trade. Our research revealed that despite strategic orientation of Lithuanian economic development to medium-high technology sector, low-technology production makes the biggest part of value added and export in Lithuanian manufacturing industry. That is why due to the big share in total structure of manufacturing industry; even smallest changes in this industry’s export can have a significant impact on the total economics of the country.

Further research revealed that all Lithuanian manufacturing industries, seeking to avoid bigger impact of other countries’ demand fluctuations, insufficiently diversify their exported production by countries and their export can be treated as moderately concentrated. What is more, all Lithuanian manufacturing industry’s export is orientated to geographically close countries – the EU states and Russia. Strong export concentration to Russia and the countries which are closely economically linked with it such as Latvia, Estonia, Byelorussia and Ukraine poses a threat on the development of Lithuanian export due to rather changeable internal demand and possible political decisions that can influence Lithuanian economics. Export to the EU states provides higher stability, but it should be noted that markets here are also closely interrelated, so demand fluctuations in any country can have the impact on internal demand of other countries. That is why seeking for higher diversification of Lithuanian export, orientation to other global markets such as Asia, Africa, North and South America is necessary.

The research of Lithuanian export diversification by products revealed that only low-technology or co-called traditional technology industry export is well-diversified by exported production. The export of other industries is highly concentrated in this respect. It means that traditional technology industry export, which is extremely important to the economics of the country, is best-prepared from all sectors to withstand unfavourable external effects. Considering the fact that traditional technology industries are not homogenous (although they are sometimes considered to be so) and their sub-sectors create the products of different value added (also very high), it can be stated that this industry can be competitive in the long term. Therefore, it should earn not only scientific interest for the research but also should be considered by politicians making long-term strategies and forming maintenance and promotion policies.

References

Obstacles for Innovative Activities in Lithuanian Low-tech Sector’s Companies

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Abstract

The innovation concept seemed to be inherent in many fields of economy. Discourse in literature and policy formation level highlight the importance of high-tech sector as the innovation intensive one and concurrently leaving the low-tech sector aside. Still few studies provide evidences that low-tech sector’s companies have potential to innovate (Hirsch-Kreinsen, Hahn and Jacobson, 2008, Cox, Frenz, and Prevezer, 2002, Santamaria et al., 2009, Heidenreich, 2009). Thus the paper aims to reveal the most inherent innovations in low-tech sector and identify the obstacles they face in introducing various types of innovations. The method of experts’ evaluation was chosen in order to gather the experts’ opinion about the specific issues on introduction of innovation in low-tech sector’s companies in Lithuania. An interesting finding is that marketing, organisation and networking innovations’ dimensions are considered not so inherent types of innovations as the product and technological innovations are. Considering the highly intensive competition in low-tech sector’s markets the marketing strategies for creating new paths of innovations in this scope are extremely important. Also the paper discusses the main obstacles of innovative activities which were emphasized by experts.

Keywords: innovations, low-tech sector, experts’ evaluation method, Lithuania

1. Introduction

Abundance of research in the scope of innovation especially in measurement systems justifies the importance of this phenomena and it seems that it is inherent in every level of economic life. Now it is agree that the innovation concept covers much more than just product and technology innovations. And moreover the discourse in literature considers rethinking of sectors classification because the evidence of various forms innovations are obvious in low-tech sector’s industries (Hirsch-Kreinsen, Hahn and Jacobson, 2008, Cox et al., 2002, Santamaria et al., 2009, Heidenreich, 2009). Some research results indicate that product innovation is typically assigned to high technology industries (Cox et al., 2002). But process innovation is strong side in low-tech sector (Kirner, Kinkel and Jaeger, 2009). Heidenreich (2009) named “process, organisational and marketing innovations” as inherent innovations for low-tech sector’s companies. Also the external source for innovation in low-tech sector are emphasized in several studies (Cox et al., 2002; Heidenreich, 2009), while high-tech sector’s companies focus more on internal resources. Therefore this research covers mainly two important questions: 1) what are typical innovations in low tech sector; and 2) what are the main problems the low tech companies faces in the innovation implementation process.

Thus the paper aims to reveal the most inherent innovations in low-tech sector’s companies and identify the obstacles they face in introducing various types of innovations.

In this paper low-tech sector refers to the industrial branches which focus on usage of traditional technologies specifically: wood and wood products and paper production, furniture production, and textile and the apparel production.

The paper is organised in the following manner: the second section presents the innovation’s measurement aspects in low-tech companies; the third section reveals the methodology framework for this paper and the fourth section presents main results and discussion. Finally paper ends with conclusions.

2. Measurement Features of Innovative Activities in Low-Tech Sector’s Companies

The innovation capability is recognized as one of the main aspects leading to a competitive advantage amongst firms. The literature review shows that approach to innovation concept has changed significantly over the time. Milbergs and Vonortas (2005) have identified four generations of innovation measurement system. First generation of innovation measurement system reflects the linear concept of innovation, which focuses on the cost of the process of innovation indicators. The second generation focuses on the innovation input indicators and connects innovation performance indicators. The third generation reveals a broader approach to innovation and focuses on regional innovation capacity studies, regional ranking. The fourth generation of innovation measurement system is named "embryonic" stage and it
deals with the innovation process indicators (Milbergs & Vonortas, 2005).

Research shows that innovation is a multifaceted concept and includes many business areas. Rogers (2004) investigates factors for introduction of new products, services or processes comparing manufacturing and non-manufacturing firms. The findings show that for the manufacturing firms „innovation may be higher in exporting firms, firms with higher management training, firms that network, firms that conduct comparisons with other businesses, and firms that do R&D; in contrast, foreign ownership may lower innovation.“ (Rogers, 2004).

According to Carney and Ryan (2010), measurement of innovation in different sectors needs for consideration of their specificities. They provide important aspects for 11 business sectors in measuring innovativeness. But the low-tech sector is not mentioned among these sectors. Regarding the high-tech manufacturing sector to measure innovativeness important aspect is “Strategic importance of innovation* -the extent to which strategic objectives have been met by the innovation“ (Carney and Ryan, 2010). According to Carney and Ryan (2010), less important aspects are product advantage, innovativeness, financial performance and business performance (Carney & Ryan, 2010).

Considering the sectors' taxonomy in terms of innovation intensive, some studies provide an alternative to the one that OECD presents. Gomes, Fornari and Morceiro (2013) suggest broadening the innovation measurement system involving “broad set of activities developed in the scope of the company, linked to the incremental innovation, social interaction, diversification, user -producer relation, some of them closely related to the diffusion of technology”. For instance research on Italian sectors enabled to provide 5 subdivisions of industries in terms of channels and methods employed to introduce technological innovations (Archibugi, Cesaratto and Sirilli, 1991): (1) “Producers of traditional consumer goods”, (2) “Suppliers of traditional intermediate goods”, (3) “Specialized suppliers of intermediate goods”, (4) “Mass-production assemblers” and (5) “R&D based”.

Zen, Reichert Quimi Pufal and Zawislak (2012) research concerning the changes in the low-tech sector’s companies in Brazil revealed some interesting aspects, they contended that low-tech companies tend to innovate specifically “optimizing their processes and commercializing their products” and improving transactional capability i.e. “developing new forms to communicate and provide services to their clients”.

Literature review indicates that in addition to such well-established innovation types, such as product, process innovation, marketing and organizational innovation, it is appropriate to distinguish and networking innovation meaning the environment that surrounds the companies (partners, clusters, technology platforms) in innovations emerging through this networks. While Tidd (2001) states that „A network is more than an aggregation of bilateral relationships or dyads, and therefore the configuration, nature and content of a network impose additional constraints and present additional opportunities“.

Tello-Gamarra and Zawislak (2013) presents an innovation capability model which has two main capability drivers: a set of technological capabilities and a set of business capabilities. In this model, the technology drivers are represented by the technology development capability and the operational capability, and the business drivers are represented by the management capability and transaction capability.

Meanwhile the analysis of literature enabled to present a framework for internal factors for innovation creation potential in a company. This framework is applicable to various industries, but considering the heterogeneity aspects some factors weights can be increased and some decreased.

Strategic management is a starting point in seeking the higher innovativeness indicators in companies. The targets set in a top level of management influence the whole processes in a particular company. The human resource management embeds the main component of creativeness in an organization. The sufficient critical mass for the innovation creation is essential and the input needed for the development of this scope should be considered in more respectively.

Technological capacity shows the companies’ ability to produce and to adapt to markets' needs. The timely technological development in a company may lift its competitive advantage in terms of satisfying customers’ needs. Financial resources show ability of a company to react flexibly in dynamic environment. Networking ability in this paper refers to communication process in both internal network and external network as well. Marketing capacity means ability to manage the whole process of commercialisation of innovative products and to introduce quickly it in the market. In the framework presented below the learning process incorporates as a horizontal activity in an organisation.
To sum up innovation capacity in a particular company embeds various aspects. Empirical research shows different measurement systems for innovative activities in companies: starting from quantitative approaches to qualitative ones. The common measures in quantitative studies are investments in R&D, and number of patents. Meanwhile qualitative approaches embed mainly case studies method. The qualitative approach leads to the deeper insight in to the analysing object. Therefore in the further analysis we are looking for innovations that are most common for low-tech sector and focusing on the obstacles they encounter introducing various types of innovation in terms of qualitative perspective.

3. Methodology and Data

3.1 Methodology of empirical investigation of innovation activities in low-tech sector

Expert evaluation method is justified in literature. Choosing the right experts is the core element seeking for research validity and reliability in expert evaluation research. The sample size for such type of research is not so necessary, according to Mason (2010) the data saturation fact is essential factor in determining the sample size of qualitative research.

The aim of this empirical research was to identify the inherent type of innovation and the obstacles associated with implementation of innovation in low-tech sector’s companies based on experts’ opinion.

In this paper we focus on the strengthening innovation capacity in low-tech sector in Lithuania. 26 out of 60 top managers from prominent low-tech sector’s companies agreed to participate in the expert evaluation.

Thus this research covers mainly two important questions: 1) what are typical innovations in low tech sector; and 2) what are the main problems the low-tech companies’ faces in the innovation implementation process.

The reliability of expert evaluation method is computed based on Cronbach’s alpha (hereinafter alpha). Alpha is a popular coefficient of reliability, and is called a measure of internal consistency, which is based on inter-correlation for a set of variables (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). A high inter-correlation implicates that the data are unidimensional and measure the same construct (Yu, n.d.). It varies from 0 to 1, the alpha closer to 0 indicates low internal consistency, and vice versa – closer to 1 indicates a perfect relationship among the items, meaning the high internal consistency.

The agreement among the experts is measured using Kendall’s concordance coefficient (hereinafter W), which is non parametric test and is based on Friedman test. “Kendall’s W measures the extent to which the N judges agree on their rankings of the K applicants.” (Mehta and Patel, 2011). And null hypothesis “that Kendall’s coefficient of concordance is 0” (Mehta and Patel, 2011, p. 108) if the corresponding p-value is less than 0.05 the null hypothesis can be rejected. W coefficient varies between 0 and 1, “The scaling ensures that W = 1 if there is perfect agreement among the N judges in terms of how they rank the K applicants.” (Mehta and Patel, 2011, p. 109), and 0 indicates that there is no agreement among experts.

