Book of Proceedings

2° International Conference on Human and Social Sciences

ICHSS 2012 - March 23-24, 2012, Tirana, Albania

VOLUME 5

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The Prospective Position of Nuclear Power in Turkish Energy Policy

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Abstract

Energy security is one of the key challenges confronting the nations all around the globe. Diversification of imports in terms of sources, route, resources and technologies has been an important policy tool to advance energy security further. Geographically located in close proximity to fossil fuel rich regions, Turkey has connected itself to producer countries via several pipelines with the aim of becoming a transit hub. At the same time, however, Turkey became increasingly dependent to foreign imports, reaching 70 per cent. As a result, Turkey moved towards nuclear energy and signed a deal with Russia to build its first nuclear power plant. The recent global advances in nuclear power generation enhanced the importance of nuclear power in bridging the energy gap in Turkey. Nuclear energy is currently enjoying enormous interest internationally, and particularly in Turkey, due to a combination of factors such as increasing fuel prices, diminishing resources of the fossil fuels, and environmental problems. On the other hand, by signing a deal with Russia, which already provides a significant amount of Turkey’s imported energy, creates dangers of over-dependence on its neighbor. Moreover, there is a greater awareness of safety problems related to nuclear power plants after the recent incident in Japan, together with environmental concerns related to nuclear waste management, potentially threatening human security. Therefore, this article analyses Turkey’s nuclear energy interests and discusses in detail the advantages and disadvantages of enhancing the role of nuclear power for Turkey’s energy needs.

Keywords: Nuclear Power, Energy Policy, Turkey

Introduction

Turkey is a rapidly developing country and currently the world’s 16th biggest economy, with its $735 billion GDP level (World Bank 2012). However, Turkey’s energy consumption is actually low compared to the size of its young and ever more urbanizing population. In addition, its energy use per capita is 1.44 ton of oil equivalent (toe), which is also low compared to other G-20 countries, such as US with 7.23 toe, Japan with 3.88 toe, Germany with 4.05 toe, Saudi Arabia with 5.88 toe, and Argentina with 1.88 toe, as shown in figure 1. Turkey’s energy use per capita is only higher than Brazil with 1.24 toe, Indonesia with 0.85 toe and India with 0.58 toe.

Figure 1. Energy use per capita in G-20 countries

Turkey’s low energy consumption and rapid economic growth have a positive correlation. This means that in the short to mid-term, Turkish energy demands will increase in accordance with its rapid economic growth.
Turkey’s energy profile is mainly composed of fossil fuels, namely oil, natural gas and coal, with a share of 89 per cent in overall gross final inland energy consumption (TMENR 2011), displayed in figure 2. Even though the level of investment in renewable energy sector has been increasing rapidly in the last decade, and as a result the installed capacity of renewables has increased, however, the share of fossil fuels in overall energy consumption has not decreased with the increasing levels of energy consumption experienced due to its rapid economic growth.

In parallel with Turkey’s increasing energy consumption, Turkey’s import dependency on energy resources has been increasing due to limited levels of fossil fuel reserves. According to the Ministry of Energy and Natural Resources, Turkey imports almost 72 per cent of its energy needs from other sources. Turkey imports 98 per cent of its natural gas, 93 per cent of oil and 42 per cent of its coal consumption, as shown in figure 3.
This profile is even more dramatic in regard to electricity generation by fuel type in Turkey. According to the Turkish Electricity Transmission Company, natural gas has a share of almost 47 per cent in Turkish electricity generation. Together with the imported coal, more than 55 per cent of Turkish electricity generation is based on imported resources. This profile demonstrates a cause for concern both for its economy and energy security. Accordingly, energy security remains a priority. Therefore, the securities of supply and diversification in terms of energy security have become primary objectives in Turkish energy policy. However, Turkey’s key problem is its increasing dependence on energy imports as mentioned.

In addition, Turkey suffers from increasing carbon emission levels. These have tripled in the last 25 years due to rapid urbanization, mass fossil fuel use and economic growth as demonstrated in figure 5.

Due to increasing energy dependency and carbon emission levels, this study assumes that the inclusion of nuclear power in the Turkish energy profile will have a positive impact over its increasing energy imports and carbon emission levels. Therefore, this article seeks to analyze the impact of the inclusion of nuclear power in the Turkish energy profile.

Security of Supply and Diversification

Security of energy supply has become a priority for energy dependent countries, especially with the increasing energy demand from developing countries such as China and India. Since energy is the one of major input for economic development, the possibility of disruption to energy supply would seriously threaten these economies. In general, security of supply is “a flow of energy supply to meet demand in a manner and at a price level that does not disrupt the course of economy in an environmental sustainable manner.”(Chevalier 2006). In other words, security of supply is “the idea of the level of fairly stable prices that customers might be willing and able to pay and this price will have to adjust economic fundamentals including environmental and other reasons”. (Helm 2002)

However, the concerns over security of energy supply have been raised due to increasing energy dependency of the economies throughout the world, such as the EU, the US and China. Energy dependency means the degree of imports to meet the energy needs of an economy. It is determined by dividing the share of imports in an economy’s gross final energy consumption. As discussed by Cameron & Kempler (2010), in an ideal world, security of supply should not be equated with energy independence since the free and global energy market should guarantee to deliver all the necessary energy resources in a timely manner. However, the geopolitical aims of the energy producer countries undermine this ideal, because energy becomes a tool in foreign policy making.

Since energy independence is impossible for majority of the countries, the main option could be to increase the diversification in the energy supply. Diversification is currently one of the most commonly discussed fundamental issues as regards the energy security concept, and the present work will take the ‘diversification’ issue as an initial point. As argued, Turkey is challenged by increasing import dependency.
The most effective way to secure the supply in the face of this increasing trend is to diversify energy supplies. Diversification means that while “holding other things constant, the overall risk to energy supplies is smaller if there is a diversified portfolio of suppliers”, (Cohen et al. 2011) This means that by diversifying, the states could reduce the risk of supply disruption from particular groups of suppliers. The main of diversification is to decrease the risks of monopolistic approach from one supplier or dependence to one single resource, (Blyth and Lefevre 2004). Accordingly, this paper examines whether the inclusion of nuclear power will serve the Turkish aim of securing supply and increasing the level of diversification.

Nuclear Power in the World

Nuclear power currently has a share of 5.4 per cent in world’s gross final energy consumption (BP 2011). However, the share of nuclear power in global electricity generation is much greater than this, at 13.6 per cent, as shown in figure 6.

![Figure 6. The Share of Nuclear Power in Global Electricity Generation](source)

Source: World Nuclear Association

Currently, there are 435 operable nuclear reactors in 30 countries, with a capacity of 372,158 Mwe electricity, as shown in Table 1. Moreover, there are 250 nuclear reactors for research in 56 countries and 180 nuclear reactors for powering ships and submarines (WNA 2012).

Table 1. World Nuclear Power Reactors

<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BkWh</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Mwe net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenia</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2741</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 1, there are more than 100 nuclear power plants situated in the US, and more than 200 in Europe. According to World Nuclear Association (2012), there are 61 nuclear power plants under construction, representing 16.5 per cent of the current installed capacity, and 162 nuclear power plants projected, representing to 48.5 per cent of current installed capacity.

As displayed in table 1, the world's leading energy consumer countries, such as US, Germany, France, Canada, Japan and Sweden, are all using nuclear power to diversify their energy supply and enhance their level of energy security. The primary contribution of nuclear power to energy security is to decrease the energy import dependency, as discussed. In
addition, nuclear power is an environment-friendly source, as it generates a much lower level of carbon emissions compared to other sources, shown in table 2.

Therefore, implementing or increasing the share of nuclear power will both contribute to energy security and lowering the carbon emission levels of any country. The main drawback of this source of power is the problems of waste management and possible accidents as these could have an enormous hazardous impact on the environment. However, to date only 3 major accidents have occurred, namely Three Mile Island (1979), Chernobyl (1986) (IAEA 2007) and Fukushima (2011) (IAEA 2012). However, in spite of the small number, their impact was enormous.

History of Nuclear Power in Turkey

The first discussion on implementing nuclear power in Turkey took place in 1955 and as a result Turkey signed the Atoms for Peace agreement. The first Nuclear Research Center was established in Istanbul Technical University in 1956, and in parallel, Turkish Atomic Energy Authority (TAEK) was also established in the same year. The main objectives of TAEK are to conduct academic research on nuclear energy, and implement and develop non-military nuclear technologies (TAEK 2012).

Table 3. The Development of Nuclear Research Reactors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Reactor Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962-1977</td>
<td>1 MWth TR1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-1982</td>
<td>250 KWth Triga Mark II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982-</td>
<td>5 MWth TR2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Turkish Atomic Energy Agency (2012)

Three nuclear research reactors have been established in Turkey, starting from 1962, as shown in table 3. These were mainly used to produce isotopes and do experiments, especially for the health sector.

The first attempt to build nuclear power plant in Turkey was in 1965. The first plan was to build a Pressurized Heavy Water Reactor (PHWR) with 400 Mwe capacity (AEK 1965). However, this was never realized due to the political and economic problems that emerged in Turkey in early 1970s. The second attempt was first planned in 1972, when Akkuyu, Mersin was licensed for nuclear power plant in 1976. The plan was to build a boiling water reactor (BWR), but this project was similarly abandoned due to lack of finance for the proposed company (Adalioglu et al. 1978). In 1980s, there were other attempts to build nuclear power plants not only in Akkuyu [PHWR and Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)], Mersin but also in Sinop (BWR). However, none of these were ever realized because of various regulative, economic and political problems. The most recent attempt was in 1997 when the Turkish government invited bids to build a nuclear power plants. However, this project too remained unrealized due to the same obstacles that existed throughout the decades.

Current Situation of Nuclear Power in Turkey

According to the Turkish Electricity Trammission Company's (TEIAS) expectations (2009), Turkey's electricity consumption will increase to 370000 GWh in 2019 in a high case scenario, from 200000 Gwh in 2008. Moreover, it is expected that yearly electricity growth rate will be 6.5 per cent until 2020. As mentioned, Turkey has a high level of dependency on imported resources for electricity generation. Therefore, the prospective gap will need to be generated from imported resources, and Turkey's dependency will be even higher than current levels. This could be the single largest threat for the Turkish economy.

Therefore, the Turkish government decided to develop its stagnated nuclear power program in 2006, and invited bids to build a nuclear power plant in Akkuyu, Mersin. However, only one company responded. Accordingly, Turkey shifted its open call process, and started bilateral discussions with Russia on building a nuclear power plant and granted the right to the Russian public Rosatom Company to build nuclear power plant without needing to bid. Turkey and Russia signed an agreement to cooperate on the construction and operation a nuclear power plant in Akkuyu, Mersin on 12 May 2010. (Turkish Official Gazette 2012, No:28240) The Akkuyu Project Company (APC) was established in Ankara by the Russian partner on 13 December 2010. APC has started to investigate the site with the approval of TAEK. (TAEK 2011) The construction is expected to begin in 2013 and to be operable in 2019.
This nuclear power plant will be built, financed, owned and run by a Russian company. The Turkish government has guaranteed to buy 50 per cent of generated electricity for 15 years through Turkish Electricity Trade and Contracting Corporation (TETAS). After the termination of the, Turkish side will receive 20 per cent of the profits from APC for the remaining 45 years. (Turkish Official Gazette 2010, No:27721) Four power reactors which will each have 1200 MWe capacity, with a total of 4800 Mwe, will be built in Akkuyu, Mersin. These reactors will be third generation Russian VVER-1200. (TMENR 2012) However, there has been criticism over the decision to use these reactors, since there are no operating examples in the world. There are currently two nuclear power plants of this type, Leningrad II and Novovoronezh II under construction in Russia. (WNA 2012) However, VVER 1000, the second generation, has been operating in Finland, China, India and Bulgaria. (WNA 2012) It is expected that this power plant will supply 6 per cent of Turkey’s electricity demand. (TMNER 2012)

Conclusion

As discussed, the main reasons of installing nuclear power are concerned with energy security and environmental protection. There are advantages and disadvantages, including nuclear power in Turkish energy profile. Nuclear power is not a non-renewable energy source, but a sustainable one. It is highly reliable and produces large concentrations of energy with no CO₂ emissions. Moreover, it uses a small amount of raw material, uranium, to produce a unit of energy. Also, compared to its production level, it produces small amounts of waste. However, there are also significant disadvantages related to nuclear power. It is highly radioactive, which can threaten human health if not operated securely; accordingly the installation of a plant is potentially dangerous to the surrounding area. Also, there are high waste disposal costs in addition to its major building costs. In Turkish case, these duties belong to the Russian side. Therefore, this study argues that if it is operated securely, it will be a valuable addition to Turkish energy profile.

However, one important factor is that the projected power plant will be built, owned and operated by Russian Rosatom, as mentioned rather than Turkish government. Therefore, this could jeopardize the main aim of decreasing its energy dependence as currently Turkey is already highly dependent on Russia for its oil and natural gas imports. In addition, it should be noted that Turkey will not benefit from the transfer of any know-how or technology.

Overall, nuclear power will be a valuable addition to Turkish energy profile since it will contribute to its aim of increasing its level of energy security by decreasing it energy import dependency. Moreover, it will contribute to Turkey’s secondary aim of decreasing its carbon emission levels. Once built, the projected power plant will generate almost 6 per cent of Turkish electricity production. However, the lack of control of the projected power plant could jeopardize Turkish energy security. Nevertheless, it will contribute to the diversification of energy resource, but not the source, Russia, which Turkey is already highly dependent on for its oil and natural gas exports. This study argues that with the right conditions, such as high-quality waste management and operation, nuclear power is a valuable addition to any country’s energy profile, and Turkey is no exception.

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La Responsabilité Sociale des PME: Une Approche par la Cartographie Cognitive

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Résumé : Cette proposition s’inscrit dans le débat sur la perception des dirigeants d’entreprises, notamment les PME, concernant la thématique de la responsabilité sociale et les enjeux environnementaux qui les accompagnent ou qui en résultent. Nous proposons ici une approche cognitive de la responsabilité sociale, approche que nous illustrons à travers la représentation de deux cartes cognitives de dirigeants de PME algériennes. L’approche cognitiviste considère le système comme un ensemble de représentations individuelles et collectives qu’il y a lieu d’identifier et de soumettre à des analyses minutieuses. Dans cette approche, les dirigeants sont considérés comme des acteurs qui construisent leurs propres représentations du système. De ce fait, la perception de l’environnement par les dirigeants - principaux acteurs du système entreprise - est considérée comme un facteur déterminant du diagnostic de la situation et éventuellement un outil décisionnel non négligeable. Autrement dit, de ces perceptions dépendent le diagnostic ou la formulation des problèmes et les solutions qu’il y a lieu d’apporter concernant la problématique de responsabilité sociale des PME en Algérie.

Mots clés : Responsabilité sociale, enjeux environnementaux, dirigeants, PME, Algérie, perception, cartographie cognitive.

Introduction

Même si son développement n’est pas nouveau (depuis déjà plus de 50 ans), la RSE n’a jamais été aussi populaire. Le phénomène a pris de l’importance au fil des années et occupe aujourd’hui sa place au cœur de la stratégie d’entreprise (Capron M., Quairel-Lanoizelée F., 2007).

Différentes définitions de la notion de RSE se sont succédées gardant globalement en commun l’idée que la RSE réfère aux obligations d’une entreprise envers la société ou plus spécifiquement envers les parties prenantes de cette entreprise, c’est-à-dire ceux qui sont affectés par la politique et les pratiques de cette dernière (Freeman R.E., 1984). Même si un consensus existe sur le fait que la RSE est concernée par les obligations sociales des entreprises, il y a peu de certitude sur la nature et la portée de ces obligations (Smith N.C., 2003).

Depuis la parution de l’ouvrage d’Axelrod (1976) en sciences politiques et, surtout, depuis les premiers travaux de Michel Bougon et autres en (1977) dans le domaine du management, les recherches fondées sur l’utilisation de la cartographie cognitive ont connu un développement tout simplement remarquable. Une carte cognitive renvoie, le plus souvent, à une figure composée de concepts et de liens unissant certains d’entre eux et représentant la pensée d’une personne ou d’un groupe à propos d’un objet plus ou moins général, dont le contexte est plus ou moins précis et dans lequel le sujet est plus ou moins engagé (Cossette, 2004).

Justement, ce travail s’inscrit dans le débat sur le rôle joué par les PME en matière de RSE. Nous proposons ici une approche cognitive de RSE, approche que nous illustrons au travers d’une représentation de deux dirigeants de PME.

A ce titre, les hommes sont considérés comme des acteurs qui construisent leurs propres représentations de l’environnement. Les études sur la cognition considèrent la perception de l’environnement externe par les acteurs, comme un facteur déterminant des décisions prises (Huff et al., 1990). La perception étant le processus par lequel l’acteur sélectionne, organise, interprète et récupère l’information que lui transmet l’environnement. Dans une perspective cognitiviste, on reconnaît généralement que l’acteur ne peut appréhender la réalité qu’à travers ses
perceptions. De ses perceptions dépendent le diagnostic ou la formulation de problèmes et les solutions apportées (Eden, 2004).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poids des entreprises</th>
<th>18e siècle</th>
<th>Mi 19e siècle</th>
<th>Début 20e siècle</th>
<th>1930-1970</th>
<th>Fin 20e siècle-21e</th>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Quelques rares entreprises (350 aux Etats-Unis entre 1783 et 1801), considérées comme des agences du gouvernement</td>
<td>Forte simplification des procédures : chacun peut créer une entreprise en remplissant un formulaire</td>
<td>Nombre croissant d'entreprises, remise en cause de la conception traditionnelle de ses responsabilités</td>
<td>Nombre et taille croissants</td>
<td>Taille croissante, mondialisation, omniprésence dans la vie de la société</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsabilité</td>
<td>Entité artificielle et sans âme, qui ne peut donc être jugée responsable de la moralité ses actes</td>
<td>Ombrelle fictive pour une association privée d'actionnaires, pas de responsabilité propre</td>
<td>Entité qui a le droit de poursuivre en justice ou être poursuivie, responsabilité contractuelle</td>
<td>Institution responsable vis-à-vis des actionnaires, mais qui a aussi des obligations légales vis-à-vis des salariés, des clients et du public</td>
<td>Acteur moral, responsable vis-à-vis de toutes les parties prenantes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

En effet, en nous inscrivant dans une perspective sociocognitive où les représentations des acteurs sont les supports de leurs connaissance, la cartographie cognitive est une méthodologie appropriée pour étudier ces représentations. Après avoir exposé dans une première partie la notion de RSE, notamment dans le cadre des PME, nous passerons dans une deuxième partie à la présentation de la méthodologie de la cartographie cognitive, en précisant son origine, ses définitions et ses caractéristiques, nous illustrerons l’apport de la cartographie cognitive à l’enrichissement du débat autour de la responsabilité sociale des PME par une étude élaborée en Algérie auprès de deux dirigeants de PME dans la Wilaya (Préfecture) de Mascara.

1. Responsabilité sociale des PME

Cette première partie tente de tracer le cadre de notre étude empirique, notamment par la présentation de quelques aspects de la responsabilité sociale des PME et des traits de comportement de leurs managers. Avant de commencer, un rapide survol historique de la genèse de la RSE s’avère nécessaire.

1.1. Evolution historique de la RSE

Les philosophes ont été les premiers à se questionner quant à la relation entre les activités économiques et la morale, d'où nous parlons ces dernières années, de la responsabilité sociale des entreprises (Freeman R.E. (dir.), 1991). Au début du XIXème siècle, les premiers questionnements de RSE sont d’ordre moral (ex. : corruption, pots de vin, etc.) et concernent principalement les dirigeants d’entreprises (Gendron C. et al., 2004). Cela est dû principalement à l’émergence de l’entreprise managériale avec la séparation des droits de propriété des droits de gestion avec tous les problèmes qui peuvent s’émétrer entre mondtant (propriétaire) et mandataire (managers)1.

En clair, les entreprises sont désormais invitées à rendre compte des impacts de leurs activités, notamment dans les domaines sociaux ou environnementaux. Cette pression s'exerce très concrètement sur l'entreprise par l'intermédiaire notamment des "fonds éthiques". Cette appellation signifie que certains investisseurs ne se réfèrent plus seulement à des critères de rentabilité pour investir leur argent mais prennent également en compte le respect de valeurs qui leur sont propres. Autrement dit, tout en recherchant la rentabilité économique, ils se soucient du comportement social2 ou

---


2 C'est dans ce fil de conduite que Bartoli M. (1994) a essayé de dresser des pistes pour conseiller l'économique au social.
environnemental des entreprises qu'ils financent (Bendiabdellah A., 2008).

Désormais, l'entreprise moderne est plus que jamais ouverte sur son environnement. À ce titre elle est considérée comme un citoyen qui a des droits et des obligations. Son action, peut apporter beaucoup de bonheur et de bien-être à la société, elle peut aussi causer des dégâts important. De ce fait, la RSE interpelle l'association des différentes parties prenantes dans le processus de prise de décision, une condition indispensable pour mener une stratégie d'ensemble. Cette dernière ne peut être que le résultat d'un compromis entre les différents partenaires de l'entreprise. En définitif, la tendance est au good ethics is good business.

1.2. La définition de la RSE

Depuis la publication de l'ouvrage de Bowen dans les années 50, chaque décennie connaît une nouvelle vague de définitions et de débats quant aux limites de la responsabilité d'une entreprise

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quelques définitions de la RSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;La RSE renvoie à l'obligation pour les hommes d'affaires d'effectuer les politiques, de prendre les décisions et de suivre les lignes de conduite répondant aux objectifs et aux valeurs qui sont considérées comme désirables dans notre société.&quot; Bowen, 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;La RSE renvoie à la prise en considération par l'entreprise de problèmes qui vont au-delà de ses obligations économiques, techniques et légales étroites ainsi qu'aux réponses que l'entreprise donne à ces problèmes [...] Cela signifie que la responsabilité sociale débute là où s'arrête la loi. Une entreprise n'est pas socialement responsable si elle se conforme au minimum requis par la loi, car c'est ce que n'importe quel bon citoyen est tenu de faire.&quot; Davis, 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;La RSE intègre l'ensemble des attentes économiques, légales, éthiques et philanthropiques que peut avoir la société à l'égard d'une entreprise à un moment donné.&quot; Carroll, 1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;L'idée selon laquelle les entreprises, par delà les prescriptions légales ou contractuelles, ont une obligation envers les acteurs sociaux.&quot; Jones, 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;La signification de la responsabilité sociétale ne peut être appréhendée qu'à travers l'interaction des trois principes : la légitimité, la responsabilité publique et la discrétion managérielle, ces principes résultant de la distinction de trois niveaux d'analyse, institutionnel, organisationnel et individuel.&quot; Wood, 1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;La RSE c'est l'intégration volontaire par les entreprises de préoccupations sociales et environnementales à leurs activités commerciales et leurs relations avec leurs parties prenantes.&quot; Livre Vert (UE)2001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quelques définitions de la RSE (Gendre-Aegerter D., 2008)

1.3. PME, comportement des managers et RSE

Les travaux sur le thème de la RSE portent néanmoins de manière quasi-exclusive sur le monde des grandes entreprises passant sous silence l'immense majorité des acteurs économiques, à savoir les PME, c'est un peu comme si la RSE était réservée aux firmes multinationales (Capron, Quairel-Lanoizelée, 2004). S'agissant des PME, la prise de conscience de l'importance de la thématique est récente et la recherche en est encore à ses balbutiements. Le manque de ressources financières est avancé par les spécialistes comme l'un des principaux freins à l'engagement des PME en matière de RSE (Berger-Douce, 2008). Actuellement avec la reconnaissance de leurs impacts cumulatifs tant sur le niveau économique que social et environnemental, les PME ne peuvent plus rester en dehors de ce champ de recherche.

Longenecker J.G. et al. (1989) ont étudié les différences de comportement entre les managers des PME et les managers des grandes entreprises. Les résultats ont montré qu’il n’y a selon les situations que peu de différences entre les réponses des dirigeants de PME et celles des dirigeants de grandes entreprises, sauf que les dirigeants de PME sont généralement plus stricts sur les questions éthiques que les autres mais plus permissifs pour certaines autres situations, comme nous pouvons le constater à travers le tableau suivant :

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Les aspects pour lesquels les dirigeants de PME sont plus stricts que ceux des GE</th>
<th>Les aspects pour lesquels les dirigeants de PME sont plus permissifs que ceux des GE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Mauvais conseil d’investissement</td>
<td>-Grossir des notes de frais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Favoritisme dans la promotion</td>
<td>- Évasion fiscale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Accepter un défaut dangereux</td>
<td>- Ententes sur les prix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Falsifier un rapport financier</td>
<td>-Discrimination envers les femmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Publicité mensongère</td>
<td>- Copie pirate de logiciels informatiques</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L’évaluation de thématiques éthiques pour les dirigeants de PME (Longenecker J.G. et al., 1989)
Tout récemment, Boiral (2001) a développé une matrice portant sur les formes d’intégration de la norme ISO 14001 dans les pratiques de gestion des entreprises. Cette outil a été adapté par (Berger-Douce, 2007) pour l’utiliser en milieu des PME. En effet, on peut distinguer 4 types d’engagement environnemental : rituel, mobilisateur, proactif ou réactif, selon l’intensité des enjeux internes et externes, comme il est présenté dans la matrice ci-dessous :

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enjeux externes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fortes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faibles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faibles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Un engagement environnemental de type rituel (1) renvoie à des pressions ou des opportunités externes fortes comme la recherche d’un avantage concurrentiel ou l’amélioration de l’image, sans que le dirigeant et / ou les employés de la PME ne soient obligatoirement convaincus du bien-fondé de la démarche. La motivation peut simplement être l’atteinte d’un faible niveau de pollution indépendamment de tout système de gestion formalisé.

Un engagement environnemental de type mobilisateur (2) est de nature stratégique pour la PME : l’environnement fait partie intégrante de la mission de l’entreprise. L’engagement environnemental permet à la fois de répondre à des opportunités externes et de satisfaire des besoins de gestion interne. Dans ce cas, l’implication du dirigeant est cruciale car elle joue un effet d’entraînement sur la motivation des salariés.

Un engagement environnemental de type proactif (3) renvoie à une volonté forte du dirigeant de développer un management environnemental en l’absence de contraintes externes. La priorité est donnée à la réponse à des besoins internes comme le meilleur suivi des procédures environnementales, la formation et la communication interne et donc allant au-delà des exigences légales. L’investissement écologique est ici considéré comme rentable à plus ou moins longue échéance, et c’est d’ailleurs dans la mesure où l’entreprise y trouve un avantage qu’elle agit de manière proactive.

Un engagement environnemental de type réactif (4) correspond davantage à une situation de statu quo, d’attente de changements inattendus significatifs comme un durcissement de la réglementation (Berger-Douce, 2007).

2. Présentation de la cartographie cognitive

Cette deuxième partie a pour objectif de donner quelques éclaircissements sur l’approche de la cartographie cognitive en présentant brièvement son historique, quelques essais de sa définition et ses principales caractéristiques.

2.1. Origines et définitions de la cartographie cognitive

La cartographie cognitive permet de modéliser dans une représentation graphique les représentations, croyances ou connaissances d’une personne ou d’un groupe concernant un objet particulier de recherche. Le principe de base consiste à relever dans un discours oral ou écrit, individuel ou collectif, l’ensemble des assertions relatives à un objet donné, et qui énoncent des liens entre des concepts. Ces assertions peuvent alors se schématiser comme des chaînes composées de concepts reliés entre eux qui forment la carte cognitive. La carte cognitive représente en quelque sorte l’enchaînement des idées d’une personne, relatives à un objet de recherche. Autrement dit, une carte cognitive peut aussi être considérée comme une photo, un cliché de ce que nous pensons à un moment précis sur un sujet particulier.

La définition à laquelle nous adhérons, au moins dans le cadre de l’étude de terrain de cet article, est donnée par Cossette et Audet (1994) pour qui une carte cognitive est : "une représentation graphique de la représentation mentale que le chercheur se fait d’un ensemble de représentations disciplinaires énoncées par un sujet à partir de ses propres représentations cognitives à propos d’un objet particulier" (Cossette et Audet, 1994). Cette définition appelle quelques commentaires. D’une part, elle permet d’insister sur le fait que la cartographie cognitive n’a pas l’ambition d’obtenir la cognition complète d’un individu mais une partie de sa cognition, celle relative à un objet particulier. Le but "est de décrire une perception consciente de la réalité avec suffisamment de détails pour capturer la perception idiosyncrasique qu’a du
monde un individu" (Langfield-Smith, 1992), et ce, sans chercher une description exhaustive de ses croyances mais plutôt à présenter un "modèle simulant sa cognition actuelle sur un domaine précis" (ibid.). D’autre part, la définition précise qu’il s’agit de la représentation (celle du chercheur) d’une représentation (celle du sujet). De ce fait, les connaissances tacites auront plus de chances d’émerger lors d’interactions entre le sujet et le chercheur, par le biais de l’argumentation, de discussion et de recherches des solutions à des problèmes (Ehlinger et Chabaud, 2002). En définitive, la cartographie cognitive suppose la participation d’au moins deux personnes, le sujet et le chercheur (Cossette et Audet, 1992), comme l’illustre la figure suivante (Gendre-Aegerter, 2008).

La cartographie cognitive comme une représentation de la représentation (Gendre-Aegerter, 2008)

![Diagramme de la cartographie cognitive](image)

Les cartes cognitives sont souvent différenciées selon leur niveau d’analyse. On distingue habituellement un niveau individuel et un niveau collectif. Au niveau individuel, on retrouve la carte individuelle qui est la modélisation de la représentation mentale d’une personne sur un objet de recherche déterminé (Eden. et al., 1983). Au niveau collectif, la carte collective est la modélisation des représentations mentales de plusieurs personnes sur un objet de recherche déterminé. Dans certains cas, les cartes collectives sont développées par agrégation de cartes individuelles et dans d’autres cas, elles sont développées directement par construction d’une carte de groupe (Bougon et Komocar, 1994). Dans le premier cas, la carte collective est appelée carte composite et est construite par superposition de cartes individuelles. Alors que dans le second cas, les cartes sont appelées stratégiques et plusieurs individus sont réunis pour créer une carte commune. On cherche alors à cartographier les perceptions partagées d’un groupe d’individus concernant un domaine particulier, ce qui est le cas de l’étude présentée dans cette communication. À ce titre nous précisons que "La carte individuelle et la carte collective sont alors des outils qui facilitent la prise de décision et non un moyen par lequel un chercheur pourrait atteindre le « réel » (Audet, 1994)."

3. L’étude empirique

La troisième partie de ce travail a pour objectif de présenter la méthodologie de recueil et d’analyse des données ainsi que la schématisation de la carte stratégique de deux dirigeants pour finalement, discuter des retombées de l’enquête sous la forme de propositions et de recommandation et résultats de cette étude.

3.1. Méthodologie de recueil et d’analyse des données

Le choix de la cartographie comme instrument d’analyse est pertinent ici, pour appréhender la perception des dirigeants de la RSE. Désormais, la cartographie cognitive permet au sujet de mettre en œuvre le processus d’externalisation des connaissances pour transformer ses connaissances tacites en connaissances explicites, notamment à travers l’interaction sujet/chercheur. A ce titre Audet (Cité par Von Krogh, Ichijo et Nonaka, 2000) parle du passage de la conscience pratique à la conscience discursive : "La cartographie cognitive a un potentiel emancipatoire...une fois construite, si la carte est soumise au sujet, celui-ci peut y avoir des éléments auxquels il n’avait pas songé, notamment des sentiers qui font apparaître des liens indirects entre différents concepts, liens dont le sujet n’avait, au mieux, qu’une conscience pratique... la cartographie cognitive facilite le passage de la conscience pratique à la conscience discursive et, en conséquence, l’examen par un sujet de ce qu’il tient pour acquis, de l’"allant de soi" qui régit un très grand nombre de ses pratiques quotidiennes".

Le recueil des données a été effectué selon une méthode non structurée, à travers les discours de deux dirigeants de PME situés dans la Wilaya de Mascara, et collectés par le biais d’un entretien semi-directif. Les sujets ont été invités à se centrer sur les questions qu’ils se posent ou devraient se poser à propos de l’objet RSE, ainsi que, sur le pourquoi et l’importance de chaque idée présentée. Dans ce cadre, nous avons essayé de créer une ambiance de concertation et de dialogue entre les trois sujets.

Ensuite, une désignation identique est assignée aux concepts formulés dans un vocabulaire différent, dont le sens est similaire. Cette phase est indispensable pour permettre la construction de la carte cognitive d’une façon synthétique.
L'étape finale est celle de la construction de la carte. Dans le cas de cette étude, la construction est réalisée manuellement, compte tenu du nombre réduit de données à traiter (une douzaine de concepts)\(^3\). Nous soulignons à ce propos qu'il s'agit ici d'une carte cognitive stratégique où deux sujets sont réunis pour créer une carte commune. On cherche alors à cartographier les perceptions partagées des dirigeants concernant la problématique de la RSE.

3.2. Présentation de la carte cognitive

L'étude été menée au niveau de deux PME algérienne implantées dans la Wilaya de Mascara. Polyma dans la commune de Tizi et Crown dans la commune de Khessibia. Le tableau ci-dessous synthétise l'ensemble des éléments d'identification des deux PME et les éléments de la gestion en rapport avec la RSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom de l'entreprise</th>
<th>Polyma</th>
<th>Crown</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocation</td>
<td>Emballage plastique</td>
<td>Emballage plastique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nombre d'employés</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention collective</td>
<td>Oui</td>
<td>Non</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Système de motivation</td>
<td>Primes diverses</td>
<td>Primes diverses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processus de production</td>
<td>Machines à commande numériques</td>
<td>Machines à commande numériques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature des entrants</td>
<td>Thermo plastique</td>
<td>Thermo plastique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relation clients</td>
<td>Approche relationnelle : Saâda</td>
<td>Approche relationnelle : Cevital, Guedilia et Trefle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations publiques</td>
<td>Informelles</td>
<td>Informelles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

La présentation des deux PME et éléments de RSE (Source propre)

Le schéma ci-dessous représente la carte stratégique qui retrace la perception de deux dirigeants de la RSE de leur PME, notamment à travers les facteurs de sa concrétisation et les interconnexions entre ces facteurs.

Comme indiqué plus haut, l'analyse est faite manuellement. Finalement, 12 concepts ont été identifiés et 25 liens de causalité établis, ce qui aide à la construction de la pensée collective des deux dirigeants. Dans le cas présent, l'analyse a porté sur deux points : l'importance relative de chaque concept (à partir du niveau d'importance accordée par les deux dirigeants) et les conséquences et les explications privilégiées par les participants (nombre de liens de causalités entre les concepts). Nous avons constaté la présence d'une "tête", 5 "queues", comme nous pouvons le constater dans le schéma de la carte cognitive.

\(^3\) Deux logiciels sont disponibles sur le marché pour construire des cartes cognitives : Decision Explorer (développé par Eden et son équipe) et CMAP2 élaboré par Laukkanen. Malheureusement, nous ne disposons pas de ces logiciels.
Nous signalons de prime abord que, la présence d'une seule "tête" est source de situations conflictuelles à cause des nombreuses influences reçues tant positives que négatives. Ensuite, la présence de 5 queues sur notre carte cognitive est considérée, comme une indication de la multiplicité d'options possibles pour concrétiser la RSE au niveau des PME, donc un signe de richesse d'options chez le sujet (Verstraete, 1996).

Le discours des dirigeants s'affiche autour de trois thématiques principales, à savoir : l'amélioration des produits et de la relation-clients, notamment par l'application des prix justes et l'amélioration de la qualité des produits ; l'amélioration de l'environnement du travail qui passe par l'établissement d'une convention collective, l'application des salaires équitables et la participation dans l'amélioration des compétences des salariés par des programmes de formations ; et le maintien de l'environnement qui nécessite la réutilisation des déchets, à ce titre nous signalons que les deux entreprises utilisent des intrants recyclables de type Thermo plastique. Donc, selon la perception des dirigeants, la RSE passe par la valorisation des dimensions : économiques, sociale et écologique.

La dimension économique est représentée autour de 7 concepts est considérée à ce titre la plus importante. Autrement dit, les dirigeants considèrent que la RSE passe en premier lieu par la sauvegarde de l'activité économique (assurer la survie). Le souci apporté aux clients, l'application des prix justes, l'amélioration de la qualité des produits et la réalisation du profit sont les garants de la survie (coût de la survie).

La deuxième dimension valorisée par les deux dirigeants est la dimension sociale autour de 4 concepts. L'objectif ultime est l'amélioration de l'environnement du travail, cela passe selon ces deux dirigeants par l'établissement de la convention collective, l'amélioration des salaires et l'application d'une stratégie de formation au profit des salariés.

La dimension environnementale (écologique) n'est pas bien perçue par les dirigeants. Elle se résume en deux concepts et elle se réalise par la réutilisation des déchets.

La lecture et la relecture de cette carte nous a permis d'établir les éléments de synthèses suivants :

- Ces deux dirigeants se rapprochent du type V – Valeur- (Wilson,1980)
- Les dirigeants de PME se considèrent avant tout responsables vis-à-vis de leurs employés.
- La survie est la principale source d'influence des PME pour gérer les problématiques de RSE.
- Les dirigeants de PME ne se sentent socialement responsables que des éléments qu'ils peuvent influencer.

L'application fournie ici ouvre des pistes sur l'intérêt des cartographies cognitives dans l'élaboration d'une stratégie délibérée en matière de la responsabilité sociale des PME. Il peut être intéressant de les utiliser dans une logique d'apprentissage collectif. Les dirigeants peuvent ainsi être conduits à commencer chacun sa propre carte et à commenter la carte d'autrui afin de redéfinir certains liens, à préciser ou compléter certains éléments, ou encore à intégrer des éléments apparus chez les autres. En clair, la cartographie cognitive permet d'assurer la confrontation de points de vue sur la problématique de RSE, ce qui permettra l'émergence d'une stratégie homogène sur l'objet de l'étude, source d'une meilleure coordination des actions, des PME, puisque la mise en réseau est nécessaire pour pouvoir améliorer l'engagement des PME dans le chemin de la RSE.

Dans la même logique, il est intéressant à notre sens de questionner par le même outil les autres parties prenantes, notamment les clients, les fournisseurs, les représentants du territoire (responsables locaux, société civile..., etc.). L'objectif est de déterminer le niveau de convergence ou de divergence entre les différentes parties prenantes des PME.

**Conclusion**

L'objectif de la présente recherche était de mettre à l'épreuve la méthodologie de la cartographie cognitive. Cette méthode favorise le respect du système référentiel des participants, y compris lors de la mise en relief d'une vision collective. Elle permet également de contourner les principales difficultés liées à l'utilisation des outils quantitatifs de recherche.

Dans le cas présent, cette nouvelle approche a aidé les deux dirigeants à déterminer leurs principales préoccupations susceptibles, selon eux, d'avoir un impact fort sur la RS de leurs entreprises. En effet, à la suite de discussions entre sujets, elle a permis de répertorier l'existence de 12 préoccupations jugées importantes par les dirigeants en rapport avec la RSE.

C'est pour cette raison que nous considérons que la détermination des préoccupations individuelles et leur mise en commun, constituent des étapes potentiellement cruciales dans la compréhension de la RSE des PME.

Pour les dirigeants, l'utilisation de cartes cognitives a un potentiel émancipatoire. Les cartes permettent en effet d'avoir une vision réflexive dans le but de pouvoir développer sa propre perception. De plus, la lecture des résultats devrait inciter les dirigeants à se positionner sur la thématique. Nous pensons que la carte cognitive est un outil utile pour un
dirigeant afin de comprendre, de développer et de communiquer sur la politique sociale de son entreprise. Même s’il ne sert pas à décrire les actions concrètes d’une entreprise ni même les intentions des dirigeants, l’outil carte cognitive, en dévoilant les perceptions de dirigeants de PME permet de comprendre les réflexions qui bloquent les actions et peut servir d’ébauche de stratégie sociale.

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GDP and Productivity Indicators of Albanian Governance, Through Innovations and Knowledge Transfer strategies

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Abstract
Albania's economy has improved substantially over recent years and has outperformed many other countries in the region. However, it is still considered one of the poorest countries in Europe. According to the Bank of Albania, per capita income was $4,070 in 2009, and was expected to reach $4,200 in 2010. According to preliminary data by the World Bank's Poverty Assessment Program, 12.4% of the population lived below the poverty line in 2008, marking a considerable improvement from 25.4% in 2002; this decline in poverty levels was due mainly to higher per capita GDP. The official unemployment rate is 13.52%, with almost 60% of the workforce employed in the agricultural sector, although the construction and service industries have been expanding recently. Albania is open to foreign investment and increasing FDI is a top priority for the Albanian government. Albania has put in place a liberal foreign investment regime, including a 10 percent flat corporate and income tax and has taken measures to improve the business climate by streamlining business procedures through e-government reforms. These improvements along with NATO membership and progress toward EU integration have contributed to the increase in investor interest during the last couple of years. Promising sectors for foreign investors include: energy (including alternative energies), mining, transportation, telecommunications, and tourism. Tourism has been boosted significantly by ethnic Albanian tourists from throughout the Balkans. GDP is comprised of services, including trade, hotels and restaurants (21%), transport (5.5%), and communication (4.5%) agriculture (19%); construction (14%); industry (10%) and remittances (9%). The Albanian economy has been partially sheltered from the global financial crisis and the economic downturn. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) projects growth at 3.4% and 3.6% for 2011 and 2012 respectively. A reduction in remittances from Albanian workers abroad has constrained economic activity, although exports grew in 2010. The country's geographic position places it at the crossroads of Western and Eastern Europe. A stable U.S. ally, Albania is a member of NATO, the WTO and is in the process of applying for candidate status in the European Union. During the global financial crisis, bank deposits shrank considerably and lower liquidity pushed commercial banks to tighten lending. While current bank deposits have reportedly surpassed pre-crisis levels and bank liquidity has improved, the demand for credit is still low. In December 2009, the growth rate of loans dropped to 10% from 35% in 2008. The low demand for credit continued into 2010, with the growth rate of loans slowing to 9.1% for the first 6 months of 2010. In general, the banking sector remains viable, well capitalized, and able to further finance the economy, as the ratio of loans to deposits, approximately 65%, is still low compared to Western standards.

1. Albanian Business and Social effects (An overview and data analyze)

In addition, as of May 2009-2010, the social insurance contribution payable by employers will be reduced again from 20% to 15%, down from 29% in 2006. Businesses can file their tax returns and social insurance declarations electronically in 12 cities including Tirana and electronic payment of taxes is also possible through certain banks.

1.2 Trade and Stabilization Association Agreement

Albania continues to be an import-oriented economy and, despite reforms, its export base remains small, narrow, and undiversified. In 2010 imports averaged 39% of GDP and exports 13%, while export volume was approximately one-third the size of imports. Trade volume in 2010 increased by 20%, with imports increasing by 11.4% and exports by 56%.
Exports and imports have continued to pick up 2011. As of June 2011, exports rose by 20.3% year-on-year while imports rose by 15.5%.

The Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA) signed with the EU in June 2006 was the first step in Albania's EU accession process, and a related Interim Trade Agreement entered into force the following December. On December 19, 2006, Albania joined other countries in the region and signed the Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA). Albania also has free trade agreements with Turkey (signed in 2006 and entered into force on May 2008) and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA member states are Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland).

Overall, the improvements in the public procurement legislation are advancing while the proper enforcement of the law is still a work in progress. In order to promote investments in priority sectors the GOA may offer concessions to local or international investors for the symbolic price of one euro. The GOA, with the approval of the Minister of Economy, authorizes concessions in other sectors besides the ones listed above. The law does not apply to concessions that require a separate operating license unless that is included in the framework of the concession agreement.

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**Fig 1** EU accession process, and a related Interim Trade Agreement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profitable years</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFTA ( million $)</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Import average | 6.2% | 3.56% | 11.3% | 11.4% | 20%  | 29%   |
| Exports pick up | 56%  | 20.3% | 15.5% | 14.3% | 21.23% | 41.25% |

**Tab 1** Albanian import-oriented economy

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. The impact of CEFTA in Albania’s trade with member countries has been small.

Trade with the United States continues to account for an insignificant part of Albania’s trade volume, focusing on a narrow range of goods and products. As of September 2010, total trade volume with the U.S. accounted for 3% of Albania’s total trade volume, up from 2.4% in September 2009. Agricultural products, footwear, and textiles are the main exports to the United States, while imports from the U.S. are generally from food (mainly meat), transportation equipment (vehicles), machinery, and computer and electronic equipment.

### 2.2 Increasing competitiveness of Albanian Economy

Albania is currently pursuing a path of greater Euro-Atlantic integration. Its primary long-term goals are to gain EU membership and to promote closer bilateral ties with its neighbors and with the United States. Albania is a member of a number of international organizations, as well as multiple regional organizations and initiatives, including NATO, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), the UN, the Stability Pact, the Adriatic Charter, and the
World Trade Organization (WTO). In June 2006, Albania and the EU signed a Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA), the first step to EU membership, which focuses on implementing essential rule of law reforms and curbing corruption and organized crime. Albania filed its application for EU candidacy on April 28, 2009 but has not yet been granted candidate status.

In November 2010, the European Commission issued a negative opinion of Albania’s EU accession efforts, listing conditions still to be met by Albania—first of which is a demonstration of political will to enact needed reform.

Fig 2. Albanian productivity goods and services.

Decisions on appeals are taken by the same unit of the PPA that is responsible for interpreting the law and giving advice to contracting authorities. Current procedures for handling complaints still do not meet recognized international standards. Despite progress, its application is hampered by technical problems, the insufficient IT capacity of many contracting authorities and corruption in drafting tender documents. Companies continue to experience issues with transparency in specifications and communication in competing for public tenders.

2.3 Knowledge transfer in projects and the financed implementation

The law “On Concessions,” No. 9663, dated December 18, 2006, established the necessary framework for promoting and facilitating the implementation of privately financed concessionary projects enhancing transparency, fairness, efficiency and long-term sustainability in the development of infrastructure and public service projects. One of its major amendments includes a better regulation for unsolicited proposals and of public-private partnerships in general. The law applies to a wide range of sectors, including:

- transport (railway system, rail transport, ports, airports, roads, tunnels, bridges, parking facilities, public transport);
- b) generation and distribution of electricity and heating;
- c) production and distribution of water, treatment, collection distribution and administration of waste water, irrigation, drainage, cleaning of canals, dams;
- d) collection, transfer, processing and administration of solid waste;
- e) telecommunication;
- f) education and sport;
- g) health;
h) tourism and culture;
l) management contracts or provision of public services including those related to sectors specified above.

[The trade second quarter, year 2011, INSTAT Analyze report year 2011]

Volume index of turnover in retail trade in the second quarter 2011 has resulted 164.5 percent against (2005=100). Compared with the same quarter of previous year the value of the volume index of turnover in the second quarter is decreased 6.9 percent, while compared with previous quarter is increased 1.9 per cent. In the group “Other retail trade in non-specialized stores” volume index of turnover in second quarter 2011 is increased 25.2 percent, compared with the previous quarter.

Within the “Total sale and repair of motor vehicles” in the group “Retail sale of automotive fuel” volume index of turnover in second quarter 2011 increased 17.2 percent compared, with the same quarter of previous year. “Retail sale of automotive fuel” volume index of turnover is increased 3.2 percent compared with the previous quarter. Employment index on “Retail trade” in the second quarter resulted 170.1 percent against (2005=100). This index is decreased by 1.1 percent compared with the same period of previous year. In “Sale and repair of motor vehicles” the index resulted 189.3 percent against (2005=100) signing of 3.3 percent compared with the same period of previous year. In addition, the GOA will also privatize through an auction the 16 percent of state owned shares of the fixed line monopoly Alb telecom. The GOA does not screen foreign investments and the United States enjoys a popular image in Albania. Both the business community and public generally welcome American firms and their products. Companies interested in entering the Albanian market should contact Albanian Business and Investment Agency Alb-invest. Alb invest provides direct assistance to investors, promotes SMEs, Albanian exports and FDI. “Doing Business 2010,” a report of the World Bank and IFC that evaluates the regulations affecting ten areas of everyday business and assesses ease and equal opportunity for businesses in 183 economies. Albania has continuously moved up in their rankings as highlight below.


Following some large privatizations which were finalized in 2009, the GOA will most likely start the procedures for the privatization of 100 percent of the state-owned insurer INSIG (following the failure of negotiations with the winner in early 2009 for the sale of 61 percent of the shares, EBRD and IFC exercised the put option for their 39 percent and GOA became the owner of 100 percent of the INSIG shares.) In addition, the GOA has announced its intention to fully privatize Alb petrol, the state-owned company that manages and administers all the existing gas and oil fields in Albania. The company also has the right to sign petroleum agreements with interested parties for the existing gas and oil fields.
All partners are unlimitedly and jointly liable for the debts of the entity. Creditors can claim against a partner for the debts of the partnership, only if they have failed in their claims against the partnership as a whole. In unlimited partnerships, the partners are all considered administrators of the partnership, unless the contrary is stipulated in the bylaws. Each partner represents the partnership with third parties. An unlimited partnership should issue annual financial reports. The rights, duties and obligations of partners are governed by written bylaws, which should be filed with the National Registration Center.

3.1 Limited Partnership and contributions of partners

A limited partnership, which is seldom used in practice, consists of one or more general partners (unlimited) with unlimited liability and one or more limited partners whose liability is limited to the amount of their agreed contributions of the initial capital. A limited partner may not take part in the management of the partnership even if he is given a proxy, otherwise he incurs unlimited liability. The Articles of Incorporation of the limited partnership should contain:
1. The total amount or value of the contributions of all partners;
2. The amount or value of the contribution made by each general or unlimited partner;
3. The percentage of the participation of all general partners and of each limited partner in the partnership’s profits and in the remaining value after its dissolution.

This is the most common legal form of conducting business in Albania. Its members enjoy limited liability and, unless the articles of the bylaws provide otherwise, members have the right to transfer their shares to other persons, upon decision of three fourths of the shareholders. It can be established by one or more partners, legal or natural persons, who are responsible for losses only to the extent of their contribution to the capital of the company.

Conclusions

In strong local government leadership and active community participation were keys to implementing an integrated plan involving urban planning, infrastructure, and economic development. Despite its location in an industrialized province Jerez’s economy relies on wine production which, in recent years has been declining. Weak community participation, inadequate infrastructure, poor accessibility to regional resources and an unskilled labor force compounded the effects of massive job cuts in the wine industry. To address these problems, Jerez launched a new strategy for economic recovery in 1993, shifting the emphasis from seeking to attract investments from sources outside the municipality to fostering local integrated development.

There are seven key factors:

- A dynamic local government leadership
- A coherent strategy acted upon with determination
• A healthy climate of cooperation with business
• Local government’s investment initiatives to jumpstart the stagnant economy
• Creative use EU funds to implement local policy
• Efficient municipal administration
• Coherent links among urban planning, infrastructure and economic development.

Finally, the engagement of senior government officials in the dissemination of project information secured commitment among communities and farmers.

a) To work closely with Community-Based organizations so as to enhance their capacity to participate in development programs and strengthen the City Council’s capacity to respond to requests from communities
b) To adopt a new approach to Environmental Planning and Management based on capacity building. (1) Albania-Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Strategy 2009.

The CIP upgraded infrastructure, enhanced participation and built the capacity of CBOs and stakeholders. CIP strengthened institutional capacity by establishing program offices in each community, forming steering committees made up of representatives from all stakeholder groups and formalizing institutional links between the relevant partners and information for decision-making and monitoring of performance among the stakeholders altered attitudes and understanding of roles and responsibilities. c) Initial assessments suggested that decentralization did improve the quality of service delivery and foster a new, user oriented attitude, facilitating the transition from a centrally planned to a market economy.

We suggest these conclusions:

1. Introducing participatory planning and community-based development processes through neighborhood development committees and street representatives working in partnership with the city
2. Creating an enabling environment for private investment
3. Empowering citizens to pursue their own self improvement
4. promoting privatization of the housing stock and fostering the development of micro-enterprises
5. Ensuring the sustainability of activities initiated
6. Promoting the reliability of successful initiatives.

**Expected Results**

The expected results of this research consist on realizing the following conclusions. The importance of innovation as such for the future of the sector was strongly emphasised by policy makers responsible for forestry in all Central European countries. Current innovation support is piecemeal, fractioned and often not coordinated. This issue-by-issue approach foregoes the benefits of a more coherent and comprehensive approach; there is support for new approaches and ideas. It would considerably strengthen the development of an innovation and entrepreneurial oriented climate. For the purpose of strengthening innovation and entrepreneurship in the different sectors it is therefore recommended to develop an explicit innovation policy, strategy or programme. When developing innovation policies, strategies or programmes, it is important to consider each of the three main functions of an innovation system separately and as a comprehensive whole.

The key measures will be the following:

1) Credit policy: The strict limits on credit expansion. The domestic budget deficit will be covered by non-inflationary financing through the issuing of treasury bills.
2) Fiscal management: A strong fiscal policy stance will be maintained aimed at reducing the budget deficit to sustainable levels. This involves measures to broaden the tax system, improvements in tax administration, elimination of the remaining price subsidies, rationalization of social services, public administration reform and utilization of external support.

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Internal Migration Patterns of Natives and Foreigners in Spain

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Abstract: As a consequence of strong international immigration, Spanish statistical data offer the possibility to distinguish between patterns of migration for both natives and foreigners. The objective of this paper is to determine the difference in patterns between these two categories as regards their migration within Spanish borders. The period of analysis is mainly 2003-2010, the level of aggregation is NUTS 3 (provincial) and the method of research is a quantitative comparative analysis. The study is divided in the following areas of interest: intra and inter-provincial flows; gross and net migration; migration by sex, by age, by source/destination size, and by nationality.

Also, I try to find out if migrants are more attracted by leading provinces and if the hypothesis of social networking for foreign-born migrants is confirmed. The main results reveal: a greater propensity of foreign-born migrants to make long-distance movements; gross migration rates of foreigners much higher than natives'; both natives and foreigners (more) are attracted by prosperous provinces; foreign out-migrants are less willing to leave provinces with high concentration of foreign-born population while foreign in-migrants prefer such provinces, i.e. social networking is true; foreign males migrate more than foreign females while the difference between Spanish sexes is rather inexistent; foreigners and Spaniards have also different age propensities to migration, although with some similarities; Spaniards and foreigners also differ when referring to the size of the province they come/go from/to. And finally, the paper makes a ranking of migration by groups of nationality.

Keywords: internal migration, patterns, natives, foreigners, Spain

1. Introduction

Since 1998 onwards, Spain has become the favorite European destination of international immigrants. The number of foreigners grew steadily and rapidly from 637,085 persons (1.6% of the total population) in 1998 to 3,034,326 persons (7.02%) in 2004, and finally, up to 5,747,734 persons (12.22%) in 2010. Therefore, the foreign population in Spain has multiplied by more than seven in a thirteen-year time. Moreover, in 2010, 18.8% of total immigrants were located in the community of Madrid and 14% in Barcelona (20.9% in Catalonia). The Valencian Community and Andalusia come next with 15.5% and 12.2% of total immigrant population. In 2010, the main immigrants were from Romania (781,343), Morocco (645,156), Ecuador, United Kingdom, Colombia and Bolivia, each with effectives between 200 and 300 thousand citizens. Also in 2010, the provinces of Alicante, Balearic Islands, Almeria and Gerona were recording the highest percentages of foreigners in total population (between 21.5 and 24.2%) whereas Jaen, Cordoba, Corunna, Badajoz, Caceres and Cadiz were having the lowest percentages (between 3 and 4%). Madrid was having 16.7%, Barcelona 14.6%, Valencia 12.2% and Seville 4% immigrants in their aggregate population. And finally, Almeria, Castellion, Gerona, Lerida and Tarragona were the provinces that witnessed the highest increases in foreign-born population percentages, with more than 10 points.