Factor analysis, specifically principal component analysis is employed with the aim to group main problems associated with innovation in fewer components. The research estimations are made in SPSS 17.0.

Of course one should consider the limitations of research presented in this paper:
1. The questionnaire was prepared based on literature review and personal implications;
2. The experts present a various industries, and the problems and types of innovation could vary among them.

4. Finding and Discussion

4.1 Demographic data of experts

The experience of experts is presented in fig. 2, which depicts that the majority of experts (73 percent) have more than 10 years experience in their work field. 19 percent of experts have experience from 5 to 10 years. Thus it is obvious that the majority of experts satisfy the main criteria in expert evaluation research.

Figure 2. The experience of experts.

Figure 3 outlines percentage distribution of experts in terms of their representational sector. It is seen that experts distribute along the various branches of low tech sector. The majority of experts (35 percent) come from the apparel production, 19 percent of experts were representatives of furniture production industry and others.

Figure 3. Experts’ distribution among sectors

4.2 Inherent innovation in low-tech sector

The experts were asked to rate the most inherent type of innovations in their company/ sector. In this paper five main dimensions of innovation are analysed:
1. Product innovation are considered as new or improved products;
2. Technological innovation in terms of implementing new and/or improved technologies, in order to modern the production process and assimilation of novel technologies;
3. Organization innovation covers the new ways of management, quality standards, improvement of process management and others.
4. Marketing innovation embeds the commercialisation of products, new way of entry to market, new solutions for marketing and others.
5. Networking innovations refer the communication (internal and external) process in research, commercialisation process, projects and others.

Cronbach’s alpha associated to this scale was 0.654. It is slightly lower than recommended critical value 0.7. Having in mind that the scales of items are only 5 elements this suggests that the alpha could suffer due to small item number. The deeper analysis of reliability shows that marketing innovation dimension have low inter item correlation, and it would be omitted the Cronbach’s alpha could be 0.733. For the further analysis we do not exclude marketing innovation.
dimension due to its argued importance in the literature.

Considering innovation typology in low-tech companies in Lithuania, the distribution of expert ratings (mean ranks) are presented in figure 4.

**Figure 4.** The most inherent types of innovations in low-tech sector (ratings presented in mean rank)

![Mean rank diagram]

The research results indicate technological innovation and product innovation (mean rank 3.62) as most likely present (inherent) in their companies. The least mean rank was given for the networking, marketing, and organisation innovations. In contrast, Von Tunzelman and Acha (2005) highlight that low-tech sector "may place less emphasis on technology functions and more on product/marketing functions" comparing to high-tech sector's companies.

Mean ranks are presented based on Friedman test (Chi-Square values and corresponding p-value is presented in table 1 below. The Kendall’s W in this case is quite small – 0.172, but corresponding p-value (0.001) indicates significance of the test. Although the W is small indicating weak agreement of experts it implicates that maybe for experts there is not so much differences among the items presented for rating. This conclusion was verified with a Monte Carlo estimate of the exact p value, based on 10,000 random combinations of the original two-way layout of mid-ranks. The Monte Carlo estimate is 0.001 and it is the same as computed asymptotic p-value (0.003), and it suggest that the W significant differ from 0.

**Table 1.** Kendall’s test statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistics</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kendall's W^a</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>17.851</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig.</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monte Carlo Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99% Confidence Interval</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Kendall’s Coefficient of Concordance
b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 624387341.

For further analysis exploratory factor analysis is employed in order to cluster the dimensions in groups based on correlation. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy index is sufficient for factor analysis (0.638 > 0.5), and p-value (sig.0.008) is less than 0.05, indicating that there is enough sample size for factors extraction.

Principal component analysis extracted two components, which explain almost 67 percent of variation (see table 2). Components are extracted based on critical Eigen value (higher than 1). 1st component comprises 44.67 percent of variance, 2nd component embeds 22.26 percent of variance (see table 2).
Table 2. Kendall’s test statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Total Variance Explained</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initial Eigenvalues</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.234</td>
<td>44.678</td>
<td>44.678</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>22.267</td>
<td>66.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>16.299</td>
<td>83.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td>7.184</td>
<td>100.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation was made based on Varimax method, and in the Rotated Component Matrix (table 3) it is seen that the 1st component covers 4 items (Product innovation, Technological innovation, Organisation innovation, and Networking innovation), meaning that those four dimension makes a group of items and can be considered as one component. Meanwhile Marketing innovation should be analysed apart, because it depends to 2nd component.

Table 3. Kendall’s test statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product innovation</td>
<td>0.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological innovation</td>
<td>0.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation innovation</td>
<td>0.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing innovation</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking innovation</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

To summarise the innovation dimensions in low tech sector one can find interesting that marketing innovation are considered as not so inherent innovation type as the product and technological innovations are. Having in mind that the low tech sector’s market is broad and full of competitors and therefore marketing strategies becomes a core element for increasing competitive advantage and new paths for innovations in this scope should be considered more carefully.

Obstacles for innovation implementation in low-tech sector. Analysis of problems which are faced by low tech companies in Lithuania is presented below. Six items were presented for experts to rank (in 5 point Likert scale, 1 meaning totally disagree and 5 indicating total agreement):

1. Huge innovation costs;
2. Uncertainty in the demand of innovative products;
3. Insufficient/ limited financial perspective for innovative activities;
4. Insufficient technological base;
5. Insufficient potential of human resource (capabilities, creativeness) and lack of motivation;
6. Insularity of companies and lack of collaboration with innovation partners.

Table outlines the Reliability Statistics of items presented above. Estimated alpha equals to 0.823, indicating good internal consistency.

Having in mind that Cronbach’s alpha is sensitive to the number of items in the scale and in the present analysis there are only 6 items, it suggests that the items in the scale are highly correlated.

While analysing the agreement among the experts quite small W (0.138) was computed, also p-value (0.003 <0.05) indicates the significance of the test. This conclusion was verified with a Monte Carlo estimate. The Monte Carlo estimate is 0.002, less than the asymptotic p value (0.003), and it suggests that the W is significant different from 0.
Table 4. Kendall’s test statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kendall's W&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>17.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asymp. Sig.</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.002&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monte Carlo Sig.</td>
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<tr>
<td>99% Confidence Interval</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. Kendall’s Coefficient of Concordance
b. Based on 10000 sampled tables with starting seed 926214481.

When analysing experts ratings, the figure 5 depicts that the most significant problems for implementing innovations are basically two (*Huge innovation costs* - mean rank of 4.33; and *Insufficient/ limited financial perspective for innovative activities* – mean rank of 3.92), while the least significant problem was identified the category - “Insufficient technological base”, which implicates that experts’ are quite sure about the sufficient technological level in their companies.

**Figure 5.** The most inherent type of innovation in low tech sector (ratings presented in mean rank)

Considering factor analysis for grouping the presented problems into fewer groups, the KMO and Bartlett’s Test’s results presented below in the table, indicating the sufficient sample size for the extracted components. KMO index is more than sufficient (0.719 > 0.5), and p-value (sig. 0.000) is less than 0.05, indicating that there is enough sample size for factors extraction.

Table 5. Kendall’s test statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett’s Test</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Principal component analysis extracted two components, which accounts for 72.59 percent of variation (see table 6). 1<sup>st</sup> component comprises 53.96 percent of variance, 2<sup>nd</sup> component embeds 18.62 percent of variance (see table 6).
Table 7. Total Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.238</td>
<td>53.968</td>
<td>53.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.117</td>
<td>18.624</td>
<td>72.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>10.971</td>
<td>83.563</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.428</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>0.352</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>3.444</td>
<td>100.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Based on rotation (see Rotated Component Matrix, table 7) it is seen that 1st component covers 4 items all of them are related to uncertainty and risk associated to innovation performance in terms of financial resources. While 2nd component embeds two items which are related to the lack of potential for innovative activities in more “soft” perspective concerning the human resource potential and company’s potential for networking.

Table 7. Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.841</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.245</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Analysing experts’ attitudes towards the problems that are faced in low –tech sector’s companies two interesting dimensions were revealed. On the one hand companies struggle with uncertainty and risk for default because innovations are characterised by having high cost, uncertainty in demand, limited financial opportunities, and insufficient technological base (also it indicates about the huge investments).

On the other hand experts’ evaluation method revealed that there are more in-depth problems concerning the innovation implementation in low-tech sector. For instance two items (Insufficient potential of human resource (capabilities, creativeness) and lack of motivation; and Insularity of companies and lack of collaboration with innovation partners) could be analysed together as one component, and in the future research there could be more in-depth analysis concerning investigation of detail constituents of these two dimensions.

5. Conclusions

Innovations are considered as the main potential for growth and competitiveness. There is no doubt that innovation phenomena should be analysed in a complex system, because of the multidimensionality of innovations.

The article was aimed at the identification of inherent innovation dimensions in Lithuania’s manufacturing industry, specifically low-tech sector (wood and wood products and paper production, furniture production, and textile and the apparel production). Research has revealed most common types of innovations. The highest mean ranks were computed for the product and technological innovation. The interesting finding is that marketing innovation dimension is considered as not so inherent innovation type as the product and technological innovations are. Having in mind that there is intensive competition in low-tech sector’s market and highly dependent on price and quality factors, therefore the marketing
strategies, for new paths on innovations in this scope should be considered more carefully. On the other hand maybe the dimensions of innovations like marketing, organisation and networking are not vital in practices and it is difficult to identify them at a company’s level.

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References


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Using Technology to Enhance Learning: Computer Science Lecturers’ Perceptions towards Mobile Technology and Serious Games in Class

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Abstract

The use of mobile technology determines the way of live of students as they are using the latest technologies to create new things in new ways, learn new things in new ways, and communicate in new ways with people. They read less because they are more comfortable in image-rich environments than with text and prefer active, first-person, and experiential learning vibrantly present in new media technology but lacking in traditional lectures. Introducing serious games into classroom and the potential value thereof has received wide attention recently. Many studies report that serious games can motivate and encourage students to be problem solvers because of built-in motivation and familiarity features. Integrating technology and serious games into the teaching-learning process depends mainly on the lecturer. Lecturers’ perceptions of the role of technology and serious games in class may hinder their readiness and confidence in using it in class. The purpose of this research is therefore to determine the perceptions of Computer Science lecturers towards mobile technology and serious games in class. A quantitative research approach involving the administration of a structured questionnaire to Computer Science lecturers was used to collect data for the study. Data was collected at two different university campuses. The questionnaire included questions on demographics and two areas, namely attitudes towards mobile technology in class and attitudes about serious games in class. Within these two areas perceptions regarding the following factors were measured: a) attitude towards the use of mobile technology and serious games in class; b) potential benefits of integrating mobile technology and serious games in lessons and c) intention to use mobile technology and serious games in class. The study revealed that Computer Science lecturers have a positive attitude towards the use of technology and serious games in class and realise the potential benefits of using technology and serious games in class. It is clear from the results that laptops and tablets are preferred in class as there is a huge negative response with regard to the use of cell phones in class.