Nonetheless, one should bear in mind that these figures are underestimated taking into account that numerous immigrants do not declare their residence and live illegally in Spain. But here, in this paper, I will consider only the legal registered immigrants.

But why did Spain become the “most wanted” country in Europe? De Haas (2007) enumerates the following possible reasons: a higher labor demand for low-skilled workers, an increasing desire of self-accomplishment among immigrants and a favorable immigration policy.

The data used in this paper is taken from the Spanish National Institute of Statistics (INE) through the section “Statistics of Residence Variation” which provides information on official annual migration, both internal and external. The main period of analysis is 2003-2010 because relevant disaggregated data cover only this time interval. The advantage of annual data is that allows the capture of short-term changes neglected by census data. Another database used is the “Continuous Register” of INE which provides data on the number of Spanish and non-Spanish inhabitants at the beginning of each year.

The aim of this paper is to identify the main patterns in internal migration of both Spaniards and foreigners and, more precisely, the difference between them. This is why the method of research employed is a quantitative comparative statistical analysis. Also, some econometric tests are carried out on certain panel data. The structure of the paper is the
following: section 2 presents some short thoughts offered by the existing literature, section 3 carries out a statistical analysis of domestic migration flows in Spain for both natives and foreigners, section 4 makes a division of internal migration by sex, age, province size, nationality; also, it investigates on the existence of social networking and economic incentives; finally, section 4 offers some insights on future research.

2. Literature Review

The most important questions to answer about foreigners’ patterns of internal migration are: Do they remain in the initial place of residence?, Are their patterns of migration similar to those of natives?, What motivates them to change residence?, Their internal mobility helps them concentrate or spread? (Recaño, 2002, 2006). The answers are quite difficult to give.

The existing literature ((Recaño & Roig, 2006; García Coll, 2005; Pumares, 2005; Recaño & Domingo, 2006) indicates that: foreigners are much more mobile than Spaniards, their high mobility is strongly related to the length of residence and the age structure, and their migration patterns are different from those of natives (Recaño, 2006).

Nogle (1994) argues that foreigners are more mobile due to their socio-demographic characteristics (age, education, length of residence, job hold, etc.). Bartel & Koch (1991) and Kritz & Noble (1994) consider that immigrants are more influenced by social networks and less by economic and amenity conditions. The existence of previous immigrants in a certain location helps a new immigrant to obtain cheap information about job opportunities, maybe to get a temporary shelter and other facilities (Frey, 1995).

Instead, Schündeln and Schündeln (2002) demonstrates for Germany that foreigners are more responsive than nationals to regional labor market gaps. In turn, Kritz and Gurak (2001) affirm that US immigrants have a lower willingness to leave prosperous regions and/or regions with a high concentration of compatriots.

Plane & Bitter (1997), Hierro & Maza (2010), and Izquierdo & Carrasco (2005) think that foreign-born residents are more mobile between regions than native-born because of lower monetary and non-monetary costs, i.e. weaker friendship and kinship ties, lack of homeownership, instable and temporary jobs usually in the black economy.

Belanger and Rogers (1992) argue that the internal moves of foreigners change their territorial distribution and concentration. Instead, Newbold (1999) is in favor of changes in concentration only among certain nationality groups.

Nogle (1997) says that immigrants recently arrived and those with low human capital resources are most dependent on social networks.

3. Gross Internal Migration (national, intra- and inter-provincial)

During the period 1998-2010, internal migration among Spaniards was within the range 22.4‰ (2001) and 31.3‰ (2006) while among foreigners reached its minimum of 62‰ in 1998 and its maximum of 120.8‰ in 2002. If the average rate for natives was of 27.4 migrants per 1,000 inhabitants, for foreigners was more than triple (95.2‰). Moreover, changes in Spanish rates were very small compared to changes in foreign rates. If internal movements of Spaniards multiplied by 1.37 from 1998 to 2010, in the case of foreigners the ratio reached 11.5. And if, in 1998, natives accounted for 96% of total internal migrations, in 2010, their proportion decreased at 73%. Table 1 is illustrative.

Another interesting fact is that although international immigration grew steady during this period, we can observe that foreign internal movements began to fall beginning with 2008. This fact can be attributed to the global economic crisis.

Table 1. Internal migration for natives and foreigners (1998-2010)

| Year | Spaniards | | | Foreigners | | |
|------|-----------|-----|-----|------------|-----|
|      | movements | gross rates (%) | %  | movements | gross rates (%) | %  |
| 1998 | 893,694   | 22.8 | 96  | 39,529    | 62   | 4  |
| 1999 | 955,183   | 24.2 | 95  | 50,944    | 68   | 5  |
| 2000 | 952,458   | 24.1 | 92  | 79,626    | 86.2 | 8  |
| 2001 | 889,814   | 22.4 | 89  | 104,801   | 76.5 | 11 |
| 2002 | 1,085,061 | 27.2 | 82  | 238,866   | 120.8| 18 |
During the interval 2003-2010, the average number of native-born intra-migrants was of about 734,000 (62%) while the number of inter-migrants was of about 455,900 (38%). Instead, foreign-born migrants were about 239,200 (55%) moving within one province and 194,650 (45%) moving across different provinces. As for the rates, the highest were 19.4‰ (intra) and 11.9‰ (inter) for natives, and 63.7‰ (intra) and 55.2‰ (inter) for foreigners. The maximum value for total intra-migration was recorded in 2006 while the maximum value for total inter-migration was recorded one year later. In general, the intra oscillations were more flatted than inter ones and the difference between intra- and inter-flows, although always in favor of intra ones, was smaller for foreigners. Another way put, foreign residents were relatively more mobile between provinces than native-born citizens even though both categories preferred short-distance moves instead of long ones (fig. 1, (a) & (b)).
4. Classification of Internal Migration by Various Categories

4.1. Migration Rates by Province. Socio-Economic Stimuli and Social Networking

On average, over the period 2003-2010, in the case of natives, the provinces of Guadalajara, Toledo and Tarragona recorded the highest rates of in-migration (64.2, 46.4 and 44.1‰), while Cordoba, Jaen and Badajoz had the lowest in-migration rates (16.3, 18.2 and 19.5‰). For out-migration, on one hand, Guadalajara (43.9‰), Balearic Islands (42.1‰) and Gerona (39.2‰) registered the highest rates and, on the other hand, Cordoba (16.9‰), Badajoz (18.4‰) and Murcia (19.6‰) registered the lowest rates.

Afterwards, foreign in-migration reached its highest values in Guadalajara (192.9‰), Zamora (191.3‰) and Biscay (184.1‰) and the lowest in Alicante (71.7‰), Malaga (72‰) and Almeria (76.9‰). Instead, the highest and lowest rates of out-migration among foreigners were recorded in Zamora (198.2‰), Jaen (189‰) and Palencia (180.3‰), the highest, and in Malaga (66.1‰), Alicante (67.5‰) and Balearic Islands (80.3‰), the lowest.

Fig. 2 displays net internal migration rates by province for natives and foreigners. Thus, rates turned negative in 21 provinces for natives and 27 provinces for foreigners. Moreover, 15 (17) provinces recorded net outflows (inflows) for both Spaniards and non-Spaniards.
Are prosperous provinces more attractive for migrants? The previous literature is controversial as regards the preference of foreigners for prosperous regions. By prosperous province I understand a province with higher GDP/capita and lower unemployment rate than the national averages, among others. In order to elucidate somewhat the controversy aforementioned, I will perform a two panel data regressions to illustrate the relationship between net migration rates (only interprovincial) for natives and foreigners (as regressants) and real provincial GDPs per capita (eq. I) and, respectively, provincial unemployment rates (eq. II) (as regressors, both in relative terms, i.e. Spain=100). The period of analysis is 2003-2008. Thus, after controlling for fixed effects (two way, i.e. provincial and time), it seems that foreigners were indeed more attracted by provinces with higher incomes (positive correlation of 0.75) than natives (positive correlation of 0.18) (eq. I). Further, when estimating eq. II, I obtain two negative and significant estimates, for natives (-0.17) and for foreigners (-0.02). Therefore, foreigners were also more responsive than natives to unemployment provincial gaps. The preference of foreigners for the more developed provinces could be explained by their lower income levels and better job opportunities (as a pull factor) offered by these.

Is social networking a real fact for foreign migrants? Next, I want to find out if there is a social network effect in Spain, i.e. if provinces with many immigrants keep them or attract others. In order to solve this, Hierro and Maza (2010) employed a cross-sectional regression in which put together the percentage of foreign-born population in total provincial population (as regressor) and the rate of interprovincial out-migration for the foreign-born people (as regressant). They have found a negative significant correlation for the period 1996-2005 (-0.58). Instead, using the same variables but with a two-way fixed-effects panel data model for the period 2003-2010 (N=350), I get a weaker negative but significant coefficient (-0.44). Applying the same technique for the in-migration rate, I obtain a positive and significant estimate of 0.67. Concretely, a 1% increase in the percentage of foreigner residents will lower their out-migration rate by 0.44% and will boost their in-migration rate by 0.67%. In conclusion, no matter I tested on in-migration or out-migration, foreign-born migrants were less willing to leave a province with a higher concentration of foreigners or more willing to enter such a province, thus confirming the theory of social networking. Table 2 presents in detail the results of the regressions performed in STATA (9.2/SE version).

Source: Own elaboration based on INE data
NB: Data include total (intra & inter) flows, including flows to & from Ceuta and Melilla.

Figure 2. Migration balance by province 2003-2010

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1 All variables were used in logarithms and, thus, the estimates are interpreted in terms of elasticity.

2 Estimates were computed using one lag of the regressor in order to avoid simultaneity.
Table 2. Social networking in Spain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Out-migration</th>
<th>In-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign residents %</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R2</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall F test</td>
<td>103.47***</td>
<td>91.04***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummies F test</td>
<td>59.66***</td>
<td>29.45***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: Significant at 1% significance level

4.2. Migration by Sex

For Spaniards, 50.1% (600,835 persons) of average total migrants were men, and for foreigners, 55.4% (241,245 persons) were also men. If considering inter-provincial migration, the gaps increased at 50.3% (233,590 migrants) for Spanish men and 59% (115,725) for foreign men. Therefore, in Spain, both native and foreign males migrated more than females.

Fig. 3 depicts similar evolutions for both total and inter rates of migration and, furthermore, Spanish sexes had the same rates (total: men = women = 14.8‰; inter: men = women = 5.7‰) but not foreign sexes where men's rates exceeded women's rates (total: men = 57.2‰, women = 45.8‰; inter: men = 26.7‰, women = 19‰).

Source: Own elaboration based on INE data

Figure 3. Total and inter rates of migration of natives and foreigners
4.3. Migration by Age Groups

Table 3 presents a ranking by age groups for both natives and foreigners with their corresponding average percentages and rates. As one can see, the most mobile migrants, both Spaniards and non-Spaniards, were those aged 25-34. Nevertheless, the hierarchy is different for the two categories.

**Table 3. Age ranking of migration for Spaniards and foreigners**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Spaniards</th>
<th>Foreigners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 25-34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. &lt; 16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 35-44</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 55-64</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7, ≥ 65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Own elaboration based on INE data*

4.4. Migration by Size of Provinces

The majority of both native-born people and foreign-born people came from provincial capitals (30% each) and from little towns with less than 10,000 inhabitants (24% natives and 19% foreigners) and went to little towns with less than 10,000 inhabitants (29%) and other provincial capitals (23%), the natives, and the reverse goes for foreigners (26% of them went to other capitals and 19% to little towns).

4.5. Migration by Nationality

On average, international immigrants came from the Europe, America (North, Centre and South), Africa and Asia. Therefore, it is logical to expect these immigrants to be the most to move internally. More precisely, foreign residents changed address within Spanish borders as follows: 34.8% were European citizens, 30.3% Americans, 13% Africans and 4.9% Asians. A ranking by nationality of internal migrants looks like this: Romanians (12.5%), Moroccans (8.4%), British (4.9%), Bolivians (4.4%), Columbians (3.5%), Ecuadorians (3.3%), Argentineans (2.9%), Brazilians (2.8%), Peruvians (2.6%), Bulgarians (2.3%) and Chinese (2%) – if considering their absolute total number.

If I consider the net migration outcomes by province and nationality (grouped by continent) since the last enlargement of the EU (2007), the results show a large heterogeneity between groups of nationality as regards their net provincial internal moves. For example, only six provinces registered positive balances for all groups (EU, non-EU, Africa, America, and Asia). The same happened for seven provinces with negative balances. The positive “homogenous” provinces were Alava, Asturias, Cantabria, Corunna, Navarre and Seville, and the negative were Cuenca, Jaen, Las Palmas, Salamanca, Segovia, Teruel and Zamora.

5. Final Remarks

In a future research, I intend to undertake a comprehensive study of the main determinants (push and pull factors) of internal migration for natives and, respectively non-Spanish residents. This will help in elucidate to which factors (of which nature) these two categories are more responsive and how they decide to migrate.

Acknowledgment

This article is a result of the project POSDRU/88/1.5./S/55287 “Doctoral Programme in Economics at European Knowledge Standards (DOESEC)“. This project is co-funded by the European Social Fund through The Sectorial Operational Programme for Human Resources Development 2007-2013, coordinated by The Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies in partnership with West University of Timisoara.
References


The Self-Identifications Through Pronominal Choice in Turkish Political Discourse

Duygu Candarli

Abstract: Political discourse studies have analyzed the context and the way that personal pronouns and possessive pronouns are used by politicians and how they maintain their stance through their conversations in different contexts (Van Dijk, 1997, 2002). This study attempts to examine self-identifications that Turkish political party leaders develop through their employment of pronominal choice. The data come from the period before 2011 elections in Turkey. By comparing their first person singular and plural possessive pronoun use in different contexts, this paper tries to find out the factors that affect the distribution of their pronominal choice in Turkish political discourse. Within the critical discourse analysis approach, the results indicate that the location, topic, purpose and venue influence the pronominal choice of the politicians.

Keywords: political discourse, possessive pronouns, venue, topic, self-identification

1. Introduction

Political discourse is one form of communication which has distinctive characteristics. Dedaic (as cited in Reyes-Rodriguez, 2008, pp. 133) describes political speech as “relatively autonomous discourse produced orally by a politician in front of an audience, the purpose of which is merely persuasion rather than information or entertainment.”

Political speech is a genre between a literary text and a casual conversation, and it is delivered orally although politicians may read aloud their speeches from a written text. Nevertheless, it is different from other spoken language in that it is not the same as face-to-face conversation, and the audience reaction does not directly affect the content of the political speeches (Reyes-Rodriguez, 2008).

Political speeches have been examined by linguists and discourse analysts within the critical discourse analysis approach, and they have been analyzed by sociologists and political science scholars worldwide in order to enable the society to become aware of the discoursal strategies of politicians and to help politicians to produce more effective political speeches to persuade people into voting for them on the electoral road (Schaffner, 1996; Pardo 2001; Reyes-Rodriguez, 2008; Protocotor & Wen Su, 2011).

Examining political discourse with scientific methods is of vital importance because votes that may seem to be reactions towards the political speeches determine how a country will be governed for a specific time. By using personal pronouns, politicians can express their positioning and with which group and ideology to self-identify and achieve their rhetorical purposes to persuade people into voting for them (van, Dijk, 1997).

2. Literature Review

The use of personal pronouns reflects the way we interpret our relationships with others. The meaning of personal pronouns depends on the context. A single sentence may not be enough to give a specific meaning to a personal pronoun as the meaning can be derived from the contextual knowledge above the syntactic level. Therefore, it is vital to clarify the topic and venue of the political speeches since both of them can have a substantial impact on personal pronoun choice. Previous studies find out that pronominal choice discloses politicians’ self-identifications, which, in turn, play a great role in voters’ decisions (Bull &Fetzer, 2006; Protocotor & Wen Su, 2011). Moreover, as Cramer (2010) claims that through the pronominal choice, speakers create, recreate and make visible specific identities in real time.

The distribution of personal pronouns can depend on various factors. Van Dijk (2002) argues that overall domain, overall societal action, interaction, venue and topic can affect the political speeches and the pronominal choice. In addition, he claims that venue plays a more crucial role than that of the topic. However, he also states that interlocutors, time and the specific aims of political speeches may also be influential.

Bull and Fetzer (2006) focus on political interviews in their research and suggest that personal pronouns are employed by politicians to “accept, deny or distance themselves from responsibility for politician action; to encourage solidarity; to designate and identify both supporters and enemies” (p.5). They find out that the personal and political ideologies of politicians can be determined by their pronominal choice. However, as they did not give any quantitative results regarding the frequency or percentage of analyzed pronouns and related self-identifications, it is a little bit hard to come to a certain conclusion concerning the self-identifications and factors behind them.
In a very recent study, Proctor and Su (2011) analyzed the personal pronoun “we” and the possessive pronoun “our” used by four American politicians, who are Sarah Palin, Joe Biden, Hilary Clinton and Barack Obama in political interviews and in a debate. They conclude that self-identifications are disclosed by politicians’ pronominal choice, and the use of pronouns suggests the relation strength between politicians and their parties. Moreover, they argue that the external context which is venue and purpose has a more considerable influence than the topic and other factors.

When Turkish political discourse studies are reviewed, few studies are conducted in terms of linguistic and discoursal analysis of Turkish politicians’ speeches. The persuasive strategies of Turkish politicians before the elections of 2002 are examined (Büyükkantarcıoğlu & Yarar, 2004, 2006). Very similarly, the content analysis and persuasive strategies of four Turkish political party leaders are explored (Çubukçu, İlerten, Kafasibüyük & Esme, 2008). They found out that among four Turkish political party leaders, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan’s speech mainly focused on unity and inclusiveness to a greater extent than other politicians by using words with positive connotations. Also, they pointed out that he most frequently used the personal pronoun “we” (“biz” in Turkish) in his speeches. To the knowledge of the author, there has not been any study regarding the self-identifications of Turkish political party leaders so far. Therefore, to fill this research gap, this study aims to address these two research questions by taking Proctor and Su’s study (2011) as a model:

1) What are the self-identifications of Turkish political party leaders in different contexts through pronominal choice?
2) What factors affect the distribution of their possessive pronouns?

3. Methodology
3.1. Data Collection
The data consist of corpora compiled from two political party leaders’ speeches at election sites and in an interview on a state channel, TRT. The political party leaders are Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, who is the leader of Justice and Development Party and the prime minister of Turkey at that time, and Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu, who is the new leader of Republican People’s Party. Their two political speeches that they delivered in Ankara and Istanbul were selected as it was thought that since Istanbul and Ankara are the most populous and cosmopolitan cities of Turkey, the leaders’ speech may reflect their general discourse and self-identifications before the parliamentary elections of 2011. Their talks were found on YouTube, downloaded, imported to NVivo 9 and transcribed in this software for the purpose of practicality. The interviews were taken from TV archive website, downloaded and again transcribed in NVivo 9. In transcriptions, any fillers or pauses are ruled out. Both of the interviews were broadcast on TRT, a state channel in Turkey. The same four journalists asked similar questions to both of the leaders, which can increase the comparability of two corpora. In Table 1, the size of the corpus is shown. Although there is a difference in terms of the size between corpora of two political parties, the total word count in each corpus is not significantly different.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Recep Tayyip Erdogan</th>
<th>Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>4,542 words</td>
<td>2,184 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>5,248 words</td>
<td>2,833 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>4,000 words</td>
<td>6,740 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,790 words</strong></td>
<td><strong>11,757 words</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Size of the corpus

1Recep Tayyip Erdoğan’s speech in Ankara can be accessed on this website: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R-SKhBmLyAs. His speech in Istanbul can be accessed on this website: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H684U8yvFa8. Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu’s speech in Ankara can be accessed on this website: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SBvNlQewv4I. Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu’s speech in Istanbul can be accessed on this website: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=V1-9aFWw65M.
3.2. Data Analysis

In analyzing data, I first read all the transcriptions to familiarize myself with the context, and then I searched for possessive pronouns “my” (benim in Turkish), “our” (bizim in Turkish) and suffixes (“-ım/-im, -ımız/-imiz). By using the deictic mapping techniques developed by Wortham (1996) as a framework, I tried to explore the use of possessive pronouns in self-identifications in this study within the critical discourse analysis approach. In Wortham’s (1996) framework, the context provides evidence for the connection between pronouns and identity alignment. I did all the analyses in NVivo 9. According to the context, I decided whether possessive pronouns were used to reveal the politician’s self-identifications or not and coded the categories in the software. After I coded the categories, I checked and read the data for the second time to ensure that all the self-identifications through the use of possessive pronouns were coded. Only with the help of the context, it is possible to understand pronominal choice in the discourse (Van Dijk, 2009). Furthermore, my analysis is grounded in Fairclough’s assumptions in critical discourse analysis, arguing that ideologies can be revealed in texts, but they are open to different interpretations (1995).

4. Results of the Political Speeches at Election Sites

4.1. The Speeches of the Leader of Development and Justice Party at Election Sites

4.1.1. Ankara

As it is seen in Chart 1, Recep Tayyip Erdogan used “my” (the word “benim or the suffix “-ım” in Turkish) to indicate his solidarity with mainly three groups: All people in Turkey 64%, people from Ankara 11% and the nation 10%. He rarely used “my” to identify himself with his party, party members or the members of parliament.

Example 1 shows how the possessive pronoun “my” is used to identify with all people:

“Sevgili Ankaralılar, sevgili kardeşlerim şunu unutmayın: Yeni CHP dedikleri sadece içi boş bir projedir.”

“Dear people from Ankara, dear my siblings, don’t forget this: The so-called new CHP (Republican People’s Party) is just a hollow project.” (My translation)

While he was identifying himself with all the people or people from Ankara, he strategically used the word “siblings” (“kardeşim”) in Turkish to strengthen his solidarity with those people and emphasized his attachment to them. Moreover, he also used “dear” (“sevgili” in Turkish) as an affectionate or a friendly form of address to enhance solidarity.
Chart 2. Categories of the possessive pronoun “our” in the political speeches of Recep Tayyip Erdogan at the election site in Ankara

As Chart 2 shows, Recep Tayyip Erdogan used “our” (the word “bizim” and/or the suffix -ımız/-imiz” 20 times to identify himself with groups/ideologies. I claim that he tended to reveal his ideological views through the use of possessive pronouns in these data as in the examples below.

Example 2 shows his identification with National Independence War:

“Ankara’yı Kurtuluş Savaşımızın karargahı haline getiren, buradan Kurtuluş Savaşını sevk ve idare eden Gazi Mustafa Kemal’i, onunla birlikte Kurtuluş Savaşımızın tüm şehit ve gazilerini de rahmet ve minnetle anıyorum.”

“I gratefully and commemorate veteran Mustafa Kemal, who was at the forefront of the National Independence War and rendered Ankara the military quarter of our National Independence war, and all the veterans and casualties of our National Independence War.” (My translation)

In example 2, I sense that he may evoke a little of nationalism though these subtle words may not carry an evident message.

Another group that he identified himself with is “women with headscarves” as the example 3 shows:

“Başörtülü kızlarımız bu profesörü çok iyi tanırm. Yıllarca başörtülü yavrularımızı zulmeden, onları ikna odaları kurmak suretiyle sistematik, psikolojik işkence uygulayan bir profesör.”

“Our girls with headscarves know this professor very well. She is a professor who have oppressed our girls with headscarves for years and tormented them systematically and psychologically in the rooms that she formed in order to persuade them.” (My translation)

Similar to example 2, it can be said that the example 3 also reflects his ideology and positioning with “women with headscarves” by the use of the possessive pronoun “our”. He strategically identified himself with “our girls with headscarves” to promote his solidarity with this social group.

In the bundled category of others, he focused on “students, country, Akyurt town, political campaign, power, cities and municipality” once, which may be attributed to the fact that he may have wanted to indicate his interest with a wide range of things, people and groups.
4.1.2. Istanbul

Chart 3. Categories of the possessive pronoun “my” in the political speeches of Recep Tayyip Erdogan at the election site in Istanbul

As Chart 3 illustrates, Erdogan had a more inclusive approach in terms of his self-identification since he most frequently associated himself with all people in Istanbul in comparison with his self-identifications in Ankara, which may stem from the fact that Istanbul is the most populous and cosmopolitan city which inhabits people from a wide variety of social positions. Therefore, by adhering to all people, he may have wanted to gain more supporters. Similar to his self-identifications with all people, he again used the word “my siblings” (“kardeşim” in Turkish) and “dear” (“sevgili” in Turkish) to foster solidarity, which is consistent in his speeches.

Interestingly, he self-identified with supporters of Republican People’s Party (CHP) three times, which may be attributed to the fact that he even aimed to win their hearts as the example 4 indicates:

“Bunu bütün CHP’li kardeşlerime anlatın, CHP’ye gönül veren kardeşlerime anlatın.”
“Tell this to all my siblings of who support CHP and set their hearts on CHP.” (My translation)

Another difference in political speech of Erdogan in Istanbul is that he made far more reference to people and groups than those of Ankara.

Chart 4. Categories of the possessive pronoun “our” in the political speeches of Recep Tayyip Erdogan at the election site in Istanbul
As Chart 4 illustrates, there is a more equal distribution of self-identifications of Erdogan through the employment of possessive pronoun “our”. As he made his political speech in Istanbul, he predominantly identified himself with Istanbul as in the example 5:

“İstanbul’umuzda biz mazot, benzin, gazıyla bulabiliyor muyduk?”

“Were we able to find diesel oil, gas and gas oil in our Istanbul?” (My translation)

4.2. The Speeches of the Leader of the Republican People’s Party at Election Sites

4.2.1. Ankara

Unlike Erdogan, Kilicdaroglu employed very few self-identifications through the use of pronominal choice. As Chart 5 demonstrates, he referred to certain groups and people just 13 times, which is far less than Erdogan’s self-identifications.

![Chart 5. Categories of the possessive pronoun “our” in the political speeches of Kemal Kilicdaroglu at the election site in Ankara](image)

Different from Erdogan, Kilicdaroglu self-identified with young people three times, which may stem from the fact that his main target audience was young people during 2011 elections.

Example 6 demonstrates his identification with young people:

“Bizim gençlerimizi cumhuriyetin, Mustafa Kemal’in gençleri olarak yetiştiriceğiz.”

“We will bring up our young people as Mustafa Kemal’s and republic’s young people.” (My translation)

Kilicdaroglu did not create any self-identifications specifically with Ankara or people from Ankara although he delivered his speech in Ankara, which is different from Erdogan who self-identified with people and cities where he gave his speeches strategically.

Another important point is that he just employed “my” once to self-identify only with women as the example 7 shows:

“Kadın kardeşlerime sesleniyorum.”

“I am addressing my sisters.” (My translation)

While Erdogan mainly created his self-identifications with the pronoun “my”, Kilicdaroglu used it only once. From this finding, it may be inferred that Erdogan regards himself as more independent rather than a member of a political party unlike Kilicdaroglu since Kilicdaroglu referred to his Party, Republican People’s Party, 27 times while Erdogan made very few references to his own party in his own political speeches at election sites. Another reason behind this finding might be that Kilicdaroglu became a new leader of his party while Erdogan was the leader of his party for many years.

4.2.2. Istanbul

Kilicdaroglu is consistent in his self-identifications as he strongly associated himself with his party members, all people and young people, which has a similar trend with his identifications in Ankara.
As Chart 6 shows, the prominent difference is that he most frequently identified himself with his party members, which may be attributed to the fact that he wished to create a good impression about his party and party members in order to gain voters’ recognition as in the example 8:

“Meraklanmayın bir değil iki değil üç bakınlar kurulu çıkaracak kadrolarımız var.”

“Don’t worry. We can form three cabinets, let alone two cabinets out of our party members.” (My translation)

**Chart 6. Categories of the possessive pronoun “our” in the political speeches of Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu at the election site in Istanbul**

Similar to his speech in Ankara, he did not reveal any identifications through the use of personal pronoun “my” in Istanbul. He just referred to “all people” twice and party members once by employing the personal pronoun “my”. Although, he created more self-identifications in Ankara in comparison with Istanbul, he did not identify with different groups or people as frequently or intently as Erdogan did during his speeches at election sites.

**5. Results of the Interviews on TV**

The interviews on TV can be regarded as a different genre from the election speeches of political party leaders as the interviews are based on turn-taking and the questions of interviewers, which suggests that TV interviews are conducted in a more formal setting that the speeches in election sites. Also, there is no direct audience in the studio of the interviews, which can affect the pronominal choice and self-identifications of the politicians.

**5.1. Erdogan’s self-identifications in the interview on TV**

**Chart 7. Categories of the possessive pronoun “our” in the political speech of Recep Tayyip Erdogan in the interview on the state channel, TRT**
As it is shown in Chart 7, Erdogan most frequently self-identified with his party's members. Also, he employed the personal pronoun "our" to self-identify with his party twice. This finding differed from the findings that I generated from his speeches at election sites, wherein he self-identified most frequently with all people.

Example 6 highlights Erdogan's adherence to his party's members:

"Zaten Antalya'da biliyorsunuz liste başındaki arkadaşımız Avrupa Komisyonu parlamenter üyesi başkanı." (My translation)

"You know that our friend, who is on the top of the list, is the president of the delegation of European Commission."

It appears that there is a substantial shift in Erdogan's self-identifications between his speeches at the election sites and his interview on TV because the interviews focused mainly on politics and his future projects. Also, it seems to me that venue and purpose may have influenced his pronominal choice, which, in turn, affects his self-identifications. Moreover, he chose to use the pronoun "our" rather than "my" in his pronominal choice since he made just 11 references to my whereas he used "our" 26 times to self-identify with groups and people. Overall, unlike his speeches at election sites, his self-identifications were a lot fewer, which may stem from the specific questions of the interview and turn-taking nature of it.

5.2. Kilicdaroglu's self-identifications in the interview on TV

In the interview on TV, Kilicdarogl and continued to identify himself with his party members and party as Chart 8 illustrates, which may indicate that his relation with his party and party members was very strong. Example 7 shows his identification with his party members:

"Bizim 81 ilde de milletvekili adaylarımız var." (My translation)

"We have our MP candidates in 81 provinces."

He also created self-identifications with all people four times in the interview on TV as in the example 8:

"Bayrak 73 milyon yurtaşımızın ortak paydasıdır." (My translation)

"The flag is our 73 million citizens' common possession."

Parallel to his speeches at election sites, he referred to his self-identifications by using the pronoun "my", which may suggest that he regards himself as a member of Republican People’s Party more than an independent politician. On the other hand, Erdogan created his self-identifications with the pronoun "my", which may be a result of the fact that he was already a Prime Minister of Turkey for nine years at that time.

Another significant difference between two political party leaders' discourse is that Kilicdaroglu seemed less interested in appealing to different social groups than Erdogan, which can be a weakness in Kilicdaroglu's speech to capture the attention of various people and groups. Additionally, contrary to Erdogan, Kilicdaroglu avoided inciting nationalism in his speech as he did not state nation (millet) /our nation/ my nation.

Although Kilicdaroglu did not identify himself with different social groups or people during his speeches, he was more consistent in his identification pattern than Erdogan. However, Erdogan's speeches were highly likely to be more
attractive to voters because of the abundance of his self-identifications in general and his-self-identifications with various people and social groups including young people, children, all people, women with headscarves, people from Ankara and Istanbul, which may be one of the causes of his third-term landslide victory in parliamentary elections in 2011.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, I tried to reveal the differences in pronominal distribution for two political party leaders on the electoral road in different settings. Those differences give an account for the argument that the venue has a great role in influencing the pronominal choice. For instance, both of the leaders mostly self-identified with their political party members in the interview on the state channel. The topics that they talked about and the interviewers’ questions were similar to each other. Therefore, parallel to the findings of Proctor and Su (2011), this study can also confirm that venue is likely to be more effective in affecting political discourse than the topic. Also, it is in line with Van Dijk’s (2002) argument that topic is less important than the external context in political discourse. However, the effect of topic cannot be denied. As Kılıçdaroğlu as a leader of the Main Opposition Party predominantly criticized Erdogan and his party in his speeches, the topic of his speeches was based on criticism, which might be one of the reasons why his associations with people and groups were far fewer than Erdogan’s self-identifications.

The interview setting is more formal in comparison with the settings of election sites. This interview setting can be regarded as an informative interview. According to Bayyurt (1997), informative interview is nearer to the formal end of continuum on a cline of formality, and there is a predictable turn allocation, no live studio audience and less personal involvement in informative interviews, which might be one of the reasons that the two political party leaders did not create their self-identifications with the pronoun “my” and made less reference to all people in their speeches on TV than their speech at election sites.

Based on my analysis, I found out that the same politicians while speaking at election sites and in the interview on TV employed different possessive pronouns and created different self-identifications, especially in Erdogan’s case. Therefore, this study indicates that how possessive pronouns can be used strategically different based on the purpose of the politician. Data in this study shows that the place, city, plays an important role in Erdogan’s identifications as he strategically identified himself with Ankara and people from Ankara while he was giving his speech in Ankara. Likewise, he associated himself with Istanbul and people from Istanbul while he was delivering his speech in Istanbul. On the other hand, the place, city, has no effect in Kılıçdaroğlu’s self-identifications. The results also show that Erdogan had inclusive perception of all people and identified himself with all Turkish people many times, which is in line with the findings of Çubukçu et al.’s study (2008), which maybe a reason for directing the attention of audience through the use of direct addressing forms and his-self-identifications with them.

All in all, through their strategic pronominal choice, both of the leaders create and recreate their some part of their identity, which is a consistent finding with Cramer’s study (2010). Both of the politicians’ self-identifications through the use of personal pronouns are dynamic, which evoke different identities at different times. These data indicate the dynamicity of identity construction in real time.

7. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The generalizations that I made in this study are limited to the corpus of this study. The corpus of this study is very small to reflect the general discoursal features of two political party leaders’ speeches if we take the fact that they delivered their speeches in about 80 provinces of Turkey and attended many interviews on TV before the elections into consideration. Although there has been an attempt to select their speeches from the biggest and the most cosmopolitan cities of Turkey, different results may have been found out if I had included their speeches that they gave in more diverse provinces of Turkey and other TV interviews. Secondly, I myself determined the politicians’ self-identifications according to the context of the text. However, it would be better if the inter-rater reliability with another researcher had been established in determining the self-identifications.

Further research with larger corpora can shed more light on general discoursal features, the degree of their consistency in politicians’ self-identifications and the factors affecting them. Also, in the future, if there are available data regarding political debates involving Turkish political leaders live on TV in the future, the same research may be conducted to compare the results in a debate, which is a different genre from an interview. Similarly, future research concerning political interviews that are in a controlled and uncontrolled environment can be useful to compare two conditions in terms of self-identifications. Additionally, this research might be conducted by adding data from other
political party leaders from Turkey to validate the factors affecting self-identifications. Also, cross-cultural studies can give deeper insights into the self-identification tactics of politicians and the factors behind them.

References


Brand Cultures: Between Identity and Image

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Abstract: This paper will try to analyze the role played by branding communication in the “education” of the masses, on social responsibility and at a level of micro cultural trends. The main purpose of this paper is to analyze the formation of symbolic meaning in brand to consumer communication starting from the concepts of brand identity and brand image. We advance the hypothesis that the meaning of brand communication depends to a large extent on the “culture” developed by a mark’s symbolic functions.

Key words: brand, culture, symbolic functions, hyper-consumerism, image, identity.

1. Previous researches

More and more, authors like Jonathan E. Schroeder or Miriam Salzer Morling propose a cultural approach of the brands by pointing out the tendency of this field towards the cultural, sociological and theoretical research. The anthropologists, the historians and the sociologists have recently spoken about brands from a cultural perspective, by comprehending their importance at the social level and by recognizing at the same time their economical and psychological links (Bentley, 2008; Koehn, 2001; Lury, 2004).

2. Our approach

Our work is going to support the approach of branding phenomenon from a cultural perspective, analyzing it contextually and dynamically according to contemporary researches. We will approach a qualitative research method focusing on a comprehensive perspective without quantification, seeking more for an integrated approach on the branding phenomenon. Starting from Ernst Cassirer’s “symbolic forms” (1997, 1975), we propose a qualitative method analysis of “the symbolic function of an image”. We defined the symbolic functions of the organizational image according to its iconic components (organizational identity, desirable image, received image). From this perspective, the symbolic function of an organizational image can be comprehended in three main forms: 1) The expressive function that transforms an organizational identity in a “proposed image” (by using identity expressions and symbols such as logo, representative colours, values, an organizational mission and vision) – the level of expressions. 2) The representational function that transforms a “desired image” into a “received image” in a two-way action: a) Putting expressions into action (all the exterior manifestations of a brand) and b) Interpreting and filtering expressions at a public’s level (including media level) – the level of representations. 3) The significant function of an organization that creates attitudes and transforms an organization’s image into a “motivational” abstraction for the targeted audience, a brand, so to say. – the level of significances.

In this sense, the concept of “brand culture” refers to the cultural codes developed by the brands at a significant level (history, images, myths, art, communities, beliefs), that influence the comprehension and the value of a brand on the market, especially on the contextual-social praxis level. From this outlook, the study of this phenomenon often supposes the comprehension of regional cultures, of cultural spheres and brands implications as social active “symbolic forms”.

3. Conceptual delimitations

3.1. What are images?

Despite the existence of many diverse researches on image theory, despite imagery’s important role over time (paintings, drawings, symbolic representations, visual or textual representations etc.), the study of image still presents a great deal of issues regarding its definition and use. Moreover, we can acknowledge the fact that it is hard to define such a broad domain, without framing delimitations. We consider though that these demarcations not rigorously operated, thus the concept of image is used excessively, without having an explanation for the direction of its use. The reasons for these omissions often derive from the fact that the term “image” has several meanings used both in specialized language and in

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common language. Consequently, many of these meanings intertwine inside the same speech.

And yet, an image designates not only a visual content, as a text is far from lacking iconicity or an imagological experience (Mitchell, 1986). It is, therefore, imperative to operate a reassessment of the critical equipment concerning the methodology applied in the study of images from the Communication Sciences’ point of view. We advocate for this approach merely because, as we will try to point out, most of the corporate image campaigns are formed in the praxis of a highly symbolized cultural context that includes visual images, texts, sounds, myths, symbolic interactions of an audience. (Bratosin, 2007).

Two observations can be made regarding any attempt to take into consideration the assembly of imagery phenomena. First of all, as noticed above, there is a variety of situations in which the term “image” is used: we talk about visual image, but we also use the term when we describe optical illusions, maps, diagrams, dreams, hallucinations, shows, projections, literary works, patterns, memories, ideas, organizations, people, etc. The absolute diversity of this list seems to make any systematic understanding impossible to unify. Second, the mere use of the same term in different fields cannot lead us to the conclusion that it means the same thing. If we take into consideration a closer look over the fields in which the term is used, and not over a universal definition of the term, as Mitchell noted (ibid), we could obtain a family tree of its associated senses, and automatically of their current use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMAGES</th>
<th>GRAPHICAL</th>
<th>OPTICAL</th>
<th>PERCEPTUAL</th>
<th>MENTAL</th>
<th>VERBAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual images</td>
<td>Mirrors</td>
<td>SensoryData</td>
<td>dreams</td>
<td>metaphors / figures of speech</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sculptures</td>
<td>Projections</td>
<td>“categories/concepts”</td>
<td>memories</td>
<td>descriptions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design</td>
<td>appearances</td>
<td>creative ideas/inspiration</td>
<td>fantasies/hallucinations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.1. Visual imagery family tree according to W.J.T. Mitchell (1995)

We strengthen in this way our position according to which imagery constructions (visual image, discourse text, imago-text) operate with symbolic forms proper to a practiced context, in such manner that they end up by building significance for a receiver. In this sense, an image does not open but it delimitates an interpretation frame for the observer, interpretation which is itself symbolically mediated by a context. Ernest Cassirer (1994) asserted that this concept of “symbolic forms” covers all phenomena that determine, no matter the way, the fulfilment of a meaning in a symbol and all contexts in which a datum is sensitive. Through this mediation the individual builds himself universes of perception and discourses. In the present paper we will define the image as a mean through which visual information (real or mental) is communicated, through shape, as well as through content. The image holds an entire field of iconicity (Mitchell, Picture Theory, 1995). The imago-text is in this case the “evocative” text of images through representation.

3.2. Organizational identity and organizational image

We define identity from the perspective given by Professor Montserrat Guibemau (1997), according to which identity means culture, language, symbols, values, traditions, lifestyles, and especially the desire to form around these a community with a specific set of properties. Thus, identity is also a polyvalent concept; it includes from tangible elements, such as historical proofs (historical identities) or artistic trends (artistic identities), to intangible elements, such as quality or reputation. In this respect, more recent authors such as Juan Costa (2007), Eines (2007) or Akerlof, (2010) approach identity as having its roots in the lifestyles of communities strongly symbolically and socio-culturally defined. These perspectives claim the existence of even more evidence regarding lifestyles, related not only to individual decisions, but also to patterns of collective action (emergent from a certain national identity). Thus the identity-culture-image triangle is formed. If we accept the fact that an organizational identity is an assumed symbolic discursive form, we will be able to analyze the connection between it and images, in terms of iconicity, cohesion and delimitation of defined communities.

Organizational identity generally refers more to what members perceive, feel, and think about their organization/institution. It’s supposed to be a “collective agreement” upon the values and distinct characteristics of the organization, starting from an internal environment. Albert and Whetten (1985) offer such a definition of the organizational identity as representing what is essential, durable, and regarding the distinctive character of an organization. The theoretical basis of this perspective concentrates on the theory of social identity and on the theory of auto-classification. Albert and Whetten consider the organizational identity as being a distinct form of social identity, concept analyzed in the ’70s by scholars, such as Tajfel (1978), G. Vignaux or Serj Moscovici (1994). Thus the identity is defined as “the acknowledgement that the individual belongs to certain social groups, to which values and emotional significances which
theorizations of the image. They may “dilute” the ideational content by proposing a functional, practiced form of it, but use
into a received image. Hermeneutics is realized through media and contextual filters. This conceptual-value mediation transforms the image
proposed under the form of messages or symbolic representations must be decoded at the audience level. This
but a representation of an organizational identity. The whole set of graphic, perceptual, mental or verbal elements
interpreted content. Through which iconicity (Mitchell, 1995) and the significant function are communicated, through shape, action and
“support” (banner, spot, portfolio, online campaign, website, or a team) in significant elements. They transmit
representation function of the corporate identity.

The organizational image is, therefore, defined as a construct through which a phenomenal representation is communicated. This representation has a meaning generator function and is significant for a targeted audience. Regarding the organizational image, this is often confused with corporate identity and identified only with the visual elements of an organization (logo, visual signs, the representative colours, mascots, etc.). Although the visual identity remains an important component of the corporate identity, this is without doubt only a form of symbolic representation of an organizational identity, the organizational image representing an assembly of symbolic forms through which an identity is communicated in various ways.

Taking the definition of professor Guibernau as starting point, we shall consider in the present paper that an organization’s public image is an abstract construct upon an identity that serves as a recognition symbol for a target audience. We shall distinguish between: a) the desired image (what the organization proposes to transmit) and b) the received image (the filtered discursive form that is received by the audience). A brand image will be defined as a mean through which iconicity (Mitchell, 1995) and the significant function are communicated, through shape, action and interpreted content.

Most often, the desirable image is represented in accordance with the organizational identity and sent to be received by the targeted audience. We could even say that the desirable image, built by the organization/institution, is nothing else but a representation of an organizational identity. The whole set of graphic, perceptual, mental or verbal elements proposed under the form of messages or symbolic representations must be decoded at the audience level. This hermeneutics is realized through media and contextual filters. This conceptual-value mediation transforms the image “support” (banner, spot, portfolio, online campaign, website, or a team) in significant elements. They transmit representations of an identity enforced by a communication strategy that has the power to transform a desirable image into a received image.

It is interesting to underline here also that field practitioners do not step away too much from the academic theorizations of the image. They may “dilute” the ideational content by proposing a functional, practiced form of it, but use the same meaning. For example: according to Ernst Cassirer’s (1972), Wunnenburger’s (1998) and Bratosin’s (2007), symbols are integrated parts of our existence which interfere as screens between reality and our representations. For Cassirer (1996), the father of “symbolic forms”, it is not the content of mythical representations that must be explained, but “the meanings that they develop on the human consciousness and the spiritual force that it unleashes on it”. In a more practical perspective, Bernstein (1986) states that in order to communicate an organizational image, not the symbol but what it represents has value for the receiver. This function of representing symbols (like the apple from “Apple”) marks the importance of a visual identity for the entire corporative image.

The received image represents a filtered form of an image by contexts, supports and communication channels. Authors from the marketing field, like Bernstein (quoted by Abratt, 1989, p. 68), state that “the image is not even far what the company thinks it is, but the feelings and beliefs about it that are in the mind of the auditorium”. This perspective emphasizes on the external character of image formation and the important role of the consumer to define it. And so, the organizational image becomes a global and alive “impression” held by an individual or a target-public over an organization and it is the result of the meaning created between the group and the communication of a projected image and manufactured by an organization (Alvesson, 1990, p. 376). And so, the received image of an organization approaches more and more the form of the generated myth under the form of representation.

3.3. Representations

An important role in the identity-image transfer at an organizational level is being accomplished by the concept of representation. We define representation as an assembly organized by cognitions that are relative to an object, shared by
the members of a community in relation with this object. The brand as a general term, is not only an organizational identity message transmission vector (carrying representations), but also an influence factor on structural and formal aspects of social thinking, employing social interactivity processes, influence, consensus, dissension and polemic. It contributes to the formation of a pertinent representation for the public space, along with the performative power of images and underlining the force with which the representations posit a version of reality. The concept of representation was especially developed in social psychology and in social practice studies to determine cultural expression forms, which request help from social codes to interpret the experiences of individuals in society. According to S. Moscovici (1995), at the basis of representations would stand the concept of themata; is defined as an assembly of primary concepts, core-ideas and deeply rooted archetypes of a collective memory. Themata manifests itself in common forms, strong anchored and shared inside a culture”. According to the author, it is this concept of themata makes possible the appearance of social contexts and representations.

To help us in the present argumentation, the perspective of social psychology can be strengthened by Ernst Cassirer’s researches, where the concept of “symbolical forms”. For Cassirer, representations define a holistic gestalt that brings together experienced contents and objectively significant entities. Representation would define only one of the symbolical function forms. Let’s detail a little this part. In the middle of Cassirer’s perspective are symbolic forms, entities that work like a psychic, intermediary domain between objects and thinking. The typical character of the symbolic form is being given by a vector that transforms passive “images” received through senses in something that is actively formed by the human mind. If the formation of symbols is the general type of symbolic activity, the different “symbolical forms” represent genres of it.

The power of this formation process transforms the perceptual contents in symbolic ones, which Cassirer sets at the base of our existence as human beings. For Cassirer, the symbol is a creative process, that, just like the sign that allows the foundation or abstractization of a reality, and as Stefan Bratosin underlines (2007), often the sign and symbol are used with an interchangeable meaning. The difference between sign and symbol would be the fact that the sign often defines something, whereas the symbol has the role of meaning something. Even more, the symbolic forms resemble to the definition that W. J. T Mitchell offers to the image, as iconicity (verbal, acoustic, visual, symbolic, mental images, myths, beliefs etc.) The symbol is an image if it can define at the same time a) a product, the material imprint of an idea or an object and b) a process through which the ration forms impressions and orders them under the form of a meaning or symbolization (Cassirer 1975 p.107, apud Bratosin, 2007, p. 57).

3.4. From Representations to Brands

Following Philip Kottler’s conception (1986), every brand can be analyzed as a name or a symbol which define or makes the difference between entities (not only at an economic level, such as products) and which distinguishes itself throughout its attributes, benefits, values, culture, personality; all these features are being regarded as positive meanings sent from one field to a targeted other. More than that, from a semiotic point of view every brand can be defined as a discursive mechanism having a meaning that is going to be transmitted to the receivers. It is the sign-concept characteristics of a brand that transforms it in a meaningful vector and emphasizes its immaterial aspect, its imagery and the way in which these looms involve and associate symbols.

We define “the brand philosophy” as the overall coordinates concerning the existential identity of a mark which are able to determine behaviour conducts at a social level. As a notion introduced (but not conceptualized) by the economic sciences, the brand philosophy represents a specific behaviour of a brand towards its socio-cultural content. Expressions like brand architecture, brand strategy, brand equity, brand value which belong to the brand philosophy’s glossary, point out the rational essence of the brand made up of ideas and concepts. More than that, the mission, the vision or the values communicated by a brand’s identity seeks to propose patterns of value and attitudes to its targeted public. From an organizational perspective, they act as community indicators, by grouping values and immaterial characteristics into recognizable symbol packets on different levels of trust or approval. From this point of view, brands may be seen as the symbols of the hyper-consume society.

What makes a brand different from any other kind of sign could be the extraordinary addictiveness of its meanings to a practiced context. A brand needs a public to “act” upon it! This observation brings us again closer to Cassirer’s theory in which the myth works at a social level as an “intelligence activator”, standing out through a bipolarity between “to think” and “to do” (Bratosin, 2007, p. 61). In other words, the practical quality of a brand consists in the fact that there is no meaning that should be patterned before its interaction with a target. Being tributary to a social content, the brand is bound to an endless semiotics, a perpetual readjustment of its signs to the forever changing social reality. But it is in this way, that a brand communication allows the consumer to respect social norms, to assume a social role, to assume a
status. In the same time, it helps the customer to adapt to social changes, to the evolutions and the transformations that belong to the local trends or other social manifestations working just as a practical context.

4. Analysis of the symbolic functions of an image

The power of branding process transforms the perceptual content of an organization in a symbolic one. At an organizational level, the mediation between corporative identity and brand image is being realized through symbol. This mediation appears as action or activity, always functional at a social level as a meaning creator! Any concept (like “creativity" for Apple Company) is a step in the formation of a meaningful symbol. In this sense, organizational concepts are tied, in a universal yet mobile manner, to what they produce for their public. This symbolization marks a functional relation between individuals and the real world. In our case, this boundary is marked between the identity of an organization and its public.

Starting with Cassirer’s theorizations presented above (1997, 1975) we have tried to define the symbolic functions of the organizational image connecting them to an organization's immaterial components (identity, desired image, received image); the symbolic function stands out through three main qualities:

Expressive – “defining the manner in which an object or product sensibly exists”. In the case of an organization, the expressive function generates the production and reproduction of its visual image and all of the characteristics of a corporative image. Expressions are symbolic forms through which the corporate identity is being made visible: the visual identity, the mission, the vision and the company’s profile, the characteristics through which it stands out, the set of assumed values, the core target’s profile etc.

Representative – the set of perceptive representations about the company, object/product, context or environment. The representative function deals with the actions that a company/corporation/organization/group establishes at a social level. Representations nominate an associated content that is not necessarily directly linked to expressions; organizational features indirectly linked to external characteristics or qualities. It is a descriptive function which exemplifies both through interaction and action at a social level: events, campaigns, social media, fan clubs, CSR campaigns, communication and PR with the public and the media.

Significant – It offers a distinct signification to these perceptions (representations) through which it differentiates them from competition and sets them in a practiced context. The Significant function includes a detachment from the main activity of the organization and the situation of the iconicity on a symbolic level. More precisely, we are dealing with all the abstract representations, comparisons, metaphors, indirect associations generated by the image of an organization (for example: Apple’s products are for “creative people", the Montpellier’s rugby team “represents The South-Eastern France”). The significant function is at the same time both identity-related and informative. The significances of a corporative image are the result of the simultaneous action of the other two functions with great accent on the reputation-notoriety couple. The communication activities that are mainly aimed towards the positive generation of significations are also the ones that transform the image of an organization/corporation/company into brand image because at this level distinctive “signs" of an identity are being built.

Fig.2 Symbolic functions and organizational levels
As we stated above, the expressive function of a company is being used at the assumed organizational identity level: in the mission declaration, vision and company values. Apple, for example, has as organizational mission: “to build the best personal computers in the world, along with OS X, iLife, iWork and professional software. Apple leads the digital music revolution with its iPods and iTunes online store. Apple has reinvented the mobile phone with its revolutionary iPhone and App Store, and is defining the future of mobile media and computing devices with iPad; to support social responsibility and to minimize the environmental impacts of our operations and products”. The underlined words in the published text on the official page may give us hints about the organization’s assumed values: quality, innovation, revolution, leadership, sustainability. The expressive function can be deducted also by analyzing its corporate identity. The visual logo (“the bitten apple”) is associated with innovation and refusal of the status quo. Expressions are highly underlined in their motivational slogan “Think different!” which has become almost a mythical symbol for the brand (Rouzé, 2010), and a driving force for the targeted public (in terms of representations).

The representational function of Apple can be deducted from the company’s communication and promoting actions. The representational function must be consistent with the company’s expressions, while “putting in action”, so to say, the expressive function. This is a very important step taking into consideration that it gives fluidity to the communicational process, but also opens ways of interpretation. On the other hand, like any other setting into action, the representational function marks versions of interpretation of the expressive function, grounded in promotional campaigns, social campaigns or CSR. Some of the most important campaigns of the Apple brand include the 1984 Super Bowl advertising spot which marks the company as being revolutionary and independent, the Think Different campaign from the 90s in which important artists participated and the year 2000, “iPod People” campaign. From the first Machintosh spot, to the 1984 Super Bowl, Apple maintained and “paid tribute” to modern visual art in many of its advertising campaigns. For example, the “Think Different” campaign was making the bound between Apple, revolution through innovation and various famous social figures including Albert Einstein, Bob Dylan, Martin Luther King Jr., John Lennon, Thomas Edison, director Alfred Hitckcock, or social activist Mahatma Gandhi.

The significant function of the company is noticeable in the feedback given to these messages and in the further abstract meanings associated with the brand. It has been talked and written about a true “Apple cult”, “a Mac cult” (Kahney, 2004), a mythology of the iPod (Rouzé, 2010) and even a revolution caused at social level by their extraordinary communication strategy. Significances can be drawn out from: the charisma figure of Steve Jobs, the strongly symbolized messages that transformed a public into “Apple fans” communities, the"Mac people" willing to stand out from the masses, the innovative symbolized products (through the functionality-design representation), the remarkable figures associated with these products, etc. It has went so far with the signification and abstraction of the products (into brands) that today we have haircuts and tattoos with the Apple logo, statement accessories posted as visible as possible, a generalized wish of product acquisition and even strong ideological jokes like: “There were three apples on this world: Adam’s apple, Newton’s apple and Jobs’ apple”. After a study based on an interview realized by the American Marketplace entitled “The cool factor of Apple” (Kahney, 2004) it was noticed that the majority of the consumers felt a strong empathy in reference to the company products, an emblematic affiliation to the organization, just like “people would voluntarily enrol forever in this community”. The study puts accent on the “cool factor” of the company that has chosen a niche approach, aimed towards artists, film and visual art producers. By using these representations, Apple has become “the product of creative people”, and for most users, Apple is associated with creativity itself (significant function action). This aura of superiority, accompanied by the products and software applications, gives the brand an attitude of uniqueness that attracts even more significances. To own an Apple product has become a statement for social status, professional affiliation, and for an elite community. Mass-media had an important role in disseminating this myth of modern technology, positively interpreting and promoting a big part of Apple’s representations and feeding the public’s hunger to form significations (abstract representations) around products.

5. Further development of the study

We only exemplified in this paper a positive use of the symbolic forms in case of an organizational image. However, starting from expressions, this methodological analysis can be also used to underline image communication errors or propose suggestions for an image crisis. Our observations state, for example, that corporate representations are not enough in order to assure a correct transfer between a desired image and a coherent received one. The received image can be strongly influenced by the context of representations (socio-cultural contexts, competition, social level involvement, official statements etc.) but also by various filtering mediums such as: representation in media, recommendations, rumours, buzz activities, online activities etc.
This paper is just a brief sketch of how the symbolic functions of an image can be used to analyze an organizational brand-status and what the roots of such a methodological approach are. It also shows why we consider it necessary to re-evaluate some of the key concepts used in Communication Sciences researches and practices. A more detailed presentation of the symbolic functions of an organizational image is to be presented in a further study.

References


Public Versus Private Pension System: Albanian Case

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Abstract: In most of the countries, in these last years, pension reforms are a real challenge for the governments. There exist four main criteria classifying and categorizing pension systems around the world: 1- Who manages the system (public / private); 2- How the coverage is decided (Employment-related / Universal and Means-tested); 3- How benefits are calculated (defined contribution / defined benefit); 4- How benefit are financed (PAYG / Fully Funded).

This study focuses in these criteria, by comparing the public and private pension systems in general terms. A special focus is also given to the Albanian case and recommendations for the future reforms take place.

Keywords: Pensions, Private, Public, Albania

1. Introduction

Due to differentiations of countries in their population structure, political and economical approaches there exist different pension systems. Generally, the community divides the pensions into two major groups, private and public ones. The characteristics of these two groups are often explained such as in the following table:

Table1. General Categorization of Public and Private Pensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dichotomies:</th>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Management:</td>
<td>public</td>
<td>private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Finance:</td>
<td>pay-as-you-go</td>
<td>funded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Participation:</td>
<td>mandatory</td>
<td>voluntary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Entitlement:</td>
<td>defined benefit</td>
<td>defined contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Source of funding:</td>
<td>payroll tax</td>
<td>individual saving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Nature:</td>
<td>redistributive (solidarity)</td>
<td>actuarially fair (insurance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Reaction to demography:</td>
<td>collapsing</td>
<td>resistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Macroeconomic effect:</td>
<td>deficit</td>
<td>healthy growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Risk:</td>
<td>political</td>
<td>market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Who takes care:</td>
<td>paternalistic state</td>
<td>self-reliant individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. In general:</td>
<td>bad</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maria Augusztinovics, Chapter 4: Pension Systems and Reforms in the Transition Economies, Economic Survey of Europe, 1999, No.3

However it must be admitted that this division gives us a general picture of the extremes related to the characteristics of pension systems. The main idea is not to divide the systems into ‘yes or no’ positions, but to clearly identify the variations between these systems in order to decide for the optimal system for country's condition.

Four main criteria are used while classifying pension systems around the world as below:

1. Who manages the system (public / private)
2. How the coverage is decided (Employment-related / Universal and Means-tested)
3. How benefits are calculated (defined contribution / defined benefit)
4. How benefit are financed (PAYG / Fully Funded)
This study will focus in these criteria, the way the system is managed, the coverage decision, benefits calculations and the benefits management, which have largely been discussed because of the demographic trends this last century through the world.

According to World Bank, Pay-as-you-go (PAYG or PAYGO) schemes are defined as “intergenerational solidarity” schemes because the outgoings to pay pensions to today's pensioners are paid for by the contributions of today's workers and employers. These schemes are unfunded pension schemes, which mean that the contributors provide retirement benefits to old-age participants in the scheme, but do not save money to meet future obligations. Since this scheme is based on the rate of beneficiaries to contributors, the system can often be face to face to problems relating to demographic trend. In these last decades, this problem is more obvious given that a lot of countries have a tendency toward an aging population which means that the dependency ratio will significantly decrease from 65 in 1950 to 57% in 2050 (Appendix A). In this situation, PAYG scheme become financially unsustainable.

After fall of communism system, Law no. 7703, of 11.05.1993, “Social insurance in the Republic of Albania” was drafted and implemented. The old pension scheme was a type of social help scheme, but the Law tried to replace it with a mandatory public scheme with PAYG benefits. This scheme would be financed through employers and employees’ benefits and would guarantee the fulfillment of social-economic rights in the field of life insurance. The Law 7923: “Regarding supplementary pensions and private pension institutions”, in 1995, allowed the implementation of the new voluntary column of private supplementary pensions. This column would provide supplementary benefits for the elderly compared to those of public mandatory scheme. The first private institution started its activity in 2006. The occupation percentage of the third pillar remains very low for the Albanian market.

2. Pension Reforms Proposed by World Bank

The traditional pension system, the PAYG system is founded to be the most applied system but after the World Bank’s proposal in 1994, a lot of countries passed from unfunded system, i.e. PAYG system, to a fully funded one. Apart these two forms, there are also other two important pension systems. One of them is Provident Pension Fund system applied in around 20 countries, such as Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong, (Bateman and Piggott 1997) and the second one is Notional Defined Contribution system applied in Latvia, Sweden, Italy and Poland. Table 2 summarizes the overall classification of pension reforms.

Table 2. Classification of Pension Reforms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Examples (Countries)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAYG Defined Benefit</td>
<td>Fully funded defined contribution (Individual Accounts)</td>
<td>Chile, Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Hungary, Kazakhstan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notional defined contribution</td>
<td>Latvia, Poland, Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employer-sponsored defined contribution system</td>
<td>OECD countries (e.g. Australia, Denmark, Switzerland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC-Provident Funds</td>
<td>PAYG system</td>
<td>Indonesia, Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal pension system</td>
<td>New system</td>
<td>Angora, Guatemala, Mozambique, Oman, Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on Schwarz and Demirguc-Kunt(1999)

Based on the forecasted problems of PAYG schemes, World Bank (Holzmann, 1999) has proposed three possible reforms regarding pension system which will be summarized below.

Reform of PAYG

The reforming of PAYG consists on changing the parameters of pensions system such as retirement age, accrual factors, length of assessment period, indexation, etc. in order to increase savings that make possible the balance of system in short-medium term. There does not exist a fixed formula regarding the amplitude of parameter changes, which means that these changes are politically dependent. **Politicians cannot make a convincing commitment that the proposed “parametric” reform is a lasting one (i.e., it puts the scheme on a sound, long-term financial basis) and they have no incentive to change the benefit/contribution structure for political reasons in the future.** (Holzmann, 1999)
There are two main reasons why politicians are unwilling to have such reform. The first reason is that the public will have doubt in the personal benefits of the politicians while setting up a “parametric” reform and the politicians do not want to be “victim” of such accusations. The second reason is that the beneficial effects of reform will appear after a long time and the politicians will find the reform inefficient due to this time inconsistency.

Another kind of reform to the PAYG system is the Notional Defined Contribution (NDC) system. One of the well-known examples of this system is the case of Chile or so-called the Chilean-style funded scheme. This system tries to look like a funded scheme. Each contribution is recorded in the contributors’ account and for each year this account grows based on notional rate of return (according to changes in GDP, wages, demography, etc.). At the retirement age, the accumulated sum is given back based on the interest rates and mortality tables, as it is for the funded system. Even if this system is transparent, the demographic trends toward population aging will enforce the governments to generate a certain fund in order to equilibrate the contributions to benefits.

**Rapid and complete shift to mandatory funded system**

The second reform proposal of Word Bank was an immediate and a complete shift to fully-funded system. This system is thought to solve the problem of financing as well as the problem of fairness through the generations. But still remain three important issues to be discussed:

1- The repayment of public debts – by increasing other taxes or by decreasing other government spending.
2- The financial infrastructure, the regulatory capacity and political economy harmony – all these three components should be in coordination to each other and should follow strict rules in accordance to the pension reform.
3- The precaution due to risk in financial market fluctuation – this system is supposed to face the same problems of PAYG system such as demography and politics but government should impose strict regulatory framework and supervisory institutions (Vittas, 1996).

**Gradual shift to multi-pillar scheme which is a mix between PAYG and funded pensions**

The third system proposed by World Bank is the mix between PAYG system and completely fully-funded system, which is called multi-pillar system. Countries such as Australia, Switzerland, Denmark, UK, Hungary and Poland have passed to this system.

The advantages of this merge are supposed to be the followings:

1- **It allows a distinction to be made between poverty reduction and income replacement goals**;
2- **It builds risk diversification into a country’s provisions for retirement income support**;
3- **It minimizes the burden of fiscal transitions while preserving many of the economic gains of the fully-funded approach**;
4- **It brings to the reform discussion some clear gains for younger workers and those who are facing labor income losses from globalization.** (World Bank, 1994)

Table 3 shows in details the World Bank’s approach toward pension system reform by taking into account the objective, the form and the financing manner of each pillar. Whereas the contribution of each pillar in the mix system is as follows:

1- The public PAYG, 1st pillar is redistributive towards the poor by providing a universal flat benefit, by providing a minimum pension guarantee or by being part of a means tested program for the poor of all ages.
2- The fully-funded, 2nd pillar provides additional capital accumulation which make possible to cope with the demographics trend.
3- Finally, the voluntary fully-funded, 3rd pillar provides supplementary benefits for those who want to have substantial income in the retirement age.
Table 3. The World Bank’s Approach to Pension Reform

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Financing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Redistribution</td>
<td>Min. Pension Guarantee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>Pension Savings Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Pillar</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fully-funded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>Pension Savings or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Pillar</td>
<td></td>
<td>Occupational Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fully-funded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Pillar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Bank (1994); Averting the Old Age Crisis; Oxford University Press, New York

As stated above, the primary advantage of a multi-pillar system is risk diversification. As seen in the table above, in the mix-system there are different financing methods, which make the risks toward the political, economical and demographic fluctuations to be minimized. Table 4 shows how the multi-pillar approach balances long-term risks.

Table 4. Responsiveness to Main Risks of the Two Methods of Financing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macroeconomic Risks</th>
<th>PAYG System</th>
<th>Fully-funded System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative output shocks</td>
<td>Lower revenue, but individual effects can be</td>
<td>Possible effect on financing and individual effects cannot be mitigated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mitigated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>Lower revenue, but individual effects can be</td>
<td>No effects on financing, but individual receives lower benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mitigated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low wage growth</td>
<td>Lower revenue, but individual effects can be</td>
<td>No effects on financing or current benefit levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mitigated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial crises</td>
<td>Lower revenue, but individual effects can be</td>
<td>Accumulated capital reduced or even eliminated in real terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mitigated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low rates of return</td>
<td>No direct effects on financing and benefits</td>
<td>No effects on financing, but individual receives lower benefit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Risks</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher dependency ratio</td>
<td>Deteriorating financing</td>
<td>No effects on financing or current benefit levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower labor force</td>
<td>Higher wages resulting in higher future benefits</td>
<td>Lower returns on capital resulting in lower future benefits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political Risks</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response to short-term</td>
<td>High response</td>
<td>Low response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>budget</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Holzmann R. (1997); A World Bank Perspective on Pension Reform; presentation at the ILO-OECD Workshop: Development and Reform of Pension Schemes; Paris

While proposing the multi-pillar system, World Bank suggests also the most “preferred” combinations of the three pillars since there are different possibilities in “volume” of each pillar to cover. The most recommended ones are:

1. Second pillar (compulsory and private) is complete. First pillar (PAYG) don’t continuous to function over the last generation and all contribution paid in second pillar.
2. Both the second pillar and first pillar function at the same time.
The idea to mix up different pillars is not a proposed reform just for Albania. Some years before the Baltic countries had the same problem. They were trying to pass from the full public pension system (just the first pillar) to a combined system. The combined system of first and second pillar was strongly recommended. Appendix B shows the pre-reform characteristics of public PAYG pension schemes in transition economies.

3. Albanian Demographic Characteristics

Due to demographic changes, most of the counties have switched from their traditional pension system to a new one. Generally the most known and used pension system was PAYG system. The World Bank, in 1994, has proposed a three-pillar system composed by: 1- a mandatory, publicly managed and tax-financed pillar for distribution; 2- a mandatory, privately managed and fully-funded pillar for saving; 3- a vulnerary pillar for those who want more protection for their post-retirement life.

The data used in this section are taken from United Nation's projection, World Population Prospects: the 2010 Revision population Database. The demographic data provides the total population of Albania from 1950 to 2100, which is divided according to five different age groups. The data 1950-2010 are estimated whereas the data 2010-2100 are projected. The projected data are calculated in five different variants: constant-fertility variant, high-fertility variant, medium-fertility variant, instant-replacement-fertility variant and low-fertility variant. Total fertility rate in Albania during 2005-2010 was 1.9, ranking Albania as a low-fertility country.¹ Figure 1 shows trajectory of total fertility rate for Albania where the probabilistic projection is performed for years 2010-2100. According to this projection, the fertility rate will decrease until 2020-2030 and then will increase to some extent.

Figure 1: Probabilistic trajectories of projected total fertility (2010-2100) for Albania²

![Probabilistic trajectories of projected total fertility (2010-2100) for Albania](image)


Figure 2 and 3 show the change of population in five-age groups, 0-19, 20-39, 40-59, 60-69 and 70 and up. Based on the below figures, Albanian population reaches its peak around 2020 and decreases significantly by the time. The decrease

¹ According to United Nations, low-fertility countries are considered the countries with total fertility at or below 2.1 children per woman in 2005-2010, which corresponds to the Albanian case.

² NOTE: For clarity, only 80 trajectories from 100,000 are displayed. The median projection is the solid bold red line, and the 80% and 95% projection intervals are displayed as dashed and dotted red lines respectively. The high-low fertility variants in the 2010 Revision correspond to +/- 0.5 child around the median trajectory displayed as blue dashed lines.
of the population occurs from the decrease of the young generations. The number of old generation, 70 and up, increases until 2075 and then decreases. The total number of population increases during 2020-2045, decreases slightly in 2045-2050, increases again in 2050-2070 and then decreases till 2100. Since the old and the young generations go in opposite direction, the old-age population increases and the young-age population decreases, the demographic old age dependency ratio rises. This rise affects the sustainability of a PAYG pension system.

**Figure 2:** Total population of Albania during 1950-2100 (according to five-age groups)

![Population over time](image)

**Figure 3:** Percentage of Albanian population during 1950-2100 (according to five-age groups)

![Percentage of population over time](image)

### 4. Albanian Pension System Challenges

Pensions in Albania represent a key element of social protection. Pensioners maintain about 17% of overall number of population. The actual scheme provides three types of pensions: old age pension, disability pension, survivors’ pension. The conditions to benefit from full old age pension are to have reached retirement age (60 for women and 65 for men) and to have completed 35 years of insurance. The pension calculation formula is as follows:

\[ P_p = M_p b + Sh \]
**Pp:** Full monthly pension age

**Mpb:** Measure of the basic pension provided to all insured persons must provide a minimum standard of living. This component is corrected each year by the price index of some selected goods, as provided in the rules of the ISS and determined each year by the Council of Ministers. Currently, it is 8240 ALL per month. The monthly pension does not reach the subsistence minimum so this has been a factor that recently the government has used specific policies for the minimum income allowance.

**Sh:** Additional basic pension. This is individual and is calculated on the size and length of contributory period and 1% for each year multiplied by proving measurable average basis (salary on which contributors were paid). Council of Ministers approves annual indexation coefficient database using measurable growth rate of average individual contributions of the respective year with the previous year.

Actually there exist two upper limits of pension amount: 1- 75% of the indexed average net wage of the best three successive years in the ten last years of employment and 2- double basic pension.

**Table 5.** Main parameters of pension values (2000-2020)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Replacement Coefficient</strong>* (%)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>35.40</td>
<td>35.80</td>
<td>36.20</td>
<td>36.50</td>
<td>37.20</td>
<td>37.60</td>
<td>37.90</td>
<td>38.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>13.30</td>
<td>13.20</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>12.90</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td>10.90</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coverage Rate</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependency Ratio</strong></td>
<td>35.40</td>
<td>36.73</td>
<td>38.31</td>
<td>39.77</td>
<td>41.51</td>
<td>42.14</td>
<td>50.27</td>
<td>54.49</td>
<td>57.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(%)</strong></td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contributors/Population (%)</strong></td>
<td>14.30</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>15.70</td>
<td>16.40</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>21.50</td>
<td>23.10</td>
<td>24.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beneficiary/Population (%)</strong></td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Social Insurance Institute

*Replacement coefficient: the ratio between the size of average pension to average wage*

**Coverage rate: ratio of the number of contributors to the real number of the workforce able to work**

***Dependency ratio: the ratio of beneficiaries/ contributors**

Based on the data of social insurance institute, the replacement coefficient shows significant differences between urban and rural areas. While it grows from 35% in 2000 to 38.2% in 2020, showing a slight improvement for the old age pensions in the urban zone, in the village it shows a deterioration tendency, this ratio decreases from 13.3% in 2000 to 10% in 2020. This indicator mention the correlation between pension and wage, which in this case it does not denote a significant improvement. Obviously there are two problems, the first one, the divergence of the urban and rural pensions and the second one, the low levels of pension.

The progress of coverage rate, from 35.4% in 2000 to 57.6% in 2020 may be explained as a result of economic growth and employment enhancement and reduction of evasion in the collection of contributions for the social insurances.

Although the dependency ratio has improved through the time, it has decreased from 1.04% in 2000 to 0.82% in 2020, it still continues to stay at critical levels. This ratio is affected by the increase of old-age population, from the emigration and evasion. The ratios of contributor / population and beneficiary / population present the same conclusions. The first one matches an increase 5% from 2000 to 2020 and the second one 10.3%.

The Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, in the regional seminar on pension, held in Zagreb, in 2009, mentioned the major handicaps issues on Albanian pension system such as below:

- Low pensions, decrease of replacement rate;
- System is not producing anything that would incite and encourage people to join the scheme; maximum pension is twice minimum pension, while maximum wage is five times minimum wage;
- High evasion rate of contributors; low-leveled coverage rate;
Those who are not paying contributions today, will not receive benefits tomorrow, thus maintaining a social burden for the future;

Fiscal risk stemming from the increase of number of pensioners in the current period, whose majority are getting full pensions today;

Deficit in the system, average being 0.8% e GDP;

Forecasts indicate that Albania will face an aging of population in the long run, which would bring about changes in indicators of social insurance scheme.

The Albanian Social Insurance Legislation, through the years, has done a lot of changes based according to the standards of the European Code and ILO Convention on Social Insurance. But of course there are other measurements to be undertaken in the future. According to the World Bank, the forecast reform for actual pension system should include:

1. Amendment of pension formula. - Monthly P = 1.3 % for every year of insurance multiplying the assessment base. (Instead of 1%). This formula lower very much the replacement rate for the employees with minimum wage, so is decided a minimum amount about 85 euro.

2. Amendment of upper limits of pension amount. So the maximum pension = 3 x minimum pension. (Instead of 2 x minimum pension).

According to the World Bank this reformation results in improvement of replacement rate but also in the worsening of financing balance system compared to ‘without reformed PAYGO’.

Actually Albania is using the 1st and the 3rd pillar but it can be said that the vulnerary private scheme is not functioning in a proper way because the percentage of people using it is almost insignificant. Even if Albania has done some steps toward the proposed model of the World Bank, the economic consequences are doubtful. The reason to this performance can be problem of not totally passing from PAYG system to the mixed one.

The Albanian labor market is facing a lot of problems even there are two long decades in the free market economy. The unemployment rate is increased from year to year. In the first quarter of 2010 the unemployment rate was founded to be 13.38% (INSTAT). Actually the unemployment rate can be even higher if we take into the consideration the number of people which are not registered in the employment office, migration share and the informal economy. Another problem in the Albanian labor market is the high number of beneficiaries and lower number of contributors relative to the real data.

Regarding the saving rates and capital accumulation we can say that Albania didn’t experience a good “relationship” to these indicators. The level of saving rates and capital accumulation are pretty low. As an explanation of these critical trends it can be given the pyramid schemes in Albania in 1996-1997, weak employment capacities, low living standards, high level emigration, etc.

5. Conclusions

To sum up, as all systems need revision and modification by the time, the pension system also remains in top of numerous discussions for its improvement. Pension system it is not just the problem of Albania but the effectiveness of it has been revised and still it is being revised in general from all the countries. Even through the time before the financial crises there were just some nuances given to the pension systems, the period after the crisis highlighted some other problems not visible before. The main problem for the pension system seems to be the interest rates used in the pension formula calculation.

Other problems are things to be revised can be the following ones:

- The movement from a wage-oriented, defined-benefit model to a defined-contribution model;
- The combination of the pay–as-you-go method of financing with other methods, developing self-supporting schemes;
- The enhancement of redistributive elements, in order to create a fairer distribution in relation to contributor interests;
- The prevention of different informalities and evasion;
- The minimization of risks (as our suggestion stated the minimum usage of interest rate) and if there exist any risk the share of it between the state, employees, and employee.
As a second point to be mention, the integrated social security systems are best for all. The more integrated a system is the more benefits or less losses it has. But of course it should be drawn attention to what system we have to integrate because not always the same system is the optimal for all the countries. This integration intend to promote access to stable employment and to support adequate living standards in the national level and global one in order to guarantee pension rights to Albanian emigrants, and to all those Albanians who will work abroad in the future.

Lastly but not the least, the financial crises “tremble” in general all the theories proved and supported as the best ones. The new era brought as an immediate need the solution of different problems. One of them is pension system which is being in ambiguity because of its correlation with the interest rate. Interest rates are founded to be “frightening” for the system when they are in high rates and also in low rates. The zero-interest policy seems to be the solution to this problem. But the way how this policy is going to take place is an important issue to be discussed which covers not just the Albanian pension system but the global pension system.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Dependency ratios %, 1950-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>World</th>
<th>More developed regions</th>
<th>Less developed regions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Child</td>
<td>Elderly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>64</td>
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<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>70</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Pre-reform characteristics of public PAYG pension schemes in transition economies

Retirement age: generally 60 for men and 55 for women (except Poland, where it is 65 and 60, respectively). High unemployment induced new regulations allowing earlier retirement. Hence actual average retirement ages are much lower than statutory ages.

Qualifying conditions: typically 25 years of service for men and 20 for women, although there are many exceptions, e.g. for unhealthy or hazardous working conditions, or for mothers, depending on the number of children.

Benefit formulas: usually use a fixed percentage of reference income for a minimum number of years, plus an increment – in some countries a descending increment – for additional years of service.

Reference income: usually an average over several years, in some countries with a ceiling and/or a descending series of increasing income bands.

Upper-lower limits: pensions are generally subject to minimum and maximum provisions. Minimum pensions were originally linked to the minimum wage, but the link has been severed (e.g. the minimum pension has overtaken the minimum wage in Russia but fallen behind in Hungary). Result: actual, individual replacement rates are a decreasing function of income and the number of years served, at the time of retiring.

Administration: old age, survivors’ and disability pensions – often other cash benefits and social assistance schemes – are included in the same scheme, financed from the same sources and administered by the same authority. Relation with the government budget is unclear. Result: transparency is minimal or non-existent (except in Hungary from 1991 and the Czech Republic since 1993, where separate old age pension agencies were established).

Legacy: old age pension systems have existed for a long time but they were designed to work in a completely different economic and social environment than the present one. They were not prepared for 1) a severe contraction of national income and employment; 2) high inflation rates; and 3) dramatically increasing earnings differentiation.

Transition effect: to protect the lowest benefits from an extreme deterioration due to inflation, ad hoc, often flat rate, adjustments were made, distorting benefit structures and reducing the differential between the minimum and maximum pension, thereby further severing the originally weak link between contribution and benefit (e.g. in Latvia and Lithuania earnings-related pensions have in effect degenerated into flat-rate schemes).

Economic, Social and Political Impact of E-Government: Correlation Analysis

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Abstract

Technologies of e-Government are used in about two hundred countries of the world and the assessment of socio-economical effectiveness of e-Government is of great importance. E-Government effects are usually associated with the public service effectiveness and with development rates of information society. However e-Government has some less obvious, indirect effects on economic, political and social spheres of public sector. In this case, the development of e-Government technologies can affect the public wealth and quality of life (because it redounds to citizens’ expenses decrease and to increase of effectiveness of interaction between them and government), human capital developing, level of corruption, innovations and so on. This paper presents the results of correlation analysis of United Nations e-Government development index with Corruption Perceptions Index, Global Innovation Index and Human Development Index, which make possible to make a conclusion about the effects, which e-Government brings to society.

Nowadays the technologies of e-Government are being rapidly implemented all over the world. It has become evident that the electronic format is the only acceptable way of future development for governmental bodies. Technologies of e-Government are used in about two hundred countries of the world and the assessment of socio-economical effectiveness of e-Government is of great importance. It is absolutely necessary to analyze the effects which it brings to society.

E-Government effects are usually associated with the public service effectiveness and with development rates of information society. However e-Government has some less obvious, indirect effects on economic, political and social spheres of public sector. In this case, the development of e-Government technologies can affect the public wealth and quality of life (because it redounds to citizens’ expenses decrease and to increase of effectiveness of interaction between them and government), human capital developing, level of corruption, innovations and so on.

These effects seemed to be difficult for evaluation, because the above-mentioned spheres are non-substantial and don’t usually have quantitative interpretation. The analysis of these spheres is normally conducted through experts’ estimation, on which basis the rank relations are determined and ratings are composed. Particularly, the following ratings of social, economic and other indices exist: Corruption Perceptions Index, Global Innovation Index, Human Development Index and so on.

The choice of these indices was not done accidentally. It is expected that technologies of e-Government play crucial role for the fighting corruption and that they are a result of higher-temped innovation process of the country or region. E-Government technologies implementing also should give an impact for human development and citizens’ life quality.

Ratings in this case usually demonstrate not a percentage of a country’s achievements in some absolute maximum (because expert analysis is always subjective and relational), but its position relative to other countries. That is why the analysis of rating position dependence on some or other factors (in this particular case – on e-Government technologies development) would not have any economic substance.

Interesting results can be gained from the correlation analysis of these ratings with e-Government development rating. Correlation may be positive, or may be negative, or valueless. Having performed such an analysis it would be possible to make a conclusion about the effects, which e-Government brings to society. The United Nations e-Government development index (EGDI) is appropriate for the purposes of this analysis.

Correlation is a statistical technique that measures strength or degree of a supposed linear association between two random variables or two sets of data. This association is not necessary explained by causative-consecutive interrelations. It means that one variable changing is usually accompanied with other variable changing.

There are several types of correlation coefficients. For the purposes of the abovementioned analysis, Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient is of the main interest, because given sets of data (e-Government development rating and other ratings) are already ranged and have rank within them.

At this analysis it is expected that EGDI will have a significant positive correlation with the three above-mentioned indices.
1. United Nations e-Government development index

The United Nations e-Government development index (EGDI) [4] is a composite index consisting of the online service index, the telecommunication index and the human capital index. Each of these indices is itself a composite measure that can be extracted and analyzed independently. Mathematically, the EGDI is a weighted average of these three indices. The online service index is based on four-stage model of online service development and the goal of this index is to define at which stage one or another government is.

**Picture 1. The four stages of online service development [4]**

The first stage is called Emerging information services. At this stage governmental websites provide online information on public policy, governance, laws, regulations, relevant documents and types of public services provided. They have links to ministries, departments and other branches of government. Citizens are easily able to obtain information on what is new in the national government and ministries and can follow links to archived information. This stage is characterized by one-way communication “from government to citizens” (G2C).

At the second stage, or Enhanced information services, governmental web-portals deliver enhanced one-way or simple two-way e-communication between government and citizens, for example citizens can find downloadable forms for governmental services (tax returns, etc.) and applications. The sites have audio and video capabilities and are multi-lingual. Some limited e-services enable citizens to submit requests for non-electronic forms or personal information, which will be mailed to their house.

At the third stage - Transactional services - there is two-way electronic interaction between government and citizens, including requesting and receiving inputs on government policies, programs, regulations and so on. Some form of electronic authentication of the citizen’s identity is required to successfully complete exchange. Government web-portals process non-financial transactions, such as e-voting, downloading and uploading forms, filing taxes online or applying for certificates, licenses and permits. They are also capable to perform some simple financial transactions.

The most complex and advanced stage is Connected services. This stage is characterized by G2C, G2G and C2G interactions. Governmental websites are proactive in requesting information and opinions from citizens using Web 2.0 and other interactive tools – departments and ministries are in the common information space with the common information and communication format. There are no time lags and costs for information transfer. Information, data and knowledge is transferred from government agencies through integrated applications. There was made a shift from a government-centric to citizen-centric approach; governments create an environment that allows citizens to be in a great measure involved into the government activities and to have a voice in decision-making.

Thus, the survey has four sections corresponding to the four abovementioned stages of e-Government development. Almost all questions at these sections call for binary response of “yes” or “no” (one point is given for “yes” and zero for
“no”). Exceptions include a small number of questions designed for capture data on the number of forms and e-services available (up to ten points each). The resulting value of index normalizes by taking the highest and lowest results.

The second index composing the EGDI – is the Telecommunication infrastructure index, which is a composite of five indicators with equal weight: number of personal computers per 100 persons, number of the Internet users per 100 persons, number of telephone lines per 100 persons, number of mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 persons and number of fixed broad-band subscribers per 100 persons. The index is also normalized by taking the highest and lowest values.

The third index - Human capital index consists of adult literacy rate (weight in index 0.6667) and the combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrollment ratio (0.3333 weight in index).

Within the framework of this research there is also a supplementary e-participation index, which helps to expand the survey by emphasizing quality in the connected presence stage of e-Government. The questions at this index focus on the use of the Internet to facilitate provision of information by governments to citizens (“e-information sharing”), interaction with citizens (“e-consulting”) and engagement in decision-making processes (“e-decision making”). The purpose of this measure is not to prescribe any particular practice, but rather to offer insight into how different countries are using online tools to promote interaction between citizens and government.

2. Corruption Perceptions Index

Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) [3] of Transparency International is an aggregate indicator that ranks countries in term of the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among public officials and politicians. This index reflects the perceptible level of public authorities’ corruption in 178 countries of the world.

The CPI aggregates data from 13 different surveys or assessments produced by the following ten organizations: Africa Development Bank, Asian Development Bank, Bertelsmann Foundation, Economist Intelligence Unit, Freedom House, Global Insights (formerly World Markets Research Centre), Institute for Management Development, Political and Economic Risk Consultancy, World Economic Forum and World Bank.

The above-mentioned sources are miscellaneous, not all of them rank all countries of the index. Seeing that, the number of sources from which each country’s score is derived is not the same for all countries. To be included into CPI rating the country should be covered by no less than three sources. The calculation of Corruption Perceptions Index is performed with the following steps:

1. As each of the sources has its own scaling system, it is necessary to standardize them, in other words, to transform their results to the single scale before entering into index. For this purpose, first, the “matching percentiles” method is used. Under this method the estimated countries are ranged within the each source. It helps to rescale the miscellaneous data to the single measuring system – rank scale. On the one hand, though such method simplifies the results to some measure and brings certain information losses, it makes possible the subsequent analysis.

2. The second step is also rescaling one: the results provided at previous step are beta-transformed. The beta-transformation increases the standard deviation of these values and helps to range countries with the similar assessments more clearly.

3. The final CPI score for a country is the average of these transformed values for all sources where it appears. The Transparency International researches consider it necessary to pay attention to the fact that each abovementioned source is a noisy measure of the corruption phenomenon. Because of that, in conjunction with the CPI value the 90% confidence interval is set up. This confidential interval demonstrates the range where 90% CPI values lies. There is a 5% probability that the value would be lower this range and a 5% probability that the value would be higher. The result CPI table displays the value of Corruption Perceptions Index for the countries, their ranks, minimum and maximum scores and also the 90% confidence interval.

3. The Human Development Index

The Human Development Index (HDI) [2] of Human Development Report Office (United Nations Development Program) is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living. The HDI is the geometric mean of normalized indices measuring achievements in each dimension.
HDI was introduced in 1990 as an alternative to conventional measures of national development, such as level of income and the rate of economic growth. It was created to emphasize that people and their capabilities should be ultimate criteria for assessing the development of a country, not only economic growth alone.

Whereas gross national income (GNI) per capita reflects only average national income and tells nothing of how that income is spent, the HDI focuses on health, education and other expenditures which form the notions of human development and quality of life. It can also be used to question national policy choices, asking how two countries with the same level of GNI per capita can end up with such different human development outcomes. For example, the Bahamas and New Zealand have similar levels of income per person, but life expectancy and expected years of schooling differ greatly between the two countries, resulting in New Zealand having a much higher HDI value than the Bahamas. There are also examples, when a country with higher GNI per capita has a lower level of HDI (i.e. Kuwait and Barbados). HDI is calculated for 187 countries of the world. Data is provided from the following sources:

- Life expectancy at birth – by the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs
- Mean years of schooling – by the Human Development Report Office updates based on UNESCO data
- Expected years of schooling – by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics
- GNI per capita – by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund.

HDI consists of three dimension indices which reflect four main indicators of human development in following connections: Life expectancy index – Life expectancy at birth; Education index – Mean years of schooling and Expected years of schooling; GNI Index – GNI per capita.

There are two steps to calculating the HDI. The first step is creating the dimension indices. All the indicators within the HDI have their own scales, so it is necessary to rescale them and to transform into indices between 0 and 1. For this purpose the determination of minimum and maximum values is required. The maximums at this methodology are the highest observed values in the time series (1980-2011). The minimums values are set at 20 years for life expectancy, at 0 years for both education variables and at $100 for per capita GNI. The sub-indices are calculated as follows:

$$ \text{Dimension index} = \frac{\text{actual value} - \text{min value}}{\text{max value} - \text{min value}} $$

For the income index is used modified formula, because it is assumed that income transformation function is likely to be concave and at this case for income the natural logarithm of the actual, minimum and maximum values is used.

The second step is aggregating the sub-indices to produce the Human Development Index. The HDI is the geometric mean of the three dimension indices:

$$ \left( I_{\text{life}}^{\frac{1}{3}} \times I_{\text{education}}^{\frac{1}{3}} \times I_{\text{income}}^{\frac{1}{3}} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} $$

4. The Global Innovation Index

The Global Innovation Index (GII) [1] of the INSEAD eLab recognizes the key role of innovation as a driver of economic growth and prosperity. The GII ranks 125 countries (economies) across the world in terms of their innovation capabilities and results. The report highlights those countries that achieve more innovation outputs overcoming weaknesses from the input side – the efficient innovators – and those that lag behind in fulfillment their innovation potential. So, the innovation performances are analyzed in reference to the income and regional groups.

The main problem for such index was to find a way, how to measure and evaluate such phenomenon as innovation. The researches give the following definition of innovation: new or significantly improved product, processes and methods in the provision of services. It can arise in business and organizational models, in low-tech industries; through creative imitation and technological catch-up; at the public level or at the level of society etc.

The GII relies on seven pillars: Institutions, Human capital and research, Infrastructure, market sophistication, Business sophistication, Scientific outputs and Creative outputs. Each pillar is divided into three sub-pillars, except for pillar 7, which has only two sub-pillars. Each sub-pillar score is calculated as the weighted average of individual indicators (there are total 80 indicators).

The GII includes four index measures:

- The Innovation Input Sub-Index – simple average of the first five pillar scores.
- The Innovation Output Sub-Index – simple average of the last two pillars.
- The Global Innovation Index – simple average of the Input and Output Sub-Indices.
The Innovation Efficiency Index – ratio of the Output Sub-Index over the Input Sub-Index.

The Innovation Output Sub-Index variables provide information on elements that are the result of innovation within the economy. The Innovation Input Sub-Index variables provide information on indicators that measure elements that must be in place to foster innovation in an economy. When the input and output Sub-Indices are plotted against each other, the data seem to confirm that efforts made on enabling environments are rewarded with increased innovation outputs. The Innovation Efficiency Index is calculated as the ratio of the Output over the Input Sub-Indices further explored this relationship. And the overall GII scores provide a composite picture of the state of each country’s innovation performance.

5. Correlation analysis

As have been told earlier, for the purposes of e-Government effects analysis in this paper the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient is used. Before the coefficient calculation, it was necessary to transform the analyzed miscellaneous indices (the Corruption Perceptions Index, the Global Innovation Index and the Human Development Index) to the single scale. After that the coefficients’ values were calculated and the analysis of the measure of the correlation was made. If value of the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient’s value is lower than 0,3, the connection between the ranges is low, or insignificant; if the value between 0,3 and 0,7, the statistical dependence between the ranges is medium; and the values higher than 0,7 means high connection between the variables.

Table 1 presents the results of the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient calculation for the E-Government development index and three above-mentioned indices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E-Government development index</th>
<th>Corruption Perceptions Index</th>
<th>Human Development Index</th>
<th>Global Innovation Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0,7318</td>
<td>0,9312</td>
<td>0,8996</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be seen from the Table 1, all the three values of the correlation coefficients are positive and extremely high. It means that the hypothesis of this paper - that e-Government has significant effects on such phenomena as corruption in public service, innovation activities in country/region and citizens’ quality of life, is confirmed.

The highest value of correlation coefficient with e-Government development index has Human Development Index, which presents the citizens life-quality within the countries of the world. This result is unsurprising. Governments, who take care of their citizens’ life quality, pay significant attention to public services quality and effectiveness raise.

The Global Innovation Index also has an extremely high correlation coefficient with e-Government development index. Implementation of e-Government technologies implicates with grand innovation activities in public service sphere. Firstly, it is necessary to develop the new mechanisms of G2C, G2B and G2G interactions and new ways of public services provision. Secondly, the activities for technical and moral preparations of public servants and citizens’ for the new technologies should be occurred. And thirdly, a problem of technical implementation of these technologies should be solved. So, the e-Government technologies have a high measure of dependence on innovation process in country, and rate of innovation activities depend on e-Government development too.

Corruption Perceptions Index has lower value of correlation coefficient with e-Government development index than the other two indices, but it still high. As known, one of the goals of e-Government is to fight corruption in governmental bodies through raising its transparency and openness. So, it could be expected, that this correlation coefficient should be higher. It can be concluded, at first, that technologies of e-Government in most regions are still developing and not fulfilling its tasks at the moment. And, at the second, that government with higher e-Government ratings and low CPI index rating should redesign their e-Government system with paying more attention to anti-corruption aspect.

This paper demonstrated that e-Government has significant effects on social and economical spheres of public sector. It means that development of e-Government technologies helps to promote public welfare and to solve different social problems. In this case, e-Government is a unique tool for social and economic development of the country.
References


Some Aspects of the Italian Diplomacy Towards the Albanian Republic (1925-1928)

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Abstract: This paper aims to analyze the relations between Italy and Albania during the republican government of the President Ahmet Zogu (1925-1928). Its approach is based on the study of the documentation, focusing on the factors that influenced the Italian diplomacy towards the Albanian state, as follows: At first, the government of Italy had economic interests in Albania, forcing the political class to make concessions to search and exploit the oil and mineral reserves from the Italian enterprises, such as: Azienda Italiana Petrolì d’Albania (AIPA), Sindaco Italiano Giacimenti Minerari Albanesi (SIGMA) etc; the Italian investments in agriculture and the establishment in Rome of the National Bank of Albania, in March 1925. Secondly, Italy intended to exert the political influence on Albania because of its strategic position in the Balkan. Rome benefited from the necessity of the President Zogu to protect his political regime and to overcome the difficult economic situation, forcing the Albanian government to sign the First Pact of Tirana, on 27th November, 1926. According to this agreement, Italy would defend the juridical, the territorial and the political status-quo of Albania against every potential aggression. Also it imposed some restrictions on the foreign policy of Albania, menacing its sovereignty. While, the Second Pact of Tirana signed on 22nd November, 1927, was basically a defensive alliance that strengthened the Italian domination in Albania, using it as a military base for further penetration in the Balkan. Thus, the Italian diplomacy towards the Albanian state with the aim of achieving its political and economic goals not only posed a threat to the sovereignty of Albania but also to the stability of the region.

Keywords: the Italian diplomacy; the Albanian Republic of President A. Zogu; economic and political interests; bilateral agreements;

1. The Italian influence on the economic system of Albania

Ahmet Zogu was elected as the President of the Albanian Republic by the deputies of the Constitutional Assembly on January 31st, 1925. He took also the Head of the executive power and began implementing new reforms in the political, juridical, social and economic system in particular. The Albanian government aimed at overcoming the difficult financial situation and developing different sectors of the economy. For that reason, it asked for the support of the foreign capital that was refused repeatedly from the League of Nations. In case of absence of the collective financial assistance, the Albanian neighbor on the other side of the Adriatic, Italy, was ready to offer its help to Tirana. The Italian government was potential enough financially and had strategic interests in Albania, factors that influenced the pro-Italian orientation of the president Zogu.

The two governments signed the Treaty of Trade and Navigation, on January 20th, 1925, which came into force the next month. According to article no.1, it was guaranteed the complete freedom of trade and navigation between citizens of the Italian Monarchy and those of the Albanian state. While, article no.2 gave the contracting partners the right of transit and the treatment of the most favor nation, meaning the taxes relief compared to that of co-nationals (The Archive of Institute of History (AIH), A.V.43, p. 2). This agreement helped to intensify the economic cooperation between the two countries.

In addition, the Albanian government attended the policy of encouraging the foreign investments, making a number of concessions with many companies, especially Italian ones. Those were mostly concentrated on the search and the exploitation of the mineral resources in different areas of Albania. Thus, “Ferrovie dello Stato Italiano”, that was an Italian state enterprise, in March 1925, won the concession to search an area of 50.000 ha and to exploit 30.000 ha. In order to administer its works was established a special company, called “Azienda Italiana Petroli d’Albania” – AIPA. Another venture was “Societa Italiana delle Miniere di Selenizza” – SIMS-a, which signed a twenty years concessionary agreement with the Albanian government, to search the oil reserves in 2140 ha, with the right of exploitation of 800 ha (“It was signed the oil concession..., 1925, p. 1). The Italian company, AIPA managed to expand the area of exploitation from 30.000 ha to 42.313 ha, on April 1st, 1926. The Italian ventures worked on these areas: Mirol Picikat, Selenizză, Devoll – the AIPA Company and Penkove, Drashovice – the SIMS-a one (AIH, A.V.43, pp. 5-6).

Another important event in the economic field was the sign of the agreement to establish the National Bank of Albania (NBA), on March 15th, 1925, between the minister of Finance, Mufid Libohova, and the representative of the Italian financial group, Mario Alberti. He was the Director of Credito Italiano and the delegate of Italy on the Committee of Finance of the League of Nations, in charge of the duty to obtain the capitals necessary for a Bank of coins issue of
Albania. M. Alberti became the first president of our National Bank centered in Rome. Its aim was to standardize the Albanian coin in circulation in order to improve the economic and the financial services. The National Bank of Albania had the exclusive right to issue coins, paper money and to reach agreements about a municipal or a governmental loan (AIH, A.V.95, p. 24). Therefore, the stability of the monetary system eliminated the deficits in the financial relations through the organization of the credit and the utilization of the savings.

The agreement of the establishment of the National Bank of Albania settled: Article no. 1 – A nominal capital of 12.500.000 gold francs, depositing firstly only 2.625.000 gold francs. Article no. 2 – The Albanian citizens had the right to possess up to 49% of the share capital. Article no. 6 – The Bank had the exclusive right to issue coins and paper money, taking the responsibility of every financial or bank service. Article no. 9 – The Main Directory of the Bank consisted of four members, two Italians and two Albanians, but the Head of it was given to one of the Italian representatives, who had the decisive vote. Article no. 14 – The Bank had no tax duty to the state, despite the patent one that was low and unimportant. Article no. 18, 19 and 25 – For a month, the Bank was going to create the Italian Society for the Economic Development of Albania (“Societa per lo Sviluppo Economico dell Albania” - SVEA), which would guarantee the Albanian government a loan of 50.000.000 gold francs, for forty years with 7.5% interest rates (AIH, A.V.59, pp. 38-39). It would deliver a sum of 7.500.000 gold francs for the first and the second year; 10.000.000 gold francs for the third year and 12.000.000 gold francs for the forth and the fifth one (AIH, A.V.43, p. 14). The loan repayment was based on the customs incomes and the state trusts on salt, paper-cigarettes and matches up to 8.500.000 gold francs per year. The loan of SVEA was used respectively: 34.5% for road construction, 25% for bridges, 19.5% for buildings, 15% for the port of Durres and 6% for the others (AIH, A.V.59, p. 44).

The National Bank of Albania was dominated by the Italian capital because of the abusive activity for personal profits of the minister of Finance, Mufid Libohova. The Investigative Commission of the Albanian Parliament proved it, too, accusing the minister of corruption and of national wealth misuse. Based on the secret agreement “the executive accord no.13”, between the representative of the Italian group, Amedeo Gambino, the General Secretary of the National Bank, and the Albanian minister of Finance, the article no. 4 determined the May 5th, 1925, as the last date, when the Albanian government was obliged to deposit the sum of its citizens on Banco Credito Italiano, in Rome. While, article no. 5 gave the foreign group the right to repeal the Albanians package of shares if the government had not deposited the necessary capitals. The secret agreement, that was not signed from the Council of Ministers, (AIH, A.V.43, p. 12) denied the Albanian citizens the right to possess the decided amount of shares in the National Bank of Albania.

However, the establishment of NBA-s played an important role towards the progress of the national economy, especially of finance, industry and trade. At first, the bank made the possibility to remove the financial actions from “the special financiers”, mainly called the usurers, under the administration of a contemporary institution of finance, organized and directed in conformity with all the regulations and the relatively sufficient capital. Secondly, the bank managed to hold an optimistic exchange rate. Though the level of circulation of gold franc banknotes was high, the bank guaranteed the strength of money restoring the faith to the national and foreign consumers. Thirdly, the bank became a relatively strong institution of credit, increasing the number of merchants, industrialists and other categories that got a credit from 121 in 1928 to 1772 creditors in 1938. Fourthly, the bank was considered a secure place to deposit the savings, guaranteeing high incomes not only from the capital investment in industry, trade, agriculture., but also from the money investment in the financial sphere. Fifthly, the bank influenced positively on the reduction of the credit interest rates able to compare with the neighboring countries (Kareco, 2010, pp. 79-81).

2. The diplomatic relations between Albania and Italy during the Republic of A. Zogu

Despite the economic domination in Albania, the Italian government signed a military agreement that gave the possibility to intervene aimed at supporting the Albanian state in case of aggression. This fact made the president Zogu conscious that every single inner destabily would serve Italy as a pretext for military intervention. As a result, in order to protect its personal power, Zogu took measures to enforce the police, inviting a British Inspector accompanied by a group of observing officers (Grant, 2002, p. 20). “In comparison with the other troops, the British police was considered more objective, loyal and law implemented. As Chief was appointed the colonel W. F. Steerling, who held at the same time the position of the counsellor at the Ministry of Interior. The British officers, that had the duty of inspectors and troops’ organizers, were chosen from Steerling as civil servants” (Vickers, 1995, p. 150). “In August 1925, colonel Steerling resigned and he was replaced from the major general sir Joycelyn Percy, a well-known officer of the army, who became the Chief of the British officers and of a nearly 3000 police force. Percy insisted on paying regularly the wages of the troops and finding good accommodation, uniforms and arms. Thus, he could inspire conviction and responsibility for the police activity. Also, Percy made efforts to educate his troops how to serve with justice and accuracy to the citizens,
aimed at having a good reputation rather than arousing suspicion. Though corruption dominated, the police had a great respect for the legal system” (Vickers, 2008, pp. 191-192).

Parallel with the consolidation of the Interior power, Albania under the government of Zogu became an important factor in the politics and the balance of the Balkan’s issues (Meksi, 1926, p. 1). Its neighbors, Italy and Yugoslavia continued their rivalry to exert influence on it. Hence, Rome proposed the Yugoslavian government to divide Albania between them into zones of influence. This proposal was opposed firmly from Beograd, which considered Albania an état-tampon, meaning a country that being positioned between the two rivalries, helped to avoid the potential conflicts and the worsening of the relations (Meksi, 1926, p. 2).

Behind the rivalry between Italy and Yugoslavia were the Great Powers, such as Britain and France that wanted to expand the zone of influences and maintain the balance of power. During the meeting of December 1925, in Rapalo, between B. Mussolini and Austen Chamberlain, Italy provided the support of London to further control Albania, while Yugoslavia and its ally, France were not able to prevent the Italian domination (Bisak, Kurti and Gashi, 1995, p. 11).

On June 24th, 1926, the Italian minister in Tirana, Baron Pompeo Aliosi, asked the Albanian government to finish a political pact, in conformity with the decision of November 9th, 1921, of the Conference of Ambassadors. The last one gave Italy the exclusive right, without the mediation of the League of Nations, to protect Albania in case of an aggression. On the other hand, Rome promised the president Zogu 3000 rifles, 10 mountain’s batteries, 5000 guns, 2000 military uniforms, 2000 mules and a “personal gift” of 15 million liras. If he refused, P. Aliosi threatened to make a compromise with Beograd against Albania, aimed at organizing a non-governmental uprising. The policy of Italy worried the Head of the State, who informed the representatives of Britain, France and Yugoslavia (AIH, A.V.111, p. 4).

The British diplomacy decided to use this case in order to give the Italian fascist expansion an orientation in accordance with the main objectives of Britain. The government of London was interested in understanding the intentions of the Italian minister in Tirana. Thus, Mussolini became aware of the fact that, without the approval of Britain, the further domination in Albania would be difficult. For that reason, on September 30th, 1926, in the Italian city of Livorno, was held a meeting between B. Mussolini and Austen Chamberlain, Italy provided the support of London to further control Albania, while Yugoslavia and its ally, France were not able to prevent the Italian domination (Bisak, Kurti and Gashi, 1995, p. 11).

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The political compromise between Britain and Italy dissatisfied greatly Beograd that, experiencing the weakening of Yugoslavian influence in Albania, encouraged the population of Dukagjin to organize a rebellion against the government of Zogu. It began, on November 20th, 1926, in the region of Shala in the North part of Albania, under the direction of the Catholic cleric Don Çopa. The state forces put down the rebellion in the last minute and only few kilometers away (AIH, A.V.16, p. 4). This event accelerated the end of the negotiations about the First Italian-Albanian Pact of Friendship and Security. It was signed in Tirana, on November 27th, 1926, between Baron P. Aloisi and the Albanian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Hysen Vrioni. The Pact had five articles and the first one presented the essence of the content because it determined the objectives of the First Pact of Tirana. Accordingly to it “Italy and Albania declared that every threat against the political, juridical and territorial status quo of Albania was in opposition to the political interests of the two countries”. This article guaranteed the power of A. Zogu from each menace inside or outside Albania and legitimated the intervention of Italy to avoid any potential danger. While, article no. 2 settled the dependence of Albania on the neighbor of the other side of the Adriatic, Italy, because the Albanian government had no right to sign other political or military agreements at the expense of the contracting partner (AIH, A.V.95, p. 26). The First Pact of Tirana stayed into force for five years and it could be denounced or repeated a year before the end of the deadline.

In December 1926, the Italian-Albanian Pact of Friendship and Security was voted unanimously in the Chamber of Deputies. During the discussions and the speeches of the deputies Poga, Libohova, Floqi and Çako, was understood clearly that a) the political status quo of article no. 1 protected the rights of the Albanian state, as the independence and the sovereignty; b) the juridical status quo meant the current situation of Albania since the membership in the League of Nations; c) the territorial status quo referred to the political borders of Albania acknowledged and decided internationally, thus the border line of the Conference of Ambassadors. Regarding article no. 2 of the Pact, the deputies analyzed that the two countries were not allowed to sign any military or political agreement with the other states against the interests of the contracting partner or in opposition to the interests that included the pact. However, the contracting countries accepted the sign of friendship agreements with other states that enforced the interests of the Italian-Albanian Pact. These explanations estimated the pact as a success of the Albanian government that signed an agreement with a Great
Power, in respect of the state dignity, protecting its rights with absolute sovereignty ("The Parliament ratified..., 1926, p. 1). While, on February 8th, 1927, the signing countries sent the First Pact of Tirana to Geneva for the purpose of registering at the respective institutions of the League of Nations. Although it violated the independence of a member state, like Albania, the Council of the League didn’t refuse to register the pact (AIH, A.V.60, p. 16).

The Italian-Albanian Pact made a bad impression on the political circles of Beograd, bringing to light the existent rivalry between Yugoslavia and Italy for the Adriatic. For that reason, the Yugoslavian government annulled all the agreements signed between the two countries, aimed at defending the territorial integrity of the Albanian state, ("The Italian-Albanian Pact..., 1926, p. 1) based on the argument that the pact took a step towards the Italian protectorate over Albania. This event was considered a failure of the Yugoslavian diplomacy and the Foreign Affairs’ Minister, M. Nincic, resigned. On December 8th, 1926, the Yugoslavian government gave the resignation, too ("Again the Adriatic", 1926, p. 1).

On the other side, the Italian diplomacy called the Pact of Friendship and Security as an important agreement to guarantee the political and the territorial integrity of Albania. In order to avoid every misinterpretation of the pact, Mussolini proposed Yugoslavia to sign a similar agreement with the Albanian government, or the three countries to draw up a common treaty in conformity with the Pact of Tirana. This proposal was supported by the Foreign Minister of Albania, Iljaz Vrioni, who admitted to finishing an agreement with Yugoslavia, in respect of good neighborhood and the status quo protection ("The Minister of Foreign Affairs..., 1927, p. 1). The idea of the multilateral cooperation could be generalized to the Balkan’s "Locarno" that included Italy, too. But, such an agreement requested the Balkan countries to acknowledge the borders and the sovereignty of each-other. Thus, Yugoslavia had to say “farewell” to its intentions in Albania, Thessaloniki and elsewhere. So, the Balkan’s Confederate couldn’t be impossible ("Why not a Balkan", 1927, p. 1). When the contradictions between Italy and Yugoslavia in the Balkan deepened, in April 1927, the president Ahmet Zogu gave an interview for "Daily Mail", considering peaceful the First Pact of Tirana. According to him, because of the geographical position Albania should have good relations with the neighbors. The Pact with Italy would provide its assistance in many aspects, not violating the sovereignty and the independence of Albania. The mutual support and the friendship cooperation mentioned in the pact were simply of diplomatic nature. The Albanians were very satisfied because Rome had arisen their question at the Chancelleries of Europe. But neither Italy nor Albania had planned to take any military action. Despite this, the Albanians were free to ask or not for the help of Italy ("An interview of President..., 1927, p. 4). The First Pact of Tirana continued to worry the circles of the European diplomacy because of the aggravation of the relations between Italy and Yugoslavia referring to Albania. Concerning Beograd, the attitude of the Great Powers, particularly of Britain, was very important to the Italian position in the Albanian state. In January 1927, the visit of Churchill in Italy was analyzed as a Britain’s tendency to include Rome in its anti-soviet policy at the expense of the Italian intentions in the Balkan. Although the Foreign Office was aware that the Pact of Tirana didn’t help to consolidate the situation in Europe, especially in the Adriatic and the Balkan. This fact was in direct contradiction to the purpose of London for the European stability. Sir William Tirel, during the conversation with the Yugoslavian legate, admitted that the personality of Mussolini and his dictatorial regime presented uncertainty about the political stability of Europe. However, the good relations between Chamberlain and Mussolini gave Britain the possibility to minimize this uncertainty. According to Tirel, the FO was in favor of protecting the independece of Albania and respecting its rights as a member state of the League of Nations. On the other hand, the French diplomacy believed that Mussolini was conscious that the Italian-Albanian Pact was not a calculated action. For that reason, the fascist leader had noticed that the signing of the pact was quite similar to the Corfu’ adventure, a policy rejected by everyone. Moreover, France declared its unwavering friendship with Yugoslavia, requesting Beograd to calm down and to give up any potential intervention in Albania (Arifi, 1991, pp. 283-284).