Keywords: Mobile technology, serious games, Computer Science lecturers’ perceptions

1. Introduction

Now, more than ever before, technology is becoming increasingly integrated into our lives and society. The emergence of social networking technologies are shaping the way in which people communicate, collaborate, think, work, live and form social constructs (Klopfer, Osterweil, Groff & Haas, 2009).

It is difficult to imagine the current modern university student living a life without spending a substantial amount of time on their smartphones chatting, browsing the web, texting, blogging, playing games or visiting online communities such as Facebook, Twitter, and WhatsApp (Kron, Gjerde, Sen & Fetters, 2010; Kurkovsky, 2009). Students nowadays are almost fully integrated into technology, using the latest technologies to create new things in new ways, learn new things in new ways, and communicate in new ways with new people – behaviours that have become a way of life for them. It is therefore not surprising that they are more comfortable in image-rich environments than with text because they read less (Sweeny, 2007) and have a preference for active, first-person, experiential learning that is lacking in traditional lectures, but vibrantly present in new media technology (Lenhart, Madden & Hitlin, 2005).

The integration of technology in education is no longer a novel idea. Given the fact that technology has become an integral part of society – academic institutions, business, medicine, science and government are using it – it has now become necessary to integrate its use in education (Rodgers, 2014).

Numerous advantages have been found regarding the use of technology in the classroom. Given the fact that technology has the potential to add variety in the classroom, it can assist in keeping students more focused, more motivated and engaged for longer periods of time. Unlike traditional teaching aids, technology can instil in students excitement about learning. Another advantage is that technology allows students to work at their own pace, set goals, learn in different environments, monitor and assess their progress, think critically and work without the teacher/lecturer

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being present. From an educator viewpoint, technology can aid in teaching more in a shorter time and reduce the number of times the educator needs to repeat information. The diversity of the types of technology available for teaching (e.g., digital games, laptops, tablets, smart phones, i-pads) provide a richer experience in terms of sound and graphics as well as choice to the students. Students are also able to access information at a faster pace and on demand. It also provides for the storage as well as retrieval of information. Rodgers (2014) opines that technology is especially appropriate for the enhancement of global studies as it can bring experiences of other cultures vividly into the classroom. It also provides multiple communication channels for students to communicate locally as well as across the globe. Not only does telecommunications allow for interaction between students, it also encourages creative opportunities to be formed by showing the interrelationships among the social studies, literature, art, and music. Contrary to the belief that technology can lead to ill-discipline, the embedded rules, goals and objectives in digital games and computer programmes provide for purposeful, rule-based activities which can be both educational as well as fun (Klopfer, 2008).

Rodgers (2014) opines that technology can improve students’ problem-solving and critical thinking skills, their writing and math skills, and their computer skills. This is especially critical given the fact that technology is used in almost every sphere of life.

2. The Use of Mobile Technology and Serious Games in Teaching Computer Science Modules

Klopfer et al. (2009) suggest that the emergence of new technologies encourage educators to understand, lever and implement them in the classroom. The authors argue that while there is no doubt effective classroom lessons and objectives can be achieved without the latest technologies, there will be a sharp disconnect between the way students are taught and the way they interact and socialise with the outside world if the current available technologies are not used in the classroom. Many technologies exist which can be used to enhance the learning experience of students. The current article focuses on mobile technology and serious games.

While desktop computers are mainly used to teach the vast majority of Computer Science (CS) modules, Kurkovsky (2009b) suggests that students increasingly relate computing technology with mobile devices rather than with desktop computers. Mahmoud (2008) introduced mobile devices into programming courses and achieved excellent results in terms of student enthusiasm and satisfaction. Students could learn with mobile devices when they learn concepts and content related to the curriculum as this will not only expand and enhance the learning objectives but also fit well with modern students’ learning styles (Kron et al., 2010). The challenge, however, according to Reardon & Tangney (2011), is to apply a teaching approach which exploits the capabilities of mobile devices and increases students’ interest in mobile devices. Such an approach is a good opportunity to encourage and stimulate student interest in Computer Science (Kurkovsky, 2009a).

The number of undergraduate students enrolled in computer science-related programs has declined considerably (Computer Society Connection, 2008; Schroeder, 2011). Kurkovsky (2009b:44) attributes this, “...among other factors, to the decreased appeal of computer science as an academic discipline or career choice”. In many cases Computer Science students end up changing majors after the first or second year of study because they find the course material irrelevant to practical applications (Beaubouef & Mason, 2005). Kurkovsky (2009b) argues that if this situation is to be reversed it is very important for the Computer Science curriculum to stay applicable and relevant to today’s reality and engage students by making a strong connection between computing and students’ everyday lives. Students need a conducive, creative and challenging classroom environment to which they can relate and make a difference in preparing for their careers (Kurkovsky, 2009b). In this way “we nurture a new generation of creative, systematic thinkers who are comfortable in using programming to express their ideas” (Resnick, Maloney, Hernández, Rusk, Eastmond, Brennan et al., 2009:60).

Serious games are games with an educational intent and need to be engaging while the learning can be implicit or explicit (Ulicsak & Wright, 2010). From the many definitions of serious games (Garris, Ahlers & Driskell, 2002; Micheal & Chen, 2006; Vogel, Vogel, Cannon-Bowers, Bowers, Muse & Wright, 2006; Wouters, van der Spek & van Oostendorp, 2009) one can conclude that a serious game is goal-directed, has a competitive activity and is conducted within a framework of agreed rules (Lindley, 2004) and enable players to monitor their progress towards the goal, while providing constant feedback (Prensky, 2001). The value of introducing serious games in the classroom has also received wide attention recently (Kurkovsky, 2009b). Many studies (e.g. Moses, Khambari & Wong, 2008; Barnes, Richter, Chaffin, Godwin, Powell, Ralph et al., 2007; Becker, 2001; Prenski, 2001; Gunhold & Weber, 2004) report that serious games have a built-in motivation and familiarity which can motivate and encourage students to be problem solvers. Furthermore, learning is improved when teaching is grounded in familiar, concrete and relevant examples (Hennessy, Harrison & Wamakote, 2010; Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 1999).
The integration of technology and serious games into the teaching-learning process depends mainly on the lecturer (Cui & Wang, 2008; Moses et al., 2008). Prominent factors like attitudes, expertise, lack of autonomy and lack of knowledge to evaluate the use and role of technology and serious games in class may hinder a lecturer’s readiness and confidence in using technology support in class (Hennessy et al., 2010). It is often considered that lecturers’ instructional beliefs play a fundamental role in their classroom practice (Liu, 2007).

Educational technologies should be embraced as another tool to change our teaching, our learning, and our classrooms. However, it should not be “seen just as a new tool for an old task, rather as a new tool that can help us think differently about teaching and help our students think differently about learning” (Wehrli, 2009:4).

3. Rationale for the Study

The rapid growth of mobile technologies and educational games that have ‘invaded’ the lives of educators and students globally provides an interesting avenue for the introduction of different teaching and learning methods. The measurement of lecturers’ perceptions towards the use of them may be critical in establishing appropriate interventions to help lecturers integrate these resources into teaching and learning (Chao, 2005:3). The results may be useful in determining whether their experiences and perceptions warrant the development of teaching methods that make use of mobile devices and serious games. It may also help better understand how those applications should be designed so as to resonate strongly with students.

4. Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this study was to examine Computer Science lecturers’ experience with, and attitudes towards mobile technology and serious games in class

5. Research Methodology

A quantitative research approach was adopted for the study. This approach was chosen because it provides a quick, inexpensive, efficient and accurate means of accessing the desired information (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). In addition, an appropriate literature review on serious games and mobile technology as educational aids was conducted. Arising from the literature review a questionnaire was developed to investigate lecturers’ perceptions towards mobile technology and serious games in class.

6. Sample

The sample for the study comprised thirty two Computer Science lecturers from two university campuses in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

7. Research Instrument and Procedure

The questionnaire used to collect data comprised thirty eight items which included questions on demographics and two areas, namely attitudes towards mobile technology in class and attitudes about serious games in class. Within these two areas perceptions regarding the following factors were measured: a) attitude towards the use of mobile technology and serious games in class; b) potential benefits of integrating mobile technology and serious games in lessons and c) intention to use mobile technology and serious games in class. The perception items were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1(strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).

The questionnaire was administered personally to the participants by the principal researcher. At the outset the purpose of the study was explained to the participants. They were informed that their participation was voluntary and the data collected from the study would be reported in an aggregate format. Anonymity and confidentiality were also assured to all participants.

8. Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS – version 21) was used to analyse the data. The reliability of the questionnaire was ascertained using Cronbach alpha. Frequencies are used to report on the results. Reliability of the
questionnaire was found to be 0.771.

9. Results and Discussion

Of a total of 32 questionnaires which were administered, 22 completed questionnaires (response rate = 69%) were returned.

Table 1 provides the demographic information of the respondents. According to Table 1 the majority of respondents were female (n=13) and were 30 years and older (n=16). Regarding their experience the majority (n=14) had six years and more teaching experience. Besides two responses which reflected ‘other’ as a main interest all respondents’ main interest was in the mathematics (n=5), statistics (n=3) and technology/Computer Science (n=28) field.

Table 1 Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary teaching experience (years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Academic interest (participants could choose one or two options)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data bases Data warehouses</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating systems</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer networks</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programming</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System analysis &amp; design</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision support systems</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human-computer interaction</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 illustrates the participants’ attitudes towards the use of technology in class. For the purpose of discussion of Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4 the scores “strongly agree” and “agree” are combined and “agree” and “strongly agree” are combined.

From Table 2 it is clear that all lecturers are confident with cell phones (100%) and laptops (100%) while only 45% are comfortable with tablets. The majority (73%) are not in favour that students should be issued with cell phones, while with laptops they are fairly neutral. A small majority (55%) are in favour that students should be issued with tablets. In response to use of technology during theoretical tests and examinations, the majority (73%) are against the use of cell phones, while with laptops and tablets they are neutral (50% for and 50% against the use of laptops and 45% for, 45% against; and the rest is undecided regarding the use of tablets). Lecturers’ views change dramatically when asked whether technology can be used during practical tests and examinations. In this case they are neutral (45% for, 36% against; and the rest are undecided) with regard to the use of cell phones, but strongly in favour of the use of laptops (82%) and tablets (64%). Half of the respondents do not mind if a student uses his/her own device (cell phone, laptop or tablet) during practical sessions. Lecturers’ responses are neutral when asked whether it is difficult to control the use of technology in class. The majority (68%) do not think that “serious games” is just a buzz word while 5% think that it is a buzz word (the rest is unsure).
Table 2 Attitudes towards the use of technology in class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with cell phones</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with laptop computers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with tablets</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be issued with cell phones</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be issued with laptops</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be issued with tablets</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use cell phones during</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theoretical tests/theoretical exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use laptops during</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theoretical tests/theoretical exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use tablets during</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theoretical practical tests/practical exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use laptops during</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theoretical tests/practical exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use tablets during</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical tests/practical exams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think students should be allowed to use a device of their own</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choice during practical sessions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is difficult to control the use of cell phones/laptops/tablets</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in class</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Serious games” is just a buzz word.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play serious games.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates how participants see the potential benefits of using technology in class. From Table 3 it is evident that lecturers are aware of serious games and are overwhelmingly positive about the potential benefits of using it in class. 86% indicated that serious games are goal-directed; 86% agree that serious games provide feedback to the player; 77% believe that serious games are conducted within a framework of agreed rules; and 86% agree with the broad definition that a serious game is a game with educational value. A small majority (55%) disagrees that it will be difficult to assess the contribution that serious games make to the learning process but the majority (82%) feels that serious games can enhance learning.