Despite the suggestions of its ally, France, the Yugoslavian government, in March 1927, organized the armed bands and enforced the military troops along the Albanian border. In order to face every possible invasion, Ahmet Zogu charged the colonel Percy with the duty of commanding the troops of the Northern Albania. These incidents attracted the attention of Italy, which sent a note to the Great Powers, such as Britain, France and Germany, informing about the Yugoslavian plans to provoke aggression against Albania (AIH, A.V.16, p. 5). The ambassadors of Yugoslavia in different capitals of Europe answered the diplomatic attacks of Rome that the Yugoslavian military actions aimed at defending rather than invading the Albanian territories. The Italian campaign against the activity of Yugoslavia didn’t find the expected support of the Great Powers, as Britain and France, that accepted the request of Beograd to conduct an international investigation along the Serbian-Albanian border. Italy strongly opposed this initiative reasoning that it would be a waste of time for Europe to form the Investigative Commission and go there. Because Yugoslavia was going to take the necessary measures to eliminate all the traces on the place. Thus, Rome proposed Britain and France to exert their influence on Yugoslavia to abandon the “Balkan’s intrigues” than asking for investigations without results (Treska, 1927, p. 1).
The situation in the Balkan was tensioned due to the rivalry between Italy and Yugoslavia for influence in Albania. This fact intensified the Italian-Albanian negotiations to finish a military pact. Hence, on November 22nd, 1927, the ambassador of Italy, Ugo Sola, and the minister of Foreign Affairs of Albania, Iljaz Vroni, signed the “Treaty of the Defensive Alliance”, or the so-called the Second Pact of Tirana (AIH, A.V.16, p. 8). According to it, the contracting partners were obliged to share the fate of each-other in case of aggression, guaranteeing the military assistance if needed. This principle of reciprocity aimed at avoiding every misinterpretation of the alliance as a kind of protectorate or the Italian mandate over Albania (Rothschild, 1928, p. 3).

The Treaty of the Defensive Alliance came into force for a period of twenty years, showing clearly the calculations of Rome not to lose its control over Albania, if the First Pact of Tirana was not repeated. The military nature of the treaty enforced the Italian influence on the Albanian armed forces. There were brought arms and munitions from Italy. A military mission headed by general Pariani reorganized the Albanian army. The officers went to Italy for drilling. The fascist instructors came to organize the Albanian youth and to receive pre-military trainings (AIH, A.V.95, p. 26).

The Italian Prime Minister, B. Mussolini, considered the Second Pact of Tirana as a manner or mean of mutual defense of the two countries’ interests. During his speech on the Chamber of Deputies, he declared that the unwavering desire of the Italian population was the protection of the independence of Albania, which gave a guarantee of the security of Italy on the eastern part of the Adriatic (Chekrezi, 1927, p. 2).

Also the printed media in Albania treated the importance of the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance signed with Italy. It was noticed that 1) the independence and the territorial integrity of Albania was secured internationally. 2) The last declarations of the Prime Minister, B. Mussolini, of the Senators and the deputies of Italy, due to the ratification of the First Pact of Tirana and the Treaty of Alliance, explained that there was no doubt about the real intentions of the Italian government towards Albania. 3) The Albanians, from the President up to the last citizen of the Republic, understood these agreements as a guarantee of the independence and the territorial integrity of Albania that excluded every single intervention in the governmental problems. Because Italy and Albania not only shared common political interests, but also the feelings of a traditional friendship (“Albania and Italy”, 1930, p. 1).

While, the Head of the State Council, Mehdi Frashëri, opposed everyone who underestimated the alliance between Italy and Albania, based on the argument that the existence of the Albanian state was guaranteed from the League of Nations. He analyzed that the Second Treaty of Tirana was drawn up in conformity with the principles of the League Statute that each member, in case of aggression, obliged the other states to impose sanctions against the aggressor. The Council of the League of Nations consisted of the representatives of the fourteen countries tended to be expanded further. Thus, if there was a war danger, the Council would be assembled deciding unanimously to impose or not the sanctions. At first, it was difficult to take the decisions unanimously; secondly, if that was reached, the League of Nations needed time to act effectively, so the aggressive country arrived at the coast. Therefore, the League of Nations formed a collective guarantee. The Italian-Albanian Alliance added an individual guarantee to the collective one. The ally because of the geographical proximity and the vital interests in the Adriatic, morally and materially was disposed to move faster than the League. However, nothing banned the League of Nations, in case of war, to provide assistance to the allies. At the same time, Mehdi Frashëri, refused to accept that the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance offered Italy the possibility to play an aggressive role in the Balkan, which wouldn’t keep the balance and the world peace. Otherwise this treaty, guaranteeing the order of Albania, could influence positively in the stability of the continental neighboring countries (Frashëri, 1929, pp. 14-15).

The alliances with Italy helped Zogu to concentrate the power in his hands and to prepare the public opinion inside and outside Albania about the necessity of changing the political system from Republic to Monarchy. For that reason, only one day before the proclamation of the Albanian Monarchy, on August 30th, 1928, Ahmet Zogu finished some secret agreements with the Italian government in order to concrete the Second Pact of Tirana. On one side, it gave a strong military support to Tirana, organizing a sufficient army aimed at defending against any attack from the political opponents or the neighboring countries, such as Yugoslavia. On the other side, Italy wanted to use the army for its intentions in the Balkan and elsewhere. The Italian minister in Albania, Ugo Sola, thought of the considerable position of Rome and that ¾ of the economic activity was dominated by the Italians. Thus, the Monarchy proclamation would protect the Italian interests in Albania (The Academy of Science of Albania, 2007, p. 288).

3. Conclusions

The Republic government of Albania made efforts to intensify the diplomatic relations with Italy rather than Yugoslavia. Due to the fact that 1) the Yugoslavian government provided Ahmet Zogu with financial and military support to come into power after the overthrow of the Cabinet of F. Noli. Thus, Zogu didn’t want to become a mean of promoting the
Yugoslavian interests in Albania. 2) Also Beograd couldn’t compete with the Italian capital that was necessary to develop the Albanian economy. Hence, the president Zogu was oriented towards Italy which had considerable financial means and strategic interests in Albania.

The relations between Italy and Albania included many spheres of cooperation. Economically, some Italian companies, such as AIPA, SIMSA etc. won concessions to search and exploit the mineral resources in different areas of Albania. Another important event was the establishment of the National Bank of Albania aimed at improving the economic and financial services, as the standardization of the monetary unit in circulation, the system of credit etc. But, NBA centered in Rome was dominated by the Italian capital that took the decisions, too.

The political rivalry between Italy and Yugoslavia for influence in Albania dictated the Italian government to finish two agreements with Tirana. The Pact of Friendship and Security, of November 27th, 1926, that installed the dependence of Albania and legitimated the intervention of Italy in case of aggression. This pact guaranteed the personal power of A. Zogu from any attacks inside or outside the country. While, the Treaty of the Defensive Alliance, signed on November 22th, 1927, enforced the Italian control over the Albanian armed forces that would be used also to reach the intentions of Italy in the Balkan. Moreover, the alliance with the neighbor on the other side of the Adriatic, Italy, helped Zogu to concentrate the political power and to be proclaimed the “Monarch of the Albanians”.

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The Latvian Defence Policy of Military Areas in Borderlands

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Abstract: Planning of military areas by Latvian defence policy is performed, in order to ensure purposeful development of the national defence abilities of Latvia, both on a national level, and within the framework of collective defence. The defence system of Latvia is being developed in accordance with the geopolitical situation of Latvia, available resources and the military abilities to be applied within the framework of collective security. Latvian defence policy for planning of military areas in borderlands is made by three stages or perspectives. 1) Land use sustainable development - support local planning and economic development objectives. Related with local authorities. 2) Environmental protection – create development and implementation of the global sustainable development strategy “Agenda 21” and the local strategy “Baltic Agenda 21”, Latvia has demonstrated its position regarding environmental protection. This statement is involve from NATO global policy about military area restructuring. 3) Cultural – military heritage perspective. That means protection policy of historical military buildings. It is type how to protect historical property that has relevance and importance in illustrating the historical context.

Keywords: Defence policy, borderlands, heritage, military geography, Latvia

1. Introduction

Latvia is the state which is the most historical affected from neighbour states and geopolitical Nazi Germany and Soviet Union. Military conflicts in Latvia are not happened last 67 years. The contemporary reorganization military infrastructure and land use in former military areas are most problematic aim which are transform local regional development in borderlands of Latvia (Alanen, 2004). One of the way how regulate processes of land use recognition is Safeworld programme. Safeworld is developing a program to take forward and build support for the proposals contained un the EU Programme for Preventing and Combating Illicit Trafficking in Conventional Arms and to formulate an agenda for the EU member states to implement the program. In particular the program will focus on developing proposals in three main areas:

- Owners of a resource stock select extraction levels that follow a Markov perfect equilibrium path;
- Land use and biomass capacity should to grow up, because Ministry of Defence and Ministry of Environmental protection and Regional development are made statements of collective agreements of directorate political agreements environmental management of Latvian borderlands.
- The former military areas are regionally sustain implement by value of communities and neighbourhoods. Target government funding toward existing communities – through strategies such as transit – oriented, mixed use development, and land recycling – to increase community revitalization, promote walkable areas, increase public health, and improve the efficiency of public works investments. Safeguard intact relationships between communities and neighbourhoods and the natural resources, open space and agricultural landscapes.

The Latvian coastline and inland borderlands are unique and relatively unfragmented landscape, because in Soviet period, when Latvia were occupied, borderland was “closed zone”. This geographical fiction now made new opportunities of researchers and policy makers.
2. Research methods and data

In this research is used scientific literature analysed method and interview with professionals from military science sight. In this research is used GIS (Geographic Information system) for military regions analysing. Data is taken from Latvian Defence Ministry data about military object location. Other part of data is analyzed from GIS Server Latvia. In this paper mathematical appreciation is made on spatial data models. Spatial panel data models can deal with cross-sectional and dynamic dependences among economic units, allowing heterogeneity among these unit. They are generalized from a cross-sectional model, where the spatial autoregressive model by Cliff & Ord (1973) has received the most attention.

Table 1. Defence sector of Latvia (Latvian Ministry of Defence, 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy planning</th>
<th>Policy implementation</th>
<th>Environmental protection</th>
<th>Scientific research</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning Latvian defence policy is performed, in order to ensure purposeful development of the national defence abilities of Latvia, both on a national level, and within the framework of collective defence.</td>
<td>Policy implementation of Latvian defence policy is based in two aspects participation in international operations and Baltic defence cooperation.</td>
<td>By joining international conventions on environmental protection, entering into international agreements for the improvement of the quality of the environment.</td>
<td>As of 2003, the funds for the research work are planned within the framework of the annual budget of the military landfields. The Ministry provides funding for the research projects.</td>
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</table>

The national security policy is essentially a policy – recommending body, but because of its small size it can respond to crises quickly, and its powerful membership ensures that its decisions are influential. National Defence policy is quite related with EU and legislation of military land use (Table 1). European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP) has become one of the most dynamic of administrative interaction in the European Union (EU). This has entailed the creation of several political – military bodies in Brussels as well as functional desks specifically devoted to European security cooperation in member state foreign and defence ministries. There are three stages of global impact of military land use are 1) intergovernmentalism, 2) transnationalism and 3) transgovernmentalism. These three stages affect military land reform of Latvia. The concept of land reform has varied over time according to the functions performed by land itself (Ayoob, 1995): as a factor of production, a store of value and wealth, a status symbol, or a source of social and political influence. Land value reflects its relative scarcity, which in a market economy usually depends on the ratio between the area of usable land and the size of the population. As the per capita land area declines, the relative value of land rises, and land becomes increasingly a source of conflict among economic and social groups in the community.

3. Military landfields and spatial structure of Latvia

Military landfills are covered with ~ 1.68% of the Latvia territory. In these areas, works in the Latvian Armed Forces and the general public its closed or restricted (see: Fig 1). Landfill site is used for several decades by the Soviet army and there was intense military action (Ādaži management plan, 2002). Since World War II, when Latvia was occupied by German and Soviet occupation, foreign military presence has exacerbated the environmental problems. Most marked in that there was a direct troop locations, and military bases. Soviet military units and a network of Latvian was very wide, so large quantities of hazardous substances, and defective unexploded ordnance, mines and drop bomb, as well as a variety of releases to soil and water pollution is still a wide Latvian countryside.
Most of military landfields of Latvia are concentrated in Kurzeme planning region, because it is related by historical and political reasons. Kurzeme coastline were western border of USSR (Gilpin, 1995). Fortification and security systems of coastline borderline are very disturbed of reason why are these structures located strictly. Former military polygons now are privatized and deeply analyzed by local authorities.

Two institutions Defence ministry of Latvia and Latvian National Agency of Tourism are made data base of military objects. There are compiled information about 100 military heritage sites and interesting strategic geographical exposures. Military secrets have been carefully protected and hidden everywhere and through time eternal. It is no surprise that we still know comparatively little about the Soviet and then Russian armed forces, which only left Latvia and the other Baltic States in 1994. A good example of this is the unique “Little Star” on the Kurzeme seashore – a massive radio reception system with three parabolic antennae that were used to intercept telephone calls and probably to engage in other information processes over a vast region (Celotajs, 2011). It was only recently that we learned that the former Latvian SSR was home to more than 1,000 military units which were posted to some 600 facilities (Laurance, 1998). The total area of these military bases was equal to more than 10% of the Soviet republic’s territory. There are a few well known military objects that are open to visitors who wish to get a bit of a sense about what the Soviet era was like. These include the military prison in Liepāja and a hidden bunker in Līgatne (Celotājs, 2011). There is many cultural – military places which now are adapted for military security.

4. Defence policy after accession to NATO

Defence policy of Latvia is related with aspects of military activities in Latvian borderland. It is related between Latvia and internal partners. Division of partners are NATO states and “third neighbours” (Russia and Belarus). In September 2009 Russia held two related military exercises – “Zapad - 2009” and “Ladoga - 2009”. These two military operations explain the situations why defence policy for borderlands are very important decision. Security systems are also involvement of development for coastline and borderland counties.

Now the national security programme is based on the three aspects (Muiznieks, 2006):

1. Latvia had their own security strategy of territory which are planned based on official statement from Saeima (national parliament of Latvia). In this strategy is statement how to protect civil zone from abroad attacks. This strategy is called VAK – 2008.
2. Second and most important collective security system – 1) information – 2) land use overview – 3) information processing. The Latvian Geographic Information Infrastructure (LGII) was created to connect major national spacial information providers to a spatial infrastructure.
3. Internal partners like NATO and Northern alliance are contributors for collective security. 1) Cooperative military strategical regulations are made for military land field studies.

5. The Latvian Borderland and sustainable development processes

Innovation is the process by which an idea or invention is translated into a good or service for which people will pay (Dannhaeuser; Werner, 2008), or something that results from this process. Borderland of Latvia is quite attractive economically zone. In borderland of Latvia have 1083 entrepreuner places, 668 of them are located in coastal administrative units. Latvian coastal borderlands include strict administrative units (110 counties ~ (latvian: novadi)) which are established in 2009. Local innovative economy planners are local authorities and entrepreneurs. In a relatively
small economy with relatively immobile capital, high corporate with investors from national and global sight. The paper is organized as follows. The research aim is results of calculation how local innovative economy develop administrative units of Latvian coastal borderlands.

Co-operation practices between coastal municipalities and other local actors of North-Western part of Latvia and UNESCO is created by chair in SCD under the framework of EC LIFE project “Green Coastal Region – 21”. Two innovation forms of coastal rural sustainability is 1) social – ecological management of agriculture land use and 2) communating planning (UNESCO Latvia, 2001):

- all environmental and socio-economic development investments - locally planned, lacking co-operation between municipalities and other stakeholders,
- inter-sectorial regional and sustainable planning elements neglected in ongoing sectoral (waste, water etc.) environmental projects.

The spatial processes of Latvian borderland are related with sustainable development indicators like 1) environment condition; 2) number of enterpreneur places; 3) population and 4) urban – rural distribution.

Figure 2. Populated places in Zvārde parish in 20th century 90 years (Balodis; Beneža, 2011)

Zvārde is former military parish, where is located smaller counties. Comparing the age structure Zvārde parish 2007th year, it can be concluded that all of Zvārde local residents 66.1% are of working age, which is different from the age structure of the country as a whole (see: Fig 2). Zvārde parish has a greater proportion of population under working age - 18.6%, which is the Parish of human potential and the potential workforce in the future as the national average before the working age is 15.4% (CSB, 2011). After working age population ratio Zvārde parish is less than the country as a whole (national average 21.8%) - 15.3% (CSB, 2011), it shows a favorable age structure.
6. Military geography of Latvia

Contemporary theories of place provide a framework within which geographers and also military scientists can bridge society – wide processes, such as state building, with local actions, decisions, and experiences. In this view military places of Latvia are widely conceptualized as networks, rather than simply the local – scale settings, or containers, in which social relations occur (Lejins, 2004).

Former military territories are now new type of develop areas (see: Fig 3). Just as geography is essential to the military establishment, so it is valued in the public, civilian sector (Buchan, 1968). Thus, that most fundamental of human geographical distributions, population itself, is of the greatest interest to census bureaus of various countries and internationally (Lovell, 1970). Population and economical indicators also show, how to military areas are affected development of military areas (Weber, 1978). The military region Zvārde and Ādaži in comparison with other regions particular affected by closing of barracks of the Latvian Armed Forces. Strongly concerned are the locations in Carnikava, Kadaga and Garkalne as well as the circle district Ādaži, which communities of the circle decided and with participation of the counties Ādaži and Garkalne to promote the regional management conversion under the responsibility of the Latvian Armed Forces.

In Latvia have 3 military counties and 18 garrisons (see: Table 2). The military – administrative division of Latvia is from 1992. Taking into account that Latvia has one of the smallest military budgets within NATO in both- percentage of GDP and real money investment level, NATO “Smart Defense” initiative is of utmost importance for this country defense system and military capabilities. 16 military exercises are being organized in Latvia in 2010 including three high level international military exercises. Soldiers from the Latvian National Armed Forces (NAF) are participating in 42 military exercises in Latvia.

![Military geographical division of Latvia](www.mil.lv)

**Figure 3.** Military geographical division of Latvia (Latvian Ministry of Defence, 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Military county</th>
<th>Administrative division type</th>
<th>Name of military structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western county</td>
<td>Liepājas garrison</td>
<td>Land armed forces of Kurzeme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western county</td>
<td>Ventspils garrison</td>
<td>Military navy logistic centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western county</td>
<td>Dobeles garrison</td>
<td>51th infantry battalion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western county</td>
<td>Kuldīgas garrison</td>
<td>45th safeguard battalion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western county</td>
<td>Jelgavas garrison</td>
<td>51th infantry battalion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Valmieras garrison</td>
<td>22th armed battalion of Valmiera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Cēsu garrison</td>
<td>Military instructor school of Cēsis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Rīgas garrison</td>
<td>NBS united stuff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Ogre garrison</td>
<td>54th technical battalion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Ādaži garrison</td>
<td>Military supportance battalion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre county</td>
<td>Lielvārdes garrison</td>
<td>Air armed forces base of Lielvārde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern county</td>
<td>Alūksnes garrison</td>
<td>Eastern unit of home guard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Conclusion

Defence policy of Latvia is based on national strategic interests and NATO official statements. The new military geographical aspects are now based on Latvian borderland and coastline.

Latvian large numbers of the former Soviet armed forces and part of the infrastructure. Identifying, evaluating and managing the military objectives, it is possible to develop rural tourism, thereby contributing to the area of sustainable development, protecting nature and biodiversity.

Latvian military territorial structure is divided in three major military regions and in 18 military districts.

This research argues for increased critical attention to the role of territory and territoriality in framing sociospatial courses in the context of spatial plan making. Even if such interactions and connections seem to be less present, a(ny) region depends partly on, and takes shape relation to, networked connections and flows and territories “elsewhere”.

Border zones are areas near borders of states that have special restrictions to movement. Governments may forbid unauthorized entry to border zones and restrict property ownership in the area (Stüre, 2004). Borderlands of Latvia in nowadays is understandable of border zone with 15 km distance from border to borderlands. Now we can describe in Latvia borderland more than 900 military buildings and structures. More than in any other area, military remains have been the subject of complementary approaches to designation.

Generally, listing has been applied to buildings in use: scheduling to those monuments where re-use is inappropriate, ruinous condition. In practise, there are listed inert buildings in ruinous condition, and scheduled monuments in use. The most appropriate designation regime (Wates, 2006) will be applied to all candidates, and in some cases a review of the existing designation may be warranted. Principle of rarity are being a rare survival of its type will strengthen the case (Petrakos; Maier; Gorzelak, 2000). In some cases, for example with experimental sites, many buildings are by definition rare or unique.

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Abstract: In public dental cabinets patients often miss their appointments which may cause dead time, resulting in material and personnel costs. The time lost estimated in a dental clinic from the Andalusian health service in Spain has an average of 27 minutes a day. This time is often employed in the treatment of patients who attend without an appointment, categorized as an ‘emergency’ (70 patients per month in 2011, quoted time spent 38 minutes a day). 67% of these were patients who had not attended to their previous appointments. We analyzed surveys concerning patients’ satisfaction and complaints carried out in public health centers, the reasons why patients were attending without an appointment or for ‘emergencies’, as well as the communication channels between patient vs. dental care professional, and patient vs. appointment administration personnel. As a result, the process designed involves all the professionals, beginning at reception where patients will be reported concerning the way to cancel or postpone an appointment. The increase of the consultation time scheduled, will achieve an acceptable waiting time less than a week. Posters designed give detailed information with reference to office hours, how to cancel appointments, the ‘criteria’ and specific schedule for attending without an appointment. Specific schedule to attend emergencies, will take advantage to educate patients on schedule adherence, providing them with another appointment in the shortest time possible. A design for the implementation of the communication between patients and professionals will improve the daily dynamics of the dental office.

Keywords: dental emergencies, organizational changes, patient’s satisfaction, total quality management.

1. Introduction

Despite the fact that the information provided to patients in the centers of primary health care is becoming more complete, and health education is greater than a few years ago, there are still shortcomings in the organization of care to patients attending health centers seeking for dental treatments. Healthcare tends to be organized according to criteria of quality (Shaw, 2000), which includes first and as a major axis to the customers (Brampton, 2000; Jung, Wensing and Grohl, 1997); i.e. the needs and expectations of the patients, trying to provide patients "what they want" (Feigenbaum, 2002), at a time considered acceptable, with the best facilities and best trained professionals. The way to make possible the long-awaited patient satisfaction is through proper design of interventions, including the necessary organizational changes (Miller, 1998; Illes & Sutherland, 2001; Bazzoli, Dynan, Burns and Yap, 2004).

In public dental cabinets patients often miss their appointments which may cause dead time or loss of time in dental surgeries, resulting in material and personnel costs, id est: open cabinets that are empty, where professionals are wasting their time and, consequently, the public health system money. The reasons for not attending to the schedule tend to be ‘fear of pain’ (Berggren & Meynert, 1984; Arntz, Van Eck and Heijmans, 1990; Liddell & Locker, 1997), forgetting the meeting, having attended a private dentist or because they ignore how the mechanism to cancel or change the appointment works and, in a smaller proportion, there arise other particular causes that cannot be postponed.

It has been estimated the time lost in a dental clinic from the Andalusian Health Service in Spain, the data taken into account were those obtained from the year 2011, considering the working days, the time assigned to each patient who did not attend, and an average of 27 minutes a day was determined. This time is not always unproductive since it was often employed in the treatment of patients who attend without an appointment or categorized as an ‘emergency’; it has been quoted that the time spent to treat patients who come without an appointment is 38 minutes a day.

The number of patients attending without an appointment is about 70 per month (average of the statistical data obtained in the year 2011). When the patients were asked for the reasons for their request, the most often answers obtained were severe pain (57%) and aesthetic problems (9%). When we analyzed the medical history of the patients
who attended in the last year with no appointment or caused by an ‘emergency’ to the public health dentist cabinet it was noticed that a 67% of them were patients who had not attended to their previous appointments.

2. Project objective

In order to meet the patients’ expectations and to improve the daily dynamics and organization of time in the dental cabinet, the aim of this work is to design a strategy to improve communication with the patient, clarifying and making unambiguous the steps to follow in order to facilitate the access to the dental service, to change or cancel the appointments when they cannot attend, reducing the waiting list and avoiding that some of the patients attend when it is unnecessary.

3. Methods

With these purposes, we analyzed surveys concerning patients’ satisfaction and complaints, which were carried out in public health centers, the reasons why patients were attending without an appointment or for ‘emergencies’, as well as the communication channels between patient vs. dental care professional, and patient vs. appointment administration personnel.

In the health centers of the Andalusian Health Services surveys concerning patients’ satisfaction are made each year and are available online in the official web page of this institution. Complaints are answered in no more than 15 days, asking the health professionals involved in the treatment of those patients about their knowledge regarding the situation that made them complaint. We analyzed the complaints related to those patients who attended without an appointment and were dissatisfied with the attention given, the waiting time or the waiting list, looking for a satisfying solution for their problem. These complaints and satisfaction surveys are taken into account to improve health services and organization.

The reasons for attending to consultation are registered by health professionals who often see these patients. Moreover, reasons for attending to dental cabinet without a date were analyzed, and included in the categories showed in the table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Severe pain (infectious and inflammatory diseases)</th>
<th>Pulpitis</th>
<th>Periodontal/periapical abscess</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hemorrhagic diseases</td>
<td>Ginvititis</td>
<td>Bleeding after dental extraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental trauma</td>
<td>Tooth fracture</td>
<td>Tooth luxation/avulsion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approaches to Derivation to Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery Service</td>
<td>Trismus</td>
<td>Dysphagia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint disease</td>
<td>Temporomandibular disorder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others not justified</td>
<td>Unknown of scheduling system, incompatibility between their appointment and their work schedule...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Categories of reasons for attending dental cabinet without a date.

Triage assessment at the reception desk, assertiveness and communication skills of the reception staff were evaluated as well as the perceptions, proposals and viewpoints of these professionals. Dentists and general practitioner’s suggestions were also taken into account. A brainstorming was held and proposals were selected following a decisional matrix.

4. Results

The reasons obtained for attending without a date were: pain, bleeding, trauma, joint disorder or others not justified like unknown of scheduling system, incompatibility between their appointment and their work schedule, or because they were
at the healthcare center and came to the dental cabinet for asking about their dental problems. The reasons for not attending to their dates were: forgetting the date, facing something they could not postpone, severe dental pain fear, absence of dental pain, preference for private dentist instead of a very long waiting list in the public alternative, or lack of information on the system to cancel their date.

Reception staff requested specific training in assertiveness, knowledge of the system of appointments and schedules clearly and simply, and easy of communication with dentists. Dentists asked for a clear triage, transparent information given to patients at the reception desk and a system with a specific scheduling time for “emergencies”. The solutions proposed by Brainstorming are specified in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What can we do to improve the dynamics of the dental practice?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➔ Reduce the waiting list one week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ More hours of dental surgery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ Specific schedule to meet the emergency dental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ Inform the population of the criteria for emergency dental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ Proper triage at reception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ Signs and posters informing of changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➔ Training for managing conflict situations according to our skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Solutions proposed by Brainstorming.

As a result we have designed a process that involves all the professionals, beginning at reception when the patient requests an appointment, where he will be reported concerning the way to cancel or postpone it, and making him aware about the importance of this procedure that will let another person to attend to the dental cabinet, reducing the waiting list.

Additionally, as there is a waiting list of more than two weeks, we have decided to increase the consultation time scheduled, estimating an acceptable waiting time if less than a week. We have also designed posters (Figure 1) which give detailed information with reference to office hours, how to cancel appointments, the ‘criteria’ for attending without an appointment and a specific schedule for those patients, which will be treated only in case of pain. Moreover, as it will be provided a specific schedule to attend emergencies, these appointments will take advantage to inform and educate patients on schedule adherence, providing them with another appointment the day they complete the symptomatic treatment and in the shortest time possible.

**Figure 1.** Informative boards that will be placed in the health center for the patients awareness.
Health professionals and reception staff will be trained in an accredited program of the Andalusian Health Service in communication skills.

**Figure 2.** Measures adopted at reception and dental cabinet levels to improve health dynamics.

**5. Discussion**

Some authors (Lindh & Pooler, 2010, p. 244) have hypothesized with the ideal of “practice-based schedule”, in this system, times assigned to each procedure are monitored, and time scheduling is adapted to these procedures. In our case, this system cannot be selected, because the time assigned to each patient is variable, depending on the difficulty of the procedure related to patient’s characteristics. It has been estimated an acceptable time when it is 10 minutes for the “caries” procedure; in most cases this period of time cannot be assigned because of the service needs.

Regarding the concept of quality in health services, total quality (Feigenbaum, 2002) has been the goal to be achieved, taking into account dimensions related to patient satisfaction (Frederikson and Bull, 1995); i.e. accessibility, equity; as well as those related with the health professionals (internal customer). Grumbach and Bodenheimer (2004) defined how health care teams can improve primary care practice through a similar system of communication and organization.

From the standpoint of the patient is interesting to analyze the so-called fear of the dentist and their relationship to dental pain. Armfield, Stewart and Spencer (2007) described a vicious circle in which he demonstrated how the fear of...
going to the dentist causes a worsening of dental pathologies causing more pain and more fear to come to the dental office. Probably in the case described in this study, there is a high percentage of patients with dental fear and just go in case of acute pain, but do not attend dental appointments. It is part of the work of health professionals to change this harmful image harmful that some patients have of dentists.

Austin et al. (2009) considered that friends and family remain as an important source of information about accessing emergency dental service. The present study has a retrospective view and involves the design of activities to facilitate the dynamics’ improvement at dental cabinets. The results obtained by the measures adopted will be monitored to achieve their effectiveness. Consequently, the organizational changes will involve also friends and family as a mentioned source of information. Satisfaction surveys, complaints and health professionals’ questionnaires will also be analyzed in a program of continuous improvement and implementation.

6. Conclusion

The design obtained for the implementation of the communication between patients and professionals will improve the daily dynamics of the dental office.

The measures adopted will avoid unnecessary waiting lists, improving patients’ knowledge of the dynamics of the consultation and saving time and money to health care.

References


Secret Relationships and Clandestine Encounters: an Ethnography of Youth Romance and Marriage among Javanese Male Sex Workers in South Bali (Indonesia)

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Abstract. This article is intended as an ethnographic and theoretical reflection on the significance of courtship practices and marriage among lower classes Indonesian youth. It also discusses gender roles and social transformation. It is based on fieldwork research carried out in Bali and East Java between 2008 and 2010 among a gang of male sex workers. The article discusses the importance of secret relationships and clandestine encounters, pacaran backstreet, between Javanese male sex-workers who cater the homosexual sex market and migrant female workers in Bali, and the role of marriage as a cognitive resource in the transition to adulthood in the context of sex work. It sheds light on alternative forms of masculine identity and on articulations of juvenile malaise, gang affiliation, corporeal practices, male bonds of solidarity, reciprocity and respect, and their impact on the construction of interpersonal emotional relations. It draws conclusions about the role of customary practices and values in the lives of young men (and women) in a specific sector of contemporary Indonesian society.

Key words: courtship, marriage, masculine identity, sex work, Bali

1. Introduction

Pacaran backstreet is the Indonesian term used to describe liaisons or relationships between young men and women that are conducted in secrecy (Bennett, 2005). Recent scholarship on premarital relationships among educated youth in Indonesia has underscored the significance of pacaran backstreet for middle-class women and its impact on the transformation of gender roles: pacaran backstreet provides women increased freedom to choose their partners and allows great independence in controlling the dynamics of courtship, emotional fulfillment, physical affection and sexual exploration away from public scrutiny and social reprimand (Bennett, 2005). It is also responsible for a diffused prolongation of the period between puberty and marriage among women (Smith-Hefner, 2005). While these studies have provided in-depth ethnographic accounts of relevant trends in contemporary Indonesian society, they have scarcely focused on the experiences of young men and lower classes young people. This article aims to rectify this ethnographic omission, and to make a contribution to the study of young men, masculine identities, contemporary courtship practices and marriage in Indonesia. It is based on ethnographic fieldwork research carried out in South Bali and in the cities of Surabaya and Malang (East Java) for a period of over twenty months between 2008 and 2010.

2. Indonesian youth and articulations of juvenile malaise

The young Indonesian men that I introduce in this article are Javanese migrants aged 16-26 who work in the sex industry for foreign homosexual men in South Bali. They are affiliated to one of the largest street gangs that populate the tourist area of Seminyak and compete for the control of the sex market.

These young men come from the lower classes of Indonesian society, have spent the first part of their lives under the stable but rigid authoritarian regime of the New Order (1965-1998), and the second part of their lives in periods of economic crisis, in the free-for-all of democratic elections, de-militarised civil life and unfettered consumption choices bolstered by a plenitude of advertising and mass media (Nilan, 2008: 69). They have witnessed the existential uncertainty of their parents and have experienced the monetary crisis that gripped much of Indonesia beginning July 1997; more

1 This article is part of research for the doctoral program in Anthropology the University of Milano – Bicocca, Milan, Italy. I would like to thank Claudia Mattalucci, Silvia Vignato and Silvia Barberani for helpful comments on drafts of this article. I thank my family for supporting this research throughout, materially and emotionally. I thank Silvia Turato for assisting with the idea of “cognitive resources”. I also thank Luca Rimoldi. A special thanks to Sirio Barillaro, for his support and love. All names used in this article are pseudonyms to protect the identity of my informants. In addition, life history details are altered or purposely left imprecise to some extent to maintain anonymity of the individuals.
recently they have faced the hardship and the scarce employment opportunities of salaried work. The progressive de-agrarianisation and the concomitant process of urbanization of Indonesian cities have prompted these young men to move to towns in search of employment; others, my informants for instance, have invested in long-term internal migration projects to Bali, sought affiliation to existent groups of migrant workers and found legal or illicit occupations in the tourist industry.

Recent studies that have focused on the construction of masculine identities among contemporary Indonesian youth have shown that the social integration to youth subcultures is functional to the acquisition of cultural capital, the accumulation of emotional and material resources, and the creation of bonds of trust, solidarity and protection in situations of personal uncertainty, great competitiveness and distress (Elmhirst, 2007; Kristiansen, 2003; Nilan, 2009). These studies have also demonstrated that youth subcultures originate new youthful masculinities and have presented the image of the young unmarried man (kaum pemuda, kaum remaja, cowok), whose behavior is depicted as kasar (coarse, flamboyant, playful, outrageous), critical of the patriarchal system and whose spirit is ruled by passion, in sharp contrast with the bapak (the father) of the New Order period, whose God-given wisdom, self-control and mastery of emotions positioned him at the head of the family, the business, the town and the nation-state (Nilan, 2009: 332-333, see also Peletz, 1995).

While the category of youth subcultures may seem quite narrow or suggests cohesiveness among its members, it places emphasis on the social articulations of juvenile malaise that animate young Indonesians and offers fruitful insights to further investigate the nuanced experiences of Javanese male sex-workers. These young men leave their home village (kampung) in search for more remunerative work opportunities, separate from the world of customary practices, assume a fictitious identity and embrace the dangers and contradictions of sex work. Such detachment, however, in never linear, nor definitive, as they maintain. Their adhesion to exploitative sexual practices and to the violent code of street warfare between gangs in Bali is – in their words – only temporary and nevertheless directed to attain financial security and to fulfill an adult masculine identity, in accordance with the values of Javanese society and Islamic tradition. In this sense, the transition to masculine adulthood is complete when young men are able to draw together the considerable financial and cultural resources required to marry a woman within their community, provide well for their own family and care for their parents (Elmhirst, 2007: 230).

3. Gangsters and warriors: peer initiation to a street gang of male sex workers

I have explored elsewhere in great detail the antagonist struggle between male sex workers and between street gangs in Bali (Alcanò, 2010, 2011). My informants belong to the Villa Jambu gang, named after the cul-de-sac across the street in the center of Legian, near Kuta, South Bali. These young men self-identify as heterosexual but engage in compensated sex with foreign homosexual tourists or permanent residents. At Villa Jambu, these young migrants learn to tailor their bodies to meet the requests of their clients and to exhibit the codified gestures and postures of a fictitious homosexual identity. Through apprenticeship with older gang members, they learn to deceive their customers and establish durable relationships with wealthy men in the attempt to be financially supported over a long period of time.

The Indonesian term geng (gang) employed by my informants refers to a self-assembled association of peers who come from the same village or from the same city neighborhood, and who are held together by the same professional activities, mutual interests and pursue the same objective to control the sex market. The term gang has a particular meaning in gang research (Nilan, 2011: 4) and defines "organizations of the socially excluded" (Hagedorn, 2005: 156, also quoted in Nilan, 2011: 4), actively involved in illegal activities (Klein 2005) and characterized by the use of violence (Nilan, 2011: 4). Sex work in Indonesia takes place in regulated state-sanctioned brothels (lokalisasi); however, the criminal law prohibits sex work in illegal brothels, discos, karaoke bars, massage parlors and street locations, and the facilitation of illegal sexual activity, the trade in women and underage males and earning profit from the prostitution of women. Most of the young men of Villa Jambu arrive in Bali and enter sex work when they are still underage, although they systematically lie about their age to their clients. Moreover, they are involved in petty crime and small and medium scale illegal activities, such as theft and drug peddling.

The initiation to this gang of Javanese sex workers includes a violent fight (tawuran) which serves as a rite of passage for the initiate. Older gang members attack the prospective member, beating, kicking, punching, burning him with cigarettes, and also inflicting sexual violence and verbal abuse. The fight is a form of ritual rebirth: the initiate is symbolically tortured and murdered and turned by his peers into a new gang member, a brother or gangster (or gengsi in Bahasa Indonesia), as my informants suggest, and socialized into a formally defined and approved set of norms and values about the self, their body and the sex market. The underlying idea of the ritual fight is that the ability of the body to bear the pain is a prerequisite for it to be transformed into bodily capital; sex work requires high tolerance to pain and this
can be learned artificially.

During the fight the gang member is cheered on by other members, while the initiate – known as the fighter, or the warrior (with both terms borrowed from the English language) – is the object of gambling, with bets being made on how long he will endure the pain.

Pam Nilan (2011) established an interesting connection between ritual initiations among young school boys in Solo, Central Java, and the deeds of mythological Javanese heroes performed in Indonesian puppet theater (wayang kulit). Her argumentation broadens our understanding of peer initiation among Javanese sex workers and shows a salient trait of Javanese culture, historically involved with processes of transformation and growth. The author reprises Andrew Weintraub’s (2004) study of Javanese hero Gatotkaca and its transformation from a boy child to a warrior of supernatural strength and bravery. The young Gatotkaca had the powerless body of a boy child still attached by the umbilical cord, which had to be cut (Nilan, 2011: 4). The weaker body had to be destroyed and then through supernatural forces and indigenous riches (in this case minerals) brought back to life as the hero Gatotkaca (Weintraub, 2004: 110, also quoted in Nilan, 2011: 4).

4. Inclusions, aspirations and sacrifices

At Villa Jambu, a successful ritual fight and the acquisition of the gengsi status mark the detachment from a former self and full inclusion into the gang, its networks of solidarity, protection and support in the search for customers. They also guarantee street credibility and respect at the level of the local informal economy and gang-regulated politics. Furthermore, they provide new gang members with a peculiar worldview, a model to think about their masculine selves and their entrepreneurial skills. Gang members overcome a diffused sense of marginalization, uncertainty about the future and the absence of a recognized social status.

The young inhabitants of Villa Jambu share a secret communicative code, much similar to the idiom of past gangsters of the capital city of Jakarta and known as bahasa prokem, historically used to conceal illegal and criminal activities and based on neologisms, loanwords, foreign words, resignifications and syllabic inversions, deletions, insertions (Chambert-Loir, 1984). Nancy Smith-Hefner (2007) demonstrated the resonance of bahasa prokem with bahasa gaul, literally the “language of sociability”, a type of slang quite common among middle-class Indonesian youth. According to her analysis, gaul ideology expresses aspirations for social and economic mobility, an orientation towards the values of informality and commensurability and an attitude of self-confident cosmopolitanism; it speaks to solidarity, social flexibility and self-assurance rather than status differentials: someone who is gaul is good at adapting socially (Smith-Hefner, 2007). Her discussion facilitates the comprehension of the dynamics and interactions that regulate life at Villa Jambu for at least three reasons. First, the use of a specific jargon delimits the boundaries of the gang, and distinguishes the insiders from the outsiders by including the former into a determined horizon of meaning about lifestyles and work ethics. Second, a linguistic form that emphasizes solidarity and reciprocity reveals the importance of affiliation, loyalty and respect in the work environment. Third, explicit reference to social mobility is indicative of aspirations that encompass the contingency of material needs and have to do with the quest for a better social location.

The gengsi status implies privileges but also imposes duties, norms of conduct and personal deprivations. The performance of the new masculine role is time-consuming and all-embracing. Each person puts his craft before everything else. His physical, mental and emotional energies are channeled towards one purpose only, to entice clients and maximize profit. These young men invent what they believe is a new plausible biography, the story of the young homosexual who moved to Bali from conservative Java in search for love, work opportunities and to express sexual orientation. However, they are well aware that foreign men have acquired a certain familiarity with the local rhetorics and the mechanisms of sex tourism and have become progressively suspicious of recurring accounts of inequities and social exclusion that come with the recognition of a homosexual identity in Java. As a result, they have initiated a work ethic centered on self-privation that forbids any contact with young women in public places.

The sex workers of Villa Jambu speak of sacrifice (kurban) and making a sacrifice (bekurban). In his brilliant study of corporeal practices among African-American boxers in Chicago, Loic Wacquant (1995) argued that the very idea of sacrifice is intimately linked to the attempt to maximize bodily performances during professional training and fighting in the ring. Among professional boxers, and among Javanese sex workers, the body is raw, malleable material and a form of capital: its use must be finely regulated to avoid the wearing effect of time and to compromise professional success. In this sense, “sacrifice is at once a means and a goal, vital duty and prideful mission, practical exigency and ethological obsession” (Wacquant, 1998: 48). 24 year-old Dian, who currently lives and works at Villa Jambu, maintains that “not being able to hang out with girls in public will make the white tourists (bule) think we are gay, serious, really interested in them, so we’ll be able to make more money, ask for whatever we want”. Wacquant, consistent with some of the classical
5. Secret relationships, clandestine encounters, public weddings

Relationships with the female world are complicated. As noted in other parts of the archipelago by Pam Nilan (2011), young men seem to make a clear-cut distinction between “girls” and “a girlfriend”. My informants distinguish between hanging out with girls (cewek) and being in a serious relationship with a girlfriend (pacar, or girlfriedn, or racap, according to a widespread word inversion), and many underscore that “a real man must always have a girlfriend by his side” (Jay, 26 years old), or even that “a man with no girlfriend is not a real man” (Vickri, 28 years old). Girls are usually associated with the world of juvenile temptations, casual relationships, and with the excesses of gang lifestyle, while a girlfriend is perceived as the epitome of adult life, a further attempt to discipline the body and to achieve a full masculine identity. Such double standard has little to do with the mere need to express sexual desire; rather, it is oriented towards a redefinition of the self through proper heterosexual marital life.

Among Javanese male sex-workers in South Bali, pacaran backstreet – secret relationships - are widely regarded as a preoccupation and invested with a variety of purposes and meanings. We have examined how these young men self-identify as heterosexual but engage in forms of compensated sex with foreign homosexual men and how their professional activity places constraints on their ability to conduct courtship and flirtation with women in public spaces. All relationships with young women, they maintain, must go undetected from the eye of current or potentially new customers and must be pursued in secrecy.

The term titik temu means “meeting point” and the expression is used by these young men to identify the site of clandestine encounters. The titik temu par excellence is the unauthorized parking area of the now demolished Sari Club, one of the three sites destroyed by the terrorist attacks of 2002, in the densely populated residential and commercial area of Kuta. Javanese sex workers gather in the early evening hours to sell illegal substances to foreign and local tourists, while simultaneously wait for their girlfriends to share a moment of fleeting intimacy, hold hands, exchange kisses and affection and talk about their future life as a married couple. Colloquially they use the English terms prince and princess to refer to each-other: “I am waiting for my prince”; “Do not bother the prince and the princess while they are talking” are among the frequent expressions that they use while meeting in secret.

To arrange pacaran backstreet causes stress (strés), my informants maintain. Young male sex workers risk their professional reputation, their credibility and their profits if found in the company of women by their male partners. Nevertheless, these encounters are crucial because they allow to get better acquainted with potential spouses and experience courtship and premarital relationships.

Indeed, pacaran backstreet should ideally culminate into marriage. Curiously enough, the term titik temu is also used to indicate “marriage”, “the meeting point of two different minds”. These young men establish an important symbolic connection between their juvenile private and romantic encounters in Bali with their girlfriends and the public wedding ceremonies of adult life in Java. Significantly, on their wedding day men and women will no longer be considered as “princes” and “princesses” but will be treated and honored by their local community as “Kings” and “Queens”. At a further level of analysis, then, pacaran backstreet is a stressful event because of the broad expectations placed on sex work by these young men, their attempt to maximize material capital and enter adulthood through marriage.

Other forms of clandestine encounters include: online conversations and video-chatting, especially late at night, when sex workers are busy chatting with their foreign clients overseas; love letters, hand written and left on the motorbike saddle, often washed away by tropical storms; love songs, requested through the circuit of local radio stations. Sometimes these young men take the risk of being seen in public and attend the work place of their girlfriends: they might share a meal together, exchange kisses and cuddle. Some lie to their customers and pretend to be in Java visiting their families in order to spend more time with their girlfriends.

6. Marriage as a cognitive resource

Ethnographic evidence seems to suggest the relevance of pacaran backstreet in the transition to an adult life-phase. It also points to the significance of marriage in the lives of these young men, who have experienced the violence and the hardship of sex work and - towards the end of their short career, around the age of 26 - begin to reflect upon the contradictions of their time at Villa Jambu and weigh the costs and the possible consequences of their entrepreneurial
activity. The young men of Villa Jambu arrive in Bali with hopes of hefty monetary gains and better lifestyles. Oftentimes, however, they are reluctant to satisfy the sexual requests or their clients, have to live with the social stigma attached to male sex work, strive for the control of a saturated market, and many end up spending more than they earn to purchase drugs. In most cases, these mechanisms sharpen, rather than attenuate, a general sense of insecurity and disorientation, and foster a sentiment of self-detachment from sex work. Among those who have accumulated a sum of money sufficient to buy small land property, build a house and arrange a wedding ceremony in Java, many choose to rush their departure from Bali.

In a context of extreme brutality and exploitation, the idea of marriage and the goal to marry represent an important cognitive resource: they ease self-understanding within a specific work environment. Silvia Vignato (2007), aptly talked about cognitive resources in terms of “joints that facilitate life” and allow social actors to think and act upon social change, ponder the incongruities and potentials of life choices, orient actions.

Clearly, intentions and practices are informed by specific gender roles, social expectations about masculine identity that are embodied throughout a person’s upbringing, through family, school education and religious participation. However, to interpret the behavior of these young men in terms of adjustment/resistance to pervasive institutions and cultural models is to reduce the analysis of human interaction to a structure/agency binary opposition. The life experiences of these young Javanese sex workers show a more nuanced relationship with customary values, built around a process of self-understanding and self-awareness. Through the traumatic affiliation to criminal networks and through the enactment of homosexual practices, these men become wary of the meaning of tradition in the personal economy of their own lives, and eventually embrace it at its fullest. As Donny, 29 years old, puts it: “At 29 I now know where I come from, and I know where I am going”.

Through the idea of marriage, the older inhabitants of Villa Jambu question the discrepancies of sex work and make sense of their lives, beyond the apparent excitement and the collective euphoria of life in the gang. Speaking of his past clandestine encounters with his girlfriend in Bali, Hendra 29 years old, currently married and living in Surabaya, recounts that “meeting in secrecy allowed me to spend time with my girlfriend, but most importantly reminded me that I was a man, and not just a whore”. Hendra used the verb “to forget” (me lupakar) when talking about sex work. Others emphasize the need to meet, court, and marry “quickly” (cepat, or capcus in slang terminology).

7. Other networks, deprivations and ideas of marriage: the relational, emotional and work environment of young female migrants

Among the female Javanese migrant workers that entertain pacaran backstreet with the young men of Villa Jambu in South Bali there is a similar propensity to stable relationships and marriage; however, among young women the relation between work and marital life presents a number of significant differences. In their words, work in Bali is not something to quickly forget to move on to matrimony, but an opportunity to be seized over a longer period of time. Work offers the chance to a career and to self-fulfillment: as such, it is not quite compatible with the return to Java and with married life. Otherwise said, work does not lead to marriage, at least not immediately. Although young women intend to marry, several delay their departure from Bali and some do not marry at all.

The migration path and the professional integration into the tourist sector of these young women is also regulated by preexisting gender-based support networks. These young female migrants arrive in Bali and seek salaried employment in hotels, restaurants, massage parlors, fascinated by the stories of relatives, friends and acquaintances, tales of unlimited work opportunities. Their arrival coincides with their exit from the traditional kampung house of their parents (rumah), their stay in a boarding house (kos) and the routine of a new work schedule.

These are important changes in the lives of these young women. Boarding houses are scarcely supervised: three or four girls share the same room to save money on rent, there is no curfew and guests are free to walk in and out at any time. Boarding houses are often managed by Balinese women (ibu kos, landlords) that exercise no effective control over their tenants. For all the above reasons, there is a general perception among Balinese people and among families in Java that these young women (and daughters) live in a promiscuous environment (pergulan bebas). Several informants, for instance Ali, who is 23 years old, felt “under scrutiny” but did not worry because, “no matter what we do or don’t do, we are Javanese and Javanese girls are always sluts (pelacur)”. Her words reproduce a historical identification of female

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2 I have described in a previous contribution (Alcano 2010) the state of social marginality, drug addiction and alcohol abuse, social and inter-generational dependence and physical and social immobility that characterizes the life experience of a numerous group of former sex workers that decide to continue to live in Bali after the conclusion of their working activity at Villa Jambu.
migrant workers with prostitutes in Bali but are indicative of a state of social reprimand.

These young women find work as waitresses, receptionists, cleaning ladies at hotels, resorts or private villas; some are apprentice beauticians and masseuses; some others work in the public relations business or as entertainers in night clubs. Their work shifts are long and grueling (10-12 hours) with two half-hour breaks for lunch and dinner and one day off work a week; their average salary averages about one million rupiahs (about 800 euros) a month. Their employers, for the most part expatriates and permanent resides, believe they are lazy, slack, unprofessional, and evaluate their performance on a regular basis. Some think of them as disposable: girls usually get fired if they arrive late for work more than once a week, are caught talking to each other during work hours, or become pregnant. Some others think of them as sexually available and frequently ask for sexual favors in exchange for a bigger share of tips at the end of the day, a higher salary at the end of the month, the promise to be awarded a promotion later in the course of their careers. These women tackle the issue with evident embarrassment but show no hesitation in stating that “the fact that your boss asks you to spend a little bit of time with him after work doesn’t make him a bad boss (killer), because a bad boss is one that doesn’t pay you if you work overtime or doesn’t give you a promotion” (Ali).

In a context of social stigma and psychological pressure, harassment and sexual molestation, the young women I have talked to maintain that they are willing to give up their good name (nama baik) and their good reputation to keep their job position and possibly advance in their career. This is an interesting aspect of female work ethics, if one considers that promotions are rare and apprentices earn little or no money, or are often replaced to avoid full-time, full-salary hiring; furthermore, plenty of stories of young women fired for no apparent reason circulate in Bali and in boarding houses. Dina, for instance, 21 years old, works as a waitress at a burger restaurant to become financially independent (mandiri) and raise a family, as she recounts: “I love my job because it gives me independence; maybe one day I'll become manager in another restaurant and I'll make more money, have a few kids and be able to afford them a good life, because you know, a man's salary is never enough nowadays”.

Just like their male companions, young women adopt a pragmatic aptitude towards marriage, with the intention to invest their earnings and start family. The idea of marriage, however, is not a powerful cognitive resource as it is for young men; it does not allow a person to think of oneself within the work environment and through social change. On the contrary, marriage seems to impede self-fulfillment. Many girls have described pacaran backstreet as a “waste of time” (membuang waktu) and maintain that are too young to marry. Some think of their clandestine encounters as a nuisance (and also mention stress): oftentimes they have to adjust their work schedule to meet with their boyfriends, or ask their employers for a leave of absence. Moreover, they also worry about being seen with men in public, afraid they might be judged as too libertine (bebas).

These women, however, do not abstain from having a relationship with a boyfriend: they like the attentions and gifts they receive, and are afraid they will not find a partner whenever they decide to return to their village and get married. Ani, 24 years old, asserts that “[our] boyfriends make good money and give us good expensive presents: mobile phones, designer bags, nice clothes. And also, if one day I decide to get married, who's gonna marry me? A man can come to Bali, sell his butt, go back to his village and still be treated like a hero, because he's rich; I can work all my life but if everyone thinks I'm a slut in Bali I will always be a slut. And who's gonna marry a slut, uh, you tell me?”

8. Conclusive remarks

Pacaran backstreet speaks of contemporary ideas of courtship and marriage among Indonesian youth. Its relevance is not limited to middle-class educated female students, but extends to other (lower) levels of society and provides information about widespread relational practices among young men and young women in a wide range of contexts.

In the tourist area of South Bali, Javanese men experience and forge alternative forms of masculine identity. While academic literature has examined such articulations of juvenile malaise from the point of view of youth subcultures and practices, and has insisted on their cohesive and subversive aspect, ethnography among male Javanese sex workers suggest a less linear approach to the study of youth formations and a more nuanced interpretation.

In the case of Javanese male sex-workers in Bali, customary values and traditional institutions continue to play a pivotal role in the lives of young men (and women). Social transformations spark new needs and aspirations, yet family and marriage still provide a powerful cognitive resource to make sense of life, its changes and contradictions. At the parking lot of the former Sari Club different ideas of interpersonal relationships and marriage meet, which are revealing of persisting models (and changing attitudes) towards adult life in contemporary Indonesian society.
References


Occupational Role Stress: a Study of Indian Business Process Outsourcing Employees

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Abstract: The fierce competition among multinationals to reduce cost has forced many organisations to shift their non core operations to low cost and high quality destinations like India. This has resulted in exponential growth in the number of business process outsourcing centres in India. It mainly deals with customer interaction services, human resources, data search/integration etc. under the aegis of Business Process Outsourcing (BPO). The employees work in prolonged shifts round the clock. To provide real-time services to global customers they have to compromise with their own biological clock. Consequently they become easy prey to various psycho-physiological ailments. Researches have revealed that psychological stress and its physiological symptoms are the most common problems amongst call-centre executives (Luce & Juravich, 2002). Occupational Role Stress Scale (Pareek, 1983) will be used to find the level of role stress among the call centre employees. Student's t-test will be used for analysis purpose. The study is expected to identify stress related issues being faced by call centre employees.

The last decade has witnessed exponential growth in the number of business process outsourcing organisations in Indian metropolitan cities. The fierce competition among multinationals to reduce cost has prompted many organisations to shift their peripheral (non core) operations to low-cost and high-quality destinations like India (Faruquie et al., 2005). A BPO is also popularly known as Call Center.

Although the Indian information technology industry has existed since the early 1980s, it was the early and mid 1990s which saw the emergence of outsourcing. However, the sector got a vital boost at the end of 1990s when Multi National Companies established wholly owned subsidies which catered to the off-shoring requirements of their parent companies. American Express, GE Capital and British Airways were some of the earliest players in the Indian outsourcing market. The Indian business process outsourcing industry’s growth is reflected across multiple dimensions. Today the Indian business process outsourcing industry has matured and is offering whole array of outsourced services ranging from customer care, medical transcription, medical billing services, database management, web sales / marketing, accounting, tax processing, document management, telesales, telemarketing, human resource hiring and biotech research (Outsource2india, 2011). The industry has grown to reach almost US$ 11 billion in export revenues, employs more than 700000 people and accounts for more than 35% of the world business process off-shoring market (Chandran, 2011).

Modern times have been called the “age of anxiety and stress” (Coleman, 1976). Stress is an unavoidable part of an individual's working life (Cooper et al., 1988). It can have both positive and negative physiological as well as psychological implications. On the one hand, it can make an individual more excited and agitated and make him perceive the situation positively and as a challenge (Selye, 1956). On the other hand, it also poses a threat to the quality of life as well as physical and psychological well-being (Cox, 1978).

Stress is a complex issue but generally it is defined as a physical, mental, or emotional reaction resulting from an individual's response to environmental tensions, conflicts, pressures, and similar stimuli (Fontana & Abouserie, 1993). High levels of occupational stress not only have detrimental influence on the quality, productivity and creativity of the employees but also on their health, well-being and morale (Frese, 1985; Calabrese et al., 1987; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987; Cohen & Williamson, 1991). It may also result in problems such as hyperirritability, sleep disturbances, disturbed interpersonal relationships, as well as wide range of somatic and psychological problems (Hafner, 1968; Strange & Brown, 1970; Hersen, 1972; Wolfe, 1986). Stress is often described as being associated with emotions such as anger, anxiety and depression (Cox, 1978), and there is evidence to suggest that it is also related to impoverished mental health (Cooper, 1996). Role based factors such as lack of power, role ambiguity and role conflict have been linked to stress (Burke, 1988).

Earlier studies conducted on Indian information technology settings have highlighted the prevalence of high occupational stress (Srivastava & Srivastava, 1985; Pareek & Mehta, 1997; Mathur, 1997; Mishra et al., 1997). Call centre executives work in prolonged shifts round the clock. To provide real-time services to global customers they have to
compromise with their own biological clock. Consequently they become easy prey to various psycho-physiological ailments. Researches have revealed that psychological stress and its physiological symptoms are the most common problems amongst call-centre executives (Luce & Juravich, 2002). Call centre executives are reported to suffer from high levels of stress (Luce & Juravich, 2002) and its excessive levels may lead to dissatisfaction, lower morale, and poor work performance (Firth-Cozens, 1987). Work related stress and anxiety not only affect the executives' health but it can also have an impact on the quality of services provided (Firth-Cozens, 1993). Psychological stress and anxiety may have a profound effect on an individual's well being (Birch & Kamali, 1998; Caplan, 1994). However nature and magnitude of job stress among Indian information technology professionals varies with various demographic factors (Aziz, 2004). Some of the factors that cause stress amongst business process outsourcing employees are: demanding customers, time pressure, monitoring, pressure to complete calls, lack of training, mandated scripting etc. It causes certain physical and psychological problems for the employees such as fatigue, irritability, inability to relax, headaches, backaches, vision problem, sleep problems, stomach problems, carpal tunnel, high blood pressure, hearing problems, respiratory problems etc. (Luce & Juravich, 2002). Sudhashree et al. (2005) found that business process outsourcing employees suffer from burnout stress syndrome (BOSS), issues of identity and isolation. Another study by Faruquie et al. (2005) found men to be higher on physical stress while women were higher on psychological as well as social relational stress.

The Concept of Role

An important aspect of organisation that integrates an individual with the organisation is the role assigned to him / her within the overall structure of the organisation. It is through role that an individual interacts and gets integrated with the system. In fact, an organisation can be defined as the system of roles. Kahn et. al. (1964) postulated that the quest for identity is a central concern for many individuals and considered a specific type of stress in the form of role stress. Constructs like role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload were put under the construct of role stress.

Role is a set of obligations generated by the 'significant others' and the individual occupying an office. It denotes set of functions one performs in response to the expectations of the 'significant others', and one’s own expectations from that position or office (Pareek, 1993). Each role has its system. This consists of the role occupant and those who have a direct relationship with him, and thereby, certain expectations from the role. These ‘significant others’ having expectations are role senders. They send expectations to the role. As role occupant also has expectation from his role, he too is a role sender. Thus a role is not defined without the expectations of the role senders, including that of the role occupant.

Methodology

The purpose of this study is to understand differences in the level of role stress experienced by male and female employees in business process outsourcing organisations. The study uses a descriptive research design.

Sample

The sample for this study was selected from 3 different business process outsourcing organisations. The sample is from National Capital Region (NCR). The NCR comprises of the national capital Delhi and the adjoining districts of Gaziabad, Faridabad, Gurgaon and Noida. Ease of conducting survey and ensuring high response rate guided the decision to restrict the geographical area of the study. To ensure representation of population in the sample, the information technology organisations affiliated to NASSCOM (National Association of Software and Services Companies) were considered. Out of these, 3 organisations namely Convergys, 3i Infotech Limited and Genpact Limited were chosen through convenience sampling.

Initially 300 questionnaires were mailed to full time business process outsourcing employees. 147 questionnaires were returned in the first instance giving a response rate of 49%. Second mailing resulted in return of 38 questionnaire bringing the response rate to 61.66%. Further reminders and third mainly resulted in further return of 41 questionnaires thus giving an overall response rate of 75.33%. The elimination of questions with missing data (7 in numbers) produced 219 complete questionnaires, or 73% of the original 300 questionnaires mailed.
Instrument

The instrument used for collecting data is ‘Organisational Role Stress Scale’ (ORS Scale). The ORS scale is a comprehensive tool to elicit data about different role stressors afflicting a respondent. It covers a range of stressors that may be experienced by an occupational group. Specifically this instrument covers ten role stressors:

1. **Inter Role Distance (IRD):** Conflict between the organisational and non-organisational roles.
2. **Role Stagnation (RS):** Feeling of being stuck in the same role. It results into perception that there is no opportunity for one’s career progression.
3. **Role Expectation Conflict (REC):** Conflicting expectations or demands by the different role senders i.e. the significant others who have expectations from the role.
4. **Role Erosion (RE):** Feeling that functions that should belong to incumbent’s role are being transferred, performed or shared by other roles. It is a feeling of responsibility without power.
5. **Role Overload (RO):** Feeling that too much is expected from the role than what the occupant can cope with. It has two aspects – quantitative and qualitative.
6. **Role Isolation (RI):** Lack of linkages of one’s role with other roles in the organisation.
7. **Personal Inadequacy (PI):** Lack of knowledge, skills or adequate preparation to be effective in a particular role.
8. **Self-Role Distance (SRD):** Conflicts of one’s values and self-concepts with the requirements of the organisational role.
9. **Role Ambiguity (RA):** Lack of clarity about expectations of others from the role, or lack of feedback on how performance is regarded by others. It may be in relation to the activities, priorities, norms or general expectations.
10. **Resource Inadequacy (RIn):** Non-availability of resources needed for effective role performance.

The scale contains five items for each role stress i.e. a total of 50 statements, and uses a 5-point scale, from 0 to 4. Thus, the total score on each role stress ranges from 0 to 20 and the total ORS score from 0 to 200. The ratings are totalled (for five items) to get the total score for each role stressor. Score up to 5 is categorized as low stress, 6-10 is moderate, 11-15 is high and 16 –20 is very high.

The ORS scale was developed by Pareek (1983a, 1983b) and has high reliability and validity (Pareek, 1983a, 1983b). It can be used to generate data about varied stresses experienced by a respondent. Analysis of data collected can help in identifying potent stressors in an occupational group and strategies can be suggested to manage and reduce stress.

Result and Discussion

Past researches conducted in the area of gender differences in occupational stress have yielded mixed results (Jick T.D. & Mitz L.F., 1985; Baruch et. al., 1987; Martocchio J.L. & O’Leary A.M., 1989; McDonald L.M. & Korabik K, 1991; Aditya, S. M. & Sen, A.K., 1993; Lim V.K.G. & Teo T.S.H., 1996). Comparison of ORS scores of male and female employees reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups. The total ORS score for these two groups is almost the same (69.46 vis-à-vis 69.43). However, there is some difference in the standard deviation of these two groups. The standard deviation for male employees (16.79) is more than that of women employees (15.39). This indicates the dispersion of stress among women employees is not wide. Male employees report comparatively wider dispersion suggesting that the scores do not tend to cluster around mean. Thus it points to the fact that men differ in their responses to some type of situations. Some are feeling more stress than others although the macro environment is uniform. The data reveals significant differences between male and female employees on inter role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion and role isolation. There are no significant differences on the other role stressors. It is observed that the standard deviation for personal inadequacy is comparatively high for both men and women (4.06 for men and 4.18 for women). This suggests that all the business process outsourcing employees are not experiencing the same amount of stress on this stressor. A group of employees is feeling more stressed on this count. For inter role distance, the standard deviation for men is high (4.04) as compared to women (3.59).

Higher role stagnation for male employees is reflective of the fact that more men are working at higher level position than women and hence perceive lesser chances of upward mobility in the short run. There are fewer women at top level working in critical areas. Thus there are fewer chances for them to get promoted to positions that require higher set of skills for satisfactorily performing the job. Also, this may also be indicative of lesser promotional opportunities for women as compared to men. Some women did mention that they had to forgo promotions, particularly those who got promotion along with transfer. This was mostly reported by younger married women with younger children.
### Table 1. Comparative scores of male and female employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role Stressors</th>
<th>N = 219</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men N = 115</td>
<td>Women N = 104</td>
<td>Men N = 115</td>
<td>Women N = 104</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRD</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>9.38</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RI</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>7.51</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRD</td>
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<td>2.89</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA</td>
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<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rin</td>
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<td>9.22</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.41</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORS</td>
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<td>69.43</td>
<td>16.79</td>
<td>15.39</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05  ** Significant at 0.01

### Table 2. Analysis on the basis of marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role Stressors</th>
<th>N = 219</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married N = 98</td>
<td>Unmarried N = 121</td>
<td>Married N = 98</td>
<td>Unmarried N = 121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>IRD</td>
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<td>8.27</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.49</td>
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</tr>
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<td>RO</td>
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<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RI</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRD</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>2.97</td>
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<td>RA</td>
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<tr>
<td>ORS</td>
<td>75.69</td>
<td>66.03</td>
<td>16.51</td>
<td>12.93</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05  ** Significant at 0.01
Table 3. Gender based analysis among married respondents

| Role Stressors | N = 98 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|-------|
|               | Mean  | SD    |      |      |      |      |
|               | Male  | Female| Male | Female|
|               | N = 42| N = 56| N = 42| N = 56|
| IRD           | 10.67 | 8.65  | 3.98 | 3.91 | 96   | 2.51* |
| RS            | 10.51 | 8.74  | 4.22 | 4.51 | 96   | 2.15* |
| REC           | 5.89  | 7.33  | 3.78 | 3.84 | 96   | 2.18* |
| RE            | 6.69  | 7.56  | 3.83 | 2.14 | 96   | 1.51  |
| RO            | 7.61  | 10.37 | 4.21 | 2.56 | 96   | 4.70**|
| RI            | 5.59  | 4.96  | 3.16 | 3.22 | 96   | 0.83  |
| PI            | 7.78  | 8.29  | 3.82 | 3.31 | 96   | 1.65  |
| SRD           | 5.81  | 5.38  | 3.11 | 2.74 | 96   | 1.16  |
| RA            | 4.89  | 5.16  | 2.61 | 3.11 | 96   | 0.76  |
| Rin           | 9.72  | 9.17  | 3.11 | 3.56 | 96   | 0.43  |
| ORS           | 75.63 | 79.61 | 21.81| 15.83| 96   | 0.89  |

*Significant at 0.05  ** Significant at 0.01

As far as the difference between married and unmarried employees is concerned, married employees come out as more stressed than unmarried employees. Total ORS score for married employees is 75.69 as compared to 66.03 for unmarried employees. The stress associated with balancing family and work roles may be particularly problematic during the period of early career formation. Early career formation often coincides with the early stages of family formation (White et al., 1992).

As far as specific stressors are concerned, role overload emerges as the dominant stressor among married women than married men (10.37 vs. 7.61). The standard deviation for women is 2.56 as compared to 4.21 for men. This clearly indicates that the married women feel role overload across the board. It is understandable that married women have a higher score on role overload vis-à-vis married men. The social reality of India is that working women are not absolved of their homely duties. They continue to shoulder these responsibilities. In fact, a majority of women end up doing double shift, one in the office and one at home. This results in the feeling of role overload. This is consistent with earlier researches done in the west. Uhlenberg and Cooney (1990) found that the sex-linking of the household work is clear. Women doctors were doing almost as much of the household chores as the full time housewives married to their male counterparts in U.K. Frankensteiner (1991) also found that for majority of married women working in Sweden, the division of labour between spouses at home has not changed. Internal normative value conflicts’ can arise leading to additional stresses which are unique to women. That is each role of wife/mother/employee requires excellence in distinct ways and feelings of guilt and worry can occur as a consequence of not feeling successful at any one (Cartwright L., 1987).

As far as inter role distance is concerned, it is found that male married employees are feeling higher level of stress on this count. The reason for this may be incompatibility between job and family roles. As men are working at higher positions than women, they have to invest more time and energy in their work roles thus reducing the time for family roles. This is in line with the rational view (Gutek, Serle & Klepa, 1991) that the extent of inter role conflict is directly proportional to the amount of time or energy expended in each domain. As men rise in position they have even lesser time for family thus resulting in inter role distance. As far as Role Expectation Conflict is concerned, women scoring higher on this count is understandable as they face different expectations from different role senders in their work and family. In the office they are expected to be aggressive, ambitious and task oriented. Successful job performance and the associated rewards may be contingent upon demonstration of these behavioural characteristics. However, in the home situation, being loving, supportive, accommodating and relationship oriented may be considered essential to the development of a positive family life. These opposing behavioural expectations may create tension within the individuals as they make transition form one environment to the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
Conclusion

The study finds similar level of stress for male and female employees on the overall organisational role stress. However, on individual stressors, there are statistically significant differences between male and female employees. Statistically significant differences have also been reported between employees on the basis of their marital differences. Similarly, the study has reported gender differences among married employees. It is imperative for organisations to factor in these differences while designing any stress management strategy.

If proper corrective measures are taken to deal with the psychological problems of these employees it is expected that they will be able to perform better and contribute to the effective and efficient working of the organisation.

References


Psychological Drivers of Consumer’s Preferences for Green Transportation: an Empirical Analysis of Bikes’ Rental System at the University of Granada

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Abstract: We conducted a survey (n = 436) regarding consumer’s choice of sustainable transportation, toward a A survey was conducted at the University of Granada (Spain) from May through August 2011, related to a system of bikes’ rental that has been recently introduced in the university community and whose expectations include its extension to the rest of the city of Granada. The questionnaire included items concerning attitude related to the behavior, individual’s perceived control, subjective norms and personal moral norms, variables used in the Theory of Reasoned Action from Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) and the Norm-Activation Theory (Schwartz, 1977). The main objective of this study was to examine those factors that could affect the transport choice behavior of consumers toward more sustainable energy consumption patterns, meaning the decision to use (or not to use) the bikes’ rental system by the university community. The results corroborate the hypothesis tested, and positive correlations between the variables and the behavioral intention.

Key Words: Theory of Reasoned Action, Theory of Planned Behavior, Norm-Activation Theory, psychological variables, sustainable behavior.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, Global Climate Change is a reality that affects the entire planet. One of the main causes is humans’ behavior, contributing to its increase by the emission of greenhouse gases. It has been highlighted that action is needed from policy-makers, but also from individuals’ perspective. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions requires both the development of new forms of energy not based on fossil fuel burning, and the decrease of individuals’ energy consumption. Energy efficiency is, in the short and medium term, the most effective way to reduce pollution.

The data are unequivocal: the air and water average temperature is rising globally (IPPC, 2007), but even more in the northern latitudes. The sea level is increasing while ice sheets are shrinking. IPPC (2007) confirms that the annual average ice in the Arctic Ocean has decreased about 2.7% per decade since 1978, and even more in summer periods (7.4% per decade).

There is scientific evidence (EUROSTAT, 2008) that the emission of greenhouse gases caused by human activities like burning coal, oil and gas, are causing global warming, and that climate change is a consequence of such activities.

The EU Decision 280/2004/EC and Kyoto Protocol (2002/358/EC) discussed about how to control the emission of greenhouse gases. In the period from 2008 to 2012, the countries taking part in those two agreements expressed their commitment to reduce EU emissions by around 8% compared to those achieved in 1990.

From citizens’ perspective, there is a growing awareness concerning energy efficiency issues (FBBVA, 2007), which should lead to the adoption of energy saving habits by consumers. Despite this, consumers’ knowledge toward energy problems is still moderate by consumers. In order to deal with the energy problem, the savings and energy efficiency measures are essential to ensure the success of governments’ policies.

To make a real change in consumer’s behavior we should focus on their motivations. While environmental matter is influencing in a behavioral change in all European countries (Logica CMG, 2007), the rising cost of energy resources is an important reason to reduce consumption. It has major implications for policy-makers, institutions, energy producers and other stakeholders.

In addition to household energy saving behavior, one of the key sectors to facilitate the energy efficiency improvement is the transport. Specifically, among the instruments of information are the awareness campaigns that directly affect the
final consumer and can positively influence in the quality of the environment (IPCC, 2007), helping to choose with knowledge and reason, and possibly contribute to changes in behavior.

This paper's main objective is to examine factors affecting the transport choice consumers’ behavior toward more sustainable energy consumption patterns (meaning the adoption of bikes’ sharing system). In the following section we explore the existing literature regarding the topic under study, which will lead to the approach of our research hypothesis. Then in the third section we describe the methodology and results found in the development of the empirical work. Finally, we present some conclusions and recommendations which may be relevant for environmental communication policies.

2. Literature review

2.1. Social marketing

Social Marketing is not a recent discipline. It has been applied through years to solve social problems. Kotler and Zaltman (1971) are the first authors who describe social marketing as the design, implementation and control of the programs developed to influence in the acceptance of social ideas, and which implies product, price, communication and distribution planning in the marketing context.

Social marketing campaigns aims to persuade a target audience to accept, modify or leave some ideas, attitudes, practices or behavior (Mushat, 1980; Gómez & Quintanilla, 1988; Kotler & Roberto, 1989; Martin Armario, 1993; Santesmases, 1996). The use of this concept has dramatically increased in the last years (Gordon et al., 2006), being employed in public wealth researches (Satcher & Higginbotham, 2008) concerning tobacco and alcohol consumption (Berridge & Loughlin, 2005; Hassan et al., 2007; Hackley, 2008) as well as other drugs (Palmgreen et al., 2007), but also in environmental studies (Taylor et al., 1992; McGovern, 2007; Rose et al., 2008).

Policy-makers, consumers and researchers have a very important role in those issues that affects the society, but the results of social campaigns will be influenced by the communication channels we use (Hackley, 2008), and those will differ depending on the social matter. In some cases, when we focus on environmental social marketing, it may be hard to get the message to the target audience, as the audience sometimes ignore the problem and do not collaborate with the cause (Rose et al., 2008).

For this reason, the marketing strategy should be based on adding value to the consumer`s experience, improving individual and society`s wellness.

2.2. Green consumer`s behavior

Ecological behavior has been defined by Shrum et al. (1995) as those pro-environmental consumers´ actions. Regarding the variables that influence the environmental awareness, some authors state that personality seems to predict better than socio-demographic variables (Kinnear et al., 1974; Shamdasani et al., 1993; Laroche et al., 2002; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003).

A second group of studies addresses the relationship between environmental concern and consumer behavior (Kinnear & Taylor, 1973, Shrum et al., 1995; Chan, 2001; Kim & Choi, 2004), including variables such as attitude toward the environment for explain this relationship (Laroche et al., 2002; Mostafa, 2007).

Third, there are some studies that consider consumer behavior as determined by individual values (Banerjee & McKeague, 1994; Gilg et al., 2005; Chan et al., 2008), perceived effectiveness of consumer`s behavior (Ellen et al., 1991; Kilbourne & Carlson, 2008), the level of pro-environmental behavior attributed to others (Pieters et al., 1998) and social norms (Verhoef, 2005).

Finally, in the line of the present research, there are a few studies on energy conservation behavior (Durand & Sharma, 1982) and relate to individual preferences towards renewable energy resources (Zachariadis, 2005; Nyborg et al., 2006), indicating that consumers would be willing to pay more for some products if it has less impact on the environment which would reduce the level of public intervention needed (Eriksson, 2004).

With reference to the psychological variables that may influence on consumer`s green behavior, attitude is used as a determinant of intention by social psychology theories among other variables: the Theory of Reasoned Action of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) and the Norm-Activation Theory (Schwartz, 1977).
Attitudes, social norms and perceived control are reflected in those theories as some of the variables that determine behavioral intention and eventually, the behavior itself. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) were interested in the understanding of human behavior and intention predictors. With this aim they developed the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) concerning the antecedents of intentional or voluntary behavior.

According to TRA, human behavior has its own reasons, which means that individuals consider the information they have and the consequences of their actions. Therefore, behavior is determined by the intentions, as the result of subjective norms and individuals’ attitude.

Furthermore, these two variables (attitude and norms) do not influence in the same way in behavioral intention (Azjen, 1988), but there may be conflicts and interactions between them.

This theory concerns rational and voluntary behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, and Chang, 1998). Its robustness and predictive utility has been tested before (Harrison et al., 1985) and also its external validity (Ryan & Bonfield, 1980). However, it also has been criticized (Sheppard et al., 1988) as it is designed to predict simple behavior, and based on individuals’ actions subject to their will, which is not true in many cases because the consumer does not always control the target behavior.

The last idea is introduced by the Theory of Planned Behavior (Azjen & Madden, 1986) that presents a third variable, named perceived control, as the subjective belief toward the existence of difficulties to perform a behavior (Phostuma & Dworkin, 2000).

The third theory (Norm-Activation) was developed by Schwartz (1977) to explain altruistic behavior, so it could explain the environmental performance. It assumes that green behavior is influenced by the intensity of individuals’ moral obligation. Behavior is determined by the cognitive structure, and the individual feels compelled to act considering others’ wellness when he has specific beliefs toward a behavior (Vining & Ebreo, 1992).

In the present study, we consider these three theories in order to examine individuals’ behavior in their choices of transportation. Our purpose will be to analyze whether attitude, subjective norms, personal moral norms and perceived control determine the behavioral intention.

3. Methodology

A survey was conducted in the University of Granada (Spain) from May through August 2011, related to a system of bikes’ sharing that has been recently introduced in the university community and whose expectations include its extension to the rest of the city of Granada.

The university community is almost a third of the whole population in the city of Granada, hence the relevance in terms of consumption patterns and behavior of this group. We include, however, not only the university students in the sample but also the administrative and service staff (PAS) as well as teaching and research staff (PDI).

The participants were contacted by corporative email, as an easier way to access them, so they could decide when to fill the questionnaire, increasing its flexibility. They were first classified according to the group they belong (PDI, PAS or students). All responses have been generated online using an opt-in e-mail response methodology. The surveys were anonymous and self-administered. They were asked questions concerning their attitude, control perceived, subjective and personal moral norms, but also their behavior toward the environment and their intentions related to the bike’s sharing system.

3.1. Hypothesis

With regard to the TRA, behavior is explained as a result of individual’s intention toward it, and it is influenced by attitude and subjective norms (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It means that if there is a positive attitude toward green behavior and/or subjective norms approve it, the individual will tend to behave in a pro-environmental way. Given this, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1a: Behavioral intention toward the environment is determined by individual’s attitude.

H1b: Behavioral intention toward the environment is determined by individual’s subjective norms.

The TPB development includes a new variable in the explanation of behavior as well as the attitudes and subjective norms. This new factor is the control perceived by the individual toward a specific behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Our prediction is that individuals with higher perceived behavioral control concerning the defense of the environment will tend to perform more frequently such behavior.
\( H2: \) Behavioral intention toward the environment is determined by individual’s perceived control.

Finally, the theory of Schwartz’s Norm-Activation (1977), states that the individual feels a moral obligation to act in benefit of others, which is justified by the degree of commitment that this person takes over their own actions and the beliefs that he has for the specific behavior, so that if the individual feels a moral obligation towards pro-environmental behavior, he will tend to perform that behavior. Therefore we propose:

\( H3: \) Behavioral intention toward the environment is determined by individual’s moral norm.

3.2. Results

With the purpose to test the previous hypothesis concerning the pro-environmental behavioral intention, we used a sample of 436 participants within the community of the University of Granada (Spain). The variables measured to test the hypothesis are presented below (Table 1), with some of the questions included in the survey and the Likert scales.

Tables 2-5 show the results for the ANOVA analysis, a dependence technique used to measure the significance of the influence that one or more independent variables have on another dependent variable. It also shows the correlations between the attitudes and the behavioral intentions.

### Table 1: Bike’s sharing survey measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the behavior</td>
<td>“Using the bike’s sharing system is”:</td>
<td>Attitude 1</td>
<td>Likert (1-6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Good idea vs. Bad idea</td>
<td>Attitude 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Harmful-Benefitial</td>
<td>Attitude 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Unpleasant-Pleasant</td>
<td>Attitude 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Something I dislike-Something I like</td>
<td>Attitude 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subjective norm 1</td>
<td>Likert (1-6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I am expected to defend the environment using the bike’s sharing system, instead of a private vehicle”.</td>
<td>Subjective norm 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
<td>“People, whose opinions I value, would approve my defense of the environment to use the bike’s sharing system to move through the city”.</td>
<td>Personal norm</td>
<td>Likert (1-6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal moral norms</td>
<td>“It is a moral subject for me”.</td>
<td>Perc. control</td>
<td>Likert (1-6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived control</td>
<td>“I can look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system every day if I want”.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2: ANOVA analysis and Correlations for Attitudes vs. Behavioral Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes “Using the bike’s sharing system is”:</th>
<th>I will try to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I want to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I hope to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude 1 A bad idea / A good idea</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.498**</td>
<td>.507**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>25.581</td>
<td>25.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Attitude 2
#### Harmful / Beneficial
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>.372**</th>
<th>.383**</th>
<th>.358**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.085</td>
<td>25.746</td>
<td>21.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Attitude 3
#### Unpleasant / Pleasant
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>.473**</th>
<th>.416**</th>
<th>.455**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.553</td>
<td>17.135</td>
<td>20.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Attitude 4
#### Unpleasant / Pleasant
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>.531**</th>
<th>.494**</th>
<th>.522**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td>35.642</td>
<td>30.839</td>
<td>34.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Attitude 5
#### Unpleasant / Pleasant
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>.470**</th>
<th>.413**</th>
<th>.502**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td></td>
<td>28.996</td>
<td>25.160</td>
<td>33.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Tables 2-5 show the results for the ANOVA analysis, a dependence technique used to measure the significance of the influence that one or more independent variables have on another dependent variable. It also shows the correlations between the attitudes and the behavioral intentions.

We can observe that there exists a relationship between the attitudes and the behavioral intentions toward the bike’s sharing system \((p = 0.0000)\). Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis, and we confirm that attitudes (1-5) toward the behavior seem to determine individual’s behavioral intentions (1-3) in this particular case. Moreover, all the variables are positively correlated between them \((p = 0.000)\).

Table 3 shows the same test for Subjective norms, and we find positive correlations between the variables. The ANOVA test let us reject the null hypothesis, so we can verify that Subjective norms determine Behavioral Intentions for the bike’s sharing system \((p = 0.000)\).

**Table 3: ANOVA analysis and Correlations for Subjective norms vs. Behavioral Intentions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective norm</th>
<th>I will try to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system</th>
<th>I want to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system</th>
<th>I hope to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norm 1</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.259**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>6.854</td>
<td>6.656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective norm 2</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.381**</td>
<td>.418**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>12.987</td>
<td>16.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
Personal moral norms are also positively correlated with Behavioral Intentions as we can notice in the Table 4. With reference to the null hypothesis, all the p-values are 0.000, therefore we can reject the null hypothesis, the relationship between Personal moral norms and Behavioral Intentions is verified.

Table 4: ANOVA analysis and Correlations for Personal moral norms vs. Behavioral Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal moral norms</th>
<th>I will try to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I want to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I hope to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pers. personal moral norm</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.352**</td>
<td>.364**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>14.040</td>
<td>14.697</td>
<td>10.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Finally, we find that Perceived control seems to determine Behavioral Intentions, as shown it Table 5 (p = 0.000). The variables are also positively correlated between them.

Table 5: ANOVA analysis and Correlations for Perceived control vs. Behavioral Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived control</th>
<th>I will try to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I want to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
<th>I hope to look after the environment using the bike’s sharing system.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived control 1</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.259**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>22.365</td>
<td>15.097</td>
<td>19.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived control 2</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.381**</td>
<td>.418**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA (F)</td>
<td>12.987</td>
<td>16.266</td>
<td>13.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

4. Conclusion

In the present research, we set out to examine the relationship between intention toward the behavior of using a bike’s sharing system in the University of Granada (Spain) and other behavioral variables, meaning attitude, subjective norms, personal moral norms and perceived control.

The previous results show that, under the observed data, behavioral intention is determined by the variables presented in the study. Both the ANOVA test and the correlations verify these findings. Therefore, the data analyzed confirm the statement of the Theory of Reasoned Action of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975): attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms are related with behavioral intention. The same can be applied to individual’s perceived control, which affects the green behavioral intention, as indicated in the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen and Madden, 1986), and likewise confirms the relationship with the moral obligation felt by the individual toward that behavioral intention (Schwartz, 1977).

These results have some implications for public policies in engagement and informative campaigns to improve citizens’ concern; as well as for private products and services with environmental content, since they would help to decide the target audience based on the previous information. The individual will tend to behave according to their pro-
environmental attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms, perceived control and moral obligation that he feels towards it.

Based on the above, public authorities seeking to promote a positive intention toward the behavior of using the bike’s sharing system should focus on consumer’s moral obligation, trying to improve consumer feelings. They should also consider how to involve consumer’s social environment, meaning their families and friends, as they seem to be an important factor determining future intention.

For future research we propose the possibility of expanding the number of participants, including not only the university population, which could have very specific characteristics, but a representative sample of the whole population from the city of Granada (Spain).

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Romanian Agriculture in the Context of the Post-2013 Common Agricultural Policy

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Abstract The European model of agriculture relies on the middle, usually typically family, farm. Romania does not fit this model, having an unsuitable agricultural structure for a modern European state. The objective of this paper is to emphasize the differences between the European model of agriculture and the Romanian agriculture. In Romania, the subsistence agriculture (many micro-farms, producing for self-consumption) and the agro-industrial agriculture (farms of hundreds even thousands of hectares, market oriented, relatively advanced), give a dual character to this important economic branch. The middle level agriculture is underdeveloped and uses only a small percent of the agricultural area. The research method is the analysis of data; the study of the real convergence between the Romanian and the European Union’s agriculture implies a SWOT analysis. The main results reveal that the reform in the Romanian agriculture should include, among its priorities, the solving of the structural problem of the Romanian village, the development of the middle level agriculture being an important aim. The implementation of the community regulations has to be accompanied by own development programs for the rural space and for the agro-food sector. Romania has to define its own strategy in order to be integrated in the community policy, strategy which must be sustained in the debates regarding the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy, the target being the development of the Romanian agriculture.

Key words: European model of agriculture, Romania, middle agriculture, strategy, CAP reform

1. Introduction

The revolution that took place in 1989 affected deeply the Romanian rural area. For Romania, years that followed meant a period of transition from an autarchic economic system to a system opened to competition and free market, allocation of resources and price definition through market mechanisms.

The accession to European Union (EU), as a part of the multidimensional changes of the ‘90s, had some general features that retrieved in the opening of the national economy, the institutional building specific for a free market economy as well as the development of the human dimension. The integration implies first to identify the best way to align different economical branches to the level of the European standards. After 1990, Romania received technical and economical assistance from several international institutions and organizations through different programs. The process of accession put positive pressures both at economic and social level with a view to create a functional, market economy.

In 2007 Romania became a member state of the EU and this process had a strong impact on the entire economy. The European legislation has been gradually taken over and the effects of the accession felt stronger when products began to move freely on the intra-community market. The aligning to the requirements of the phytosanitary and veterinary sectors felt the most dramatic and caused radical changes in the agricultural sector, including the closure of hundreds of meat and milk processing units.

2. Literature Review

Romanian agriculture has been deeply debated and analyzed both in the pre-accession and post-accession period. Dona (2000) underlines the role of agriculture within the entire economy and analyzes the agricultural output and market, the organizing of agriculture in the transition period, the strategies and agricultural politics. Popescu (2001) describes the evolution of the Romanian agriculture in the period 1990-2000. Gavrilescu et al. (2001) analyze the Romanian rural area and the agro-food sector in the transition period towards a market economy.

Socol (2004) reveals the impact of the CAP reform towards the Romanian agriculture, the success of the convergence process being influenced by the economical evolutions in the candidate countries and the relations with EU. An important percent of the population lives in the countryside, the share of the population employed in agriculture being high as well. Production capacities, tractors and agricultural machines are old and rural infrastructure underdeveloped. Alecsandri et al. (2004) realize a complex radiography of the whole Romanian agriculture.

Istudor (2006) underlines that the essential objective of the agricultural reform in Romania is the increase of its performance, competitiveness and sustainable development of the agro-food sector. Favorable climate and soil conditions, the geographic position on the continent create premises for the increase of Romania’s contribution as one of
the main producers of agricultural products in Europe. Despite these, farmers have difficulties in their attempt to access credits, constraints regarding the cash flow and low incomes with a view to evaluate the products. Small farms have to be supported through intervention policies to increase their agricultural area and to develop. Low added value in agriculture is a consequence of low productivity and quality of output, high level of self-consumption and low share of output sold in case of small farms, high percent of the agricultural goods imported, and difficulties in fulfilling quality standards. Therefore, a special attention should be given to subsistence agriculture, better functioning of agro-food chain, support for groups of producers, training of young farmers, higher farms’ productivity, agriculture in less favored areas.

Radulescu and Ioan (2007) describe the main features and the organizing of the agricultural holdings in the pre-accession period. Stefan (2008) refers to the importance of improving business environment, training of farmers, and infrastructure in agriculture. Luca (2009) reveals the existence in Romanian agriculture of a big number of small farms and large farms as well, feature of an undeveloped agriculture, odd reality for a European state member of EU. High percent of subsidies received by large farms while agriculture is dominated by subsistence and underdevelopment of the middle size type is inefficient and unfair. Comparison with other member states reveals that Romania has an agricultural structure that does not differ much to the pre-accession period. Angelescu, Socol and Socol (2009) underline the strengths and weaknesses of the country’s agriculture and the convergence with the EU agriculture as a result of the accession. The reform of the CAP supposes the development of the Romanian agriculture in order to meet the European standards and to satisfy the requirements and needs of the consumers.

3. Effects of the Accession in Agriculture

The accession to EU put a high pressure towards the reform of agriculture in Romania considering the need for a successful integration in the European rural economy and the branch competition in other member states. This process had positive effects in agriculture, such as:

- the application of instruments with a view to promote food products on the European and world markets and to stimulate investments;
- the possibility for the national products to find outlets easier and the protection for high quality products;
- a higher degree of competitiveness for the Romanian farmers;
- the increase of agricultural subsidies, especially for Rural Development, in comparison to the pre-accession period;
- lower risks for farmers due to regulations regarding agricultural markets

However, Romanian farmers are facing serious problems comparing to other European farmers, especially to those coming from EU-15:

- the access to credits is difficult because of high interest rates;
- Romanian farmers are less trained;
- lower direct financial support and phasing in for direct payments;
- lack of consolidated subsidiaries on the product;
- difficulties in supplying with good quality products at fair prices

Romanian authorities should make a fair evaluation of the effects produced by taking over the community legislation in agriculture and the participation in the single market in order to propose solutions to increase competitiveness of farmers.

4. Romanian Agriculture in the European Union

In Romania, agriculture is a key branch of the economy, having a contribution of 6% to the GDP; in 2011 the increase of gross added value in agriculture, forestry and fishing was 11.3% due to high production obtained. 44.80% of the population live in the rural area, the average in EU being more than 50%; the agricultural area is 14.7 million hectares (47.7% of the total area of the country), Romania ranking sixth after France, Spain, Germany, United Kingdom and Poland. The arable area is 9.4 million hectares and the arable area/inhabitant is 0.41 hectares while the average in EU is 0.21 hectares. The number of agricultural holdings is the largest in the EU representing 29.39% of the total number of EU farms.

The population employed in agriculture is the largest in EU (five times bigger comparing to EU-27 and double than in Poland) but it has been decreasing since the pre-accession years.
Figure 1. Employment in agriculture (%) in 2007

Regarding the average area of the agricultural holding, the situation is completely different, statistical figures reveal similarities to those of small countries like Malta and Cyprus.

The European model of agriculture is based on the medium, typically family, farm. However, there are differences among EU countries, meaning that there are member states where the area of the agricultural holdings is bigger than the European average (Denmark, UK, Czech Republic). This model relies on a competitive sector, market oriented, which has other public functions as well: protection of the environment, better living standard for rural population.

Figure 2. Average area of an agricultural holding (ha) in 2007

Romania doesn’t fit this model, having an unsuitable agricultural structure for a modern European state. Agricultural structures are scattered, the average size being 3,5 hectares/holding in comparison to the average of EU-27 (12,6 hectares/holding) and these structures do not allow the entrance of high quality products at competitive prices on the international and emerging markets. There is no organization of subsidiaries on the product which limits the access channels toward the product, market and farmers’ income, there is a lack of producers’ organizations and agricultural cooperatives that do not provide appropriate benefits to the chain as well as a lack of suitable consulting networks to support farmers, considering that EU standards require expensive investments. In Romania, the population employed is very large and there are many very big farms consuming most of the agricultural subventions.

Therefore, it can be stated that Romania has two different agricultures with divergent objectives, interests and development solutions:
a). **subsistence agriculture** represented by plenty of micro-farms, producing most for self-consumption. Over 2.6 million households own less than 1 hectare of land;

b). **agro-industrial agriculture** consisting in hundreds even thousands of hectares, market-oriented, quite advanced from technical point of view. Over 9.6 thousand households own more than 100 hectares.

The agricultural sector represented by middle size farms is underdeveloped and uses only about 12% of the agricultural area of the country’ (Luca, 2009, p.18). There are many farms under 10 hectares (around 3750 thousand) using 6850 hundred hectares and the number of very large farms is very big. A special category is the sector 20-50 hectares, the number of farms (16 thousand) being small comparing to other countries and represent only 0.4% in the total number of agricultural holdings.

An analysis of the EU agriculture regarding the distribution of farms’ agricultural area depending on their size highlights the difference between Romania and other countries considered representative for the variation of agriculture.

**Poland** has an agricultural area of 18.3 million hectares (59% in the total area) and an arable area of 16.1 million hectares. The country emerged communism with a structure based on middle size farms. The Rural Development National Program which relies on the multifunctional character of agriculture and rural area will strengthen the competitiveness of farms, will contribute to a fair management of the agricultural area and to environment protection and will promote the quality of life and the diversity of the rural economy.

With one of the most developed agriculture in EU, **France** has an agricultural area of 29.57 million hectares (53.75% in the total area) and an arable area of 18.5 million hectares. The agricultural holdings can be divided, after the utilized agricultural area, in several types: small 39.72%, middle 20.15%, large 21.73% and very large 18.4%. Figures reflect that all types are well represented, all of them using a high standard of technical equipment.

The study of the real convergence of the Romanian agriculture with the EU agriculture implies a SWOT analysis.

**Strengths**: the second biggest agricultural producer in central and eastern Europe, after Poland, favorable climate and soil conditions, good quality of arable land, the development of the organic farming;

**Weaknesses**: high percent of the population employed in agriculture, ageing population living in the countryside, role of ‘safety net’ for people who can’t find work in other fields, big number of small farms representing the subsistence agriculture, high share of self-consumption, partial functionality of the agricultural market;

**Opportunities**:
- for **Romania** (as a member of EU): increased economic stability, access to single market, increased opportunities for farmers through the access to European funds and higher incomes;
- for **EU** (following the enlargement): increased competitive position worldwide, expanded market for its products;

**Risks**:
- for **Romania**: fragmented agricultural structures, limited access to credits and markets, lack of human capital, high self-consumption, low labor productivity, high production costs;
- for **EU**: invasion of cheap products especially from eastern Europe, increased number of immigrants, higher costs allocated from the community budget in order to integrate new member states.

## 5. Main Problems to Be Solved in the Context of the Future CAP

In over half of century of existence, the CAP has been the most debated, analyzed, controversial and reformed European policy.

The CAP is due to be reformed by the end of 2013. Following the Communication ‘The CAP towards 2020’ which outlined different options for the future CAP and launched debates with other institutions and stakeholders, on October 12th, 2011 the European Commission presented a set of legal proposals designed to make the CAP a more effective policy for a more competitive, sustainable agriculture and more vibrant rural areas. Following a debate in the European Parliament and the Council, the approval of different regulations and acts is expected by the end of 2013.

In the context of the future CAP that will be implemented in 2014, Romania has to take into consideration several severe problems that agriculture is facing, such as:

- the structure of the agricultural holdings reveals the fact that 50% are small farms, with less than 1 hectare and 60% farms with less than 5 hectares;
- population living in the rural area is ageing, most of the owners of agricultural land are over 60 years old, to whom belong 65% of the agricultural area;
- rural area is underdeveloped and doesn’t provide young people opportunities to settle down in the countryside;
- young farmers should be encouraged in this way, increasing support with a view to access European funds being an important matter;
- difficult access to credits and high interest rates represent an obstacle for farmers in submitting projects for the rural area;
- weak percent of commercial family farms

Romanian farmers should take into account the economical reality on the internal and external market and to apply the right methods able to offer them stability and economic efficiency. In the same time, Romanian agricultural output must align to the European standards and satisfy in a better way the needs of the consumers.

6. Conclusions

While the implementation of the CAP represented a real success for countries that joined EU in 2004, for Romania the situation is different. Romanian agricultural sector reflects a weak resemblance to the European model of agriculture, having features almost similar to the pre-accession period. Even if the amount of money allocated to agriculture from EU and national budget was significant, the effect on farm performance was minor.

First years after accession Romania followed a reversed direction in comparison to the European trend and supported measures such as increasing or keeping at the same levels the subsidies on the area, failed to adopt the progressive modulation and opposed to capping the subsidies that can be received by very large farms. The strategy requires that Romanian authorities should focus on Rural Development. This would facilitate the financing of the projects for infrastructure, the development and promotion of the multifunctional agriculture and would provide an opportunity to preserve the specificity of the natural, traditional and organic environment. CAP can’t compensate a lack of vision and strategy regarding the role of agriculture in Romania’s economic modernization. The implementation of community regulations for European funds absorption proved to be insufficient (the degree of absorption being low), the development of own programs for rural space and agro-food sector are an urgent need which has to begin from the existence of two sectors: subsistence and agro-industrial.

Romania has to define its own strategy regarding agriculture which has to integrate both agricultural sectors in the community policy and to support the country in the debates regarding CAP reform. This strategy should follow the general trends of the policy reform and should increase the chances of success in the development of Romanian agriculture.

The agricultural reform in Romania should include, among its priorities, the solving of the structural problem of the Romanian village considering that our country is an EU membership and this gives us the possibility to take advantage of a CAP with a generous budget.

References

The Art of Bosch - A Mirror to Death and Beyond

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Abstract: Who really pays attention to poetry, philosophy, painting or other art form? We rather seek for what is immediately needed or quickly consumable, what doesn’t bother nor disturb us. Emotions and cultural products are strongly linked. But the perception of art depends on how it impresses us. Art can confront us with a reality. In a civilization dominated by images, through the media, advertising and virtual worlds, art, like life and death, is rarely valued. We approached on this study, the way in which college students - of both sexes, from courses of management, history and psychology - interpreted the image/painting ‘Paradise: Ascent of the Blessed’, from Hieronymus Bosch, which alludes to death and beyond-death. We analyzed the thoughts, feelings, images and symbols that emerged from their answers, through open questions, after seeing the image/painting. Men revealed security, like they were watching for something they see as controllable and far away from them. Women expressed an active emotional involvement, as well as fear, belief in God and hope in finding a path through the darkness, revealing an intense feeling of proximity before death and immortality. Students of psychology, in particular, revealed a more emotional reaction to the image/death, than the future historians. The conceptions of the first ones are closer to the women’s perspectives, while the others resemble those of men. This work invited us to reflect about ourselves, the power of images, death, and on what lies beyond death and life.

Keywords: image, death, life, immortality, representation

1. Introduction

Nowadays, it is not easy to pay attention to poetry, philosophy, painting or other art form. We rather seek, on the outside, for something we need in the immediate moment that is quickly consumable, preferring what doesn’t bother nor disturb us.

Emotions and cultural products are strongly linked. But the perception of art depends on how it impresses us. Art can confront us with a reality, such as death and immortality, by questioning our opinions, feelings, ideologies and beliefs. In a civilization dominated by images, through the media, advertising and virtual worlds, the real art, like life and death, is rarely valued. The multiple sounds, images, stimuli and sensations that surround us, also demand our attention, energy and time.

This is the civilization of image (Huyghe, 1965, 1986), many times abusive, authoritarian, and aggressive, where publicity and the media try to impose their rules, suggesting necessities and habits on us, while replying to our need for information and actualization. This obsession by image has promoted the triumph of different types of art. But in the concept of art that we consider here, the image is viewed as a mean to awake the inner sensibility of each individual, and to expand the conscious, until he understands a reality that at the beginning seemed to be strange or distant, and look to the inner self, listening to his intimate motivations and ideas, as well as his sincere feelings.

So, the use of images, as of music for instance, is important in the education, emotional and mental development of each individual, stimulating the search for beauty, equilibrium and inner harmony (e.g. Costa, 1989; James, 1993).

In the present study, we verified how an image is perceived, based on the thoughts, feelings and symbolisms expressed by a population of college students. We chose a painting by Hieronymus Bosch (1450-1516) representing
“Paradise: Ascent of the Blessed”. This brings us to reflect on life, death and immortality, and may rouse beliefs, convictions and deep emotions. The image evokes a symbolic imagery, religious or esoteric, where after the end of earthly life, souls saved, helped by angels, throw off the last remains, and reborn in a different plane, rising almost without the support of its heavenly guides, following by a corridor (or tunnel) where an intense light emerges from the darkness and illuminates their path of ascension.

Reflecting about the image and consequently about death or what is beyond it, implies questioning many of our ideologies, beliefs, judgments, values, attitudes or behaviours, on the way we think, feel and act, alone or in groups in a society in crisis, in front of what relates to the death and life (e.g. Ariés, 1989; Bradbury, 1999; Kastenbaum, 2001; Kübler-Ross, 1969; Morin, 1988; Oliveira, 2008, 2011, Reanney, 1991).

This study is framed on the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961, 1984, 1988, 1989). Social representations can be seen as a way of understanding and communicating what we already know or we intend to discover, linking images and meanings, establishing a ‘common sense’ that makes sense (Moscovici, 1984). Social representations are generated and always modified by processes of anchoring and objectifying that permit to transform anything unknown into something familiar. Anchoring is comparing and associating an object, subject or situation to a suitable prototype. To objectify is to give a sense of reality to ideas, symbols or images derived from memory to represent a certain object.

We had two main objectives: Apprehend the representations of the image among college students, of both sexes, of Management, History and Social Psychology. Analyze the extent to which these representations differentiate the groups considered.

The representations are shared differently and to varying degrees by the different groups, modelling their behaviours, to which they give a meaning (Moscovici, 1961). They are social representations because emerge in a specific social context, referring to values, ideologies, systems of social categorization and social relations, that contribute to its production (Vala, 1986).

Considering that social psychology should study the behaviours of individuals within groups, and between groups, and that the psychologists examine the concepts and reactions suggested by those behaviours, we may expect that the students of psychology - who study the individual as a psychosocial being - are those who give more relevance to emotions or feelings, on their representations. Recalling the role that society has historically attributed to women, and given a greater tendency by women to express feelings in the face of death (e.g., Oliveira, 2008), we expect that women, more than men, highlight an affective-emotional dimension.

2. Methodology

In this study participated first year's college students (N = 98), men and women, of history, management and social psychology, from ISCTE-IUL (Lisbon University Institute). Sex/gender and university course were the main (independent) variables. We developed a questionnaire with two different stimuli or open questions: This Image makes me think on...; This Image makes me feel... The participants responded individually and anonymously, by free association of words, with words or phrases (that, after, according to a criterion of the etymological root, we reduced to simple words, respecting their meanings).

Data were collected in classrooms, where each subject responded in writing, while the image (e.g., Bosing, 2010; WGA, 2011) was projected on a screen. Each individual expressed the ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions suggested by this image. The data obtained was processed through factorial correspondences analysis, and the resultant factors were interpreted as the main dimensions (or semantic universes) of the representations of the image, constituting the dependent variables.

3. Findings

3.1. Thoughts and Ideas about the Image

When we asked the participants for 'This Image makes me think on...', their most frequent answers were light, angels,  

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1 The image of the painting is available online (e.g. Reuterswärd, 1991; WGA, 2011).
2 E.g. hell can be associated to fire.
3 E.g. death, as an abstract idea, can be objectified by a coffin or a cross.
heaven, life beyond death, religion and death (cf. Table 1).

**Table 1.** Classification of the thoughts, by frequency order of the words answered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideas, Thoughts or Symbols</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angels</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heaven</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life beyond death</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>death</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hell</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paradise</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>god</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tunnel</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purgatory</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salvation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hope</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>passage</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peace</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>final judgement</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freedom</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>welfare</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>darkness</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>way</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These answers suggest us that the image is represented as a transition from life to the beyond-death, on the way to heaven, passing over hell, accompanied by angels. The light, the universal symbol of the sacred and divine, appears as a positive, steady, calm and reliever element. The invisible face of the transcendent and our imaginary ideological and religious clearly emerges here, in a society distinctly catholic. The salvation of the being and his ascension to another plane of existence, are implied.

Figures 1 and 2 show the results obtained in the subsequent factorial correspondences analysis (FCA). The three factors that emerged from this FCA represent different dimensions about what may happen after death.

**Figure 1.** FCA of the words associated to 'This Image makes me think on...' (factors 1 and 2)

**Figure 2.** FCA of the words associated to 'This Image makes me think on...' (factors 2 and 3)
The first factor leads us to the thoughts inherent to the transition of the individual, opposing thoughts of fear or apprehension, to thoughts of hope. The second appears to reflect different expectations of what will come after death (thoughts of those who see death as an access road to the heavenly paradise, are opposed to the perception of those who simply expect to find some peace in this passage). The third seems to represent the fate of the individual after death (on the one hand with a vision of a heavenly destination and, on the other hand, with hell).

By comparing the representations of men and women, we found that men represent the image in a very concrete way, basically like outside observers, unlike women, who are more emotionally involved (cf. Table 2). For men, regardless of whatever happens after death, the individual is always saved. For their part, women reveal their religious beliefs, to sustain their hope, in individual salvation.

Table 2. Coordinates and Absolute Contributions (from the FCA), relative to the answers for the two stimuli, crossed with variable sex
A different FCA showed that the students of history are the ones that have revealed more as distant observers, also evidencing a religious dimension before the image. In fact, we all have been influenced by the roman catholic church, over hundreds of years, what, in itself, constitutes a subject of study to these students. The future psychologists show an emotional involvement, they think on an encounter with the immanent or within themselves (by the final judgment) and also with the transcendent, with God. The future managers look peacefully the image, finding in it reasons to understand death as a doorway to reach eternity.

3.2. Emotions and Sentiments about the Image

The most significant words (curiosity, hope and fear) lead us to think that the subjects have some fear about something that is strange to them, but they hope that this image may reflect something really good (cf. Table 3). Excepting curiosity, thoughtful, doubt and interrogative, that reveal an attitude considered as neutral before the image, all other words convey positive emotions (marked with +) or negative emotions (-) (cf. Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>curiosity</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hope</td>
<td>(+) 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fear</td>
<td>(-) 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calm</td>
<td>(+) 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thoughtful</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confused</td>
<td>(-) 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peace</td>
<td>(+) 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doubt</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>welfare</td>
<td>(+) 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anguish</td>
<td>(-) 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sadness</td>
<td>(-) 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freedom</td>
<td>(+) 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happiness</td>
<td>(+) 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrogative</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignorant</td>
<td>(-) 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lightweight</td>
<td>(+) 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the first factor, we may observe two ways of reacting to the idea of death, on one hand, where the individuals feel like observers of a reality from the outside and, secondly, where the subjects show feelings linked to a great emotional involvement, imagining the meanings of the painting. The second can distinguish different attitudes before the unknown - between a tranquil attitude, carefree, and a sad or apprehensive attitude. The third factor points out two ways to represent an abstract image - with a peaceful reaction and a difficulty to understand what is observed, or with an interrogative attitude (cf. Figures 3 and 4).
Women, more than men, denote a more personal view of the image and show a sadness that seems to come from fear of the unknown, or from not understand the meaning of death, while men appear to be observers, questioning all with curiosity (cf. Table 2).

From another FCA we confirmed that students of history are the ones that examine the image by its outer side (and not so much by the personal internalization that it can induce), in a more cognitive dimension. On the other hand, the future psychologists clearly denote their questions, thoughts and doubts, as if the image made them think about themselves, the human being, and destiny. The future managers emphasize quietness and sadness, believing that whatever the difficulty by which the individual passes after death, there will be a salvation and a destination.
4. Discussion and Conclusion

First of all, we must note that were found significant differences in the way women and men represent the image of the painting, as well as distinct perceptions between the three courses.

The representations of the students of history are opposed to those of the students of management and psychology - the students of psychology, and to a lesser degree, the future managers, show a greater affective-emotional involvement in the way they feel and think about the image, than the other students. Hence, we admit that individuals who are studying the human being as psychosocial being, in a certain context, reveal, more than others, dimensions of affection and emotions, when they reflect upon an image connected to life, death - and in a possible destination for us all.

Women tend to emphasize, more than men, an affective-emotional dimension of the image, as we also expected. Women also express, more clearly, the belief in God and hope in finding their way through the darkness. They admit that the image illustrates their own death, and although this causes them fear, they review themselves in the situation represented. Men assume a more observant, distant and thoughtful attitude.

Although women (70% of total population) are in majority in all courses, it is mainly in psychology that we find dimensions that correspond to a more typically feminine stereotype.

So, even if there are more women than men in a population, is not enough for the representations of an object or a reality become more feminized (Amâncio, 1994). This must happen in a particular context, in this case, to be a woman and also a student of psychology. The gender seems to be most significant than the sex. Thus, we note that there is a closeness or similarity between the representations of women and the students of psychology (and management), as well as between the representations of men and the students of history.

The answers to the two stimuli were grouped in three categories: ideas, thought or symbols; emotions or sentiments; and the words most frequent in both cases (cf. Table 4). Participants had greater facility responding to ideas or thoughts, than to emotions or feelings, which highlights the difficulty to express emotions, even with an anonymous and confidential questionnaire.

Table 4. Classification of the most frequent words, by alphabetical order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Ideas, Thoughts or Symbols</th>
<th>B. Emotions or Feelings</th>
<th>A + B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>angels</td>
<td>calm</td>
<td>freedo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>darkness</td>
<td>confused</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>death</td>
<td>curiosity</td>
<td>hope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>final judgement</td>
<td>anguish</td>
<td>peace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>god</td>
<td>doubt</td>
<td>welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hell</td>
<td>fear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life beyond death</td>
<td>happiness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>ignorant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paradise</td>
<td>interrogative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>passage</td>
<td>lightness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purgatory</td>
<td>sadness</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>religion</td>
<td>thoughtful</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>salvation</td>
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<td>heaven</td>
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<td>tunnel</td>
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<tr>
<td>way</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The most common thoughts that we found (e.g., light, angels, heaven and life beyond death) lead us to the idea of ending, at a physical level, and to what may happen after death. These are related to dimensions associated to the transcendent, divine, religion and sacred, that appeal to our ideological imaginary, filled with beliefs, symbols and images, above all influenced by a predominant roman catholic church.