Table 3 Potential benefits of using of technology in class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serious games are goal-directed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious games provide feedback to the player</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious games are conducted within a framework of agreed rules</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It will be difficult to assess the contribution that serious games make to the learning process</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A serious game is a game with educational value</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think serious games can enhance learning</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used serious games in class</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to use serious games in class in future</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good serious game masters the art of creating motivation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good serious game balance game and learning goals with a tight focus on relevant educational content</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students need a classroom experience which is creative and challenging</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students are taught in a context that does not match their interest and experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience in mobile applications and game development is a skill in high demand by industry</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious games will attract students to the school</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious games have the ability to transform education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Despite the potential benefits of serious games in class 82% of the participants indicated that they have not used serious games in class and only a small majority (55%) plan to use it in class in future. Reasons for this might become clear in the discussion of the participants’ intention to use technology in class in the next section. 73% participants are in agreement that a good serious game is motivational and 82% are of the opinion that a good serious game balances game and learning goals with a tight focus on relevant educational content. While 82% of the participants felt that a creative and challenging classroom experience is needed for the students, 59% agree that students are not taught in a context where their interest and experience are taken in account.

The need for mobile application and game development skills by industry is recognised by 68% of the respondents, 77% believe that the use of serious games in class will attract students to school and the majority (77%) indicated that the use of serious games in class have the ability to transform education.

Table 4 illustrates participants’ intention to use technology in class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will welcome serious games in my class if someone else provides them to me</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to be part of a design team that creates serious games</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have time to search for serious games in my field of interest</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have time to write games</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious games will only waste class time</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have time to integrate serious games in my lecture</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students can play serious games at home</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When analyzing participants’ intention to use technology it is evident that there are positive intentions to use serious games in class but it seems that there is uncertainty about the choice of serious games (or a lack of a model or framework to integrate serious games into class) as 77% of the participants indicated that they will use serious games in class if serious games are provided to them. There is a willingness (68%) to be part of a design team that creates serious games but respondents seem undecided about the time needed to search or write serious games. The majority (73%) indicated that using serious games in class will not be a waste of class time and 59% indicated that they will have time to integrate serious games into the class.

Gaming and mobile technology are fast becoming a widespread culture in many learning programmes in higher education institutions (Feller, 2006). The use of mobile technology and serious games, both inside and outside the classroom, provides swift access, processing and understanding of information. Given the positive perceptions of the participants of this study, it is highly likely that technology will be embedded in the most curricula in the near future.

10. Limitation 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 generalizing the perceptions of Computer Science lecturers towards mobile technology and serious games in class to other provinces. Notwithstanding this limitation, this study makes a significant contribution to the knowledge base of the perceptions of Computer Science lecturers towards mobile technology and serious games.

Arising from the results of the study are implications for further research. Extending the study to other universities in other provinces in South Africa and comparing the results may provide a more comprehensive illustration of the perceptions of Computer Science lecturers towards mobile technology and serious games.

11. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the Computer Science lecturers’ perceptions towards mobile technology and serious games in class. The study revealed that Computer Science lecturers have a positive attitude towards the use of technology and serious games in class. The majority indicated that there are potential benefits in using technology in class and participants’ intention to use technology in class is commendable. The results indicate that laptops and tablets are preferred in class as there is a huge negative response with regard to the use of cell phones in class.
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Vehviläinen, B. (2009). Technology as a fence and a bridge. Coalition of Essential Schools. Available at: ~ 511 ~


Abstract

The retention of valuable employees is one of the most critical issues that human resource managers have faced in the past decade. A plausible reason for this is that talented employees who have competencies that are critical for the survival of an organisation are often difficult to attract and retain because they often attach more importance to their own career paths than to organisational loyalty. More often than not this results in voluntary turnover. Organisations are now operating more strategically and realise that survival depends on retaining existing talented people who have the essential knowledge, expertise and competencies to perform the tasks in an organisation. The need to create an attractive work environment to current and future job applicants is also recognised. Therefore, an understanding of the way individuals conduct themselves is much needed. The purpose of this study was to examine staff retention in an information management environment. A quantitative research approach using a questionnaire to collect data from 50 employees working in an information management environment was adopted. The questionnaire was used to measure employee job satisfaction and to identify job satisfaction factors. The findings revealed that communication, good working conditions, job security, opportunities for learning and growth, and recognition were perceived, in this order, as being the most important job satisfaction factors. It was evident that employee expectations for job satisfaction were not met in the areas of recognition and good supervision/leadership. Employee expectations for job satisfaction were only partially met in the areas of communication, opportunities for learning and growth, promotional opportunities and compensation.

Keywords: Retention, motivation, job satisfaction, information management

1. Introduction

Employees constitute the primary resource of any organisation. It is difficult to imagine any organisation prospering and surviving without this vital resource in the current competitive business climate. Hence, globally the retention of valuable employees is one of the most critical issues confronting human resources managers (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008). Competent and talented employees who are critical for the survival of an organisation are difficult to retain because they often attach more importance to their own career path than to organisational loyalty, which, in turn, can result in voluntary turnover (De Vos & Meganck, 2009). Organisational flexibility, accompanied by increasing uncertainty about job security, has made a job for life a thing of the past in many organisations (Arnold & Feldman, 1988) with many being less willing to offer lifelong career progression. Careers have, therefore, become increasingly boundary-less and self-managed owing to an environment that no longer readily offers long-term employment (Van Dam, 2008).

Turnover comes about when there is a permanent withdrawal of an employee from the employing organisation (George & Jones, 2005). Employers and employees experience turnover as a costly process because for the employer there is high replacement and organisational cost, whilst the employees experience monetary and psychological costs (Huang, Lin & Chuang, 2006). High turnover in an organisation has several implications. Among these are increased recruitment, selection and training costs. In addition the efficient running of the organisation is disrupted when
knowledgeable and efficient employees leave the organisation (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2004). Mayfield and Mayfield (2008) found that when considering the price of reassigned work load, lost organisational memory, and successor recruitment and training, the average turnover cost can range beyond 1.5 times an employee’s annual salary. The intangible cost, according to Gostick and Elton (2007), is a decimated workforce which may influence the remaining workers to follow their departing colleagues. Furthermore, it disrupts the normal flow of work which may have serious consequences for productivity in the organisation. It is therefore important that additional human resource expenses be significantly reduced by implementing effective employee retention strategies (Taylor, Murphy & Price, 2006). It must, however, be noted that organisations can also benefit from turnover in certain situations, such as when poor performers leave and good performers stay or when new recruits result in the introduction of new ideas and approaches (George & Jones, 2005). Mobley’s model of the turnover process (George & Jones, 2005) suggests that the turnover process is influenced by a lack of job satisfaction; implying that employees who are satisfied with their jobs may never even think about quitting, while those who are dissatisfied will, as a result of this dissatisfaction, start to think about quitting.

Research has shown that the issue of job satisfaction has been considered as a key precursor of voluntary turnover (Park & Kim, 2009). Job satisfaction is defined by Nelson and Quick (2006) as a pleasurable or positive emotional state that is the result of the appraisal of one’s job or job experience. O’Malley (2000) argues that employees who enjoy their jobs work harder and stay longer with their employers than those who do not. In contrast, if the job satisfaction level is low, employees will develop a behavioural intention to quit (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008). Satisfied workers are likely to want to reciprocate their positive experiences by giving something back to the organisation (Nelson & Quick, 2006). In addition, job satisfaction has the potential to affect a wide range of behaviours in organisations thereby contributing to higher levels of employee well-being (George & Jones, 2005). Glen (2006:37) points out that, factors such as key skills retention, employee engagement and, to a lesser extent, employee motivation and attendance, have a direct impact on organisational costs, productivity and business performance.

Employees who are motivated exert greater effort to perform than those who are not motivated (Fox, 2006). While employees are motivated for their own reasons (Clark, 2009), George and Jones (2005) argue that the strength of employees’ motives, which are directed towards goals (often called incentives), influences their motivation. Employees join organisations so that certain needs of theirs are met. As long as those needs are satisfied in relation to the effort they apply, they will remain effective members of an organisation (Amos, Ristow & Ristow, 2004). It could be therefore be argued that at work employees can often be successfully motivated if they are provided with an environment in which appropriate goals are available for the satisfaction of their needs (Fox, 2006). Even so, consideration must be given to the fact that employees have different needs and it is therefore necessary to spend time with them to understand these needs (Robbins et al., 2004).

2. Problem statement

Managers face two significant ongoing organisational issues, namely eliciting the commitment of employees and staff retention (Chew & Chan, 2008). If employees are committed to an organisation, they are less likely to leave or be absent and may also display other behaviours which are valuable to the organisation (Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008). Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2005) indicate that managers should stop guessing what it is that keeps their ‘stars’ home and happy – they should not assume that all employees desire the same thing, such as, for example pay or promotion. It is therefore important that in a highly competitive environment managers are aware of what it is that attracts employees to the organisation and what is needed to retain them.

Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2005) believe that given the fact that outstanding employees are an organisation’s most critical asset which gives an organisation a competitive advantage, organisations face a huge challenge to establish a reservoir of talent needed to help an organisation achieve its objectives. The organisation’s ability to attract and retain the best people will determine the depth, breadth and quality of this reservoir of talent (O’Malley, 2000).

It is evident that a crucial factor in the survival and success of any organisation is the retention of those talented employees who have the requisite knowledge, expertise and competencies. In order to manage retention, human resources managers need to understand why people behave as they do. Fox (2006) suggests that this includes not only the ability to understand and predict behaviour but also the ability to control, direct and change behaviour. It is therefore necessary to understand what encourages people to put in the required and sometimes added effort to complete their tasks effectively. Furthermore, in order to retain such employees as a knowledge source, it is imperative to know what factors motivate them.
3. **Purpose of study**

This study focuses on staff retention in an information management department in a petrochemical organisation.

4. **Methodology**

A quantitative research strategy was followed. The purpose of quantitative research may also be described as the evaluation of objective data that consists of numbers, where the aim is not to deal directly with everyday life but rather with an abstraction of reality (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:8).

4.1 **Sample**

The target population for this research study involved individuals working in the information management department of an organisation in South Africa. Information management relates to management activities concerning information which includes the creation, capture, deployment, use, sharing, development and evaluation of information. This comprises several activities such as information security, backup and recovery, data quality and sharing. More organisations are thinking and operating strategically and their very survival depends on information. In order to compete and survive in the current marketplace, most organisations recognise that information and the systems supporting that information are important business assets for establishing and leveraging information-based resources and competence.