This work also reveals curiosity and fear of the participants before an image they interpret as something strange, but at the same time, something that inspire hope, with the idea that what they see may represent something positive and good in their lives - considering the day when they will be confronted with death.

Social representations of the observed image (as well as death and the afterlife) may anchor in several areas of knowledge, religion, ideology, culture or sacred. These are forms of knowledge, created and shared between the elements of each group of belonging, and in the relationships that social groups establish between themselves. The
processes of objectification, through which the perceptions of the image are transformed into symbols or abstract notions, are associated with different concrete images, such as hell, way, passage or tunnel.

5. Conclusion

This study, despite the limitations, allowed us to reflect about ourselves, the power of the image, of death, and what lies beyond death and life. Because the real image of life, where we can dominate our needs, pursue a way and meet a sense, is sometimes proposed by a glorified piece of art (Páez & Adrián, 1993). Who looks at it carefully, penetrates on its meanings and may even extract from it the lost trust. In a real work of art, we may recognize a human factor, acquired and inevitable, closely connected to our origins and our destiny (Huyghe, 1965).

The observation and reflection from the image of a (wonderful and at the same time mysterious) painting, invite us to understand it, to feel it and touch it, in its external aspects, but also in sharing the designs of its author and with what he wished to represent.

Maybe we can reveal a little more of ourselves, as if we looked on a mirror that reflects aspects of our being - something that we thought we had mysteriously captive. Thus, we may refine our perception and consciousness, with one small step, in the evolutionary path. Gradually, we learn to listen and develop our inner sensibility. Eventually, we may even dare to peer the great beyond.

References

When Life Hurts... On the Verge of Death

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Abstract: In this study, anchored in the theory of social representations, we intended to ascertain the existence of risk-taking and self-harm behaviours, as well as situations of imminent death, in a population of adolescents (boys and girls between 15 and 19). It was also our aim to understand how these behaviours might be associated to the social representations of life, death and to musical preferences. Our findings indicate that boys are the ones who tend to find themselves more often engaged in all of the three forms of endanger behaviours. It is also among the adolescents between 17 and 19 years old that these situations are more common. A preference for feminine pop is associated to self-harm behaviour and classic pop is linked to risk behaviour. Personal fulfilment seems to be the greatest indicator of both risk behaviour and self harm: the lower the perception of fulfilment, the greater the chance to adopt these kind of behaviours. Results also support that negative perceptions of well-being, and love for life are linked to risk and self harm behaviours, mainly in girls. Adolescents who shown risk behaviours represented death as a ritual and so did girls who had already found themselves on the verge of dying.

Keywords: Adolescence, Risk Behaviours, Self Harm, Death, Dying, Life, Music, Social Representations.

1. Introduction

Mortality, our own mortality, is barely conceivable for us. And still, ‘to die is the human condition and reflection concerning death exists practically among all people’ (Feifel, 1990, p. 537).

According to Lifton (1979), to represent life and death as one unit, as a two faced coin, is to assume that thoughts regarding death are constant in every human being since birth. Since it is a unique experience, human brain cannot process the idea of death and is unable to learn and apprehend how to deal with it. Although conscious of our fear of dying, the single existence of this though within our brain would be enough to threat our preservation instinct. The only option is to hide it in a subconscious level, using a huge variety of stimuli and impulses to fill in the void which is left. To say that we do not fear death is, itself a fallacy, since we are describing a reaction to something that we have never witnessed and that goes beyond our own knowledge (Reanney, 1991).

Although aware of human mortality, adolescents often do not accept their own finitude as factual. To most adolescents, death is a distant and unlikely event, just as old age (Petter, 2001). To others, though, it is an adversary that must be defeated in order to continue to live within what is expected. That is what can be referred as establishing immortality (Reanney, 2001). To rule over death means to rule over life, to give it its upmost significant meaning (Petter, 2001).

It is due to their natural tendency and need to experiment, feel and live everything as intensely as possible, that adolescents sometimes find themselves so close to death. Crossing limits frequently implies incurring in some risk behaviours such as alcohol or drug abuse, reckless driving, unprotected sexuality, self-harm behaviour (cuts and burns mainly in the arms and upper legs) and even suicide attempts (Oliveira, Amâncio & Sampaio, 2001; Crepet, 2002; Donnellan, 2004; Saraiva, 1999).

Amongst the most significant activities throughout adolescence, it is quite straightforward to place music, since it plays a relevant part in identity’s structuring (Barros, 1993) providing relief from boredom, filling in the silence and facilitating expression of feelings and identification towards a particular sound or lyrics (Strasburger, 1995) and because music is, for itself, an agent of socialization (Abreu, 2000), influencing, therefore, thoughts, and behaviours (Gard, 1997).
Death and Life, are the two most intricate phenomenon’s within (or beyond) our reach, which we may only understand through social representations (Bradbury, 1999).

Moscovici’s (1961/1976) theory postulates representations as social constructions through which it is possible to modulate our perceptions and conceptions of an object and reality itself, since ‘that what is unknown and strange comes as a threat because there is no category to fit that in’ (Farr, 1984, p. 386).

According to Moscovici, whenever we are socially re-presenting something, more than revealing opinions, images or attitudes, we are uncovering a complete system of values and knowledge that assists our organization of reality. It is this system that allows us to control our environment and communicate throughout a code that becomes collectively shared. Social representations are, hence, common and shared, in a group and social level, since they are collectively produced, resulting from the interaction and communication among groups on our daily life (Jodelet, 2004).

The present study aims to:
1) Ascertain the existence of risk-taking and self-harm behaviours, as well as situations of imminent death, in a population of adolescents from 15 to 19 years old.
2) Understand how these behaviours might be associated to the social representations of life, death and to musical preferences.

2. Previous studies

In order to understand what we present in this paper, it is important to say that the present study is part of one larger survey, in which it was intended to apprehend and analyse the social representations (SR) of life and death as well as the musical preferences amongst an adolescent population; to understand how SR varied according to gender and age and to verify how SR of life and death might be associated with musical preferences and with the opinion of others.

From a list of several items, participants were to indicate the extent to which every item represented their thoughts, images and feelings about life (e.g., hope, family, joy, freedom, happiness) and death (e.g., accident, sadness, curiosity, immortality, coffin). Then, a list of 31 bands/composers - among the most popular among Portuguese adolescents - was presented (e.g., Metallica, Beethoven, Ben Harper, Amy Winehouse, Queen, U2) to evaluate the musical preferences of the adolescents. And finally, our participants were asked to indicate in which extent their feelings, thoughts and images about life, death and musical preferences were influenced by others (e.g.: parents, best friend, colleagues, teachers). All answers were measured in a 1-5 scale. The data was analysed using Factor Analysis (FA) with the items considered for each theme – in order to reduce and reveal the internal structure of the data –, and Variance Analysis on the factors obtained.

For what musical preferences are concerned, FA revealed an eight factor solution: rock/metal; north-American rock; English metal/indie; hip-hop/new metal; reggae/pop; classic/pop; emotional rock and feminine pop. Regarding SR of life, a five dimension solution was found: well-being; will to live; personal fulfilment; attachment to others and feelings of malaise. For the SR of death we obtained a four dimension solution: malaise; ritualism/causes of death; closeness to death; questioning/transcendence.

A final set of questions comprehended three items regarding threatening behaviours. In that sense, it was asked: 1) whether participants had ever had any risk behaviours (e.g., reckless driving, drug abuse, unprotected sexual encounters); 2) if they had ever faced a situation of imminent death; and 3) whether adolescents had incurred in any self-harm conduct (e.g., cutting, bruising, burning).

These three items are, in this present study, our dependent variables and the ones we will be associating with SR of life and death, and with musical preferences.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population

Our sample consisted of 262 adolescents, 54% male, 46% female; 61% between the ages of 15 and 16 years old and 39% between 17 and 19 years old, from Lisbon.

3.2. Instrument of Measure and Procedure

We developed a questionnaire with six groups of items on closed questions, followed of ordinal scales (1 to 5), based on the results collected on another research (Oliveira, 2008a) and on a previous focus-group – involving talking to
adolescents about life, death and music. The data was collected in a class context, having each student answered it anonymously, in an individual protocol.

4. Findings

Our first objective was to understand whether risk behaviour, imminent death and self harm conduct varied according to gender and age. For that, several ANOVAs were conducted. Results indicate that boys tend to incur into risk behaviours, as well as self-harm behaviours, more often than girls. Furthermore, boys are also who seem to have been on the verge of dying, which is also the case of the adolescents between 17 and 19 years old (cf. Table 1).

Table 1
Effects of gender and age in the risk-taking and self-harm behaviours, and the imminence of death

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Risk-taking behaviours</td>
<td>$F(1, 255) = 4,830$ *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-harm behaviours</td>
<td>$F(1, 253) = 6,628$ **</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imminence of death</td>
<td>$F(1, 255) = 6,172$ **</td>
<td>$F(1, 255) = 6,469$ **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Since music is considered a vital activity for adolescents, we correlated our three dependent variables with the musical preferences. Hence, results support that those who reveal more preference for feminine pop (artists such as Alanis Morissette or Amy Winehouse) tend to show less self-harm behaviours; and the more the participants prefer to listen to classic pop (such as U2 or even Beethoven), less they tend to incur in risk-taking behaviours (cf. Table 2)1.

In what concerns to SR of life, we observe that the less the adolescents felt personally fulfilled, greater is the risk for them to incur in some kind of risk behaviour. So, the self-harm conduct is associated with a pessimistic perspective of life, as shown by the negative correlations with the dimensions well-being, love for life and personal fulfilment. For those who ever found themselves on any imminent death situation, life tends to be represented with more sadness.

In order to understand if there were relevant differences between boys and girls as well as according to age (15-16 versus 17-19 years old), our sample was also sorted and filtered according to gender and age.

Table 2
Correlations between the representations of life, death and the music preferences and the threatening behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Risk-taking behaviours</th>
<th>Self-harm behaviours</th>
<th>Imminence of death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All sample 15-16</td>
<td>All sample 15-16</td>
<td>All sample 15-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music Preferences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine Pop</td>
<td>-126*</td>
<td>-160*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classic Pop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>-250**</td>
<td>-137**</td>
<td>-210**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love for life</td>
<td>-232**</td>
<td>-197**</td>
<td>-343**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal fulfilment</td>
<td>-357**</td>
<td>-305**</td>
<td>-181**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>-226**</td>
<td>-263**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to others</td>
<td>-355**</td>
<td>-201*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR.Life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ritualism</td>
<td>.185*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaise</td>
<td>-190*</td>
<td>-293**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR.Death</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaise</td>
<td>-201*</td>
<td>-173*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

1 The results for 17-19 years old adolescents were not included since there were no significant associations.
That allowed us to determine that, for girls, the less life is represented as love for living, personal fulfilment or attachment to others, the greater is their careless or risk behaviour attitudes.

Among girls, we notice that the more they feel bad and the less they feel personally fulfilled and with love for life, the more is possible for them to have self-aggressive acts, and give relevance to situations of imminent death. For male adolescents, sadness seems to be the strongest impulse for self-harm episodes, and for them to recognize imminent death situations.

Concerning age, for the younger adolescents, the more they feel bad and with a weak perception of personal fulfilment, more probable are the risk behaviours and the self-harm conduct; self-harm behaviour is also strongly connected with a low love for life.

Standing on the verge of dying, appears to find stronger in a poor well-being - or, in other words, a clear bad-being - a weak affective attachment with the others and a general sense of malaise.

Finally, regarding the social representations of death, we found that, for boys, risk behaviours are significantly and positively linked to the ritualism of death (e.g. coffin, burial, skull and cross). For girls, the imminence of death is negatively associated to death as a ritual, and those who have been closer to a death situation are clearly those that feel less malaise in face of dying – facing death with a more positive attitude.

5. Discussion

The more the adolescents reveal sadness, low self-esteem and express that they do not feel personally realized (with themselves, the family or at a social level), highest is the possibility that they can harm themselves, incurring in parasuicide (Saraiva, 1999) - risk behaviours and self-harm behaviours -, and living situations that can put them near to die or, as we may say, on the verge of dying - which can derived from a distraction, a suicide attempt, an accident or a disease episode (e.g. Oliveira, 2008).

It is also noteworthy that, although, overall, boys seem to be more likely to engage in any of the threatening behaviours, girls are the ones who, more vehemently, associate them with the most relevant social representations of life and death. But this association is significant in an inverse way. The more the girls feel confident, well with themselves, with the others and with the life they have, the less they choose to behave in a way that can put them in any kind of danger.

Likewise, it is for younger adolescents that threatening behaviours seem to find correspondent perceptions on their feelings and thoughts about life and death. The more the youngsters feel sad, the more they recognize they have lived situations of proximity with death.

Finally, one interesting finding was that contrary to most of the literature, no significant correlations between rock/heavy metal and any of the threatening behaviours were found. But we can say that the greater preference for pop or danceable music (that girls prefer more than boys) and classical music, is linked to a lesser tendency of the youngsters to incur in behaviours that endanger their life.

6. Conclusions

Understanding how teenagers think and feel about life and death is presented as an asset to the mental health professionals and is a precious contribution for any youth suicide prevention programs (Brown & Hendee, 1989) given that ‘understanding suicide is a key to prevent it’ (Blackburn, 1982, p. 11).

The adolescents' perceptions about life and death are real windows that allow us to discover their perspectives, goals and aspirations, but also their fears, anxieties, hesitations and difficulties for living in the present time, and to face the future. By connecting risk behaviours, self-harm conducts, and the perception of an imminent death, with the referred perceptions, we face a unique opportunity to unravel some of the cognitive and emotional issues that might help us to explain the recourse to these escape patterns.

In fact, an adolescent in the verge of dying, is an adolescent that feels desperate in the verge of living, trying to escape from what disturbs and hoping to survive, somehow, through a possible death.
References

Mediterranean Islands and the Challenge of Innovation: Learning From the Case of the Chinese Province of Hainan

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Abstract: Mediterranean islands heavily depend on tourism as their main economic resources. This development path has taken over from a poorly industrialized, agricultural society, and has insured economic integration to these islands. However, Mediterranean insular regions still suffer from a number of developmental issues leading to economic retardation vis-à-vis continental regions. Tourism has strengthened their peripheral status. Hainan, an insular province of China has experienced a similar situation. However, although tourism still remains a major economic resource for Hainan, new policies have been implemented to diversify the local economy and develop innovation-led activities on the island. Traditionally, peripheral regions are not considered as innovative regions because of several obstacles (e.g.: remoteness, social particularisms) (Soete, 1997). To be efficient, innovative policies should not only support technology and research, but also other economic aspects of the innovation process (Landsabaso, 2003). Does it mean that decentralization is required to transform peripheral islands into innovative society? Or is the central government more likely to implement innovative policies? This paper will attempt to explore the several paths followed by Hainan to develop innovation, draw the limits of this policy, and question whether or not similar measures may be adopted by Mediterranean islands. The author argues that development of a private sector is the key factor for innovation in insular territories.

Keywords: China, innovation, public sector, insularity, decentralization

1 Introduction

Mediterranean Islands have become major world destinations. Every year, Malta, Ibiza, Corsica, Crete attract millions of visitors. These islands are well known for their sun, beaches, “art de vivre” and culture. The development of mass tourism in the Mediterranean since the early 60’s has insured a relative prosperity to these islands, but on the other hand, has caused several issues such as pollution, tourism saturation, social tensions between islanders and visitors. It has also increased their economic dependency. Their economic structure is dominated by the tourism sector and related industries (construction, real estate…), and per consequence is exposed to multiple external threats: seasonality, weather conditions, or high competition. As a result, Mediterranean islands seek for greater diversification (Reiffers, 2000). This one can be obtained firstly within the tourism sector by offering a larger range of tourism products: most Mediterranean islands have now emphasized their cultural and historical offer. Diversification is also about developing other sectors. This latter aspect is more challenging for Mediterranean islands, because they are traditionally unindustrialized and lack the available lands necessary to implement large projects. The development of innovative industries, based on clean energies may solve this issue. However innovation policies need several conditions to succeed, especially regarding core-periphery relations. Friedmann (1966) argued that core regions transmitted “impulse of innovation to the peripheries”, this proved to be right in the case of Mediterranean islands. Most of Mediterranean islands are not independent, but are subnational entities, except Malta and Cyprus which are sovereign states. They are not all granted the same degree of autonomy. The Spanish Balearic islands form an autonomous community. In Italy both Sardinia and Sicily are autonomous regions. In more centralized nations, Mediterranean islands enjoy less autonomy: French Corsica has no special status (although some special policies are implemented there due to its insular position), neither have Greek islands. Cyprus and Malta, the only two sovereign islands in the Mediterranean islands have the most diversified economic structures with some sizeable industrial and banking sectors. However, when looking at the other dependent islands, there is no evidence that autonomy favors innovation: autonomous Sardinia, Balearic archipelago do not enjoy much more innovation than more dependent Corsica and Crete. This paper looks at the necessary factors for the implementation of successful innovation policies in insular territories as an answer to tourism dependency.

The challenge of innovation is shared by many islands around the world. Hainan, in China, has been trying to transform itself into a land of innovation, and so may be a possible example to follow for Mediterranean islands. This province had been neglected by the Central government until the early 80’s. At that time, Beijing decided to grant this island the status of Special Economic Zone, however, ill-prepared and poorly managed, this plan failed and Hainan was deeply affected by a financial crisis by 1996. But since the early 2000’s and the emergence of a middle class, tourism has
been booming through Hainan, and the island has become depend on tourism. Authorities have tried to curb this dependency by implementing innovative policies, however, the private sector may not be developed enough to sustain this innovation objective.

2. Innovation policies in Hainan

Hainan had been neglected for centuries by China. This tropical island in the South China's sea had suffered from poverty and social tensions between non Chinese natives and “Han” colons. In the 80's, the central government used Hainan as a “test-province” for implementing bold economic reforms. Hui Wang (1994) argues that the island was especially chosen for its remoteness, its small population and economic isolation. But the plan to transform Hainan as a second Taiwan did not succeed, because of a strong “laissez-faire” policy, the island was described as a “Wild West” province (Feng, 1998). Since the 2000's, Chinese have been lured by Hainan's tourism assets: sea, sun, local culture; per consequence, the island has become a popular Chinese destination; its economic structures, priory based on agriculture have changed to a more service-industry one. But little by little tourism has become Hainan's leading sector, and the whole insular economy has become dependent to this industry. To solve this potential issue, the central and regional governments have launched several initiatives to diversify Hainan’s economy and transform the island into an innovative hub.

1) Map of Hainan

2.1 Overview of innovation programs

The innovation programs put in place by authorities have two objectives: the first one is to increase the tourism offer in Hainan by developing new tourism products, and the second one is to develop hi-tech industries in the island. Hainan attracts about 25 million Chinese tourists every year, but domestic visitors are more and more likely to travel abroad: last year, more than fifty million Chinese nationals went to a foreign destination. To face this challenge, like many other tropical islands, Hainan needs to diversify its tourism products and needs to offer new kinds of leisure. That is the reason why, in 2010, Beijing decided to transform Hainan in a truly international destination by 2020 thanks to the implementation of innovative policies, giving a unique character to Hainan. Two of these innovative policies are the opening of duty-free shops and the legalization of sport lotteries in island. These tourism products can be found in many foreign destinations, but, if we except Macau and Hong Kong, these policies are new in China. The creation of duty free shops has for main objective to transform Hainan into a shopping destination. But it also aims at developing tourism not only on the seaside but in the island' cities and hinterland, so that most of the island’s regions get benefits from this innovation. The legalization of sport lotteries to diversify tourism has been experienced in other territories. For example,
in France, seaside resorts such as Deauville were given the authorization to open casinos in the early 1900’s to boost tourism. The success of Macau’s gambling development has incited other Asian destinations to legalize this industry. The case of Hainan is a bit different because authorities have adopted a progressive approach. There are still no casinos in Hainan, but sport lotteries. Gambling had been for long advocated by Hainanese local authorities, however, at that time, Beijing refused to authorize gaming for fear of corruption and criminal activities. But, the introduction of lotteries may be considered as a first move to the authorization of gambling in Hainan. Because of these restrictions, Hainan can still not compete with Macau as a gaming destination, but this has still increased the tourism products the island may offer to visitors.

The launching of innovative programs in Hainan is not restricted to the tourism industry; the industrial sector is also the target of these measures. Hainan shares one characteristic with Mediterranean islands, its industrial sector is very weak. No industry was ever established in the island. After WW2, Hainan was exclusively exploited for its rubber resources, which were then processed in other provinces of China. Because of high transportation costs and the lack of a large local market –with only 8 million inhabitants, Hainan is considered as a not very populated Chinese region-, few investors were interested in establishing factories in Hainan, the bad reputation and corruption of its officials were another rejection factor. Efforts have been pursued to process local resources such as rubber, tropical agricultural products, but also oil and gas. The government has also launched some programs to transform the island’s agricultural sector. This one was historically inefficient, in spite of good climatic conditions, Hainan agricultural production had a lower quality than the ones of other provinces. But for the last ten years, the agricultural production has been completely reorganized, and has moved from traditional to innovative. This has been done by the introduction of new species and new industries (like orchids production) and by the use of computer technologies to supervise production. The island has also become an example to follow for its effort to rely on green energies. Despite large gas reserves, in the past Hainan had suffered from energy shortage, to solve that issue, the local government has encouraged the development of solar energy. The growth of this energy resource will also preserve the island’s environment and so will have a positive impact on the tourism industry.

2.2 Actors of innovation

An OECD report published in 2011 highlights the role of regional governments in the implementation of innovation policy. This document insists on the need for a greater coordination between regions and central government. According to the authors, new innovation policies need to take into account the increasing globalization which give more opportunities to regions, and must respond to environmental challenges. The implementation of innovation policies should not only be the decision of the central or regional governments, but needs to be the result of mutual dialogue. In Hainan, both central and local governments have fulfilled their duties in establishing the bases for an innovative sector, but this may not be enough to develop innovation in the long run.

The central government has eased the launching of innovative industries in Hainan by creating the conditions, both legal and physical, to their development. Firstly, the central government has allowed the provincial authorities to give incentives to foreign investors; these ones can get tax break, and visa procedures have been facilitated for foreigners. On the other hand, the central government has heavily invested in the island infrastructures. The island, which was very secluded in the past and where journeys from one side to another could take at least half a day is now very open and well connected. Beijing has chosen to liberalize aviation regulations in Hainan: with the “open skies policy”, Hainan has been much more attractive for foreign air carriers; the island will soon host three international airports that means that every region of the islands will be easily connected to Chinese and Asian cities. Furthermore, within the island, transportation has been made easier with the building of highways and high-speed railroads. These infrastructures not only help tourism development, but they are also used as a showcase for innovation technologies.

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1 These ones were mainly used by other provinces.
The local government is very active in the innovative sector through HNA, a province-owned company. This company was firstly established in the 90's as the island's main air carrier, but soon, it has expanded its activities to other tourism related sectors such as hotels, real estate, malls, car rental... This group is now the most powerful firm in the island and has multiple interests in every industry, including hi-tech companies. HNA promotes the development of drug related industries, and together with local governments try to attract leading companies in that sector. New innovation programs consist also in the opening of hi-tech industrial parks and the creation of a film studio in Haikou, the capital city. All these activities are rather not polluting and create high end products that do not need high transportation costs. To sustain these innovations, the province has also invested in education so that the local population may enter these industries.

The third type of actors of innovation in Hainan is the foreign investors. In 2009, FDI (foreign direct investments) reached about USD 170 million. FDI in Hainan are still lower than in other provinces, but Hainan is the smallest province and we can notice a huge evolution since the 90's. The recent innovation policies and the involvement of both central and local governments in the development strategy of Hainan have reassured foreign investors about the island's perspectives. The first foreign companies to invest in Hainan in the early 2000's were the international hospitality groups such as Accor or Starwood. Improvements in transportation have allowed the opening of hundreds of hotels, managed by Chinese and foreign groups. International companies have also invested to a lesser extent in hit-tech sectors and telecommunications. However, in spite of the presence of foreign companies, we can notice that a forth necessary actor of innovation is still missing. Thus, the domestic private companies are still quite weak in Hainan. Local private-owned sector face many obstacles to emerge. Most of the programs supported by the local government consist in large scale projects. As a result, private companies feel excluded from these policies, they do not have the financial resources to take part to them.

Another reason is that the province-owned companies may have too much power for the emergence of local entrepreneurs.

2.3 Innovation...work in progress

As noticed earlier, the local government is deeply involved in the innovative transformation of the island through its owned companies. If we can assume that these companies were necessary to launch the bases of local industries, they may now hinder the development of a private sector. Indeed, local entrepreneurs suffer from unfair competition vis-à-vis province owned companies. The latter ones have a better access to banking facilities, and get benefits from their good relations with local governments. On the contrary, private owned companies face hardships to get bank loans and to get
bigger. This situation may slow down innovation progress in Hainan: as noted by Acs and Audretsch (1988), small private companies are the most innovative ones, and that is the reason they need more support from local authorities.

Another obstacle to the emergence of a strong innovative sector in Hainan is the potential conflict of interests between the local government and the province-owned companies. The latter ones have their own agenda, and may not approve the strengthening of private competitors in the innovation technologies market. Province’s interests may not match with province-owned companies’ own objectives.

The development of innovation in Hainan is also challenged by a policy that favors short term interests. Although both the central and local governments have tried to implement innovation policies in Hainan, we can notice that they seem now to give priority to tourism again.

Since 2011, the State Council has raised the transformation of Hainan into an international destination as main objective for the next ten years. This strategy undermines the previous goal of making Hainan a land of innovation. The sector of tourism will still grow in China because of the increasing middle class’ demand. However, there is a risk of overheating in Hainan. As we saw earlier, province owned companies have interests in several activities, including real estate. In Hainan, real estate is strongly connected with tourism, real estate development represents up to one third of the province’s GDP. Although the provincial authorities are aware of speculative risks, they have been very reluctant to cool off the real estate market, because of the predominance of province owned companies in this sector. Giving priority to tourism is a way to make artificially grow the province’s GDP. Developing innovative projects needs more time and more attention. This can only be reached on the long run; but officials may not be at their current position when obtained, and prefer quick results in order to get promoted.

3. Limits to the Hainan-Mediterranean Islands comparison

Is it fruitful to compare the situation in Hainan with the one in Mediterranean islands? We can draw some limits to the Hainan’s model. But, in spite of their differences, they share some common features. Although Hainan is one of the smallest and least populated Chinese provinces with only 33,920 km², it is still 4 times bigger than Crete, and with a population of 8.6 millions, it has eight times more inhabitants than the Balearic archipelago. One can note a difference of scale between these islands. However, if we compare these islands with their national country, we can note that both Mediterranean islands and Hainan are marginal. Per consequence, the development of these islands may not be considered as a key priority for their central government. These islands need to build up their development path on their specificity, and innovative industries may help them to do so.

Table 1: Comparison between Hainan and some Mediterranean islands on their weight in their respective national territory and population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Island</th>
<th>Island’s population compared to national population</th>
<th>Island’s area compared to national area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hainan</td>
<td>0.64%</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sardinia</td>
<td>2.75%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crete</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corsica</td>
<td>0.46%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balearic islands</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Eurostat and NBSC

However, we can also notice that Hainan and Mediterranean islands do not enjoy the same national economic context. Whereas Chinese growth rate reached 9.5% in 2011, most European Mediterranean countries suffered from very low growth rate, some even got negative growth rate (Greece: -6%). Some may state that it is obvious that in that situation, Mediterranean islands may not benefit from large scale development projects, but we can argue that the creation of new infrastructures, the implementation of special incentives for investors may be part of an ambitious reflation policy. The crisis in Europe must be considered as an opportunity for Mediterranean island to change their economic model from tourism dependency to innovative industries.

Another limit to the Hainan-Mediterranean comparison would be the special structure of China’s economy. China may be considered as a state in transition (Li, 2008). Its state-owned sector is still important compared to European countries. Nevertheless, we can notice that public sector is also quite powerful in Mediterranean islands with an important bureaucratic system (case of Sicily, Menighetti and Nicastro).
4. Conclusion

After analyzing the case of Hainan, we can list several conditions for the success of innovative policies that can be used in the Mediterranean islands. The first one regards infrastructures. In the case of Hainan, the building of transportation infrastructures was the prime objective of the central government. Once created, the infrastructures worked as an investment facilitator, it was indeed possible for companies to choose Hainan as their industrial bases: high transportation costs were not a problem anymore. So, we can argue that central government’s intervention is needed to launch large scale investment programs in infrastructures (Rondinelli, 1999). The role of local government is different, they can give the direction of the island’s development path. In the case of Hainan, they have worked as the initiators of innovative industries by making their province-owned companies invested in these strategic sectors. They have also advocated to Beijing the implementation of special policies that would firstly attract foreign investors, and secondly better fit their small territory. These innovative policies have been successful in attracting large national and foreign companies. However, the local innovative industries are still fragile because of the absence of supportive policies. Local companies suffer from hard competitions with state-owned companies and the innovative policies are not directly designed for their development. As a result, Hainan has still not broken its tourism dependency. The Hainan example shows us that local government should not entirely rely on the public sector to implement innovative policies. Although state-owned companies are much more present in China than in European states, we can notice that, in the case of Mediterranean islands, both central and local governments have a very active part in the business sphere through semi-private companies and strong administrations. After looking at the case of Hainan, we can argue that the state should not be too present in the economy in order not to prevent the emergence of a private sector that can support the innovative process. The comparative approach adopted in this study shows us that the question of development in peripheral areas is still managed with difficulties by central and local authorities. In the case of Hainan, these ones have invested a lot in innovative industries, but this has not led to a strong innovative sector. In transitional China, the tasks of local governments are still not well defined. We may argue that Mediterranean islands face a similar issue with unclear local governments’ tasks, and that governance is the key to their transformation from tourism dependent regions to innovative territories.

Bibliography


Trinomial Instrumentation: Romania’s Quest for International Legitimacy and Representativeness

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Abstract. The present interdisciplinary research attempt proposes, by appealing to the usage of a diachronic and hermeneutical grid, to highlight and to stance the conceptual-axiomatic instrumentation pertaining to the Romanian post-communist foreign policy, portraying, synthetically and thoroughly, the trinomial doctrine, consubstantial to the entire foreign policy strategy outlined at the governmental level. Within such a referential optics, we intend to punctually present, without claiming to be exhaustive, the trilateral format crystallized in the international relations spectrum, revealing the peremptory characteristics specific to the „openness to the world dictum”, the „concentric circles doctrine” and the „axis policy via Washington-London-Bucharest”. Synthetically, the trinomial instrumentation advocates for Romania’s legitimacy, representativeness, ubiquity in the external dimension, propelling it on the decisional arena of the international community. The novelty element that the paper proposes lies in the insertion of a distinct methodology based on a psycho-cognitive approach, having as a unit of analysis the sum of beliefs, perceptions, axiological and normative codes in shaping preferences, options and foreign policy decisions. Integrally, the paper is configured as a diachronic and radiographic incursion at the level of Romania’s external trajectory, revealing a distinguished conduct imprinted by the complexity and substance of a trinomial instrumentation.

Keywords: foreign policy, trinomial instrumentation, openness to the world dictum, concentric circles doctrine, Washington-London-Bucharest axis.

1. Introduction

The repudiation of the communist regime in its various degenerative and reprehensible stances permitted Romania’s rally to the democratic, state of law, economic market, and will of individual rights coordinates, generating visible political and structural mutations, both in the dimension of internal policy as well as in the international relations sphere. Romania’s irrevocable rupture from the obsolete socialist spectrum, materialized with regards to a set of axiomatic assumptions, based on the elimination of the prior threats and the consolidation of an era of stability, internal and international security, and ultimately, on achieving prosperity in all the sectors of domestic policy, by creating the optimal institutional-democratic framework in this respect. In the international relations register, post-communist Romania has reconfigured and reevaluated its foreign status, through a process of fruitful collaboration with all European states, taking into consideration democratic and modern principles, according to international regulations, eliminating, therefore, the ideological ballast imposed by the former regime. Although predominantly discontinuous, imprecise and oscillating in the communist era, the Romanian foreign policy, revived from the lethargy specific to the old regime’s ideology optics, has gained along with the post-communist transition, both increased organizational attributes and an optimized decisional capacity, the legitimate right to deliberate in the great issues, emerging to the post Cold War period, being conferred to it.

Within such an exponential optics, the present study, proposes, based on a punctual analytical approach, to highlight the progress registered by Romania in the foreign dimension, conferring a substantial attention to the springs and determinants that have justified Romania’s propensity towards its openness and emancipation on the international arena. In the first part of the paper, we dare, by appealing to the usage of a retrospective technique, a brief incursion at the level of Romania’s communist foreign policy orientation, focusing on its epic moment and on the main principles that have contributed to its glory. In the second section of the study, we intend, in an equidistant manner, to sketch Romania’s post-communist individualized profile, through the trinomial complementary foreign policy instrumentation: the axiomatic principle of the openness to the world, the concentric circles doctrine and the Washington-London-Bucharest axis. Integrally, the paper wishes to capture Romania’s specific and distinct conduct configured in the external dimension, indissolubly bound with the materialization of a set of cardinal and peremptory foreign policy formats and instruments.

2. Methodology

The conceptual and methodological base of the present paper is included in the context of the present achievements
gained in the scientific field of history, placing itself in „the register of immediate or recent historiography, a segment that comprises specific elements of historical criticism, analysis in terms of literary and narrative criticism, as well as components deriving from the psychohistory, psychoanalyses and anthropology relay”¹. Consequently, the inclusion of the current subject in the category of immediate history implies the presentation of those methods and instruments specific to this historical typology. We must specify from the very beginning the fact that such a research is not and cannot be built up on archival documents from objective reasons. The situation of diplomatic archives is the same. Nevertheless, this particular history genre, meets other advantages from the ones derived from the knowledge based on archives. As an alternative, our research is based on consulting a series of specialized books, to which, through an interpretative analysis, we have impartially attributed scientific hypothesis, essential to the comprehension of the debated theme. Secondly, by the historical comparative method, we examined studies and documentary materials, juxtaposing them, in order to reveal the validity of information. Thirdly, the examined issue required the adoption of a diachronic technique, taking into consideration the fact that the debated phenomenon is evolving, being important as it generates imminent effects and substantial results. Last but not least, we opted for the insertion of a distinct methodology based on a psycho-cognitive approach, having as a unit of analysis the sum of beliefs, perceptions, axiological and normative codes in shaping preferences, options and foreign policy decisions. Within such a referential optics, concepts specific to the constructivist current of international relations such as – „identity, image, role- find, in the present context –an unquestionable usefulness” (Cioculescu, 2010).

Finally, by making an appeal to the methodological support specific to the oral history, which is the structured interview, we expressly aimed at reconstituting, through oral history instruments, this complex subject from the statements of participants or eyewitnesses, in our case major political decision makers. The prohibitive aspect of archival documentation and the limited character of information pertaining to the periods of time, determined us to appeal to one of the most effective ways to restore an alternative in relation to the historical lawfulness, namely, by interviewing the actors directly involved in the events reported in the paper. Regarding the personalities surveyed we can nominate the two Former Presidents of Romania ( Ion Iliescu and Emil Constantinescu), as well as Ex Ministers of Foreign Affairs ( Adrian Năstase, Teodor Melecanu, Adrian Severin). As a consequence, by interviewing important personalities of Romanian politics, we asked for answers to a set of pre-established questions, with the purpose of gathering necessary information for the aimed problems, investigations that we subsequently interpreted, integrating them in the foundation of the paper. As for the bibliography, it is mainly underlain on consultation of speciality literature, as well as studies and articles, memoirs, documents and media sources.

3. Romania’s communist foreign policy perspective

The consequences of the fatidic year 1948, announced for Romania the preliminaries of a painful and tragic tripartite process (communization, sovietization and satelitization), meticulously conducted by Kremlin’s artisans, and implicitly, by the Soviet Union. Therefore, Romania suffered inexorable transformations, resulting in:

a) the elimination of any alternative traditional political sources and their replacement with the single party rule, the control of the church and the cultural consciousness and their replacement with the socialist realism doctrine, the ideologization of the educational system and the destruction of the political and intellectual elites (the communization process);

b) the socialist transformation of the Romanian economy through nationalization, centralization and industrialization (the sovietization process);

c) the transgression of Romania’s foreign policy on Moscow’s gravitational orbit (the satelitization process)” (Abraham, 2006).

The determinant logic was based on a simple rational calculus: Romania pertained to the Soviet’s Union camp, therefore, „the occupier decided what to do with the occupied country” (Malia & Giurescu, 2011). In other words, Romania’s general policy, was becoming, in an evident manner, a soviet-inspired one. By subsuming to the hegemonic dialectics, the Romanian external conduct was catalogued as vassal, subdued and obedient, respecting the directives that the state and party leadership had promoted. Therefore, in the context of the ubiquity of troops and soviet counselors in all central institutions, the defining attribute of Romania’s foreign policy has rather been the lack of coherence,

¹ The recent or immediate history, represents the terminal part of contemporary history, including both the current one as well as the one that occured 30 years ago. For further details regarding this topic, can be consulted: Jean -Francois Soulet, Immediate History, Bucharest, Corint, 2010.
pragmatism and relevance in promoting the national interest. ,, Systematically monitored and controlled by the soviet leadership in 1945-1952” (Hărău, 2007), the Romanian foreign policy, visibly and deliberately atrophied, has been obliged to return, at the external reports level, to the requirements that Moscow and its leaders had ruled. Qualified as prevailingly hesitant and exploring, the Romanian foreign policy, in the absence of a mobilizing decision-making capacity, has been placed for a short period of time, in the sphere of anonymity.

Indeed short, this obsolete episode ended, because ,,after the withdrawal of soviet troops from Romania in 1958, a step of gradual detachment from the foreign line had followed, along with imprinting an autonomy line, limited to the foreign Romanian policy, further to the one drawn by the Declaration of April 1964“ (Pop, 2010 ), prefiguring timid and incipient attempts to counteract and bar the soviet control, through a policy of intensifying the contacts with multiple countries, both from the capitalist side and from the communist camp. An epic interlude in the history of communist Romanian diplomacy, relevant through its emancipation and rebellion component as opposed to Moscow, and materialized ,,through the amplitude and diversity of the contacts established with states such as Israel, the German Federal Republic and China, through high level visits, through the vehement opposition inside the Mutual Economic Aid Council and the Warsaw Treaty, and last but not least, through acquiring western technology in detriment of the soviet one, the autonomy episode has solemnly peaked at the same time as the damning by Romania, the invasion of the soviet troops in Czechoslovakia in 1968” (Boia, 2001). Romania’s external revival within the socialist sphere cannot be dissociated from a set of subsidiary actions, but extremely relevant, worth of being mentioned: ,,the official visit in Romania of the Former President of France, Charles De Gaulle in may 1968, as well as the official visit of the Former U.S. President Richard Nixon in august 1969 and the maintenance of diplomatic relations with Chile after 1973” (Hărău, 2007).

The project through which Romania gained this independent foreign policy position was based on a philosophy that assumed the necessity to obtain a greater freedom of action and movement within the communist block, taking into account the favorable circumstances crystallized in the international system. During the 60’s, Romania subsequently, advocated and pleaded for an autonomy line with regards to its foreign dimension, having as a unity of action a set of peremptory principles (instruments):
1). Realism : rough, tough, no fiction, myth and illusions.
2). Caution and skepticism : with regards to others (all, starting with the great powers).
3). Prodigious organisms : Romania’s imperious duty to assert, to imprint a singular cadence on the international scene, to seek for friends, partners and pleaders.
4). Small organisms : if this organisms don’t exist, then create them!
5). Good neighborhood policy: urgent practice without reserves. You don’t invent the neighbors!
6). Assert on the civilization orbit: form your reserve of creative heads!
7). Conciliation: implies only intelligence and patience; it’s a role created for the small ones.
8). Think and act on a long term, the present has already past, tomorrow matters little. What will you do in this decade and in the next one?
9).If there is peace, than you are assured. The war is a cataclysm, it’s hell!
10).The capital sin in politics is the unjustified pride, the arrogance’ ( Mali a & Giurescu, 2011).

This decalogue of basic precepts has undoubtedly contributed to the formulation and conceptualization of a coherent, dynamic and flexible Romanian foreign policy. Romania’s external rebirth decade (1962-1972), portrayed by the consistency, complexity and the substance of actions initiated in the foreign plan, resided in the subtlety of a set of strategic constructs and schemes with postulate value in the external dimension. Recorded in Romania’s communist historiography agenda, the openness interlude cannot be dissociated from the conceptual matrix, perceived as the illustrative and determinantive vein responsible for Romania’s particular and distinct trajectory abroad. Although it belonged to an intransigent security system, Romania made considerable efforts for its external revival and individualization by appealing to a set of axiomatic guiding formulas, formulas which propelled and accelerated a pathway crowned with success for Romania’s image and identity reflected in the international relations spectrum.

Spectacular and meritorious in its external dimension, the independence part, promoted by the Romanian leadership, has abruptly ceased in the ‘80s, when, on the foundation of officiating visits to the Asian countries, materialized by personalizing the regime, by profiling economic and political autarchy, the external Romanian policy has regained the attributes of international coldness “Iliescu & Tismaneanu, 2004), indubitably marking the debut of involution and regress registered externally by the Romanian diplomacy. The paradigm of isolation has been insistently conserved until the moment of the communist regime’s implosion, but along with the victory of the Romanian Revolution over communism, Romania’s international trajectory had been reconfigured, thus legitimizing a vertiginous transition from the logic of reclusion to the opening dialectic. Finally, we recall the fact that Romania’s external singularity was possible due to
magisterially foreign artifices, perceived as veridical programmatic coordinates with concrete and visible implications in the international dimension. Romania’s moment of openness in the international relations sphere constituted a precedent in the communist era, marking, undoubtedly, a first initiative of external emancipation, representativeness and legitimacy based on a set of fundamental principles that still preserve their irrefutable authenticity, uniqueness and value.

4. Romania’s post-communist foreign orientation: legitimacy and representativeness

Romania’s admission as full member within the Euro-Atlantic Community of democratic values and principles as well as the recognition of its distinct stateliness in the repertoire of international activities, involved a diachronic and gradual process that began along with the dissolution of the communist structures and the coagulation of the new post-communist political entities, and ended in 2007. At a first appearance, we are tempted to believe the fact that Romania’s present conduit profiled in the international relations sphere, circumscribes to a very simplistic algorithm: the renowned victories recorded on the external scale are the main result of the manner in which Romania’s foreign policy was projected in its distinct stages: „the meetings with the foreign counterparts, the signing of agreements and treaties, as well as a speech carried out by individuals who have or claim to have a capacity of expertise” (Mooc & Cioculescu, 2010). However, at a detailed insight and on the basis of a hermeneutical grid, it can be observed the fact that Romania’s ascendant trajectory in the foreign dimension was materialized through a corroborated set of principles, norms, concepts and instruments that facilitated the formulation of the decisional act, and subsequently, its implementation in practice. In essence, each prior decision, initiative or action of foreign policy assumed by post-communist Romania, bears the label of a conceptual architecture based on three cardinal pillars: the openness to the world dictum, the concentric circles doctrine and the Washington-London-Bucharest axis, suggestively entitled trinomial instrumentation.

4.1. The Openness to the World Dictum

Stipulated in the first frame document issued by the new political leadership from Bucharest, the openness to the world dictum, announced the abandonment of the dogmatically and extremely ideologically praxis tributary to the communist judiciousness and the initiation of a radical process of change towards Romania’s international orientation „by intensifying the collaboration with traditional partners, in relation to mutual respect, apprehension, human rights and according to the norms of international law” (Iliescu, 1996). In addition, the foreign policy commandments tributary to this instrument, stated the defining desire to „express the democratization process of the Romanian society, ensuring the connection of Romania to the new trends emerging in Europe and around the world, with the intent to consolidate new relations among states and to directly participate to the international forum debates, starting with the fundamental interests of the country” (International Journal, 1990). Briefly, a multitude of daring goals rallied to a „policy conceived as a complete circle, in which there are no major holes left” (Celac, 1996). In other words, a policy of high aspirations, aligned to all azimuths, „springing from a deep understanding of the fundamental interests of the Romanian society, where the traditional continuity lines interwine with the imperatives of the historical moment” (Calafeteanu, 2003). Under the auspices of the openness to the world, the Romanian foreign policy subsumed to a pragmatic approach scoured on unshakable axioms: „cooperation, apprehension and mutual respect, the adherence to the norms and regulations of international law, principles adopted through the measures taken for the elimination of some previous decisions that conferred Romania a pronounced opacity in its external relations” (Iliescu, 1996). Concrete, among the first foreign policy actions, enrolled the ones that consecrated, Romania’s detachment from the two structures pertaining to the Cold War period, the Mutual Economic Aid Council and the Warsaw Treaty, and Romania’s option for the association to the European structures, primarily to the Council of Europe (the largest structure, opened towards all the European states), to the Western European Union and assuredly to the European Union and to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization”(Iliescu, 2011). Simultaneously, concerted efforts were made in order to normalize and recalibrate the relations with the neighbors, paying considerable attention to the manner in which the relation with the Great Eastern Neighbor was reconfigured and reshaped. On the foreign policy agenda, initiatives for the maintenance and support of regional structures also rallied, based on the diversity of complementary criteria, capable of creating a community of interests and a network of cooperation, supporting in an efficient manner, the peace and security in that part of the European continent. A recurrent and predilection theme that has monopolized the Romanian diplomacy, has been, the one that involved the „construction of Romania’s own security architecture” (Dinu, 2009). The project of configuring a dynamic, flexible and active security armature, comprised the following directions, performed on several levels:

- The General-European level (by the further development and consolidation of the security component of OSCE’S process, and the reiteration of the firm commitment to respect the 10 leading principles of Helsinki’s Act, among which
stood the obligation not to resort to force or to threaten with force in international relations and the adoption of new measures in order to increase mutual trust and to strengthen the security on the continent.

- The Sub-Regional level (by promoting active cooperation programs with Romania’s proximity states, such as:
  1). creating a Balkan Forum, where the six states of the region, Romania, Albany, Bulgaria, Greece, Yugoslavia and Turkey, would act for a broader cooperation among them, for increasing the mutual trust and for promoting the human rights in the Balkan Area in accordance with Helsinki’s Final Act and the other OSCE documents;
  2). consolidating a Black Sea economic cooperation aiming at the realization of several extensive cooperation programs in various fields between the four riparian states (Romania, Bulgaria, Turkey, and the Soviet Union);
  3). formulating and realizing several complex cooperation programs between the Danube countries.

- The Bilateral level (by signing new treaties of friendship and collaboration with all the neighboring countries, as well as with other states from Europe or from other continents.
- The National level (by promoting a modern and efficient economy, by achieving a unity of action that involves all the Romanian people from home and abroad in promoting the national interests, and by ensuring a new and effective defense capacity).

- The Global level (by the dynamic promotion of the international rights and lawfulness within the United Nations Organization and within other universal forums, by pleading for resorting to force and threat of force, reducing the armed forces, creating the proper mechanism to settle all the disputes between states by peaceful means only and within the UN peacekeeping operations” (Nästase, 2007). Concisely, under the openness to the world dictum, were crystallized the preliminary steps towards Romania’s association to the Euro-Atlantic constellation, as well as the outlining of a foreign profile that eradicated the ideology and discarded from the remanences specific to the former regime. According to the statements of Ion Iliescu, Former President of Romania in that period, the openness to the world dictum, „found its motivation and causal springs in an initiative of breaking the corset of interstate reports, thus, marking the restart of relations on the basis of principles of equality and mutual respect” (interview with Iliescu, 2011). In addition, in Teodor Melecanu’s optics, Former Minister of Romania between 1992-1996, the openness to the world principle, constituted „a clear and categorical signal, a veridical independence statement in the foreign policy matter, that pointed out the fact that Romania didn’t intend to stay imprisoned in a certain structure, namely the Eastern structure, the structure of the socialist countries, and implicitly, of the socialist camp” (interview with Melecanu, 2011). Secondly, we shall not neglect the testimony made by Adrian Nästase, Former Minister of Foreign Affairs, between 1991-1992, who considered that under the appanage of the openness to the world, resided „the materialization of a real openness with the Western world, the normalization of relations with the neighboring countries and the expanding of relations with the Arabic states” (interview with Nästase, 2011). Synthetically, the openness to the world dictum, has drawn the cardinal foreign policy lines on the basis of a poli-vectorial register, thus legitimizing a revitalized Romania in its international relation dimension. In conclusion, the openness to the world instrument, specific to the 90-96 period, represented for Romania the filigree of its progressive elan in the foreign spectrum, accelerating its connection to the Euro-Atlantic Community and facilitating its inclusion among the global decisional entities.

4.2. The Concentric Circles Doctrine

The strategic reasoning that justified the construction of the concentric circles doctrine was a very easy one: it emphasized Romania’s European identity, its Euro-Atlantic vocation and its proximity to the Balkans. Assuredly, Romania advanced on the same cardinal trajectory indicated by the openness to the world principle, but this distinct instrument, envisioned, the perspective of sketching a tripart external profile (regional, continental, global). Therefore, among the primordial foreign policy objectives that have been pursued under the aegis of the concentric circles doctrine, we can cite: 1). The immediate and strategic objective for Romania to be invited to join the North-Atlantic Treaty Organisation and to participate as soon as possible to the negotiation process in order to adhere to the European Union, on the basis of an appropriate approach to bilateral relations with Nato and EU organisms, and on the basis of resetting the bilateral relations with the member states of Europe, United States and Canada; 2). The complementary objective to create a cooperation, solidarity and cordiality network in Romania’s close proximity, through normalizing the relations with Hungary, concluding the Basic Treaty with Ukraine and developing good vecinity and friendship treaties with the Central European states, the South-Eastern states and the Eastern states, by involving the development of economic cooperation and political dialogue with the Russian Federation and with the states from the Black and Caspian Sea Region; 3). The objective of initiating substantial relations with Japan and India, as well as enhancing cooperation with the Latin American states, as important partners for the United States of America and for the European Union; 4). The objective of increasing Romania’s role, importance, and visibility within the following international organizations: OSCE, United Nations
Organization, The Council of Europe” (Constantinescu, 2002). The circles doctrine portrayed, in the most eloquent manner, Romania’s unique position in the international relations spectrum, based on a concentric cooperation and cordial reports network both with Western states, as well as with close and distant neighbors, conferring a broad, substantial and unprecedented framework for the development of political, economic, cultural cooperation relations for the benefit of its own citizens and of general development. According to the statements made by Adrian Severin, Former Minister of Foreign Affairs of that period (1996-1997), “the concentric circles philosophy, assumed firstly, a stable relation with the neighbors as a basis for the consolidation of a regional leading position for Romania, secondly, it meant, a strategic partnership with the emergent powers of the continental zone, preeminently, with Germany and Italy, based on which, Romania acquired the quality of a continental protagonist, and thirdly, it assumed, the establishment of a privileged relation with the United States of America, The Russian Federation and China, after which, Romania acquired world leading valences” (interview with Adrian Severin, 2012). It had to be resolved firstly, the relation with the first circle for it to provide a base in order to enter in relation to the second cicle, permitting, subsequently, the adherence to the third circle, the circle of the world leading actors. In the opinion of Emil Constantinescu, Former President of that period, “the conceptual framework of the concentric circles doctrine colligated the defining components of Romania’s foreign policy” (interview with Constantinescu, 2011), determining for Romania the consolidation of an Euro-Atlantic status and contributing to an increased capital of image on a regional, continental and global level.

4.3. The Washington-London-Bucharest Axis

Postulating the necessity of representativeness in the spectrum of international relations, the political leadership represented by president Traian Băsescu announced at the beginning of his mandate (2005) the conversion of foreign policy parameters, propelling Romania on the scene of the most important actors of the international community: The United States of America and Great Britain. Romania’s foreign policy orientation towards Washington-London-Bucharest, covered both “maintaining and strengthening the strategic partnership with the United States of America, perceived as a fundamental warrant for the national security, as well as intensifying the steps to affiliate Romania with the European Union” (Andrei, 2005). „Circumscribed to a set of unchangeable prerequisites defined by the complementary Atlantic and European argument” (Ungureanu, 2008, ), the axis policy intended to give credibility to Romania’s image by conferring a dynamic, flexible and active profile on the international arena. By parity of reasoning, the construction of the axis „stancies the promotion of a Euro-Atlantic Romania, consequent, active and capable of generating security in the entire regional area” (Toboaru, 2008). It undoubtedly cultivates a type of preferential relation that Romania encouraged with the two states indicated by their capitals. Specific to the presidential administration, the aspect of the axis subsumed both new initiatives and processes, as well as older ongoing ones, consequences of the profound geopolitical, strategic and regional changes profiled post December 89’. Resonating with the reality of geopolitical changes in which Romania was engaged at that time, primarily as a full member in the North Atlantic Treaty and secondly as a future one within the European Union, the axis strategy intended to represent, beyond the current rhetoric, a viable instrument capable of mobilizing pragmatic and concrete actions in the spectrum of international relations. Qualified in the specialized semantics and terminology as a genuine diplomatic aplomb, the axis policy generated a precedent in Romania’s foreign policy dimension, precisely because, the new orientation had a clear, determined and pragmatic objective, via Washington-London-Bucharest. Although it was designed as an unequivocal political orientation, the axis project arose numerous comments and analysis regarding the phrase used, the more so as the term appointed the privilege of totalitarian regimes, indicating a bellicose position. Moreover, the obvious pre-eminence attached to the two partners, accredited the idea of a one-dimensional and unidirectional foreign policy calculation detrimental to Romania, generating isolation on the international relations arena. Contrary to its deficiency, the axis strategy is worth consecrated for it legitimates a particular way to represent Romania on the international scene, conferring an additional contribution of prestige, profile and visibility to Romania, both at a national and regional level. Among the zero foreign policy goals and priorities subsumed to the axis policy we can cite: „1). The consolidation of Romania’s position both in the collective structures that it pertained to, as well as in those of which would take part, and Romania’s revaluation of bilateral relations with various states which presented interest in terms of Romanian foreign policy; 2) Completing the integration process in the European Union with all the requirements that assumed its finalisation; 3) Active participation in the consolidation of international security by promoting democracy, the fight against international terrorism, by countering the proliferation of mass destruction weapons; 4). Achieving regional security and stability in a reconfigured paradigm; 5). Acting as a dynamic vector for the security and the prosperity in the Black Sea Region”(Romania’s National Security Strategy, 2006). Definitively, the axis policy, transposed in practice, older and newer foreign policy initiatives, like, strenghtening the special relation with The United States of America and Great Britain, actively participating in the
formulation and implementation of Nato’s policies and strategies, consolidating new convergent bridges with the neighbors and not only, and eventually, galvanizing the adherence process to the European Union.

5. Conclusions

The renowned victories taken by Romania in the international relations, materialized through acquiring full membership both in the North Atlantic Treaty Alliance as well as in the European Union, are undeniable. Romania made assiduous and considerable efforts in order to gain this privileged position on the basis of an evolutionary and gradual process, often syncopated, but in no case inexpugnable. However, the foreign peremptory acquisitions would not have been possible without the explicit contribution of a set of masterfully principles and instruments conceptualized in Romania’s diplomatic laboratory. Suggestively entitled, trinomial instrumentation, this conceptual dialectic, channeled the main initiatives and activities undertaken in the international arena. The brilliant tripartite construction (the openness to the world dictum, the concentric circles doctrine and the Washington-London-Bucharest axis), developed by the Romanian policy makers, aimed, essentially the same objective: legitimacy, credibility, representativeness on the external scale. Far from representing a common rhetorical tool, the trinomial architecture, acted in favor of increasing Romania’s influence on the international relations dimension. Elaborated at the level of Romania’s policy makers psycho-cognitive mechanisms, the trinomial instrumentation, was based on a set of norms and beliefs considered rightfully and beneficial: the belief in the moral and material superiority of the West, in the democratic preeminence, and in the valorization of the historic chance to join as soon as possible the Euro-Atlantic Community. Therefore, the conceptualization of this cardinal foreign policy instrument was legitimated through a set of pre-existing ideas, principles and norms, that shape the reality of the decisional factors. Definitively, the trinomial instrumentation, is worth consecrated in the contemporary pages, as a conceptual topos, where the masterfully foreign policy actions, initiatives and demarches permitted Romania’s anchoring on the western democracies orbit, conferring it a surplus of prestige and visibility in the external dimension.