This information management (IM) environment consists of two subdivisions, namely information management - business partnering and unique applications and information management - electronics and communication. This structure is illustrated in Figure 1.

![Information management structure](image)

*Figure 1: Information management structure*

From the illustration in Figure 1 it can be seen that the subdivisions report to a central information manager. It must be noted that for this study the population included employees as well as managers. The population for this study consisted of 50 employees; therefore, the entire population formed part of the sample. The sample size was thus set at n = 50. As the entire population formed part of the sample, this study constituted a census (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:217).

4.2 **Procedures**

Data was collected by means of a survey, using a questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, the relevant questionnaire was distributed to all persons employed at the information management department. The most important purpose of the questionnaire was to test the information gathered from the literature study, as well as to investigate the perceptions that employees might have of employee job satisfaction levels within the information management department. The questionnaires were distributed to 50 individuals, of which 41 completed questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 82 percent.

4.3 **Ethical issues**

Permission to carry out the research project was gained from the organisation. A letter accompanied the questionnaire, with the aim of informing the respondents about the purpose of this study and to provide them with the assurance that all
information obtained through the questionnaire would be treated as confidential and that the results would only be used for research purposes.

4.4 **Measuring instrument**

The questionnaire consisted of three sections: Section A - Personal and biographical information; Section B - Job satisfaction scale; and Section C - Job satisfaction factors.

Section A, the personal and biographical information section, covered the more general questions of the study. It consisted of questions regarding gender, age, department (ICT or IM), pipeline layer (managing others or not), years in current position and years with the organisation.

Section B, the job satisfaction scale, consisted of 26 statements relating to the job satisfaction factors that were identified through the literature study. The aim of these questions were to evaluate how employees perceive their level of job satisfaction in the following areas: working conditions, stimulating tasks, responsibility and accountability for results, opportunities for learning and growth, promotional opportunities, compensation/pay, recognition, co-workers, communication, supervision/leadership and job security.

The purpose of Section C of the questionnaire was to establish the importance of each of the job satisfaction factors, which were identified during the literature study.

Clear instructions were provided to the respondents on how to complete each section of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted only of closed-ended questions. In Section A, the respondents were provided with corresponding multi-choice answers to each question from which they only had to select their appropriate option. Sections B and C of the questionnaire comprised statements anchored on a five-point Likert-type scale. The five-point scale allowed for a possibility of a neutral answer. In Section B, ‘1’ was associated with being rated as ‘Strongly Disagree’ and ‘5’ as being ‘Strongly Agree’. These ratings continued into Section C, the only change being that on the scale of ‘1’ to ‘5’ the ‘1’ represents ‘Not Important’ and ‘5’ ‘Very Important’.

4.5 **Data analyses**

Data were analysed using descriptive statistics. Tabulation was used to make comparisons in the demographics of the data and was also used as a basis for presenting the data graphically. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS - Version18 for Windows) was used to analyse the data. Descriptives and frequencies were used to report on the data.

5. **Results and Discussion**

The study population for this research comprised 50 individuals. The participants included employees in different sub-departments of the information management department, as well as managers. Of the questionnaires which were administered forty one completed questionnaires (n=41; 82%) were received.
5.1 Demographics

The demographic information of the participants is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>69.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of employees</td>
<td>18 – 30 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 – 40 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41 – 50 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Older than 50 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT department</td>
<td>Information Management</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Electronics and communication</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pipeline layer</td>
<td>Managing self</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>77.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing others</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years employed in current position</td>
<td>1 – 3 years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 – 7 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 – 11 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 – 15 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years employed within the organisation</td>
<td>1 – 3 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 – 7 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 – 11 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 – 15 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the respondents were male (69.2%). Most of the respondents (48.70%) were between 31 and 40 years of age, followed by the 41 to 50 year age group, which accounted for 20.5 percent of the respondents. The majority of the respondents worked in the information management department (55.30%). The results shows that 22.5 percent of the employees have people reporting to them, which indicate that they are involved in management. From the responses it can be seen that the majority of employees (43.6%) were employed in their current position for between four and seven years. The majority of employees had been with the organisation for between 12–15 years (28.2%) and more than 15 years (28.2%). This is followed by a group of 20.5 percent that had been with the organisation for between four and seven years.

5.2 Perceptions of job satisfaction

Employees’ perceptions of job satisfaction was evaluated in the following areas: working conditions, stimulating tasks, responsibility and accountability for results, opportunities for learning and growth, promotional opportunities, compensation/pay, recognition, co-workers, communication, supervision/leadership and job security.

5.2.1 Working conditions

As shown in Figure 2, it can be observed that the majority of employees indicated that they were satisfied with their working conditions with the majority of the responses falling in the “agreed” and “strongly agreed” categories. This indicates that employees are happy to work at their organisation and are satisfied with their working conditions.
5.2.2 Stimulating tasks

In order to evaluate employees’ perception of stimulating tasks as a job satisfaction factor, the following statements were provided. The first statement was: “I get the feeling of achievement from doing my job”. The majority of employees agreed (56.10%) and strongly agreed (12.20%) with this statement. “My job is personally satisfying” was the second statement in this set. The responses to this statement were also positive, with 51 percent of the employees who agreed and 17.10 percent who strongly agreed with this statement. The last statement in this set - “My job is challenging” - also received fairly positive feedback, with 51.20 percent of the employees indicating that they agreed and 19.50 percent indicating that they strongly agreed. However, it must be noted that 14.6 percent of the employees did not agree with this statement. Figure 3 reflects the responses to the questions relating to stimulating tasks.

5.2.3 Responsibility and accountability for results

In Figure 4 satisfaction with responsibility and accountability was evaluated. From the results, it is evident that most of the respondents indicated that they felt that they do have the opportunity to work independently. Although the majority also indicated that they felt that their work is clearly defined, 12.2 percent disagreed with this statement. The disagreement to this statement may be because some of the jobs are very closely related and are also, to a large degree, very dependent on each other. This might imply that some jobs overlap in certain areas, resulting in the perception that the work is not clearly defined.
5.2.4 Opportunities for learning and growth

Employees' level of satisfaction (Figure 5) regarding their opportunities for learning and growth, were evaluated using two statements. The first statement related to the opportunity to gain personal growth and development from doing their job, while the second statement relates to the opportunity for further training and studies. Most of the respondents (agreed = 48%; strongly agreed = 12%) indicated that they felt that they had the opportunity for further training and studies. The responses to the statement regarding the opportunity to gain personal growth and development from doing their job indicated that the respondents were less satisfied 17.1 percent of the respondents having indicated that they disagreed with the statement. This may be because some of the jobs contain very ‘routine’ work that does not allow many opportunities for new learning experiences.

5.2.5 Promotion opportunities

The respondents' level of satisfaction regarding promotion opportunities is illustrated in Figure 6. Although more than 50 percent agreed and strongly agreed that they were able to advance in their current jobs, 9.80 percent strongly disagreed and 14.60 percent disagreed with this statement. A possible reason for this is that only a certain amount of positions on certain levels are available. These positions only become available once the current incumbent leaves that position.
5.2.6 Compensation/pay

It is evident from Figure 7 that more than half (56.1%) of the respondents, felt that they were fairly paid for the work that they were doing. However, less than 50 percent of the respondents felt that they were rewarded when certain milestones are achieved.

5.2.7 Recognition

As is apparent from Figure 8, the ‘undecided’ group of responses regarding recognition is large. Thirty nine percent of respondents agreed and 7.3 percent strongly agreed that informal praise was given frequently. The responses also indicate that 41.5 percent of the respondents agreed and 9.8 percent strongly agreed that they received recognition for their work. However, Figure 8 also illustrates that a significant amount of the respondents (29.30%) felt that informal praise was not given frequently and 19.50 percent of the respondents stated that they did not get recognition for their work.
5.2.8 Co-workers

More than 85 percent (Figure 9) of the respondents experienced their colleagues as being supportive. This indicates a high level of satisfaction with their co-workers.

5.2.9 Communication

In order to evaluate how communication is perceived as a job satisfaction factor by the respondents, respondents were requested to evaluate four statements. The results are illustrated in Figure 10. It is evident that the respondents felt that their colleagues and managers were willing to share information. It is also evident that employee feedback is encouraged. An area of concern, however, is that less than 50 percent of the respondents perceived that the level of communication is effective.
5.2.10 Supervision/leadership

In order to assess how employees perceived supervision and leadership as a job satisfaction factor, they were requested to respond to three statements. The first statement related to the respondents’ satisfaction with the leadership style in the organisation. Less than 45 percent of the respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the leadership style. The second statement asked the respondents to indicate if they received the necessary support from their managers. More than 50 percent of the respondents agreed with this statement, with 36.60 percent being undecided. The final statement related to whether their manager involved them in important decisions. Although approximately 50 percent of the respondents replied positively to this statement, 9.80 percent strongly disagreed and 14.60 percent disagreed with this statement. The results of supervision and leadership are illustrated in Figure 11.

5.2.11 Job security

Figure 12 illustrates the respondents’ perception of job security. Of the respondents, 36.6 percent disagreed and 7.3 percent strongly disagreed with the statement that they feel uncertain about the future of their jobs. More than 45 percent of the respondents also indicated that they did not fear that they might lose their jobs. Although a large number of the respondents appeared to feel certain about the future of their jobs and feel that they might be able to remain working
within the department, there were a number of respondents that felt uncertain about the future. Of the respondents, 22 percent agreed and 12.20 percent strongly agreed that they felt uncertain about the future of their jobs. This uncertainty was also observed through the 14.60 percent of respondents who agreed and 9.80 percent who strongly agreed that they feared that they might lose their job. One reason for this uncertainty could be the fact that the organisation was at the time of the study considering centralising all the services, including those in the IM environment. A second reason could be the worldwide economic downfall being experienced, which had a large impact on the chemical industry in South Africa.

5.3 Job Satisfaction Factors

The importance of the job satisfaction factors which were identified through the literature study were established. In order to display the results, the findings are grouped into two sets of figures, each containing three figures. The first set illustrates the job satisfaction factors that were identified as ‘very important’ to the respondents, while the ‘important’ job satisfaction factors are illustrated by the second set.

The five most important job satisfaction factors for the total ICT department, in order of importance, were communication, good working conditions, job security, opportunities for learning and growth, and recognition.

The most important job satisfaction factors according to each department (IM and EC) are illustrated in Figure 13 and Figure 14, respectively. According to Figure 4.19, the most important job satisfaction factors for the IM department were communication, opportunities for learning and growth, stimulating tasks, good working conditions, promotional
opportunities and recognition.

The most important job satisfaction factors (Figure 15) for the EC department were communication, good working conditions, job security, good supervision/leadership, recognition and compensation/pay. It is evident that communication is seen as the most important job satisfaction factor by both departments.