References

International Journal, 1991
Interview with Ion Iliescu, Former President of Romania between 1991-1992, taken at 12 May 2011
Interview with Adrian Năstase, Former President of Romania between 1991-1992, taken at 12 May 2011
Interview with Adrian Severin, Former Minister of Foreign Affairs between 1996-1997, taken at 16 March 2012
Culture and Media In Wartime and Post-War Period

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Department of Tourism and Communication studies
University of Zadar, Croatia

Abstract: At the very beginning of the democratization of post-communist societies and European Integration, Republic of Croatia has encountered a number of obstacles. The hardest period it went through was during the Homeland War. Culture represents an important part of human life, which is especially expressed in extraordinary situations as war and post-war periods. Promoting cultural life during and after the wartime is extremely valuable, especially through the media, which has an increasingly strong influence. The aim of this paper is to understand the role of newspaper in the context of culture in wartime and post-war years and widening the knowledge about the relationship between the newspaper and culture. The paper is based on articles about culture published in Zadar newspapers in the period from 1990 to 1996, collected with the reference to the programme of the Cultural Policy of the Republic of Croatia which, after adaptation to the newspaper corpus, includes: Literature and Publishing, Visual Art, Music, Performing Arts, Film, Media, Cultural Heritage – monuments, archives, libraries and museums. The result of the research were obtained by the analysis of 487 issues of newspapers and 2400 articles. The research consisted of qualitative and quantitative text analysis. The obtained data were processed in the author's application ZD-newspaper explorer, developed by using the database management program Microsoft Access.

Keywords: Newspapers, Culture, War, Cultural policy, Content analysis

Introduction

On the very beginning of the period of democratization of postcomunist societies and European integrations, the Republic of Croatia faced a number of obstacles. Multiparty elections were held only a year and a half after the fall of the Berlin Wall and for the first time Croatian political emigrates took part as well. Hrvatska demokratska zajednica (Croatian Democratic Party) was victorious and has promised to bring economic upsurge and to fight for national independence. The process of gaining independence did not go as planned. Homeland war has brought heavy times for Croatians. A number of people has fallen victim or was missing and the cultural and historical heritage was being destroyed.

Zadar is the fifth biggest city in the Republic of Croatia, but considering the significance of its newspapers and its culture and history, it plays a major role. The first newspapers in Croatian called Kraljski Dalmatin were founded in Zadar in 1806. In the 19th century in Zadar over sixty papers in Croatian language have been coming out, of which it is very important to mention Narodni list that still exists in Zadar, established in 1962 under the title Il Nazionale. In a significant number, the city of Zadar has continued its tradition of media even during the tumultuous 1990s of the 20th century. At that time, there were four weekly, one monthly and one daily newspaper coming out in Zadar, four bureaus of national newspapers, local television, national television studio, national radio station, two local radio stations and one youth radio. The abovementioned indicates that the city of Zadar has maintained its rich media tradition. The 1990s brought to Croatia, including the city of Zadar, hard days of Homeland War, in which it has suffered the significant damage.

Culture represents an important segment of human life, which is especially visible in exceptional situations, such as war or post-war periods. Cultural life in war times increases morale and is very important for the spiritual life of the citizens. During war and after it promoting cultural life is extremely important, especially through media whose influence increases. In the modern society all domains of human activities are being more and more assessed by the way they are presented and interpreted in the media. Mass media affects both the level of culture increase and education of the population, because it provides receiving and transmitting of knowledge and information, not only the issues of political and economic life, but also from other areas of human activity, such as culture, art, science, etc. Besides the informative texts about culture, the newspaper often publish problem texts, articles that have a literary features, such as critics, reviews and views, comments and polemics, novels and stories, cliffhangers etc. Activity in the area of culture of the Republic of Croatia is regulated by Cultural Policy of the Republic of Croatia - national report and is supplemented by

Methodology

The purpose of the paper is to research the relationship between culture and local newspaper in Zadar during the war and after it. Questions the research aims to address are the extent of reporting in the domain of culture, which subjects newspapers wrote about and what was the journalistic attitude towards issues in culture. With regards to history of culture and media in the city of Zadar we can assume that the local newspapers took active part in the cultural life of the city during the war and after it, that their work helped affirm cultural activities and that they took active part in solving the problems in the domain of culture and cultural activities.

Research is based on articles in the domain of culture published in Zadar's newspapers *Narodni list*, *Zadarski List* and *Fokus* published in Zadar from 1990 until 1996, that is, during the first seven years of democratic changes in the Republic of Croatia. This specific period was selected so that comparison could be made between the era before the war, during it and after the war. A total of 487 issues of newspapers were inspected with an overall of 2400 newspaper articles. The criteria for the selection of articles related to culture according to which they were collected and classified is based on the document *Cultural policy of Republic of Croatia*, according to which culture and cultural activities include: Dramatic Arts, Visual arts, Film, Media, Cultural heritage, Literature and publishing, Music and Performing arts. Methodology of the research was based on quantitative and qualitative analysis. The whole of corpus was subjected to quantitative analysis, whereas qualitative analysis was applied to a selected number of articles. In each research category and newspapers one article was chosen from the period before the war, during it and after the war, all the while maintaining the criteria of topicality of the event and the subject in the period researched, as well as the extent in which the journalist’s opinion of the topical event and issues is expressed.

The pre-war period means the period of the beginning of the research to 17th August 1990, so-called Log Revolution, The wartime period means the period up to the military-police operation Storm, carried out from 4 to 7 August 1995 in which the areas of northern Dalmatia, southern and eastern Lika, Kordun and Banovina were liberated, and the post-war period is until the end of the research period in 1996. Given that this was a large scale of data, the computer assistance was required in data processing. Data from the articles was logged, selected, classified and analysed with the aid of the computer software called *ZD-Istraživač novina* developed for the purpose of data research necessary for PhD thesis titled *Zadar's Newspapers and the Cultural Life of Zadar from 1990 to 2000*.

Results of reseach

**Figure No. 1** The frequency of articles in Zadar newspapers from 1990 to 1996

On the example of figure No.1 there is presented a quantitative review of articles from the initial, pre-war 1990 until the end of 1996. During the worst days of the war, the number of articles in the field of culture was reduced, but far from being no articles. Subsiding of the war reflected in the number of articles from the field of culture. The cultural life was gradually waking up in the town of Zadar, which reflected on the interest of media for this area of human activity.

In 1990 on the pages of local newspapers were published 230 articles from the research corpus. From 1991 until the end of 1994 Narodni list was coming out in Zadar, so that the culture research in the time of war referred only to Narodni list, and a post-war period included the other newspapers that are the subject of this study, Zadarski list and Fokus. In 1991 the number of articles reduced for 40.85% in regard to the previous year. The following year, wartime events affected the decrease in the number of articles for additional 15.44% in regard to the previous 1991. Decrease of the number of articles in this period should be viewed in the context of socio-political events. Specifically, it was the period of the beginning of democratic society creation in this region. Striking was the struggle for existence, surviving in the conditions without electricity and water, living in shelters. Croatian Homeland War was taking the victims, people were living in fear for their lives and the lives of their loved ones. Due to difficult living conditions, the mentioned decrease in the number of articles from the culture should not be considered as drastic, but rather as an indication of the existence of cultural life in those difficult years of Homeland War in the Republic of Croatia. In 1993, despite the military action Maslenica, there were still intensive attacks on Zadar and its surrounding area. The results of quantitative analysis of the content from 1993 showed an increase in the number of articles which maintained until the end of the research period.

**Topics from the field of culture on the pages of local newspapers**

**Table No. 1** Topics of articles in *Cultural Heritage* category

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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>36,81</td>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>26,99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>7,67</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional culture</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>63</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>100,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the period from 1990 to 1996, in *Cultural Heritage* category, local newspapers in Zadar published 326 articles. The number of articles during the war, compared to other years and categories, is significant. Journalists at the time were mostly writing about the destruction of the monumental core of Zadar and its protection. This is confirmed by the largest number of topics of architectural art, 36.81% in the total sum compared to the total number of articles in this category.

**Table No. 2** Topics of articles in *Music and Musical and Performing Arts*

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ballet-dance Art-performances</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Classical music - artists</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4,02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>23,15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classical music - events</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6,59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

145
In the period from 1990 to 1996 in *Music and musical performing arts* category, there were published a total of 622 articles. The results of quantitative analysis showed only one manifestation of popular music in 1991, when the war activities began. As for the manifestation of classical music the situation is different. During the war, in contrast to the lack of concerts and events in the field of popular music, concerts and events in the field of classical music continued, although in a reduced number. Performances of ballet-dance arts during the war, recorded the increase, as a result of activities of Zadar dance ensemble.

Table No. 3 Topics of articles in *Dramatic Arts* category

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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7,56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puppet shows</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>31,62</td>
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<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>100,00</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

In *Dramatic Arts* category, local newspapers in Zadar published 291 articles. In wartime, there was recorded a slight decrease in the number of articles that had already increased in 1993, although there were still intensive attacks on Zadar. The data about nine articles on the puppet theater and puppet shows, testifies about the involvement of Zadar puppeteers during the war. Most of the articles dealt with drama performances and events, and puppet shows, which tells us that in Zadar, in terms of dramatic art, were activities and events in the war and post-war period, and that newspapers were interested in this kind of events.

Table No. 4 Topics of articles in *Literature and Publishing* category

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<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>29,25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the period from 1990 to 1996 in the category of *Literature and Publishing*, local newspapers in Zadar published 506 articles. The greatest number of topics in this category referred to journalism, that are publications and books presentations. About the publishing in Zadar during wartime and post-war time, testifies the number of articles in professional and scientific books, and professional books magazines.

**Table No. 5**  Topics of articles in *Visual Arts* category

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<td>20</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>68</td>
<td>14.66</td>
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<td>Exhibition processing of textiles</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
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</table>

In *Visual Arts* category, local newspapers in Zadar published 464 articles. The largest number of events in this category was related to the exhibitions of paintings and photography, while the smallest number of articles was related to the religious arts exhibition.
**Table No. 6** Topics of articles in *Film* category

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>28</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

There was not being written about film during wartime because the only cinema in the city did not work, and the column that was intended to represent domestic and foreign film creations, appeared only in late post-war period.

**Table No. 7** Topics of articles in *Media* category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>163</td>
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</table>

In *Media* category, local newspapers in Zadar published 163 articles. It was mostly written about television, then newspapers and radio. Specifically, at the beginning of the 1990s, in Zadar began the establishment of private radio stations, amateur radio stations. There was discussed about the possibilities of establishing of the local TV stations and the new newspapers. Although at that time there was a great ferment in the field of journalism at the national level, for example, changes in media legislation, about journalism in general, there was not recorded a significant number of articles. Articles on that topic were related to specific cases, for example the problems in the area of Zadar media.

**Newspaper and Cultural life in Zadar 1990-1996**

In terms of visual arts, one of the events which was given the considerable media attention by Zadar newspapers in the first half of 1990, was the exhibition *The Glow of Zadar Treasury* which was set up in Zagreb Museum space on Jesuit Square. The exhibition presented a selection of the most valuable objects of Permanent Exhibition of Sacral Arts of the treasury of the St. Mary Benedictine monastery, the treasury of the Archdiocese of Zadar and paintings, sculptures and architecture works from the fifth to the eighteenth century. Newspapers put into their texts both the media importance of the exhibitions and the cultural cooperation of Zadar and Zagreb. In wartime, visual arts scene of Zadar was poor because of a variety of reasons; the war, artists fleeing the city of Zadar, the ban of exposure of original exhibits and other reasons. A significant place on the newspapers pages had the photography artists of Zadar, who have contributed to raising awareness of the war issues by their engagement. As an example of their work can be mentioned the photo exhibition titled "Zadar in the war," which presented the part of shocking war photos. By the subsiding of the war

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activities, the artistic life in Zadar began to awaken. Newspapers paid special attention to manifestations of visual arts and applied visual arts "Man and the Sea" and "Blue Salon". About the organizational and program issues might be read in the article "From the next year Biennial again." In the respect of visual arts, in the post-war period, Zadarski list also stressed the importance of the photography artists of Zadar.

Narodni list regularly monitored and supported the amateur theatre of Zadar, which was extremely rich and quality in the 1990s. The value of Zadar amateur theatre group "Tokar" which in 1990 recorded seven years of intensive and continuous work, was recognized. Article titled "Tokarian theatrical harmony" describes the nine young "enthusiasts, designers - avant-garde and indigeneous theatrical performances." In terms of theatrical art during the war, Zadar newspapers paid most of their attention to the issues of the establishment of Zadar theatre ensemble and Zadar puppet theatre. Involvement of the Zadar puppeteers was significant, particularly in regard to promotion of Zadar and humanitarian work. In this context can be singled out an article about the theatre in Zadar in which the author comments on the actual status and engagement of Zadar theatre artists. She pointed out that the theatres still exist despite the fact that it is in "a currently dormant culture of the city, highly marginalized." In addition to the engagement of the Croatian theatre, that was facing with financial and other problems, there was emphasized the value of the Zadar puppet theatre, that held their rehearsals for the upcoming performances in the shelters. In the post-war period, Narodni list maintained to pay special attention to the activities of the Zadar puppeteers, reporting about their domestic and international activities. The Zadar Summer of Theatre festival got into the focus of its attention. In the context of the mentioned event, Zadarski list was regularly publishing reports and reviews on performed plays, and has also published an extensive interview with the artistic director of the event.

In the nineties, a cultural event Music Evenings in St. Donat celebrated the thirtieth anniversary of the cherishing of medieval, Renaissance and early Baroque music in Zadar. Narodni list on its pages was reporting in detail about all the preparations and the event course, highlighting the value and importance of "Musical Evenings in St. Donat" in domestic and international context. Even during the war, Musical Evenings in St. Donat made their contribution to the cultural life of the city of Zadar. Musical evenings did not follow the concept of other war-affected cities, which dispersed the events in other cities, but even in 1993, with two months delay, continued to maintain the continuity of event, even in a reduced program content. Narodni list devoted considerable reporting space to reporting and commenting on the organizational and program performance. In the post-war period, the interest of journalists for "Musical Evenings in St. Donat" continued. Narodni list and Zadarski list have regularly reported and made their judgments about performed concerts.

In Narodni list there was not being written a lot about film culture in the pre-war research period. Topics that were reserved for film reviews began with their publication in later post-war period. Zadarski list in 1996 was regularly publishing the film critics. The focus is continuously published articles on film in pre-war period.

The topic which was in the pre-war period, in terms of media actual, is the development of journalism in the spirit of democratic thought and action. Concerning "Journalism at a Crossroads," there was written about the changing of conditions of work, but also about the content of the public bulletin. Specifically, the task that was actual at that time, was the founder of the public bulletin, but even more important question of the political profile. In war-time, actual topics regarding the media were related to issues of the establishing of local media, freedom of information, media legislation and the questions of ownership. In 1994 Narodni list was privatized and turned a new page of its work in Zadar.
Storm operation in August 1995 the actual topics that journalists have shown their interest for, were informing the media and the problem of obtaining concessions for television and radio operations.22

In 1990 the Zadar journalists often published interviews with Zadar writers and literary theorists. In this context, one can single out an interview with a writer Ivan Aralica, the winner of numerous awards for his literary work, whose books are translated into a number of foreign languages, many of which have experienced numerous of its editions.23 Due to the content of Zadar newspapers, there could be confirmed the hypothesis that the wartime is an inspiration for creative work in the field of literature. *Narodni list* continuously was publishing numerous war motivated poetry and prose. In this context can be singled out the article "Zadar war blues", war poetry in Zadar, by the author Tomislav Marjan Bilosnić, who founded the Independent cultural platoon, with the aim of preservation of the cultural life of the city of Zadar.24 Even in the post-war period, *Narodni list* was publishing a number of interviews. With regard to the criteria, there can be singled out the interview with Tihomil Mastrović, contemporary Director of the *Institute for the History of Croatian Literature* of the *Croatian Academy of Sciences and Arts* and a university professor who at that time, on several occasions, presented himself to the Zadar audience, by published drama and monographs.25 In terms of publishing can be singled out an article with a significant title *Birth pangs of Zadar literary production* in which the author of article comments on substantial literary production in the past year.26

In terms of cultural heritage there was media significantly report of archaeological sites in Zadar, on which there had previously been found over three hundred and fifty graves. In the article is pointed out that the content of found necropolis could be compared to the findings of necropolis from the most developed cities of antiquity.27 Focus reported on restoration work on the Zadar cathedral.28 In war-time journalists were involved in reporting and commenting on aggression of Zadar heritage. As an example, here can be mentioned an article titled *The crime against monuments* in which a reporter of *Narodni list* highlights the suffering of cultural heritage.29 In the post-war period in terms of cultural heritage, the newspapers were attracted by the archaeological excavations in the city of Zadar, which resulted in valuable findings. About the study on the Zadar Forum a reporter presented in the form of interview all relevant information on valuable discoveries, for example Liburnian grave from the Iron Age, which was discovered in the heart of the historic town centre.30 In *Zadarski list*, in terms of cultural heritage, can be singled out an interview with the Director of Zadar government to protect natural and cultural heritage, in which was spoken on the issue of restoration of cultural heritage of Zadar.31

**Conclusion**

In an extraordinary situation such as war and post-war period, on the priority scale top, there is the struggle for life, social, political and economic issues. Due to the importance of preserving the spiritual life of citizens in these difficult days, an important position takes the preservation of cultural life in order to, at least to some extent, keep the image of relatively normal life functioning. Given the fact that the media are an integral part of life, there is undeniably their significant place and the impact they have in everyday life. Therefore, the creation, maintenance and promotion of culture and cultural life during the war and post-war times, especially through the mass media are of special importance. Zadar's newspapers during the war and post-war times had a valuable role in promoting of culture and cultural activities. On its site they were reporting from all the areas of cultural activities that we have included in this paper.

In the domain of cultural heritage there were articles about architectural heritage, libraries, museums, archives and traditional culture. In the domain of literature and publishing articles were written about publishing, domestic writers, literature, publicist writing, scholarly and scientific works and journals, school magazines and associations. In the domain

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of fine arts articles were published about photography and photographic exhibitions, sculpture and sculpture exhibitions, painting and painting exhibitions, ceramics, glasswork, church art and goldsmith exhibitions. To lesser extent when compared to other subjects there were articles about films and documentaries. Reoccurring subjects in the category of Drama were drama theatres and puppet theatres, their performers and shows. With regards to the subject of Music and Performing arts there was a number of articles about classical music, its performers and shows as well as ballet and dance shows. In the category of Media the most common subject was television, newspapers, radio, journalism and radio amateurism. Before the war in terms of culture and cultural events, journalists were more focused on reporting on current events and topics, as opposed to the war time when the focus was on commenting.

The results of quantitative and qualitative analysis of the content of newspaper articles have displayed representation of all research categories in culture, journalistic engagement in promoting culture and involvedness in solving cultural issues. The existence of articles in culture during wartime and after the war on the pages of newspapers is a result of editorial policies, work of journalists and cultural subjects as active participants and creators of cultural events. This research has shown that the Zadar local newspapers in the research period, actively participated in the cultural life of the city. These topics that Zadar local newspaper were writing about, indicate on journalistic interest in monitoring the culture and cultural issues, but also talks about cultural life in the city of Zadar during the war and post-war times, that did not die, but in a reduced volume it was existing and evolving.

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Zadarski list, n. 1 (03.11.1994.) – n. 113 (26.12.1996.)
Fokus, n. 12 (09.02.1990.)- n. 20 (22.09.1990.)
Westernisation, Rationalisation, Amalgamation: 
Party Politics in Intercivilisational Encounters

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Abstract During the last two decades, the perceived rise of Asian powers has led to a gradual shift in the academic view of the development of humanity from one of Westernisation to one of globalisation. Concurrently, students of civilisations re-started afresh their ongoing debate how and to what extent different cultures in the world influence each other. Many political scientists believe that there is either already an end to inter-civilisational conflicts and the victory of the West is complete, or that there are intrinsic, insuperable differences between world cultures; scholars of historical sociology, on the other hand, advocate a less radical, but perhaps more compelling model: one of inter-civilisational encounters, where civilisations in the course of history managed to adopt an idea coming from outside their cultural sphere, adapt it and assimilate it into their own ideology. From a historical-sociological perspective, drawing on the Weberian strand of the current debate, the presented paper focuses on the transformation of political partisanship in ancient, medieval, early modern and modern civilisations. It proposes that general characteristics of party systems may be found in pre-democratic periods from which they developed into modern democratic politics. Moreover, it wants to assess the impact that non-Western societies have had in the 20th century on the global image of a political party. In conclusion, it argues for a notion of amalgamation of ideas in today’s political partisanship in place of a one-sided theory of Westernisation.

Introduction

Political parties have always been at the centre of interest of Western social scientists. From the very birth of the modern political science at the start of the 20th century (e.g., Ostrogorski 1964[1902]; Michels 1962[1911]; Weber 1968[1922]), parties have figured prominently among the works on politics and today, “the scholarly literature that examines political parties is enormous’ (Strom – Muller 1999: 5). Parties’ early advocates saw in them an important vehicle of liberal democracy (e.g., Schattschneider 1942; Key 1942) and soon, they emerged as a specialised and very prolific sub-field of political science. The classic books by Duverger (1954), Neumann (1956), La Palombara and Weiner (1955), Lipset and Rokkan (1967) or Sartori (1976) established the study of parties and party systems as one of the major and most progressive research themes, where previous theories are constantly challenged and older concepts revaluated.

What may, however, be considered a comprehensive approach towards the research field, with its tens of thousands of articles, books and monographs published, may also be severely lacking in terms of geographical and spatial coverage. Since modern political science is a discipline predominantly concerned with European and American liberal democracies of the recent centuries, also the scope of party literature has always been limited to the Occident of the 19th, 20th and 21st century. Up until the 1980s and the ‘third wave of democratization’ (Huntington 1992), research into political systems in most of the world had been the domain of students of totalitarian and authoritarian regimes. The democratization literature and the party literature were two coexisting, but largely separate branches of political science and methodological approaches towards these two respective fields of study diverged; political parties in non-democratic regimes were seen as completely different ‘animals’ from parties in liberal democracies (e.g., Arendt 1951; Friedrich and Brzezinski 1956; Neumann 1957).

Also this methodological separation between the Western democratic and the non-Western non-democratic world contributed to the always widening divide between students of the modern Occidental civilisation and those studying other cultures. The diverging approaches of social scientists towards the West and towards ‘the rest’ led in many cases to the formulation of concepts and entire theories that cannot travel well across the different parts of the Occident, let alone across different world cultures. The situation in political party studies is indeed just a reflection of the more general Occidentocentric nature of modern social sciences.

On the following pages, I want to propose a way how to bridge the divide between the Western and the non-Western world and show that if the research into political parties in the future manages to span more than two continents and more than three centuries, its conceptual and theoretical framework should end up greatly enriched by knowledge gained from new geographical areas and time periods. My argument is structured as follows: first, I consider the potential that inter-cultural comparisons might have for the study of party politics in the West and discuss in detail the current wave of
‘civilisation analysis’, a new multi-disciplinary paradigm that has once again recently captured the attention of social scientists (e.g., Eisenstadt 2002; Arnason 2003). Second, I focus on the temporal dimension and propose a socio-historical approach towards the study of emergence of party systems in Western societies. Third, I turn to the geographical dimension and point out three specific mutations of political parties outside of their European crib. In conclusion, I stress the importance of a truly global comparative research by emphasising the strong links between the current Western model of political parties and the challenges it is facing from Asia and Africa.

Westernisation: The Occidentocentric Trap

At the very beginning of this mostly theoretical section, I add a caveat: nowhere in this paper should be my words construed so as to contribute to the trend of criticising the West for its culturally imperialist tendencies. I am not a proponent of non-Western values and sciences, since I have been raised and educated in the West. I see the Western culture as nowadays dominating and from all world cultures the most pervading.

However, at the same time, I realise the need for the Western researcher to take a step back and try to objectivise the West as only one of several ‘life paradigms’ that have existed on Earth since the birth of the human civilisation. That is, also, as I understand it, the main argument of civilisation analysis, an interdisciplinary field of social sciences focusing on phenomena with a greater “coefficient of expansion and internationalization...” than those lodged in society or the nation-state” (Durkheim – Mauss 1971, 812). Civilisation analysis not only operates with the plural of the term ‘civilisation’ and thus implicitly makes the objectivity-allowing step back, but it has also introduced the notion of ‘multiple modernities’ into the mainstream social-scientific arena. Moreover, as Arnason (2003) argues, scholars of this new discipline stop short of the anti-Western propagandistic tendencies of the postcolonial studies and instead weigh and assess world cultures and civilisations without a predetermined, prepared agenda.

For my purpose, a comparison of civilisational complexes, as will be explained later, should be stripped of any normative connotations; Levi-Strauss’s (1997) favouritism of the Greco-Indian world is something to be avoided, as is also the Hegelian idea of a progressively dynamic Occident versus a stagnating and backward Orient. Quite the contrary, the principal message of the following passages is that even though the social constructs of the West has invaded and pervaded realms of other civilisations, they have also been noticeably influenced by them. There is no bad or good Westernization, neither there is a uniquely progressive ‘geist’ of the Occident. If we use the term coined by Benjamin Nelson, there are only encounters of different cultural paradigms, different civilisations, different ‘structures of consciousness’ (Nelson 1981); and since the West has in the past three of four centuries dominated through its technological advantages, the Western encounters were more frequent, thicker and deeper than other encounters in history.

When Lucian Pye in 1958 published his article on the differences between Western and non-Western political processes, he also proposed that future research should be centred around two general theories of political systems: one relating to the West, the other to the ‘rest’ (Pye 1958, 468). Arguably, in political science, this is the normal situation today. Political scientists, and the students of political parties in particular, get used to grouping nation-states into sets with similar cultural and institutional background. Instead of developing hypotheses and theories capable of travelling between continents, they tend to focus in their majority on the most similar cases and use the corresponding comparative research method. Such an approach is not wrong per se as it allows for a better control of variables. However, its potential is exhausted when trying to account for changes in the electorate and in the party politics that are caused by newly occurring variables such as inter-civilisational migration, rise of fundamentalist movements, or movements in supra-national institutional frameworks. Or, and this is very recent phenomena as well, when previously non-Western countries start to democratise and follow anew the Western liberal model. The moment of transition from a non-democratic into a democratic regime and the subsequent political turmoils have in the last two decades challenged the classic theories about political parties and they keep being challenged, after the latest wave of democratisation swept also old dictatorships inside the traditional areas of the “backward” Orient.

In the next two sections, I propose two ways how to improve our general knowledge about the nature of partisanship that should help in a better understanding and explaining the modern phenomena that are connected to the globalisation of the world: the first is a path into the European history, the latter a journey to other civilisations. Behind this proposal is a set of implicit assumptions that mirrors the paradigm of the civilisation studies as represented by Nelson (1981), Huff (1985), Eisenstadt (2002) or Arnason (2003): first, I assume the ‘longue durée’ nature of the observed phenomena, particularly of the notion of partisanship both in the European as well as in the non-Western context. In Europe, the continuity of its (sub-)civilisations for the last three milenia cannot be disregarded and a similar organic inter-state and inter-national continuing transition should be observable also on other continents. Second, the civilisational paradigm has
also introduced the concept of ‘multiple modernities’ (Eisenstadt 2000), which emphasizes the possibility of diverging adaptations to global modernisation in different parts of the world. Civilisational legacies play in these diverging adaptations a major role and I adopt this concept as well. The third and last assumption is, however, my point of departure from the emerging civilisational analysis paradigm (see Arnason 2010): I do not follow the ‘strong programme’ of cultural sociology (Alexander 2008) and do not emphasise the role of culture in shaping the politico-economical sphere. In my view, the trichotomy culture-politics-economy is an egg-chicken controversy, which should be discussed elsewhere, but not in this paper. Here, I merely put forward a proposition that the interplay of this trichotomy can sometimes lead not only to conflictual spaces between civilisations, but also to deviations and subsequent conflicts inside civilisational complexes. This is what future research should explore.

Rationalisation: The Development of a Single Construct

The classic trichotomy can be found also in the groundwork of Stein Rokkan’s seminal research on the development of nations and the origins of West European political parties (Lipset – Rokkan 1967; Eisenstadt – Rokkan 1973; Urwin – Rokkan 1983; Flora 1999). Rokkan’s work has since the 1970s served as the starting point for many a later student of party politics in Europe and elsewhere and its concepts form today the core of the ‘sociological’ school of party studies. Culture, politics and economy are in Rokkan’s framework of equal value and only their diverging geographical positioning matters: the question, whether a city is a cultural, political, or economical capital is a matter of degree.

What Rokkan primarily brought into the party studies is the notion of longevity. In order to explain certain phenomena in the party politics of Western Europe in the 1960s and 1970s, he abandoned the detailed research of institutions and focused on long-term sociological changes in the electorate. His party typology was based on four major modernising shifts in society that had in Europe taken place since 1500s (reformation, urbanisation, nationalisation, industrialisation) and the subsequent emergence of four ‘cleavages’ in the West European electorate.

The Rokkanian typology is today widely used in many works on party politics; unfortunately, in a very reductionist manner, where the aspect of longevity evaporates from the theory. What civilisational analysis and sociology in general, however, tells us is not to lose from sight the historical roots of modern phenomena. Partiness and factionalism had existed in human society long before large-scale legal and economic democratisation enfranchised masses and brought about institutionalised party politics. Via the Weberian process of ‘rationalisation’, by which I understand the synchronous instrumentalisation of all three parts of the classic trichotomy, old differences between social groups were translated into modern politics. And even though the recent ‘de-freezing’ of West European electorates and larger voters’ volatility between parties may suggest a fundamental shift in the thinking and the behaviour of the European voter, the macro-level civilisational variables may still explain some of the recent changes.

The obvious examples can be found on the borders of large cultural complexes; in the European case, in eastern Scandinavia, East Central Europe and the Balkans. Herbert Kitschelt (1999) in an influential article proposed a typology of (post-)communist regimes based on their former historic al legacies. Even though he voiced his opposition to ‘shallow’ long-term cultural explanations for the different levels of success in democratisation of the former communist countries, his own correlation shows that what mostly mattered were indeed different civilisational origins of individual countries. The religious borders and shared imperial, pre-nation-state historical experience were the dividing lines along which the former Soviet bloc now disintegrated.

Indeed, what the post-communist period mostly shows is that unless artificially homogenised by exceptionally strong, disabling institutions, long-standing differences between large ethnic, religious, labour or other demographic groups will re-emerge even after decades and generations of their suppression. When the less centralistic, less homogenising and most importantly more democratic institutions were adopted after 1989, the electorate in Central and Eastern Europe, in the Balkans as well as in Central Asia re-aligned in majority back along pre-communist lines.

I do not think that institutions do not matter; they are, nevertheless, embedded in specific conditions which may change their meaning across time and space. A presidential regime in one country may aggregatively resemble more a former monarchy in that country than a presidential regime in another country. A cultural framework developed over centuries may be very resilient towards ideas important from other cultures, be it the Western civilisation or any other.

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1 For a discussion on the differences between the ‘sociological’ and the ‘institutionalist’ school of party studies, see e.g., Janos 2003.
2 Once again I am here at odds with Jeffrey Alexander (1983).
The resilience of civilisational patterns allows also to question the established belief in the global Westernisation, a topic to which I return in the next section.

In his 2004 Leonard Schapiro Lecture, Adam Przeworski (2004) advocated the theory of new institutionalism for its treatment of institutions as endogenous phenomena. The evidence of the last two decades indeed backs up this proposition: we are familiar with the modern history of Eastern Europe and the different outcomes of post-communist transitions. As regards political partisanship, one cannot but conclude that terms like social democracy, nationalism or liberal conservatism have different meaning in different cultures. The very meaning of partisanship varies, as does the notion of right-wing versus left-wing politics. If there is a lesson for students of party politics to take from the current European economic crisis, it is that even across Western countries, economic policies do not follow the right-left spectrum, but rather correlate in a very significant way with cultural background. Instrumental centuries-long democratisation and ‘rationalisation’ of electoral institutions produced different outcomes in Southern as opposed to Northern Europe.

Amalgamation: The Two-Directional Relationship

Even more pronounced a difference than between Southern and Northern Europe is, quite predictably, the one between the West and the rest of the world, into which the idea of representative democracy was imported and has since had ample time to develop in a completely new setting. I turn now from the European long-duree model of partisanship to considerations about non-Western visions of modernity and their reflections in non-Western political parties.

Shmuel Eisenstadt’s concept of ‘multiple modernities’ (Eisenstadt 2000; 2002) came about and has been nurtured by students of civilisations as a part of the late-20th century cultural turn in sociology. Even though I reject the culture-first approach in civilisational analysis, Eisenstadt’s theory can be useful in explaining some of the mutations that originally Western ideas of democracy and representative party politics underwent after they had been translated into Asian, African, but also Eastern European and Latin American environment. In his work on modernity, Eisenstadt particularly draws attention to the antimonial relationship that some cultures adopted towards the West when challenged with them historically alien Western values. These values, mainly instrumental, strictly rational, liberal and individualistic, stood in contraposition to many teleological, spiritual, absolutist and collectivist beliefs of other civilisations.

Eisenstadt’s theory is predominately based on evidence from the cultural domain and on associations between cultural items. What is arguably lacking in his work is research into the less ideological and more material sphere. Symbols and communication patterns take the limelight at the expense of politics and economy. The causal mechanism how multiple modernities come into being remains under-explored, which is precisely what Kitschelt (1999) holds against culture-based explanations of objectively perceivable political phenomena. To achieve a change in human conditions, both individual and collective, ideas must be mounted on specific institutional vehicles. Even if a certain political belief is expressed via a commonly accepted symbol, it is the organised activity of a social group or (sometimes) of an individual in a political institutional framework that transforms it from visions into real life.

An example of such a translation, one which I am investigating in my ongoing research, is the re-shaping of the Western concept of political partisanship in Asia and in Africa. In the 20th century, representative democracy and organised partisanship had been introduced into a large number of new countries around the world, but in many, these institutions subsequently mutated.

Among the first major mutations was the model of democratic centralism of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union that subsequently, in the interwar years, spread also into Eastern and Western European countries. The Comintern, established in 1919, supported and coordinated communist parties all around the world. In many non-European countries, it was the direct instigator of the communist movement. In Western Europe, where communism had already existed, Moscow via the Comintern took over the control of activities and organisation of communist parties (Thorpe 1998, 68). The model of democratic centralism worked in Europe first only as a unique party-hierarchy model and functioned even in multi-party systems, but when the communists took over Eastern European countries after the Second World War, it was quickly expanded from the party system into the administration of the state. Party and state fused and with it also the now Soviet-like deformation of the originally Western concept of a representative political party.

A second mutation emerged when communism was exported into China. After a decade of initial cooperation between the Chinese communists and the Soviets, the relationship between these two groups deteriorated in the early 1930s. Despite Stalin’s efforts to keep the Soviet-Chinese alliance alive at all costs (Carver North 1963, 96), Mao Zedong’s leadership severed ties with the Comintern during their Long March and gradually developed their own Asian form of communism. Old Chinese cultural patterns of strict patriarchy and authoritarianism (Solomon 1967), corporatist business tradition (Unger – Chan 1995), and non-Weberian rural political mobilization (Womack 1987, 483) were injected
into the model communist party and formed a unique Asian model. In the 1950s, Chinese communists started to export their model into South East Asia in the same manner as the Soviets had been doing since 1917. The Cambodian (Willmott 1981), Vietnamese and even Japanese communist parties followed directions coming from Beijing and even though the Asian international situation proved to be much more complicated than in the largely placid Soviet Eastern European bloc, the majority of Asian communist dictatorships adopted the Chinese party-state model.3

A third major case, and the last I mention here, is the recent rise of Islamist political parties both in the Muslim world as well as in the original Occident. This is an arguable case, but the more it deserves to be explored. In the Middle East, North and Sub-Saharan Africa, but even in the largely Westernised Turkey, the electorate turns today to religious fundamentalism. In Western Europe, the Muslim minority is getting organised with the material and ideological support of such countries as Saudi Arabia, Quatar or United Arab Emirates (Warner – Wenner 2006). This case is evidently very different from the previous two: most importantly, not all Moslim states adopted the framework of representative democracy. Those states that sponsor the political organisation of Moslims in Western Europe and in other democratic states are, paradoxically, all absolutist monarchies where a party system does not exist. Secondly, in their majority, Moslim parties do not support violent revolutionary causes as in the communist paradigm. Moslim minority parties in Western multi-party systems do not have a revolution on their electoral agenda. The only Islamic revolution that has so far taken place happened more than three decades ago, in Iran. This may change in the current unpredictable development of the Arab spring, but that yet remains to be seen. Thirdly, unlike the Soviets and the Chinese, who based their parties on a secular European idea, Islamic parties are a real amalgam of the Occidental and the Oriental culture. While they draw on the traditional civilisational background, in representative democracies, they adopt the political organisations of the West. And via this amalgamated mechanism, they also introduce new features and institutions into Western party systems.

In conclusion...

What I have presented in the previous paragraphs is nothing more but a sketch of possible directions research into party politics may take in future. If the field aspires to be truly global and conscious of all the changes that political parties have undergone since their birth in Western-type representative democracies, party studies should enlarge their scope both temporally and spatially. In his 1970s and 1980s work on the methodology of comparative politics science, Giovanni Sartori (1970; 1984) frequently warned against the trap of conceptual travelling (the application of concepts to new cases) and conceptual stretching (the distortion of concept by its application to new cases). Presumably, a path into the past and a journey to other civilisations might enrich the dictionary of political scientists by many new words, ideas and concepts. The generalising framework that offers civilisational analysis, its basic set of assumptions and terms of a high level of abstraction, should then make these new words and concepts comparable with the older ones. Western European and, since the 1990s, also Eastern European and Latin American party system haven been widely researched by both qualitative as well as quantitative methods. Large quantities of data have been extrapolated via sociological or electoral surveys. Detailed models of party networks and interactions have been developed. Nevertheless, there is still arguably many a new finding to be made if we step outside of the boundaries of the established paradigm and look elsewhere for inspiration.

Bibliography


3 With the possible exception of North Korean communists, who modelled their party after the Soviet model, see e.g., Washburn 1950.
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Rise and Decline of the Roman Civilization

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Abstract: Rome expanded across the Mediterranean and grew into a huge, diverse empire. By the end of the fourth century B.C.E. Rome was already the dominant power on the Italian Peninsula. For five centuries thereafter Rome’s power steadily increased. Rome’s destruction of the powerful North African City of Carthage united the entire Mediterranean world and made the Mediterranean itself a “Roman Lake”. Rome began as a small city state in Italy. The Romans were an Indo-European people who settled along the Tiber River in small villages. Their neighbors, the Etruscans, ruled much of central Italy, including Rome. After the Romans threw out the hated Etruscan king in 509 B.C., they resolved never to be ruled by a monarch again. Instead they set up a republic, a government in which officials are chosen by the people. At first, the most powerful people in government were Patricians, or members of the landholding upper class. Eventually, commoners, or Plebeians were also elected to the Roman Senate. Military victories put the Romans in control of busy trade routes. Incredible riches flooded into Rome faced and this causes a series of civil wars. Eventually, a powerful Roman general named Augustus restored order. Under Augustus, who ruled from 31 B.C. to A.D.14, the 500 year old republic came to an end. A new age dawned – the age of the Roman Empire. Augustus laid the foundation for a stable government and undertook economic reforms. The 200 years span that began with Augustus ended with emperor Marcus Aurelius. It is Known as the Pax Romana, or “Roman Peace”. During the time, Roman emperors brought peace, order, unity and prosperity to the lands under their control. Rome acted as a bridge between the east and the west by borrowing and transforming Greek and Hellenistic achievements to produce Greco-Roman Civilization. The Romans greatly admired Greek culture. They took Greek ideas and adapted them in their own ways. Roman sculptors, for instance, used the Greek idea of realism to reveal an individual’s character in each stone portrait. Probably the greatest legacy of Rome was its commitment to the rule of law and to justice. These shape western civilization today. After the death of the emperor Marcus Aurelius in A.D.180, turmoil rocked the Roman Empire split into two parts, east and west, each with its own ruler in the west. The foreign invaders marched into Italy and, in 476, took over Rome itself. But the Roman Empire did not disappear from the map. The eastern Roman Empire prospered under the emperor Constantine. In time, the eastern Roman Empire became known as Byzantium. It lasted for another 1,000 years. The article discussed on overall Roman Civilization – the rise and fall of Roman Empire with its political changes and the prosperity of Romans during their rule.

1. Introduction

While the Greeks struggled against the Persians and then each other a new civilization was emerging on the banks of the Tiber River in central Italy. By the end of the fourth century B.C.E. Rome was already the dominant power on the Italian peninsula for five centuries there after Rome’s power steadily increased. By the first century C.E., it ruled most of the western Europe. These conquest together with Rome’s destruction of the powerful North African city of Carthage, united the entire Mediterranean world and made the Mediterranean itself a “Roman lake”. Rome’s empire brought Greek Institutions and ideas not only to the western half of the Mediterranean world, but also to Britain, France, Spain, and Romania. Rome was thus the builder of a great historical bridge that connected Europe to the cultural and political heritage of the ancient Near East (Judith G. Coffin, Robert C. Stacey Robert E. Lerner, Standish Meacham,2002).A society highly developed in military and political skills ,Rome professionalized its military class and created a system of government called res publica, the inspiration fore some modern republics such as the United States and France (Mortimer N.S. Sellers, 90; Robin Luckham, Gordon White,11)In the Empire , Rome entered in its golden times at the hands of Augustus Caesar. Under Trajan, the Empire reached its territorial peak. The republican values started to decline in the inspired times, and civil wars became the common ritual for a new emperor ‘s rise (Guglielmo Ferrero, Sir Alfred Eckhar Zimmer, Henry John Chaytor , 251+, Andrew Hadlifld, 68) Christopher B. Gray, p.741). The Eastern Roman Empire survived this crisis and was governed from Constantinople after the division of the Empire. It composed Greece, the Balkans, Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt. Despite the later loss of Syria and Egypt to the Arab- Islamic Empire, the Eastern Roman continued for another millennium until its remnants were finally annexed by the emerging Turkish Ottoman Empire. This eastern, Christian, medieval stage of the Empire is usually called the Byzantine Empire by historians.
2. Literature Review

2.1 Founding Rome

Romulus was the eponymous first king of Rome. How he got there is a story like many others, involving a rags-to-riches rise in fortune, a miraculous birth (like Jesus), and the exposure of an infant (like Paris of Troy and Oedipus) in a river (like Moses and Sargon). The story of Romulus, his twin brother Remus, and the founding of the city of Rome is one of the most familiar legends about ancient Rome. The basic legend about how Romulus came to be the first king of Rome begins with the god Mars impregnating a Vestal Virgin named Rhea Silvia, daughter of the rightful, but deposed king. After the birth of Mars’ sons Romulus and Remus, the king orders them to be left to die in the Tiber River. When the basket in which Romulus and Remus were placed washes up on shore, a wolf suckles them and a woodpecker named Picus feeds them until the shepherd Faustulus finds Romulus and Remus and brings them into his home. When they grow up, Romulus and Remus restore the throne of Alba Longa to its rightful ruler, their maternal grandfather, and set out to found their own city. Sibling rivalry leads Romulus to slay his brother and become the first king and founder of the city of Rome. Rome is named after Romulus. Most of the details are believed to be false. It is thought that a prostitute may have cared for the infant twins and the story about the wolf is only an interpretation of a Latin word for brothel.

2.2 Early Republic

The first Roman republican wars were wars of both expansion and defence, aimed at protecting Rome itself from neighboring cities and nations and establishing its territory in the region (Grant, p. 33). The Roman republic was the period of the ancient Roman civilization where the government operated as a republic. It began with the overthrow of the Roman monarchy, traditionally dated around 508 BC, and its replacement by a government headed by two consuls, elected annually by the citizens and advised by a senate. A complex constitution gradually developed centered on the principles of a separation of powers and checks and balances. In practice, Roman society was hierarchical. The evolution of the Constitution of the Roman Republic was heavily influenced by struggle between Rome's land-holding aristocracy (the patricians), who traced their ancestry back to the early history of the Roman Kingdom, and the far more numerous citizens-commoners plebeians. Over time, the laws that gave Patricians exclusive rights to Rome's highest offices were repealed or weakened, and a new aristocracy emerged from among the plebeian class. The leaders of the Republic developed a strong tradition and morality requiring public service and patronage in peace and war, meaning that military and political success were inextricably linked. During the first two centuries of its existence the Republic expanded through a combination of conquest and alliance, from central Italy to the entire Italian peninsula. By the following century it included North Africa, the Iberian Peninsula, Greece, and what is now southern France. Two centuries after that, towards the end of the 1st century BC, it included the rest of modern France, and much of the east. By this time, despite the Republic's traditional and lawful constraints against any individual's acquisition of permanent political powers, Roman politics was dominated by a small number of Roman leaders, their uneasy alliances punctuated by a series of civil wars. The final victor in these civil wars, Octavian (later Augustus), reformed the Republic as a Principate, with himself as Rome's "first citizen" (princeps). The Senate continued to sit and debate. Annual magistrates were elected as before, but final decisions on matters of policy, warfare, diplomacy and appointments were privileged to the princeps as "first among equals" (or imperator due to the holding of imperium, from which the term emperor is derived). His powers were monarchic in all but name, and he held them for his lifetime, on behalf of the Senate and people of Rome. The Roman Republic was never restored, but neither was it abolished, so the event that signaled its transition to Roman Empire is a matter of interpretation. Historians have variously proposed the appointment of Julius Caesar as perpetual dictator in 44 BC, the defeat of Mark Antony at the Battle of Actium in 31 BC, and the Roman Senate's grant of extraordinary powers to Octavian (Augustus) under the first settlement in 27 BC, as candidates for the defining pivotal event ending the Republic.

2.3 Government of the Early Republic

Rome underwent a very slow political evolution. Even the replacement of the monarchy was about as conservative a political change to be. Its chief effect was to substitute for the king two elected to officials called consuls, and to exalt the position of the Senate by granting it control over the public funds. Although the consuls were chosen by the comitia centuriata (literally, the Roman "people-in-arms"), this body differed greatly from the citizen assembly of ancient Athens because it met in groups. Each group in the Roman assembly had one vote, and since groups consisting of the wealthiest
citizens voted first, a majority could be reached even before the votes of the poorer groups was cast. Consequently the consuls, who served annually, were usually senators who acted as the agents of aristocratic interests. Each consul was supposed to possess the full executive and judicial authority that had previously been wielded by the king, limited by the right each possessed to veto the action of the other. If a conflict arose between them, the Senate might be called on to decide; or in time of grave emergency, a dictator might be appointed for a term of not greater than months. (Judith G. Coffin, Robert C. Stacey Robert E. Lerner, Standish Meacham,2002 p.189) After the establishment of the Republic the political dominance of the early aristocracy, known as the patricians, began to be challenged by the plebeians, who made up nearly 98 percent of the citizen population but who initially had no access to political power. The plebeians were a diverse group. Some had grown wealthy through trade or agriculture, but most were small-holding, prosperous farmers, merchants, or the urban poor. The grievances of the plebeians were numerous. Forced to serve in the army in time of war, they were nevertheless excluded from holding office. They frequently felt themselves the victims of discriminatory decisions in judicial trials. They did not even know what legal rights they were supposed to enjoy, for the laws were unwritten, and the patricians alone had the power to interpret them. Worst was the oppression that could stem from debt because a debtor could be sold into slavery outside Rome by his creditor. (Judith G. Coffin, Robert C. Stacey Robert E. Lerner, Standish Meacham, 2002 p.189). These grievances prompted a plebeian in the early fifth century B.C.E. that forced the patricians to agree to the election of new officers known as tribunes who could protect the plebeians by voting unlawful patrician acts. This victory was followed by a successful demand for codification of the laws about 450 B.C.E. The result was the issuance of the famous Law of the Twelve Tables, so called because it was written on tablets (“tables”) of wood. Although this law was later revered by the Romans as a kind of charter of the people’s liberties, it was really nothing of the sort, for it mostly perpetuated ancient custom without even abolishing enslavement for debt. Nevertheless; at least there was now a clear definition of law. Roughly a generation later the plebeians won eligibility to positions as lesser magistrates, and about 367 B.C.E. the first plebian consul was elected. Gradually, plebeians also gained access to the Senate. The final plebeians victory came in 287 B.C.E. with the passage of a law stipulating that measures enacted by the concilium plebis (a more democratically organized assembly composed only of plebeians) would be binding on the Roman government whether the Senate approved them or not. It is from this citizen assembly that English derives its modern word plebiscite.

3. Constitution of the Roman Republic

The Constitution of the Roman Republic was a set of guidelines and principles passed down mainly through precedent (Byrd, 161). The constitution was largely unwritten, uncodified, and constantly evolving. Rather than creating a government that was primarily a democracy (as was ancient Athens), an aristocracy (as was ancient Sparta), or a monarchy (as was Rome before and, in many respects, after the Republic), the Roman constitution mixed these three elements, thus creating three separate branches of government(Holland,24).According to Polybius the democratic element took the form of the legislative assemblies, the aristocratic element took the form of the Senate, and the monarchical element took the form of the many term-limited consuls(Polybius).The ultimate source of sovereignty in this ancient republic, as in modern republics, was the demos (people)(Holland,24). The People of Rome gathered into legislative assemblies to pass laws and to elect executive magistrates (Lintott, 40). Election to a magisterial office resulted in automatic membership in the Senate (for life, unless impeached)(Abbott,46). The Senate managed the day-to-day affairs in Rome, while senators presided over the courts (Lintott, 65). Executive magistrates enforced the law, and presided over the Senate and the legislative assemblies (Byrd, 179). A complex set of checks and balances developed between these three branches, so as to minimize the risk of tyranny and corruption, and to maximize the likelihood of good government. However, the separation of powers between these three branches of government was not absolute. Also, there was the frequent usage of several constitutional devices that were out of harmony with the genius of the Roman constitution (Abbott, 46). A constitutional crisis began in 133 BC, as a result of the struggles between the aristocracy and the common people (Abbott,90). This crisis ultimately led to the collapse of the Roman Republic and its eventual subversion into a much more autocratic form of government, the Roman Empire (Abbott, 133).

3.1 Senate of the Roman Republic

The Senate's ultimate authority derived from the esteem and prestige of the Senate (Byrd, 161). This esteem and prestige was based on precedent and custom, as well as the high calibre and prestige of the Senators (Cicero, 239). The Senate passed decrees, which were called senatus consultum. This was officially "advice" from the Senate to a magistrate. In practice, however, these were usually obeyed by the magistrates (Byrd, 44). The focus of the Roman
Senate was directed towards foreign policy (Polibius, 133). Though it technically had no official role in the management of military conflict, the Senate ultimately was the force that oversaw such affairs.

3.2 Legislative Assemblies

It was the People of Rome – and thus the assemblies – who had the final say regarding the election of magistrates, the enactment of new laws, the carrying out of capital punishment, the declaration of war and peace, and the creation (or dissolution) of alliances (Polybius, 133-134). There were two types of legislative assemblies. The first was the comitia (“committees”) (Lintott, 42), which were assemblies of all citizens. The second was the concilia (“councils”), which were assemblies of specific groups of citizens (Abbott, 251).

3.3 Assembly of the Centuries

 Citizens were organized on the basis of centuries and tribes. The centuries and the tribes would each gather into their own assemblies. The Comitia Centuriata (“Century Assembly”) was the assembly of the centuries. The president of the Comitia Centuriata was usually a consul (Polybius, 132). The centuries would vote, one at a time, until a measure received support from a majority of the centuries. The Comitia Centuriata would elect magistrates who had imperium powers (consuls and praetors). It also elected censors. Only the Comitia Centuriata could declare war, and ratify the results of a census (Abbott, 257). It also served as the highest court of appeal in certain judicial cases (Cicero, 235).

3.4 Assembly of the Tribes

The assembly of the tribes, the Comitia Tributa, was presided over by a consul, and was composed of 35 tribes. The tribes were not ethnic or kinship groups, but rather geographical subdivisions (Lintott, 51). The order that the thirty-five tribes would vote in was selected randomly by lot (Taylor, 77). Once a measure received support from a majority of the tribes, the voting would end. While it did not pass many laws, the Comitia Tributa did elect quaestors, curule aediles, and military tribunes (Taylor, 78).

3.5 Plebeian Council

The Plebeian Council was an assembly of plebeians, the non-patrician citizens of Rome, who would gather into their respective tribes. They elected their own officers, plebeian tribunes and plebeian aediles (Abbott, 196). Usually a plebeian tribune would preside over the assembly. This assembly passed most laws, and could also act as a court of appeal. Since it was organized on the basis of the tribes, its rules and procedures were nearly identical to those of the Comitia Tributa.

3.6 Executive Magistrates

Each magistrate was vested with a degree of maius potestas (“major power”) (Abbott, 257). Each magistrate could veto any action that was taken by a magistrate of an equal or lower rank. Plebeian tribunes and plebeian aediles, on the other hand, were independent of the other magistrates (Abbott, 151).

3.7 Magisterial powers, and checks on those powers

Each republican magistrate held certain constitutional powers. Only the People of Rome (both plebeians and patricians) had the right to confer these powers on any individual magistrate (Litott, 195). The most powerful constitutional power was imperium. Imperium was held by both consuls and praetors. Imperium gave a magistrate the authority to command a military force. All magistrates also had the power of coercion. This was used by magistrates to maintain public order (Litott, 97). While in Rome, all citizens had a judgment against coercion. This protection was called provocatio (see below). Magistrates also had both the power and the duty to look for omens. This power would often be used to obstruct political opponents. One check over a magistrate’s power was his collegiality. Each magisterial office would be held concurrently by at least two people. Another check over the power of a magistrate was provocatio. Provocatio was a primordial form of due process. It was a precursor to habeas corpus. If any magistrate was attempting to use the powers of the state against a citizen, that citizen could appeal the decision of the magistrate to a tribune (Cicero, 235).
addition, once a magistrate’s annual term in office expired, he would have to wait ten years before serving in that office again. Since this did create problems for some consuls and praetors, these magistrates would occasionally serve their imperium extended. In effect, they would retain the powers of the office, without officially holding that office (Lintott, 97).

3.8 Consuls, praetors, censors, aediles, quaestors, tribunes, and dictators

The consul of the Roman Republic was the highest ranking ordinary magistrate; each consul served for one year. Consuls had supreme power in both civil and military matters. While in the city of Rome, the consuls were the head of the Roman government. They would preside over the senate and the assemblies. While abroad, each consul would command an army (Byrd, 179). His authority abroad would be nearly absolute. Praetors would administer civil law and command provincial armies. Every five years, two centors would be elected for an eighteen month term. During their term in office, the two centors would conduct a census. During the census, they could enroll citizens in the senate, or purge them from the senate. Aediles were officers elected to conduct domestic affairs in Rome, such as managing public games and shows. The quaestors would usually assist the consuls in Rome, and the governors in the provinces. Their duties were often financial (Byrd, 26). Since the tribunes were considered to be the embodiment of the plebeians, they were sasacrosant. Their sacrosanctity was enforced by a pledge, taken by the plebeians, to kill any person who harmed or interfered with a tribune during his term of office. All of the powers of the tribune derived from their sacrosanctity. One obvious consequence of this sacrosanctity was the fact that it was considered a capital offense to harm a tribune, to disregard his veto, or to interfere with a tribune. In times of military emergency, dictator would be appointed for a term of six months. Constitutional government would dissolve, and the dictator would become the absolute master of the state (Byrd, 37). When the dictator’s term ended, constitutional government would be restored.