The following set of figures illustrates what job satisfying factors were important to the respondents. Figure 16 shows the important job satisfying factors for the total ICT department. Co-workers (that is technical, emotional and social support) is seen as the most important job satisfaction factor as per the total ICT department. This is followed by stimulating tasks, compensation/pay, promotional opportunities and responsibility and accountability for results.
The classification of the most important job satisfaction factors per ICT department was as follows:

**Information management:** compensation/pay, stimulating tasks, promotional opportunities, responsibility and accountability for results, and co-workers.

**Electronics and communication:** stimulating tasks, co-workers, responsibility and accountability for results, and promotional opportunities.

On the whole, it is apparent from the results that both the sub-departments experienced similar job satisfaction factors as important. The important job satisfaction factors per sub-department are illustrated in Figures 17 and 18, respectively.

6. **Conclusion**

In today’s competitive business world organisations are exposed to a number of challenges. One of the most significant issues organisations are facing is the retention of talented employees. It is apparent that job satisfaction, motivation and the creation of an attractive working environment plays an important role in employee retention. It is therefore essential for organisations to understand what influences a person’s choice to stay in a position or to move on. From the research it is evident that motivation, staff retention and job satisfaction do not exist in isolation but are closely related. Employees are not motivated by a single motivational factor and are not satisfied with their jobs simply by experiencing satisfaction with only one aspect of their job. Rather, job satisfaction and motivation is the result of a combination of several different elements. The findings of this research may improve organisations’ awareness of the facilitation of work environments with regards to motivation, job satisfaction and staff retention. The challenge is to find the optimum combination of these elements in order to ensure satisfied employees. Having achieved this, organisations will be able to retain their most valued employees.
References


Social Status of Internal Migrant Women in Durres, Albania

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Abstract

Nowadays internal migration is a well-known phenomenon not only for the impact the migrants have on the new community but also for the difficulties internal migrants face to adapt to their new location. The migratory movement does not only mean a physical movement to the city but a change in the way of living resulting in a value system change which is not immediate. Migration is a process where the opportunities and results are different for men and women; that is why we ask the following question: how does the internal migration affect the life and the social status of women? The focus of this article is the perception of migrants on the social status of the migrant women and the influence of their employment on that perception. Albania is developing dynamically as expressed in the social roles of women, gender aspects and in other areas. Gender relations are a focus of strategies which aim to establish gender equality in public life, equal position between men and women, and equal opportunities in all areas of social life. A challenge of Albanian society is women’s status in it because of the already evident and sometimes legitimized inferior position they hold. The mentality and labor gender division affect the social roles of migrant women. This article seeks to understand the social status of migrant women and the impact of the internal migration on such status by analyzing different variables such as employment, education, social expectation, social roles etc.

Keywords: internal migration, gender, social status, mentality, education.

1. Introduction

Migration is defined as "a historical forces that has shaped the world", or as "an integral part of human behavior, referring to the fact that we are dealing with a natural phenomenon, as old as human history itself (E Drejta Migratore, 2009). After years'90 Albanian society was characterized by interior and exterior migratory as a result of the collapse of the communist regime and freedom of the individual to choose the proper profession, place of work and residence (Fuga, 2000). Literally, Albania is a country on the move. Its internal and external migration in the past 15 years, has been massive in rate as well as for its impact. About 20 percent of adults were displaced and one in three households has a migrant abroad (Raport, 2007). This population shift, was voluntary and free, but was not accomplished in an organized manner which have caused negative impacts in their personal life and beyond. Although these population movements were spontaneous and chaotic processes, it viewed as positive, because mainly people have the desire and the human right to a better life, moving towards more developed areas (Shtëpani, 2007). Asside from the triumph of the human right to choose his surroundings, newcomers have had a positive impact on the urban economic development, building materials and service industries. Internal migration from rural to urban areas and especially Tirana-Durres brought urban population growth from 35.5% in 1991 to 42% in 2001. The concentration in urban areas can be very large, if taken into account newcomers settlements on the outskirts of cities, which are considered administratively rural (Strategjia Ndërsektoriale e Perfshirjes Sociale 2007-2013, 2007).

During this exodus, Albanian society was facing a series of problems and phenomena such as urbanization, unemployment, gender equality etc. The dynamics of migration make necessary the increase of investments with demographic character which is also accompanied with increasing of the unemployment and the informal market (INSTAT, 2001). These problems are still present today, despite various interventions aimed at minimizing these negative consequences. This shift is associated with way of thinking, prejudice and "old" lifestyles which affect the position and role of woman in family and society. Faced with such a situation, recognition of women's social status and the impact of migration on changing this status is an important issue.

The definitions for social status are varied but this study will be realize in the framework of the status as a social role. Study of social status is sociologically important because it refers to a straight set rights, obligations, behaviors and tasks that people depending on a certain position, or encouraged or tend to realize. These expectations belongs to social roles. Social status of women according to the authors is identified with employment therefore one of the indicators analyzed is employment, although the focus is in internal migration and the impact that it has on the social status of migrant women.
This study includes two key spheres: gender and migration, which are currently relevant and very valuable topics for Albanian society. The focus of this study is to combine and analyze two important features of the process of transformation of Albania-flow of internal migration and changes in the status of women in society. In an effort to analyze the existing situation, in this study will try to answer questions such as: What are the reasons that encourage internal migration? Which are the factors that affect woman's social status? What is the crucial role of the internal migration in the status of migrant women, how it affects: in the improvement or deterioration?

2. The Definition of Social Status and Influencing Factors

Different authors have determined different definitions about social status. According to Weber status it is related to differences between social groups by social titles and Honor granted by others. (Giddens, 2004). Weber emphasizes the differences that exist between social class which is given in an objective way and status which depends on subjective evaluation made to social differences. In its analysis, the class derives from economic factors while the status is determined by the different ways of life that own members or groups of society.

In further analysis of literature A. Hollinshead defines social status as a multidimensional concept, setting several factors which determine social status. The author emphasizes that the determination of social status continues to be problematic in sociology and sociologists have debated for a long period how can be determined the position of the individual in a society. So according to this view, the status is defined as the position that an individual has in a specific society. He conducted a series of studies to identify the social status in the western communities. Hollinshead create a new index which can be used to determine the status of individuals. The new index takes in consideration the fact that social status is a multidimensional concept (Hollinshead, 1975). In this logic, he notes that there are three main assumptions: the first is related to the fact that in society there are unequal status structure, the second one is that the main factors determining social status are employment, personal commitment, education, as well as sex and marriage status. Third, these factors can combine with each other, so the researcher can evaluate individual status of an individual in society.

Knoke David and Marcus Felson have done an analysis of the social status of married women. According to these theorists, in this case, it becomes possible the influence from both partners in status model, giving up the model which describes the woman with no or less influential in the status of their spouses. If both spouses influence achieving of each status this would mean a model for sharing of the status which includes some levels of reciprocity (Felson & Knoke, 1974).

3. Methodology

The main method used for data collection in this study is survey. The instrument used is questionnaire. Also it has been used the existing literature regarding the topic of study, whose browsing informs, guides and encourages further research scholar or certain aspects of a social phenomenon.

The survey is taken place in the city of Durres, in the neighborhood 15 (Spitallë). This neighborhood is known for the large number of internal migrants, so the study was realized over there. For the realization of this study were surveyed 400 individuals therefore total 400 questionnaires were completed. The number of respondents was 132 males and 268 female. The questionnaires were filled out in the field and the sample was selected in a completely random way. Also respondents are pertinent to different civil status, different education, employed or not (and in different sectors) in order to be more diverse such the responses and to enrich as much as possible the real situation of women in this area.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 Evidence of the phenomenon of internal migration

This study concludes that internal migration is such a phenomenon which in these recent years has had lower rates. The survey data refer to a mass migration of at least 10 years ago, while during the ongoing migration shows up as a sporadic phenomenon. The major part of the residents moved nearer to Spitalla’s area are transferred from the district of Dibra, showing that northern areas tend to move towards regions where there is more investment and employment opportunities. This district represents the area which has generated the more such an internal migration in Spitalla’s neighborhood.

Economic disparities between districts give a further boost to the internal migration; the majority of respondents
have determined that the reason which has prompted their displacement is opportunity to employ them in the country migrated. With the hope of finding a job, individuals from different areas of Albania are displaced in Spitalla's one hoping so in a labor market more accessible by them. The migrants represent just willingness and individual freedom and a process as well which in its essence intent the change, hence the improvement the socio-economic situation.

4.2 Social status of migrant women

Education is considered as the main influential factor in a woman's social status. This prevailing perception aside from the fact related to the education which is one of the values that has traditionally been evaluated by the Albanian society, it is also explained by the assessment of formal education as derivative of other elements. An educated woman is supposed to own other qualities that derive from education: such as being more capable in the family, it becomes easier to get a job for herself, she has better educational and communication skills as well. Education besides the fact reflects all the knowledge an individual has accumulated, constitutes an element whereby women get respect in the social system. Formal education is a factor whereby the woman increases the impact on family and decision and gains social estimate.

Internal migration seems to have had positive effects on women's social position. This kind of social status improvement is mainly related to the employment and lifestyle, thus displacement within the country has resulted in the reduction of hard works such as working the land, care of livestock, etc. This has facilitated the lives of women and improvement of their way of living.

Integration of women of Spitalla’s neighborhood in the community is classified as low-scale integration. This situation results as a combination of three main factors. Change of political systems in Albania, whereby it was abandoned any form of a common activity, making democracy look, not as citizens undertaking with common goals, but as a closed society, where everyone tries to solve their own problems, where an individual closes himself into the shell of his proper private life. Mentality direct women towards social roles which translates it to home care and upbringing of children, and of course, this social role requires time and energy by limiting so the integration of women in the community. Prejudices constitute such a third reason which it adversely affects the community integration of a woman. Prejudices between newcomers and natives lead to a lack of cooperation and understanding in the community. The combination of these reasons consequently influence of the low level of women’s integration into the community of this area.

Internal migration is realized under the influence of such factors of socio-economic nature. Relocation involves adapting to lifestyles and life organization in town, the new community. Faced with this situation, internal migration is associated with a number of problems and uncertainties which affect the welfare of the displaced family. One of them is the employment of migrants, which directly affects the existence and functioning of the family. Employment is a keystone in the psycho-cultural constitution of the people and in their overall activity cycle. Despite the perception that emphasizes the employment such a very important element in the life of a migrant woman, it is conditioned by objective and subjective factors. Employment is an expression of the individual will but the existence of a number of other cultural factors condition the employment of migrant women.

Unemployment in Spitalla is primarily a female phenomenon, the lack of education and vocational training influence and hinders the participation of migrant women in the labor market. Poverty, mentality, the lack of education schools reduce the possibility of education of girls and women, this lack of investment in education is transmitted further in their lives becoming much more difficult the employment, self-realization and their emancipation.

Employment fulfills so many functions which have a positive impact on the life of a woman, whereas the lack of employment is one of the main factors that adversely affects her status, her personality in the family and society. Employment is defined as the activity which improves household economic conditions, other aspects such as the creation of social connections and recreation, social assessment, participation in training and conferences and the empowerment of social role still remain secondary issues in Albanian society. The employed woman becomes potentially as a contributor to the family, but what is disturbing is the fact that this contribution of woman in the family does not affect the strengthening of her social role for the improvement of social status. Despite identifying as a crucial element in a woman's life, the employment does not constitute a basic factor in strengthening of the social status of a woman. The way of perceiving by the respondents is conditioned by the education and social mindsets which continue to emphasize gender roles. In this way the employment is defined as a means to supplement the family income rather than empowering the social role of women. Shaping of individuals with such ideas that emphasize the role of men in families and undermine the position, the role of women in family obviously affects the importance and the impact that the employment has in the woman's life. Albanian mentality burdens on women who belittles and oppresses, minimizing so the possibility of self-realization. In this social atmosphere, the perception of women's employment is associated with such dose of pessimism because their income is often considered secondary one without a major impact on the family. The improving of social
status depends on mainly on self-awareness of women onto the social role that have in their families and society, further it is influenced by the awareness of all other social actors.

It is the youngest age group that one who evaluate the social empowerment of a woman, besides the fact they are more sensitive to social status, they however constitute the most emancipated and framed with the basic principles of a society that promotes gender equality and social assessment of women. It is understandable that most educated respondents have determined the social empowerment of women; the education influences their perceptions of social status and social assessment of a woman. Educated individuals are generally the most emancipated society which "fights" patriarchal elements of the proper society.

Facilities in employment make up such alternative through which they could improve the social status of a woman. Leaving aside any idealism, individuals focus on the more practical element and the direct impact on family life such as employment.

Albanian society is characterized by high doses of nepotism; it prevents the employment of individuals not being given to them the opportunity of a fresh equal initiation. This situation becomes more difficult for internal migrants who have not consolidated their social connections yet, which often function as "employment agencies" whereby there is the possibility to be informed about new workplaces. This selected option is directly related to employment, but after that, it is "camouflaged" the assessment of income statement because despite all this, the males continues to be superior in family life, economic and social one. The only change result in employment outside the home brings economic income, in analogy with the unpaid works that are still determined worthless and feminine domain. The income does not strongly affect the social status of a woman, it is just the masculine mentality that identifies the wife as a second sex cause of it subjugations her to the man, all this explains the unfavorable position in which migrant women are currently situated.

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Freedom of Religion and Social Conflict

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Abstract

Today, more and more human rights and fundamental freedoms constitute the essence of human existence and peace through the world. Fundamental human rights are based in each religious tolerance, but unfortunately we must also consider some evident developments in the practice of human rights that do not support the same idea, tolerance. The expression of religious belief in some situations degrades towards terrorism as an extreme expression of religious faith. So a social conflict comes as the result of wrong prosecution of religious ideologies. Therefore it is very important that religious freedom to demand the implementation should be done through peaceful means respecting the laws, ethical norms and norms of religious tolerance, not with extreme expressions of religious faith causing chaos in the modern world. Faith can affect the individual, group, society or even the nation itself, playing an essential role within society or peripheral depending on this scale. So fundamental human rights specifically are very important and form the basis for the consolidation of the rule of law.

Keywords: religion, humans, freedom, social, conflict,

Conflicts between different civilizations have always been a popular topic over the history of the world. As it is seen often religion can cause social conflicts. The importance of religion is expressed on the unity of a social group that it has, and is noticed when we have clashes with another different group. The 20th century is known as nations birth. As we know religion teaches the basics of faith and the manner of implementation by regulating human relations to his Creator, with himself and his family as well as with the society in general. While the nation is a stable community of people, formed historically on the basis of language, territory, economic life and psychological same formation, which today has a synonymous word ethnicity. Every nation has its religion. We can say that religious communities represent a crucial element in the character of each nation. Religion is an important factor of social integration. Symbols of religion represent the unity of a social group, and religious rituals approve that unity, allowing the person symbolically participate in the wider unity that they represent. Religion feeds its members with values and norms also with morality. So religion is a set of beliefs and rituals that are intertwined with the past, present and future of a nation. Civil religion is the expression of a nation's cohesion. We can say that religion encourages individuals to have at first the interest of group before it's individual. So we can say that civil religion is similar to nationalism, which is reflected by identifying powerful nation when the national interest rises. While building a state on the basis of a nation means that instead, it is developed a sense of solidarity and identity as people of a nation. Political transformation of these states, in nations happened not automatically but depending on several factors including cultural religion. Religion is an important element of this process, providing national vision, making people of different tribal, regional, ethnic and religious meet in a central and unifying cultural experience. Nowadays contacts between peoples of different cultures are increasing, constituting a vital enrichment, but can also create difficult situations in which the choice between personal and cultural relativism claim inalienable values dramatically. However, if fighting energy if we can define so, released by the clash between two different civilizations runs and channeled in the right direction the contact between two different cultures can be turned into a golden opportunity to open the way to a constructive reflection. So the people has the opportunity to examine their own cultural in light of another culture, different from their own, if it happens and succeed then conflict will not only be avoided, but there will be one more chance to expand the horizon of intellectual culture further. In fact this would be the ideal, but is it possible today to have an independent religious policy, independent from the social conflict? The problem arises precisely when each party believes that coexistence between them is impossible and so the clash is inevitable. As long as the three great Abrahamic faiths will not be able to unify the religious life, conflicts between civilizations will be inevitable. We know that in today's world there are too many groups or sects which are built on the basis of various faiths, who are often subject to extreme social conflict. Religion has historically intertwined with conflicts at different levels. The main conflict is

1 Margins, 2001, p18
that between different religious groups especially when they are related with policy. So today, in modern nations the
conflict between religious groups is more delicate because it is being combined with other elements such as class, racial
or ethnic which brings an open conflict. Another form of conflict can be displayed inside the religious group. This form of
conflict may arise as the result of the contradictions that occur within religious groups split off from the trunk becoming a
source of conflict. Today there is also an apparent conflict within religious groups, which is associated with the right
attitude to moral norms on issues such as abortion or sexuality, also related issues whether sacred text should be taken
as literally true or should be construed. Today we also overs face with certain societies which have as their goal to
remove religion from social life, by interfering in its essence, which means making ambiguous religion abstract population,
and on the other hand aims at the destruction of religion and conscience. Implementation of this practice, so-called
secularism incompatible today with the content of democracy and freedom. Religious divisions, can create not only social
concerns but also cause weakness in social composition. So in a country where the population has not yet created the
exact identity about religion being is uncertainty between the spiritual and moral life. A fundamental problem that occurs
more often is the tendency to compare the ideals of a faith practic with another religion, for the main reason to ignoring
exact identity about religion being is uncertainty between the spiritual and moral life. A fundamental problem that occurs
more often is the tendency to compare the ideals of a faith practic with another religion, for the main reason to ignoring
the other. Something like this undermines the understanding of religion. We can say that religion is a fundamental right
which man must feel himself in his conscience and when it is affected by not recognizing it as a unifying factor, this fact
not only disrespect the fundamental principles of human rights and freedoms, but also brings the destruction of the peace
and social structure. Dialogue between civilizations has become today the puzzle in the global discourse. Today the
disappearance of traditional stereotypes has emerged a new scheme of confrontation, giving religious dimensions serious
acts of violence and turning into a real conflict. More and more today all areas of human being being oppression by
society going troubled by pushing it towards division implying the destruction of the national composition of the society.
This is actually a wrong path, that noone should not do it in the name of any particular ideology that inspire religious
disruption. Even today in the XXI century continue their existence certain powers which are religious and agains
humanity. These structures once again strengthened and weakened by creating chaos in modern society which has the
priority to respect the human rights and fundamental freedoms. We can mention horrific terrorist attacks against the
World Trade Center. Specifically attacks in New York on 11 September 2001 in fact were attributed to the Islamic religion,
but that is not true. True believers of whatever religion will either wish for peace, goodness and prosperity, so that should
not fall prey to provocations of anti-religious terrorist gangs. Respect for diversity is related to an universal right. An
excellent example of cooperation by religion has been the Cordoba mosque Fridays which was used for prayer by
Muslims on Fridays, Saturdays uses Jewish communities and Sundays performed their religious rites Christians. So here
it is a truly open society created by the sense of community despite the belief that people could. We can say that
secularism or separation of the religion from the state is undoubtedly one of the greatest victories in human history and
one of the most important achievements that civilization has produced. So that gives the individues the opportunity to
change the conviction to live together in peace enjoying the same rights and the same obligations and this should be
protected. It must be said that religion and democracy have in common the concept of recognizing and respecting the
other. Today Europe, or the project of European integration and the creation of European space has many dimensions. It
is Europe of diversity but also the dialogue of tolerance is exactly in intercultural and in inter-religious dimension. which
plays an important role. So religion is a salient factor that separates people from each other. We can say that today's
conflicts are not religious wars or conflicts. but unfortunately they use religious justifications. However it should be noted
that religion itself is not cause for conflict, but can be used as a factor and as a symbol in the conflict. We are realistic that
today religious differences often lead to conflict. The world has so much bigotry and intolerance that a small spark could
lead to war when the social, economic, military are not on track. To avoid that policy development and human rights must
go together. The role of religion for the maintenance peace and strengthen policy dialogue can not be confined to the
level of international geopolitics. Another important aspect of the problem related to the influence of religion in the
relationship between groups which belong to a different religious multifunctiona societies. Even in this respect, today's
world is like a contradictory historical reality. For by its nature, religion tends towards establishing understanding between
individuals in society towards people on establishing the tolerance between different religious beliefs, to on establishing
the tolerance among people of different religious beliefs, to strengthen relations and understanding solidarity between
different social groups. In some regions of the world, seems a phenomenon that is worrying, which appears as a
reduction of the social role of religion and spiritual dimensions and expansion of fundamentalist competition. Did not last

2 Stone, 2007, p 326
3 Jahanbeglo, clash of intolerance, Albanian Media Institute, pg 14
4 Jelloun, clash of ignorance, AMI, pg 25
5 Kokona, 2003, p 102
very long when finished an old division of the world, ideologically bipolar, between capitalist and communist society, who brought so much humanity and apocalyptic disaster on the horizon, now is emerging a new division, instead of showing the ideological character of religious nature. Place need half a century of division, conflict between the West and East Islam, who should replace Fifty conflict between the West and the communist East, to ensure the integrity ideological militant, the voice seems to be a new division that appears. Religions at their core preach peace but as we know they are often exploited to cause wars. Religious extremism and radicalism is the result of the conflict. Those who caused the Balkan wars in 90 years also encouraged religious extremism which was associated with wars. Peace faded religious clashes. Minret crosses will be more ethnic symbols but will return to religious symbols. In this respect we can say that the wars of religion are enemies since they use the slice. Most of the nations in the region have competed and claimed a territory and claiming a mixed and këtuqëndron main cause of conflicts with permanent stage. Thus movements and conflicts in the region are inspired and caused by ethno-nationalism that deviates from the concept of ethno-territorial. But we must say that the particular role of different cultures and religions to strengthen dialogue and cooperation between individuals and nations in our region gets an even greater importance in today's context. Today, terrorism is presented in the global world in many cases connected to extremism. This comes as the result of wrong interpretation of religion, justifying terrorism by faith in religion. Interfaith dialogue and intercultural society requires commitment, civil, religious leaders, intellectuals and the respective governments in a highly labor, to stop destructive and destabilizing influence of the extremities in the modern world many common goals and high ideals can not be achieved through assimilation but through integration, not through violence but through dialogue. For this reason dialogue remains the only way forward humanity, which wants to build a better future. Cooperation between religious communities is an important element that can serve as a tool to prevent possible conflicts in the world, being guided by tolerance and respect for the others religious beliefs, also government should always protect the right to freedom of religion as a fundamental right. In principal we all ought to respect and to tolerate diversity respectin also the Article 18 of universal declaration of human rights and the Article 9 and 14 of European Convention of Human Rights.

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Main Health Disorders and the Socioeconomic Costs for Drugs Used and Reimbursed for the Patients during the Period 2008-2012

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Abstract

The mental health disorders affect people of all ages in all countries and causing pain to families and society, as well as to individuals. The mental, physical and social aspects of people are deeply related to many socio-economic factors of country’s development. The society has become more conscious that the health insurance scheme is crucial for welfare of all people, society and countries. The number of patients that suffer different diseases is increasing with population aging and deterioration of social and economic problems. Different health disorders cause disabilities in work performance. The aim of this study is to describe the socioeconomic effects of reimbursement scheme of drugs in Shkodra city. This paper is a depiction of economic costs for drugs used and reimbursed for the patients during the period 2008-2012. In this study we have described all hospitalized cases at the Regional Hospital of Shkodra and all cases treated by the family doctors in Shkodra city.

Keywords: mental disorders, drugs, reimbursement scheme, health care, PHI – Public health institution, etc.

1. Methodology

The elaboration of data was made by Microsoft excel 2007. During this paper we have used primary and secondary data. Secondary data were collected from different bulletins, and magazines in Albania. The primary data were collected from the main database of drug reimbursement scheme in Shkodra office directory. The collection of primary data was made through direct interviews – and personal meeting with employees of the reimbursement of drug directory – Shkodra branch.

2. Research question

Did the improvement of the drugs list reimbursement from year to year improved the health of inhabitants in Shkodra?

3. Organization of Health Care System in Albania

Health care system in Albania is mainly public. The state insures the main part of the services that is offered to the population, for the promotion, prevention, diagnostic and salvation of different illnesses. Private sector is still at his first steps, and it covers mainly the pharmacy sector. In public sector the leader role is played mainly from the health ministry of Albania, that is the main institution that creates the politics and strategies for health system, for its regulation and coordination of the role of all actors, within and outside this system.

Diagnostic and curative health service is organized on three levels: primary service, secondary hospital service, and tertiary hospital service.

Public health services and promotion offered under the primary health care and supervised and supported by public health institution (PHI).

Excluding the capital city – Tirana, in other cities in Albania the Public Health Institution is organized in Public Health
care directories – that has the main duty to reconcile all the health services of the city.

4. The Public Health Care Institution

Health care insurance in Albanian republic, is obliged by the law of social insurance care in the Albanian republic No. 7870, date 13.10.1994. Its Bismarkian type system. Its was first implementd on 1 March 1995 as the main mechanism in health insurance system reforming. The reforms to this system include the way this system is financed by increasing the main sources to this system, and towards improvement of the service qualities. Institucione nationale

The public health institution – is under tuition of the health ministry. Its duties include studing and controlling the risk factors, surveying the contagious diseases, laboratory references and managing vaccination of population programs.

5. National Center of Drug Control

This center is the responsible institute for controlling of each operation in pharmaceutical field. It makes control to:

a. fabrication activities, to its facilities and equipment
b. wholesale and retail trading and storage conditions of medicines,
c. Drug raw materials and auxiliary materials packer
d. imports of drugs from all licensed entities.

6. The Reimbursement Health Care Scheme in Albania

Law no 10383 date February 24, 2011 “For obligative health insurance in Albanian Republic”, that was implemented in March 2013, prescribes the health insurance scheme as below:

This law tries to have a wide population range that has a universal coverage scheme. This law divides the insurers into two parts: persons economically active and persons not economically active, where we can find sub divisions of these to big groups according to their special economic and social characteristics. Both categories mentioned, are included to this insurance scheme, with the unique difference that for the first group of people they pay for themselves, and on the other hand for the second group pays the second category pays the state.

Non active economically population are handled with care from this scheme – to assure that this can be more inclusive for this category in need, such as:

1. Persons that profit from the social insurance institute
2. Persons that profit economic support or payment for limited physic capabilities in accordance with the appropriate legislation
3. Persons registered as unemployed – job searchers in the national service of employment
4. Foreign citizens in Albanian Republic – emigrants from foreign countries
5. Kids under the age 18 years old
6. Pupils and students under 25 years old, with the condition that they profit from this scheme if they do not have income from economic activities
7. Special categories of people such as: blinds, orphans etc.

The government pays about 76 % of total funds by covering the need categories and only 24 % are covered from the contributions.

The persons that are not included at the first and second category above mentioned, for different cases, have the right to join voluntary in the obligative health insurance scheme. In this category are included people that live from immigration, or householders that have chosen not to work, Albanian students from abroad for the time they spend in Albania, etc. Persons self insured – have the same rights and conditions to profit from the law as the same other people that paw their contribution in an obligative manner.

For the first time at this law is foreseen realization of the register of insured persons, their identification, and giving them a special identifying number. At this law was foreseen the register of health insurance givers. The rate of obligative health insurance is 3.4 % of the basis for insurance calculations for all the categories covered from the health insurance scheme. For the employers, the contributions are paid at 50 % from the employee and 50 % from the employer. The improved law did not bring any contribution rate change and asks for a unification of the basis of health insurance employers and self voluntaries. The collection of this insurance rate is foreseen to be done from the tax directorates in different cities in whole republic.
Table: Total income reported from General Tax directorate and social insurance office – both with health insurance office, during 2007 – 2012.

<table>
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<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Budgeting</td>
<td>1,765,936</td>
<td>1,954,231</td>
<td>2,337,487</td>
<td>2,500,809</td>
<td>2,640,527</td>
<td>2,703,576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not budgeting</td>
<td>386,438</td>
<td>749,071</td>
<td>267,800</td>
<td>246,062</td>
<td>325,075</td>
<td>282,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Private firms</td>
<td>1,039,172</td>
<td>1,389,253</td>
<td>2,323,339</td>
<td>2,376,710</td>
<td>2,508,861</td>
<td>2,734,887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Individuals From cities</td>
<td>663,670</td>
<td>557,295</td>
<td>7,483</td>
<td>1,184,288</td>
<td>883,062</td>
<td>972,943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Individuals from countries</td>
<td>197,217</td>
<td>182,618</td>
<td>192,241</td>
<td>192,054</td>
<td>129,026</td>
<td>80,045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Voluntaries</td>
<td>4,256</td>
<td>4,126</td>
<td>6,940</td>
<td>13,411</td>
<td>12,578</td>
<td>11,453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4,056,688</td>
<td>4,836,593</td>
<td>6,135,289</td>
<td>6,513,335</td>
<td>6,499,129</td>
<td>6,785,458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.isksh.com.al

The table shows that the most significant payments comes from the budgeting institutions an from the private firms. A we can see the voluntary payments are the least figure income. This means that the state should invent a mechanism to make people have more voluntary payments.

Table: The number of contributors referring to general tax directory and social insurance institute during 2007 -2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>No on contributors</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Budgeting subjects</td>
<td>140,994</td>
<td>127,783</td>
<td>125,856</td>
<td>133,211</td>
<td>138,645</td>
<td>138,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not budgeting subjects</td>
<td>47,101</td>
<td>29,611</td>
<td>25,612</td>
<td>21,546</td>
<td>21,677</td>
<td>20,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Subject with value added tax</td>
<td>152,580</td>
<td>146,139</td>
<td>156,743</td>
<td>166,612</td>
<td>182,057</td>
<td>188,233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Small businesses</td>
<td>61,495</td>
<td>58,101</td>
<td>61,690</td>
<td>63,082</td>
<td>78,839</td>
<td>78,701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>61,495</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>49,664</td>
<td>56,453</td>
<td>48,581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Voluntaries</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>1,526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>465,935</td>
<td>418,942</td>
<td>432,410</td>
<td>436,775</td>
<td>480,292</td>
<td>478,183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of contributors as per the amount paid is the most from budgeting institution and from businesses included at the value added tax system (that means big businesses – referring to the Albanian law on classification of the firms).

7. Which are the Diseases mostly Reimbursed

Referring to mental health disorders, you can judge from the chart the most reimbursed illness is other psychosis – marked with red, the green one shows organic psychotic state that is increasing from year to year , and in blue there are neurotic disorders on personality, and with yellow mental delay.
During this paper we emphasized the mental health problems because the cases of these diseases in Shkodra have increased from year 2008 – 2012, that is shown as below.

![Number of cases graph]

by increasing from year to year the number of these cases, the total bills on reimbursements have increased rapidly by showing that the social health insurance from year to year has increased its gap, because of the number of increased cases of these diseases.

During 2008 about 19,811,731 Albanian leke in reimbursement was spent for the diseases of people that suffer from mental problems and disorders. During 2009, from the budget of PHI was spent about 23,877,431 Albanian leke. During 2010 was spent about 24,789,678 Albanian leke. During 2011 was spent about 27,356,890 Albanian leke and during 2012 was spent about 25,789,456 Albanian leke.

According to this figures this means that in average PHI has spent on mental health about 8,193 Albanian leke – in 2008, 8,031 – 2009, 7,999 All – 2010, 8,498 All – 2011 and about 7,434 All in 2012.

This means that from 2008 – 2012 the Albanian government has not improved the budget reimbursement for mental health disorders.

8. Conclusions

1. Mental health disorders include diseases that are related to the behavior of people. It includes categories that are specially related psychosis, such as: insomnia, depression, different other psychosis etc.
2. It includes mainly young people that remains the best part and the potential parts of generation investments, because they are the new and future employers.
3. Judging from the figures and the chart above, you can see that from the contribution of social health institution in Albanian, the budget of bill reimbursement for such diseases does not surpass the limit of about 5% reimbursement.
4. No improvement in increasing the figure of bill reimbursement was done from year 2008 – 2012.

9. Recommendations

1. Mental health is very important to the new generation. More health care has to be directed to this mass from the people. According to the reimbursed bills, it is necessary:
   a) To increase the categories of drugs reimbursed related to this diseases
   b) More free visits – according to social health, should be offerred to people that suffer such diseases. (the payment of this controls should be covered from PHI)
   c) The social health care institute should increase the financial income from voluntaries, because they make about 46 % of people that are included in the health insurance scheme. The ways to increase voluntary to this matter are related to government politics. For example one can be, if you let someone choose from the categories of reimbursement than he will pay the voluntary part very often.
   d) More information and publicity from the health insurance institute is needed, because people very often do not even know that they can reimburse drugs.
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