4. Culture and Society of the Roman Civilization

Political changes in early republic Rome moved glacially. Education was largely limited to instruction imparted by fathers to sons in manly sports, practical arts, and military virtues; as a result, literary culture long remained minor part of Roman life, even among the aristocracy. War and agriculture continued to be the chief occupations for the bulk of the population. Life in ancient Rome revolved around the city of Rome, its famed seven hills. Rome’s famous seven hills, and its monumental structures such as the Flavian Amphitheatre (now called the Colosseum), the Forum of Trajan, and the Pantheon. The city also had several theaters, gymnasiums, and many taverns, baths, and brothels. Throughout the territory under ancient Rome’s control, residential architecture ranged from very modest houses to country villas, and in the capital city of Rome, there were imperial residences on the elegant Palatine Hill, from which the word “palace” is derived. The vast majority of the population lived in the city center, packed into insulae (apartment blocks). The city of Rome was the largest megalopolis of that time, with a population that may well have exceeded one million people, with a high end estimate of 3.5 million and a low end estimate of 450,000. Historical estimates indicate that around 30 percent of the population under the city’s jurisdiction lived in innumerable urban centers, with a population of at least 10,000 and several military settlements, a very high rate of urbanization by pre-industrial standards. The most urbanized part of the Empire was Italy, which had an estimated rate of urbanization of 32%, the same rate of urbanization of England in 1800. Most Roman towns and cities had a forum, temples and the same type of buildings, on a smaller scale, as found in Rome. Starting in the middle of the 2nd century BC, private Greek culture was increasingly in ascendancy, in spite of tirades against the “softening” effects of Hellenized culture from the conservative moralists. By the time of Augustus, cultured Greek household slaves taught the Roman young (sometimes even the girls); chefs, decorators, secretaries, doctors, and hairdressers—all came from the Greek East. Greek sculptures adorned Hellenistic landscape gardening on the Palatine or in the villas, or were imitated in Roman sculpture yards by Greek slaves. The Roman cuisine preserved in the cookery books ascribed to Apicius is essentially Greek. Roman writers disdained Latin for a cultured Greek style. Only in law and governance was the Italic nature of Rome’s accretive culture supreme. Against this human background, both the urban and rural setting, one of history’s most influential civilizations took shape, leaving behind a cultural legacy that survives in part today. During the time of the Roman Republic (founded in 509 BC) Roman citizens were allowed to vote. These included patricians and plebeians. Women, slaves, and children were not allowed to vote. There were two assemblies, the assembly of centuries (comitia centuriiata) and the assembly of tribes (comitia tributa), which were made up of all the citizens of Rome. In the comitia centuriiata the Romans were divided according to age, wealth and residence. The citizens in each tribe were divided into five classes based on property and then each group was subdivided into two centuries by age. In ancient Rome, the cloth and the dress distinguished one class of people from the other class. The tunic worn by plebeians (common people) like
shepherds and slaves was made from coarse and dark material, whereas the tunic worn by patricians was of linen or white wool. A magistrate would wear the tunica angusticlavi; senators wore tunics with purple stripes (clavi), called tunica laticlavi. Military tunics were shorter than the ones worn by civilians. The bulla was a locket-like amulet worn by children. Men typically wore a toga, and women a stola. The woman's stola was a dress worn over a tunic, and was usually brightly colored. A fibula (or brooch) would be used as ornamentation or to hold the stola in place. A palla, or shawl, was often worn with the stola.

4.1 Dining

Since the beginning of the Republic until 200 BC, ancient Romans had very simple food habits. Simple food was simple, generally consumed at around 11 o’clock, and consisted of bread, salad, olives, cheese, fruits, nuts, and cold meat left over from the dinner the night before. Breakfast was called ientaculum, lunch was prandium, and dinner was called cena. Appetizers were called gustatio, and dessert was called secunda mensa (or second table). Usually, a nap or rest followed this. The family ate together, sitting on stools around a table. Later on, a separate dining room with dining couches was designed, called a triclinium.

4.2 Education

Schooling in a more formal sense was begun around 200 BC. Education began at the age of around six, and in the next six to seven years, boys and girls were expected to learn the basics of reading, writing and counting. By the age of twelve, they would be learning Latin, Greek, grammar and literature, followed by training for public speaking. Oratory was an art to be practiced and learnt and good orators commanded respect; to become an effective orator was one of the objectives of education and learning. Poor children could not afford education. In some cases, services of gifted slaves were utilized for imparting education. The language of Rome has had a profound impact on later cultures, as demonstrated by this Latin Bible from 1407. The native language of the Romans was Latin, an Italic language in the Indo-European family. Several forms of Latin existed, and the language evolved considerably over time, eventually becoming the Romance languages spoken today. Silver Age Latin was the most popular. Initially a highly inflectional and synthetic language, older forms of Latin rely little on word order, conveying meaning through a system of affixes attached to word stems. Like other Indo-European languages, Latin gradually became much more analytic over time and acquired conventionalized word orders as it lost more and more of its case system and associated inflections. Its alphabet, the Latin alphabet, is based on the Old Italic alphabet, which is in turn derived from the Greek alphabet. The Latin alphabet is still used today to write most European and many other languages. Although surviving Latin literature consists almost entirely of Classical Latin, an artificial and highly stylized and polished literary language from the 1st century BC, the actual spoken language of the Roman Empire was Vulgar Latin, which significantly differed from Classical Latin in grammar, vocabulary, and eventually pronunciation. Also, although Latin remained the main written language of the Roman Empire, Greek came to be the language spoken by the well-educated elite, as most of the literature studied by Romans was written in Greek. In the eastern half of the Roman Empire, which became the Byzantine Empire; Greek was the main lingua franca as it had been since the time of Alexander the Great, while Latin was mostly used by the Roman administration and its soldiers. Eventually Greek would supplant Latin as both the official written and spoken language of the Eastern Roman Empire, while the various dialects of Vulgar Latin used in the Western Roman Empire evolved into the modern Romance languages still used today.

4.3 Literature

Roman literature was from its very inception influenced heavily by Greek authors. Some of the earliest works we possess are of historical epics telling the early military history of Rome. As the Republic expanded, authors began to produce poetry, comedy, history, and tragedy. During the reign of the early emperors of Rome there was a golden age of historical literature. Works such as the ‘Histories’ of Tacitus, the ‘Gallic Wars’ by Julius Caesar and ‘History of Rome’ by Livy have been passed down to us. Unfortunately, in the case of Livy, much of the script has been lost and we are left with a few specific areas: the founding of the city, the war with Hannibal, and its aftermath. Virgil represents the pinnacle of Roman epic poetry. His Aeneid was produced at the request of Maecenas and tells the story of flight of Aeneas from Troy and his settlement of the city that would become Rome. Lucretius, in his On the Nature of Things, attempted to explicate science in an epic poem. Some of his science seems remarkably modern, but other ideas, especially his theory of light, are no longer accepted. Later Ovid produced his Metamorphoses, written in dactylic hexameter verse, the meter of epic,
attempting a complete mythology from the creation of the earth to his own time. He unifies his subject matter through the theme of metamorphosis. It was noted in classical times that Ovid's work lacked the *gravitas* possessed by traditional epic poetry. A great deal of the literary work produced by Roman authors in the early Republic was political or satirical in nature. The rhetorical works of Cicero, a self-distinguished linguist, translator, and philosopher, in particular, were popular. In addition, Cicero's personal letters are considered to be one of the best bodies of correspondence recorded in antiquity.

4.4 Architecture

In the initial stages, the ancient Roman architecture reflected elements of architectural styles of the Etruscan and the Greeks. Over a period of time, the style was modified in tune with their urban requirements, and the civil engineering and building construction technology became developed and refined. The Roman concrete has remained a riddle, and even after more than two thousand years some of ancient Roman structures still stand magnificently, like the Pantheon (with one of the largest single span domes in the world) located in the business district of today's Rome. The architectural style of the capital city of ancient Rome was emulated by other urban centers under Roman control and influence, like the Verona Arena, Verona, Italy; Arch of Hadrian, Athens, Greece; Temple of Hadrian, Ephesus, Turkey; a Theatre at Orange, France; and at several other locations, for example, Lepcis Magna, located in Libya. Roman cities were well planned, efficiently managed and neatly maintained. Palaces, private dwellings and villas, were elaborately designed and town planning was comprehensive with provisions for different activities by the urban resident population, and for countless migratory population of travelers, traders and visitors passing through their cities. Marcus Vitruvius Pollio, a 1st century BCE Roman architect's treatise “De architectura,” with various sections, dealing with urban planning, building materials, temple construction, public and private buildings, and hydraulics, remained a classic text until the Renaissance.

4.5 Sports and entertainment

The ancient city of Rome had a place called the Campus, a sort of drill ground for Roman soldiers, which was located near the Tiber River. Later, the Campus became Rome's track and field playground, which even Julius Caesar and Augustus were said to have frequented. Imitating the Campus in Rome, similar grounds were developed in several other urban centers and military settlements. In the campus, the youth assembled to play and exercise, which included jumping, wrestling, boxing and racing. Riding, throwing, and swimming were also preferred physical activities. In the countryside, pastimes also included fishing and hunting. Females did not participate in these activities. Ball playing was a popular sport and ancient Romans had several ball games, which included Handball (Expulsim Ludere), field hockey, catch, and some form of Soccer. There were several other activities to keep people engaged like chariot races, musical and theatrical performances, public executions and gladiatorial combat. In the Colosseum, Rome's amphitheatre, 50,000 persons could be accommodated. There are also accounts of the Colosseum's floor being flooded to hold mock naval battles for the public to watch.

4.6 Religion and Philosophy

Roman religious beliefs date back to the founding of Rome, around 800 BC, but the Roman religion commonly associated with the Roman Republic and the Roman Empire did not start forming until around 500 BC when Romans came in contact with Greek culture and adopted many of the Greek’s religious beliefs including the representation of Greek gods in the form of humans. Private and personal worship was an important aspect of religious practices of ancient Rome. In a sense, each household in ancient Rome was a temple to the gods. Each household had an altar (*lararium*), at which the family members would offer prayers, perform rites, and interact with the household gods. Many of the gods that Romans worshiped came from the Proto-Indo-European pantheon, others were based on Greek gods. The three central deities were Jupiter (who was the god of rain, thunder, and lightning, of Proto-Indo-European origin), Mars (the god of warfare; identified with the Greek Ares), and Quirinus (who watched over the senate house), one of the truly Roman gods who was associated with the Sabines and with the founder of Rome, Romulus. From simplest form of such private worship and religious practices, religion in ancient Rome developed into an elaborate system, with temples, altars, rituals and ceremonies, priesthood, beliefs of traditional paganism and the cult of the Roman emperors. The power of ancient Rome spread ever further across a vast geographical area and Romans met with other cults and religions, like cults of Cybele, Bacchus, and Isis, as well as Judaism. With its cultural influence spreading over most of the Mediterranean, Romans began accepting foreign gods into their own culture, as well as other philosophical traditions such as Cynicism and
Stoicism. There were even attempts by many Roman and Greek philosophers to accept other gods that countered their religion, such as the Jewish deity Yahweh (viewed as the only supreme God by the Israelites) by stating that the Jews merely worshiped Jupiter but just under a different name and therefore there should be an acceptance of the Jewish culture. With the fall of the Roman Republic and the start of the reign of the emperors which created the Roman Empire in, the Roman emperors were considered to be gods incarnate. Two major philosophical schools of thought that derived from Greek religion and philosophy that became prominent in Rome in the 1st and 2nd century AD was Cynicism and Stoicism which, according to Cora Lutz were “fairly well merged” in the early years of the Roman Empire. Cynicism taught that civilization was corrupt and people needed to break away from it and its trappings and Stoicism taught that one must give up all earthly goods by remaining detached from civilization and help others. Because of their negative views on civilization and of their way of life, in where many of them just wore a dirty cloak, carried a staff, and a coin purse, and slept outdoors, they were the targets of the Roman aristocracy and of the emperor and many were persecuted by the Roman government for being “subversive”. Much of the Roman practices of their religion and philosophy began to dwindle after 312, when the Roman Emperor Galerius legalized Christianity, hitherto brutally suppressed. Soon after his death, Emperor Constantine switched allegiance from Apollo to Christus as his patron, and won the battle of Milvian Bridge in 313. Under Constantine’s direction, the Council of Nicaea (325) was held to decide the elements of orthodox Christianity, although Constantine himself was only baptized shortly before his death. Through all this, a few pagans clung to the old Roman religion – even enjoying something of a brief Renaissance under Julian the Apostate (361–63) – and continued to be tolerated until the reign of Theodosius I, who finally outlawed paganism in 390. Christianity had originally arisen in the Roman province of Judea, growing out of Judaism, and picking up influences from Greek philosophy as it spread throughout the Roman Empire.

5. Conclusion

Focusing our attention on the dynamics of Rome’s decline in the should not cause us to overlook the many ways in which Roman society was a towering success. No state has ever encompassed so much territory, with such territory, with such a large percentage of the world’s population under its dominion, for so long a span of time. Roman rule maintained its vitality in the West from the Second Punic War to the end of the fourth century C.E. In the East, the Roman empire survived until 1453. Part of that success resulted from the Roman government’s ability to create and maintain systems of communication, trade, and travel as no other state had done before, and as none would do again until modern times. So, The contributions of the Roman heritage on the modern West cannot be overemphasized. Even from ancient times the Roman Republic, and later the Roman Empire, was regarded as a successful template for all of civilization. The Romans had a superb ability to organize and administer to the needs of their citizens and also developed a tremendous legal system that is fundamentally in use even today.

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Short Temporal Adverbials in English and Macedonian – Semantics, Morphology and Sentence Position

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Abstract This paper presents a study of short temporal adverbials in English and Macedonian. It includes their semantic, morphological and syntactic (sentence position) description. The study and the findings are corpus based, whereas the corpus is composed of Macedonian literary texts translated by native English speakers. The findings aim at presenting: a) the semantic complexities of Macedonian temporal adverbs through the usage of English as meta-language, b) the morphological and phrasal forms within which these short adverbs occur, and c) the differences/similarities in occupying sentence positions. The study should aid language professionals of different profiles in both, English and Macedonian (theoretical linguists, language teachers, translators, etc.).

Keywords: short temporal adverbials, comparative, Macedonian, morphology, sentence position

1. Introduction
This paper deals with short temporal adverbials in English and Macedonian. The findings are a part of a larger corpus based comparative research of temporal adverbials in English and Macedonian. The findings present clear results regarding the semantic complexity and sentence position of the short temporal adverbials in Macedonian, thus using English as a metalanguage and comparison positional milestone.

1.1 Research corpus
A special research corpus was formed, which comprised works of mainly Macedonian literary authors, as well as fewer academic works (dealing with historical topics), together with their English translations. For maintaining objectivity in the findings, the chosen works were translated by native English speakers.

1.1.1 Processing of the corpus
Translational equivalents of host sentence-like constructions (clauses) of short time adverbials were extracted, and their features in terms of meaning (semantics), form (morphology) and sentence position were compared and contrasted. The results were statistically analyzed and presented in tables and graphs.

1.2 Project objective
The objective of the project is to enhance Macedonian linguistics and aid Macedonian English language professionals (English language teachers, translators, and others) with using temporal adverbials. Another objective is presented by the comparative component. Both languages, English and Macedonian, illustrate certain relational characteristics. Additionally, we came to a conclusion that Macedonian short temporal adverbials are semantically extremely complex, which was shown by the variety of the English translational equivalents. In this way, English served as a meta-language.

2. Findings

2.1 Morphological/semantic
Temporal adverbials are mostly represented by adverb phrases. Their predominance in the overall Macedonian corpus, with more than 67% (2122 out of 3160), is generally attributed to the nature of the corpus. The majority of the adverb phrases are extracted from the literary part of the corpus, which is abundant with time-setting temporal adverbials which serve as story-line connectives.
Biber et al. (1999) rate the frequencies of simple temporal adverbial in English (from top to bottom). In Table 1, we have included the corresponding rate of frequencies in Macedonian (based on our corpus findings), and we can clearly see that the rate of occurrence of certain adverbs is somewhat at the same level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English corpus</th>
<th>Macedonian corpus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>sega (<em>now</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>then</td>
<td>pak/povtorno (<em>again</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>again</td>
<td>vekje (<em>already</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>always</td>
<td>ushte (<em>still, anymore</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>still</td>
<td>togash (<em>then</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
<td>posle/najposle (<em>later</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>denes(ka) (<em>today</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ago</td>
<td>sekogash (<em>always</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ever</td>
<td>nikogash (<em>never</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>just</td>
<td>nekogash (<em>sometimes</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td>se ushte (<em>still</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>already</td>
<td>podocna (<em>later</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>utre (<em>tomorrow</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yet</td>
<td>vednash (<em>now</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
<td>prvo/prvin (<em>first</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often</td>
<td>dolgo/podolgo (<em>long-er</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>usually</td>
<td>chesto/počesto/chestopati (<em>often</em>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, there are certain short temporal adverbs that specifically caught our attention. They are mostly anaphoric or deictic, and many times can have different translational equivalents, depending on their meaning. Such examples are: *togash*, *posle*, *ushte*, *vekje* and *pak*. Their rate of occurrence is extremely high in Macedonian, while at the same time they are the adverbs which the translators usually did not find necessary for completing the meaning of the sentence, and omitted. Their English translational equivalents are given in Table 2, where we can clearly observe their semantic complexity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macedonian adverbs</th>
<th>English translations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>togash</em></td>
<td>then, already, at that instant, back then, in those days, now, no translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>posle</em></td>
<td>then, afterwards, before long, from then on, after a while, keep+V, no translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ushte</em></td>
<td>still, yet, very; once again, again, one last time, never, a little/much longer; another, somewhat, further, even, now, more, no translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vekje</em></td>
<td>already, now, again, even, rather, any more, any/no longer, never again, no translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>pak</em></td>
<td>again, once again, still, now, then, always, soon, no translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Sentence position

English is a highly configurational language, especially in canonical sentences. The position of the sentence elements has the capability of assigning sentence functions. Adverbials are the optional elements which display the highest rate of inter-sentential movement.
The sentence positions of temporal adverbials in English are based on three criteria: semantics, length and phrasal type. The first criterion, semantics (temporal), offers a variety of sentence positions – temporal adverbials are the most mobile sentence elements. They are more likely to be found in initial position than any other adverbial type (place, manner, etc.), thus slightly bending the 50% inclination of all adverbials to occupy the sentence final position in English. This can be partially attributed to the time-setting feature of temporal adverbials. The remaining criteria, length and phrasal type, are somewhat interconnected. Prepositional phrases are the most inert ones, tending to occupy the extreme ends of the sentence. Adverb phrases are usually composed of single temporal adverbs and can occupy almost every single position available to adverbials in general.

Macedonian is considered to be a free word order language. The functions of the sentence elements are usually not connected to their sentence positions. As an analytic language, full of clitics and inflectional suffixes for person, tense and gender (3rd person singular), Macedonian lines sentence elements by the rule of Functional Sentence Perspective, i.e. uses extra-grammatical information, such as communicativeness, pragmatics, focusing, etc.

For the purpose of the research, according to the attempts of English linguists Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999), we devised special positional criteria, which could be applied to both languages, thus offering common grounds for comparison (Table 3). However, even in Macedonian as a language with scrambling features, certain preferences and patterns could be extracted. There is a 20% higher rate of placing temporal adverbials at the near-the-beginning positions of the sentence (initial and medial-initial).

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpus</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Macedonian</td>
<td>At the beginning of the sentence, before any other sentence elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before the VP, but after another obligatory sentence element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between the verb сун/имам and a verboid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After the VP, before any other sentence element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At the end of the sentence, after all the remaining sentence elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>At the beginning of the sentence, before the subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After the subject, before the VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between the operator and the main verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After the VP, before any other sentence element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At the end of the sentence, after all the remaining sentence elements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Macedonian short adverbs, due to their shortness can be found in every single position in the sentence (even between the verb and its direct/indirect object/s). However, since most of them tend to be close-range subjuncts (they “stick” to the elements they modify), no distinctive positional patterns could be displayed. Pak (again) presented the exception to this rule.

2.2.1 The case of PAK (AGAIN)

Pak illustrated the only definite comparative positional difference between Macedonian and English. While in English, again is mostly found after the verb (or at the end of the sentence), in Macedonian pak is mostly pre-verbal (initial or medial-initial position). In 80% of its occurrence, pak is shifted in final position in the English translational equivalents, which proves the final-position preference. In the remaining 20%, it keeps its initial position. In the following Table 4, the positional shift in пак's translation is given statistically:

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions of again in translation from Macedonian into English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>initial to final position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initial to initial position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medial-initial to final position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medial-final to final position</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 A characteristic common for all Slavic languages.
2 This criterion includes all the positions between the auxiliary verbs. However, we have witnessed very few examples of sentences with more than 2 auxiliaries.
In the following examples, the most common shifts to final position (Table 4), i.e. initial to final (1) – (6) and medial-initial to final (7)-(8), are illustrated:

(1) I pak kje se fati.
   and again will itself take root-it-PRESENT (perf.)
   ...and takes root again.

(2) Pak se poglednaa...
   again themselves look each other-they-PAST (perf.)

   They glanced at one another again...

(3) ...i pak si legnuvam kraj decata.
   and again myself lay down-I-PRESENT (imperf.) next to children-THE.
   ...and lay down next to the children again.

(4) Pak si napravil nekoja budalshtina...
   Again to be-you-PRESENT do-l-form some stupidity...
   (Unwitnessed past)

   You've been up to one of your stupid tricks again.

(5) ...pak se kleshteshe Adam Lesnovec.
   again himself shrieked-he-PAST (imperf.) Adam Lesnovec
   ...Adam Lesnovec shrieked again...

(6) Potoa pak kje se zafati so jadenjeto.
   then again would himself engage-he-PRESENT (imperf.) with eating-the.

   Then he started eating again.

(7) ...no toj pak ja grabnal i...
   but he again her-direct object grabbed-PAST (unwitnessed) and
   ...but he grabbed her again....

(8) ..., i rekata pak proteche,...
   and river-the again flow-it-PAST(perf.)

   ..., and the river began to flow once again.

3. Conclusion

This research of short temporal adverbials culminated in invaluable findings in Macedonian linguistics concerning the semantic complexity of certain short temporal adverbs, as well as their positional preferences.

The insight that Macedonian English language professionals obtained is highly referent to their professional work (in teaching, translating, theoretical linguistics and many interdisciplinary fields). The output of native English speakers proved to be a very efficient methodology in this research.

We hope for further advances in this field.
References


Cultural Differences in School Success

Ph.D Fitnet Hasekiu

Abstract: In Albania live together many ethincal groups and one of them is Roma ethincal group. The main focus in this article is the identification of cultural differences in school success. The data in this study are collected through naturalistic observation and survey. It is observed that Roma students have lower success in school than Albanian students. I have studied this phenomenon extensively and have come up with some explanations. When Albanian students enter school, they enter ready – academically, socially, and emotionally – to learn in the school environment. Their parents have read to them since they were infants, so books are familiar friends. They have had experiences sharing toys with other children and have been trained how to handle conflicts in a nonaggressive manner. Not so for many Roma students, who came from a different culture – the culture of the streets. Their parents are forced to prepare them to survive life on the street of the city, rather than to read and write in a classroom. They may not even have seen a picture book before, much less listened as someone read to them. They may never had a chance how to work cooperatively with others or share – they may not have had many toys to share.

1. Introduction

In Albania, as in many other countries of the world, society is characterized by cultural diversity. In Albania live together different groups of people who differ from each other by language, customs, manners and behavior as well as by other aspects of life, as for example: Albanians, Roma, Egyptians, Greek minority.

The cultural and ethnic diversity plays a very important role in many aspects of human life, and especially in the education of children. When children start school, they already have absorbed many aspects of the culture in which they are grown, such as language, beliefs, habits, modes of behavior, etc. The child’s culture background may be influenced by his ethnicity, socio-economic status, religious, the spoken language at home and other experiences of the social group to which he belongs. Many of the behaviors that are associated with the fact of being raised in a particular culture, have important implications and consequences in the further education of the child in school.

2. The aim of the study

From various observations and meetings with teachers, school psychologists, officials of the Regional Education Directorate, colleagues from different NGOs, students and parents I noticed visible differences between the school results of students coming from Albanian families and those coming from Roma families. Results of children from Roma families are lower. The purpose of this research study is the identification of factors that influence these poor results. The hypothesis was that: the different ethnic, cultural and family background, family planning, elements of inferiority complex, student motivation and expectations of teachers are some of the most significant factors that affect changes in school results between the Albanian and Roma students.

3. Methodology

To prove the hypothesis in a scientific way, in this study were carried out two types of research: confidential and natural observation and surveys in three schools in the city of Elbasan, which are distinguishable by the their heterogeneous students. These schools are attended by Albanian and Roma students.

1. Population: The difference between school results of students from Albanian families and those coming from Roma families are noticeable to students of all grades of elementary schools, but to study the factors that influence these changes were studied the first-grade students, given the fact that the factors who affect the differences in school performance are more obvious to first grade students. Hence, the theoretical population of this empirical research study is: the first grade students in the city of Elbasan.

2. The sample: A total of 450 first grade students of three elementary schools,(225 Albanian students and 225 Romas students), respectively 150 students "Hamit Mullisi" school, 150 from "Abdyl Paralloi" school, 150 from "Sule Misiri" school. Schools were selected in collaboration with the Regional Education Directorate in a noncasual way. The students were selected in a noncasual way in terms of social, cultural and familiar background, so that the data were more objective, reliable and valid. Students were selected in casual way in terms of their sex.
3. **Methodological steps of research:** The study was complied with all appropriate methodological steps, and almost professional ethics. The followed steps are listed below:

   a) The development of the hypothesis.
   b) The determination of the theoretical population on which the experiment was conducted.
   c) The construction of the sample.
   d) The realization of the pre-test for defining the hypothesis and the technical check of the hypothesis.
   e) The development of the final draft's version of the questionnaire, in cooperation with representatives of the Regional Education Directorate Elbasan, elementary teachers of selected schools, school psychologists and representatives of NGOs whose activity focus is the Roma community.
   f) Implementation of the questionnaire. For conducting this questionnaire was taken permission from the Regional Education Directorate Elbasan, and from parents of surveyed students. To them were explained in details the goals, objectives and modalities of the questionnaire within this study. Also they were insured for their children's anonymity and were asked not to speak with their children prior to the questionnaire, so that they are not influenced in their responses from their parents. To the student were also taken their consent of taking part in the questionnaire and were also clarified any ambiguity about the questions and the procedure of the questionnaire completing and were assured that their data will remain confidential. To avoid discrimination in the questionnaire were not asked to determine the ethnicity. Directly after the delivery of each questionnaire completed by Roma students, were secretly marked by me, to enable the distinction of the answers given by the Albanian and Roma students.
   g) The selection of questionnaires evaluated as regular. Some of the students had made mistakes in completing the questionnaire, they have crossed several alternatives to a question, which made the questionnaire not regarded as regular.
   h) The data entry and their processing in SPSS program.
   i) The interpretation of the data.

4. **The data analysis**

Based on intensive observations and the results obtained by statistical processing of questionnaires's data the hypothesis was confirmed. So as the most important factors in the differences of the school’s results of Albanian and Roma students are: the different cultural, ethnic and family background, the family planning, elements of the inferiority complex, the student motivation and the teacher expectations.

1) **Different cultural, ethnic and family background**

Key elements of culture, who have a significant impact on education of children are: the language, the modes of behavior, etc. There are precisely these elements which are different for students from Albanian and Roma families.

   a) **Language:** In Albanian schools the legally recognized and the used language is the standard Albanian language. It is precisely this language, which must be used by all students who attend schools, students of Albanian families, as well as those of the Roma families. For students coming from Albanian family that is something easier, because it is precisely the same language they have learned to use in their homes. But for children from the Roma families it is rather difficult. In their homes they have already learned to use the language that is spoken from the Roma community and at schools they face a different language. Somehow it could be considered as a “foreign” language, taking into account the fact that they must not only talk and understand complex sentences in Albanian language, but also they must write and read it. As seen in the graphic 75% of the surveyed Roma children have difficulty understanding Albanian standard language, versus 25% of surveyed Albanian children. (See chart 1).
Chart 1: Difficulties of Roma respondents (75%) and Albanian respondents (25%) in using the standard Albanian language

b) Modes of behavior. At the time the Albanian students attend school, they are in general more able to follow and apply instructions, to understand and give reasons and to use complex language skills than Roma children. This is due to the fact that Albanian parents generally provide their children the best models for language use, they often talk and read to their children and encourage them to read and perform other educational activities. They are particularly very interested to provide all teaching materials for their children at home like: books, encyclopedia for kids, puzzles, 97% of Albanian respondents, and even computers, 76% of Albanian respondents. They, eventhough not very often, expose their children to learning experiences outside the home, 5% of Albanian respondents, such as: visits to the museum, concerts and exhibitions. 83% of them have made color drawing and only 2% of them are forced to work. (See chart 3). Albanian parents are more inclined, more willing and more able to engage themselves in the learning process of their children. They have high expectations and require their children to have high marks at school. Almost all the opposite happens with Roma parents. Faced with numerous socio-economic problems, they perceive as their main goal to children their survival. In the case of this study, about 25% of Roma respondents, for survival, are forced to work alongside their parents. And 34% of Roma respondents claim to have had contact with illustrated books for children; 30% have have made color drawing. (See chart 2). But anyway this is still considered a little, in comparison with Albanian children. Roma parents have not attended school regularly and did not have high marks out there, and therefore consider as normal the low results and does not require to their children high marks. In many cases Roma parents do not even own cash to equip their children with appropriate educational tools. The most of Roma parents don’t have the appropriate education to support and assist their children in the learning process.

Chart 2: The use of books (34%), work (25%), drawings (30%), visits to exhibitions and concerts (5%), as well as the use of computer (5%) of Roma respondents.
2) Family planning

Albanian families mainly tend to have fewer children, on the average 2 to 3 children. Individuals derived from the Albanian families in most cases bring to life children, after having finished college and having secured a job. As a result they have available time and enough money to support their children in the teaching and learning process, 76% of Albanian respondent (See chart 4) admitted that their parents support them in the teaching and learning process. The situation of Roma families is different. They are apt to arise more children, on the average 3 to 5 children. They also bring to life children in a very young age, in most cases after they have finished the elementary school and when they are still unemployed and homeless. As a result they sometimes do not possess the necessary monetary means and time to support their children in the teaching and learning process. 47% of Roma respondent admitted that their parents don’t support them in the teaching and learning process.

3) Inferiority complex elements.

The collective unconscious of the Roma community is an element which affects noticeably in negative self-perception of Roma children. Being part of a community, which often mistakenly is labeled as "illiterate", Roma children exhibit elements of inferiority complex, which prevents them achieve higher grades in school. They unconsciously perceive themselves as unable to learn. Albanian parents in most cases have enough confidence in their children's abilities to succeed and they transmit that confidence to their own children; and the children naturally tend to reach that what they believe they can achieve.
4) The student’s motivation

Albanian parents express high academic expectations for their children and praise and reward them for their intellectual development. Albanian children tend to perceive themselves as "superior" in terms of social or intellectual aspects against Roma children. Albanian students are much more motivated, 76% of Albanian respondents admitted to be motivated for success and high grades in school. (See chart 6). Motivation, hope and faith in themselves that will succeed is an important factor for their high grades.

5) Teacher’s expectations

Mainly in Albanian schools are reflected the cultural values and norms of Albanian families and the most teachers belong to this culture. Students belonging to the Roma culture mainly suffer disadvantages and inferiority. Even the teachers themselves in their expectations and providing tasks discriminate the Roma students. They have lower expectations and give Roma children easier task than those to Albanian students, always based on the idea that the Roma students do not inspire or are not able to perform difficult or complex tasks. 76% of Albanian students, versus 44% of Roma pupils, say teachers expect high scores on them. (See chart 7).
Chart 7: Teacher expectations on Albanian (76%) and Roma respondents (44%)

5. The limits of the study

This study contains a number of restrictions. First, the number of sample of this study is relatively small which may not allow generalization to all populations. Second, given the fact that this study has been conducted only by me, could have elements of subjectivity. Thirdly, not all the possible variables are taken into consideration.

6. Conclusions and suggestions

Students vary. They differ in terms of performance level, learning styles and learning rate. They differ in terms of ethnic, cultural and linguistic skills. These differences are noticed enough to Roma and Albanian children, differences that affect a lot in the differences between their results at school.

Culture profoundly affects teaching and learning. Many aspects of culture contribute to the learner’s identity and self-concept and affect the learner’s belief and values, attitudes and expectations, social relations, language use, and other behaviors.

Differences in terms of ethnic, cultural and social class are factors that have a very significant impact on changes in school performance and especially low grades. Family environment greatly affects the above differences. Roma pupils come from an environment lacking the appropriate social service and health and other factors that reduce motivation, achievements and their mental health. Also teachers have low expectations of Roma children and this affects their motivation and their academic achievements. Home environment influences not only academic readiness for school, but also the level of student’s achievement.

The stereotype can be wrong. Roma children should not be regarded as unable to achieve high scores in school. If they receive proper attention, the situation may change. However, the mere fact that some children initially do not know what is expected of them and have fewer entry-level skills than others, does not mean that they are destined for academic failure. I suggest to the parents to express high expectations for their children and to reward them for intellectual development. I also suggest them to provide good models for language use, to talk and read to their children frequently, and to encourage reading and other learning activities and especially to help their children to succeed in school and to be involved in their education.

References

http: www.instat.com
The Impact of Demographic, Socio-economic and Behavioral Characteristics on Attitudes Toward Credit Cards in Macedonia

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Abstract: Credit cards have become an important part of everyday life without which lot of people can not imagine their life. The aim of this paper is to reveal the demographic, socio-economic and behavioral differences in credit cards attitudes in Macedonia. First, attitudes toward payment cards were examined by employing factor analysis. The reliability of the scale was examined using the Cronbach’s alpha. The respondents were administered the 12-item version of the credit card attitude scale and asked questions regarding their demographic, socio-economic and behavioral characteristics. ANOVA test was used to reveal the gender and age (demographic) differences, income and household type (socio-economic) differences and behavioral (number of credit cards owned, period of ownership, payment of balance and usage frequency) differences in components of credit cards attitudes. The results of factor analysis identified three subscales of short credit card attitude scales while ANOVA showed significant gender and frequency of use differences on all three credit cards attitude components, whereas other demographic, socio-economic and behavioral factors showed significant differences on some of the components of the attitudes toward credit cards. Recommendations presented in this research may foster growth of Macedonian credit card usage and help banks, financial and non-financial institutions in designing their marketing strategies.

Keywords: attitudes, credit cards, cognitive, affective, behavioral

1. Introduction

The topic of credit card attitudes has been subject of lots of research studies so far. Large number of research studies focused on determining the motives for holding credit cards and reasons for credit card use (Lee and Kwon, 2002, Barker and Sekerkaya, 1992, Lee and Hogarth, 1999; Bernthal, Crockett and Rose, 2005). Also, researchers have been interested in understanding credit card usage behaviour and differences in behaviour among different demographic and socio-economic segments (Wickramasinghe and Grugamage, 2009; Kaynak and Harcar, 2001). Additionally, the topics related to attitudes toward debt and money and characteristics of the credit card holders had received interest among the researchers. (Yang, James and Lester, 2005, Hayhoe, Leach and Turner, 1999). Moreover, types of credit card purchase had been analysed by lots of authors. (Kaynak and Harcar, 2001; Lindley, Rudolph and Selby, 1989; Hayhoe, Leach, Turner, Bruin and Lawrence, 2000; Wickramasinghe and Gurugamage, 2009). Although all these findings contribute to better understanding of the topic, however there are contradictions in research findings. Furthermore, there are limited studies that focus on determining the demographic, socio-economic and behavioural differences on different components of attitudes towards credit cards. Thus, the first aim of this paper is to investigate the attitudes toward credit cards in the Republic of Macedonia and explore the reliability of credit card attitude scale developed by Hayhoe, Leach and Turner, 1999. The paper further explores the influence of various demographic, socio-economic and behavioural factors on components of credit card attitudes among which several factors (income, type of the household, usage frequency and period of ownership) are the least explored factors in the literature. In addition, as the attitudes toward credit cards have been widely examined on student population, the present study advances the knowledge on this subject by focusing on the whole population aged above 18. Also, the most of the research studies focus on well-developed countries while the credit card attitudes research studies in South-Eastern European countries and particularly Balkan countries are rare or they have not been conducted at all. Consequently, another aim of this paper is to investigate the attitudes toward credit cards and the influence of demographic, socio-economic and behavioural factors on attitudes toward credit cards in the Macedonian context, thus contributing to a better understanding of attitudes toward credit cards in developing countries. Regarding Macedonia, this study is first attempt to explore attitudes toward credit cards and the impact of demographic, socio-economic and behavioural factors on attitudes toward credit cards.

Accordingly, this study is aimed at answering the following research questions: (1) is the short credit card attitude scale a reliable instrument for measuring attitudes toward credit cards in Macedonian context?; (2) are there differences among people in their attitudes toward credit cards regarding demographic, socio-economic and behavioural characteristics?
1.1. Usage of credit cards in the Republic of Macedonia

In the last several years there has been a big increase of the usage of credit cards among the citizens of the Republic of Macedonia as a result of ongoing reforms in the payment system with European integration as a main goal. According to the National bank of Macedonia, credit cards generally show growth with uneven intensity (in terms of number of credit cards in circulation, number of executed transactions and value of executed transactions) in the period 2005-2011 with some exceptions in 2011 comparing to 2010 (when negative growth rate in number of credit cards in circulation was noted) and in 2009 comparing to 2008 (when negative growth rates in number of credit cards in circulation, number of executed transactions and value of executed transactions were noted). In general, in the period 2005-2011, the number of credit cards in circulation in Macedonia has shown an average annual growth rate of 27.4%, the number of executed transactions with credit cards in Macedonia has shown an average annual growth rate of 30.2% and value of executed transactions with credit cards has shown an average annual growth rate of 23.5%.

The consumers play an important role in usage of credit cards. The attitudes toward credit cards are of critical importance when deciding whether to pay the product with credit card or in cash. In order to discover the reasons for growth in credit card use in the Republic of Macedonia, it is important to understand an individual’s attitudes towards credit cards.

2. Literature review and conceptual framing

In this section, the literature review on credit card attitudes and the influence of demographic, socioeconomic and behavioral factors on credit card attitudes will be presented.

Credit card attitudes. According to Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975 (theory of reasoned action) attitudes and subjective norms influence intentions and the intentions influence behaviour. Ajzen (1991) claimed that a positive attitude toward the object (in this case credit cards) is a major antecedent of an individual’s intention to behave (in this case to hold and use credit cards). Additionally, some authors claimed that attitude might not necessary predict behaviour and that the relationship between attitude and behaviour is generally weak (Wäneryd, 1999). According to cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) attitudes are based on behaviour. Although diverse, all these findings provide support for including attitudes in the analysis and prediction of behaviour.

Many researchers have analyzed attitude components which influence people to behave in a certain way. Cognitive component of an attitude refers to knowledge and thoughts that consumers have, affective component involve feelings and behavioral component refers to actions. In 1995 Xiao, Noring and Anderson developed 37-item scale for measuring college students’ attitudes towards credit cards. They identified 3 components named as cognitive, affective and behavioral. Cognitive attitude component was measured with ten statements, feelings about credit cards (affective) were measured with fifteen statements and twelve statements were related to credit cards usage (behavioral). In 1999 Hayhoe, Leach and Turner developed 12-item attitude scale (short attitude scales). They used four items in each of the three subscales (three attitude component) meaning that the scale composed of four statements dealing with feeling about credit cards (affective), four statements dealing with knowledge (cognitive) and four statements relating to usage of credit cards (behavioral). They revealed that all three subscale scores predicted credit card possession in students in the USA. Later Yang, James and Lester (2005) confirmed the existence of three components of attitudes toward credit cards in their research based on short credit card attitude scale. Based on the discussed literature review, it can be hypothesized that the short credit card attitudes scale is a reliable instrument for measuring credit card attitudes in the Republic of Macedonia (comprised of affective, cognitive and behavioral components).

Several researchers have examined the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of people and their influence on credit card attitudes and use.

Demographic characteristics: Gender is a demographic factor whose influence on credit cards usage and attitudes has been examined in lots of studies. Adcock, Hirschman and Goldstucker (1977) claimed that bank credit card users were more likely to be male. Gender influenced the types of credit card purchase; females use credit cards more for household goods, clothing and personal belongings (Hayhoe et al., 2000; Kaynak and Harcar 2001), while males for electronics, entertainment, travel and food away from home (Hayhoe et al., 2000; Kaynak and Harcar, 2001). Wichramasinghe and Gurugamage (2009) found significant gender differences only in making payments for medical bills, where females tend to pay medical expenses more than males (p.442). Xiao, Noring and Anderson 1995 revealed that male students had more positive attitude toward credit cards than female students. On the other hand, Kaynak and Harcar (2001) found no significant relationship between genders and attitudes towards credit cards (p.34).
Beside gender, age is another demographic variable that has been frequently used on these types of studies. The literature suggests that the influence of age on credit card attitudes and usage practice are mixed. For example, Adcock et al., 1977 have reported that age has a negative impact on credit card usage. Crook, Hamilton and Thomas (1992) found that younger rather than older credit card holders are more likely to use their credit card, with the most likely users falling into the 30-40 age bracket. The least likely users are those aged 60 or over (p.257). Barker and Sekerkaya (1993) found that the middle-aged group was more likely to hold and use credit cards. On the other hand, Kaynak and Harcar (2001) revealed that there are no statistically significant differences among age groups by their attitudes towards credit cards (p.33). Later, Wickramasinghe and Gurugamage, (2012) found that age doesn’t have influence on credit card ownership and use. Warwick and Mansfield (2000) found no significant differences with regard to demographic characteristics (gender and age) and attitudes toward credit cards among students.

**Socio-economic characteristics:** Income is one of the socio-economic variables that have been found to be significant in credit card usage along with other demographic and behavioral characteristics of the customers (Adcock, Hirschman and Goldstucker 1977, Chien and Devaney, 2001; Kaynak and Harcar 2001; Lee and Kwon 2002). According to Crook, Hamilton and Thomas (1992) the most likely users are those with the highest income and the least likely are those with lower income (less than £2,200). Positive relationship between the amount of credit card debt and household net income was found by Wasberg, Hira and Fanslau (1992). Regarding the household types and characteristics, literature suggests that size of the family influences credit card ownership and use. Kinsey (1981) found that two-person households have more credit cards than single-person households.

**Behavioral characteristics** have been examined in lot of research studies so far. Lee and Hogarth, (1999), found that most of the convenience users, who use credit cards as an easy mode of payment, almost always paid off their credit card charges (pay their balance in full upon receiving the account statement), while most of the revolvers, who use the card as a mode of financing, said that they hardly ever paid off (they choose to pay interest charges on the unpaid balance) (p.30). Wickramasinghe and Gurugamage (2009) found that most of the people tend to make a payment that is greater than, or equal to, minimum payment due, while the percentage of people who tend to pay their balance in full upon receiving the account statement is low. Kaynak and Harcar (2001) claimed that attitudes are increasingly positive towards credit cards as the length of time of ownership increases (p.35). They found that the longer the period of ownership, the more positive attitudes of credit cards owners toward usage. According to Crook, Hamilton and Thomas (1992) people who are least likely to use their card are those who have held a bank account for less than six months and for 19 years and over. In contrast, the most likely card users are those who have held a bank account for four or five years. Xiao, Noring and Anderson 1995 revealed students who had more credit cards and students who used them more frequently had more positive attitudes toward credit cards comparing with those who had no credit card and those who used them less frequently. Wickramasinghe and Gurugamage (2011), claimed that users who owned credit cards for less than 5 years perceive that credit cards lead to more spending (p.85). According to Ahmed, Amanullah and Hamid (2009) with the increase of age, consumers discard multiple cards and just hold one or two cards (p.54). In the research conducted on the sample of students, Hayhoe, Leach and Turner 1999 found that students who reported not having credit cards scored lower on affective credit card attitude as compared with students with credit cards. Students with four or more credit cards thought more about consequences of using credit (cognitive credit attitude).

On the basis of the previous studies that concentrated on the influence of the demographic, socio-economic and behavioral characteristics of individuals on credit card use (gender, age, income, type of household, number of credit cards owned, payment of credit bills, period of ownership and frequency of usage) and subscales of the short credit card attitude scale, ANOVA test was employed.

3. Research methodology

The research presented in this paper relies on the short attitude scale developed by Hayhoe, Leach and Turner (1999). The survey instrument used consisted of two parts. The first part gathered demographic, socio-economic and behavioral characteristics (8 statements) and the second part included 12 five-point Likert statements related to credit cards attitudes ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The eight demographic, socio-economic and behavioral variables were: gender and age (demographic), average household income and type of the household (socio-economic), and number of credit cards owned, payment of monthly credit card bills, frequency of credit card use and period of ownership (behavioral). The twelve statements related to credit cards attitudes reflect the cognitive, affective and behavioral attitudes toward credit cards. The cognitive attitudes involve thoughts (e.g. Heavy use of credit cards results in heavy debt); affective attitudes involve emotional feelings (e.g. My credit card makes me feel happy); while behavioral attitudes
involve actions (e.g. I would like to apply for more credit cards). In total, the questionnaire used in the paper consisted of 20 statements.

The sample for this study comprises 143 respondents aged from 18 to 68. In the Republic of Macedonia people can have credit card if they are aged above 18 and have regular monthly salary or current account with the bank. Banks and other non-financial institutions (since October 2011 in Macedonia besides financial institutions it is allowed non-financial institutions to issue credit cards as well) don’t issue credit cards to retired people aged above 68. Respondents were selected at random, informed about the purpose of the research and asked if they had credit cards and were willing to complete the questionnaire. If they didn’t have credit cards and were not willing to participate in the survey, the next convenient respondent was selected. Among 150 respondents randomly selected, only 143 usable responses were received, for an overall response rate of 95.3%. Gender was the only control variable. Among the 142 people who gave exploitable responses, 50.7% were men and 49.3% were women reflecting the gender structure of the population in the Republic of Macedonia (according to the State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia 49.9% of the citizens are females and 50.1% are males). The sample size is above the recommended minimum level of at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analyzed. (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tathan, 2006). The profile of the sample is presented in table 2.

Table 2. Sample characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle-aged</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>type of the household</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>married couple with or without child(ren)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single parent with child(ren)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non married couple with or without child(ren)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non family household (one person household/multi persons household)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>number of credit cards owned</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>several</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lot</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>payment of credit bills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum payment</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between the minimum and full amount</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>credit bills in full</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>frequency of use</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very rare</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>once in a couple of days</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>every day</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>period of ownership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recently</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couple of months</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one year and more</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data analysis was conducted in two stages. First, a factor analysis and Cronbach alpha were used to reveal the components of attitudes toward credit cards and reliability of credit card attitudes scale. In the second stage, ANOVA was employed to reveal the demographic, socio-economic and behavioral differences in credit card attitudes.

4. Results

Construct reliability was assessed using factor analysis with oblimin (oblique) rotation. There were three factors, with 74.4% of explained variance.

Table 3. Factor analysis results, factor loadings (Principal axis factoring, Oblimin (oblique) rotation) (N=142)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>items</th>
<th>Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>behavioral items</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even though I know it is not easy to acquire credit cards, I always try to apply for one more</td>
<td>0.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to try all kinds of credit cards</td>
<td>0.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to possess more credit cards than I have now</td>
<td>0.943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to apply for more credit cards</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>affective items</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My credit card makes me feel happy</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love to have a credit card</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like using credit cards</td>
<td>-0.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The very thought of using credit cards disgusts me</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>cognitive items</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it is unwise to use any credit card</td>
<td>0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavy use of credit cards results in heavy debt</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I use a credit card, my debt rises every day</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of using credit cards is too high</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of variance</td>
<td>36.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability of scales was assessed using Cronbach alpha coefficients. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha for the overall scale was 0.816 whereas subscale reliability measures for dimensions 1, 2 and 3 were 0.83, 0.92 and 0.97, respectively. All reliability measures are above the recommended minimum level of 0.60 (Hair et al., 2006). Cronbach alpha coefficients of the behavioural, affective and cognitive subscales and overall reliability coefficient indicate high internal reliability of the data collected.

As shown in Table 3, three factors were extracted and they are interpreted as: behavioral (4 items), cognitive (4 items) and affective (4 items). Factor 1 (behavioral) accounts for 36.3% of the total explained variance and consists of 4 variables which relate to actions resulted from owning and using credit cards. Factor 2 (affective) accounts for 26.8% of the total explained variance and refers to feelings. Factor 3 (cognitive) accounts for 11.3% of the total explained variance and consists of 4 variables which relates to the thoughts about having and using credit cards for payment. It can be noticed that item 3 in the affective subscale had the lowest loading of all items on its appropriate factor which can be explained with the fact that this item is reversed scored. The alternative for item 3 according to Yang, James and Lester, (2005) could be “the very thought of using credit cards excites me”.

From the table 3 it can be seen that the factor analysis confirmed the assignment of items from the credit cards attitude scale to the three subscales. These conclusions are in line with the conclusions regarding the subscales identified by Hayhoe, Leach and Turner (1999) and Yang, James and Lester (2005).
4.1. Demographic, socio-economic and behavioral differences

The differences (demographic, socio-economic and behavioral) on the three identified factors were evaluated by ANOVA technique, where a p<0.05 was considered significant.

Table 5. Gender, age and income differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>gender</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sample average</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>112,336</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,884</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f3</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25,597</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As compared to female credit card users, males have more “favorable” cognitive, affective and behavioral attitudes toward credit cards. Young people have less “favorable” behavioral attitudes toward credit cards, while middle-aged people have more “favorable” cognitive and behavioral attitudes toward credit cards. Regarding the income, people with average income show less than average affective score and more favorable cognitive score.

Table 6. Payment practice, type of household differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>payment</th>
<th>minimum</th>
<th>between min. and full amount</th>
<th>full amount</th>
<th>p value/F value</th>
<th>type of household</th>
<th>married couple with or without child(ren)</th>
<th>single parent with child(ren)</th>
<th>non married couple with or without child(ren)</th>
<th>non family household</th>
<th>p value/F value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f1</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>1.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39,383</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>11,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f3</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>1,598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13,877</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the payment practice it can be noted that people who pay credit bills in full have more “favorable” behavioral, affective and cognitive attitudes toward credit cards comparing to people who pay minimum amount of credit bills and those who pay between minimum and full amount. Married couples have less “favorable” affective attitudes toward credit cards while single parents with child(ren) have more “favorable” attitudes in general toward credit cards.
### Table 7. Number of credit cards, frequency of use and period of ownership differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number of credit cards</th>
<th>frequency of use</th>
<th>period of ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P value/ F value</td>
<td>p value/ F value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>several</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number of credit cards</th>
<th>frequency of use</th>
<th>period of ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P value/ F value</td>
<td>p value/ F value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>several</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People who have many credit cards have more “favorable” behavioral, cognitive and affective attitudes toward credit cards comparing to people who hold one or several credit card, just like the people who use credit cards every day. With the increase of period of ownership, “favorability” of behavioral attitudes toward credit cards increases. Those who use credit cards for a year or longer, have more “favorable” behavioral, affective and cognitive attitudes toward credit cards.

The ANOVA test showed that there are significant differences between males and females (p<0.05) on all 3 factors (behavioral, affective and cognitive). The same conclusion can be made for frequency of credit card use as there are significant differences among people who use credit card rarely, people who use it once in a couple of days and people who use it every day on all three attitude components. There are significant differences among people who make minimum payment, people who pay between the minimum and full amount and those who pay the credit bills in full on behavioral and cognitive attitudes toward credit cards. Also, there are significant differences among the people who have got credit card recently, who possessed it couple of months ago and those who had credit card long time ago on both behavioral and cognitive attitude components. Significant differences can be noticed among different income groups, among people with different number of credit cards owned and among people who belong to different household type on affective component of attitudes. According to the ANOVA test results (Table 6), it was proved that there are significant differences among young, middle aged and old people only on cognitive component of attitudes toward credit cards.

5. Conclusions and discussions

The factor analysis revealed that short credit card attitude scale was highly reliable instrument for measuring attitudes toward credit cards in the Republic of Macedonia. The results of the analysis showed three subscales of short credit card attitude scales named as behavioral, affective and cognitive subscales. The three subscales had high Cronbach alpha coefficients indicating the satisfactory reliability. The high value of Cronbach alpha coefficient for the overall scale indicated satisfactory item-total reliability. The findings from this study indicate that one demographic characteristic (gender) and one behavioral characteristic (frequency of credit cards use) showed differences in all three components of the attitude toward credit cards. Two behavioral characteristics (payment of credit card bills and period of ownership) displayed the differences in terms of behavioral and cognitive components of attitudes toward credit cards. Income, type of household and number of credit cards owned showed differences only in terms of affective component of the attitudes while age only in terms of cognitive component of the attitudes.

Institutions who are involved in issuing credit cards should take advantage of the fact that people with certain demographic, socio-economic and behavioral characteristics have different attitudes toward credit cards. For example, since age groups differ in terms of their attitudes toward credit cards, banks should develop special communications programs to target people from particular age group having in mind their attitudes toward credit cards and thus achieving the marketing and communications objectives. If the company wants to create more positive cognitive attitudes toward credit cards, it can use rational appeals in its marketing communications activities directed primarily towards young females who pay minimum amount of the credit bills, who use the credit card very rare and possess it couple of months ago. If the company wants to create more positive affective attitudes toward credit cards, it can use emotional appeals in its communications directed toward females and married couples with average income who use credit cards once in a couple of day. Also if the bank wants to create positive behavioral attitudes toward credit cards, it can rely on sales
promotional activities mostly directed toward young people who pay minimum amount of the credit bills, who use credit cards vary rare and who got it couple of months ago. Also segmentation analysis should be made in order to see the characteristics of the people with favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward credit cards and later on to design special marketing programs aimed to different segments. Further analysis could be made in finding correlation between credit card attitudes and money attitudes, as well as in revealing the influence of additional demographic, socio-economic and behavioral characteristics of credit card users on credit cards attitudes.

References


The Significance of the Self-Confidence and the Perceived Value of Learning for the Participation of Adult Learners in Albania

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Abstract The self-confidence and the perceived value of learning of adult learners are very important factors for the participation and the motivation of adults for further education. In this paper is presented and discussed the preliminary results of my work in progress about the significance of three general psychological variables for motivation of adults that return to school that are: the self-confidence, the intrinsic interest value of learning and the extrinsic utility value of learning. For this paper is used only the quantitative methods. The sample is adult students that are frequenting part time studying in Tirana and Elbasan, University. To select the sample from the whole population is used the stage sampling. For gathering data are used interviews. In these interviews, the respondents replied to each statement using a five-point scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The analysis of data has been carried out according to normal statistical methods. In summary, via analysing the data can be said that the self-confidence, the extrinsic utility value of learning and the intrinsic interest value of learning had a strong impact on the motivation of the participation in adult education in these courses.

Keywords: Motivation, self-confidence, the extrinsic utility value of learning, the intrinsic interest value of learning.

Introduction

We know that the self-confidence is a topic that is really important. We also, know that some people are very self-confident and some others not. Most scientists can agree that between the self-confidence and the motivation for adult learners to participate in learning activities does exist a connection. This self-confidence has consequences both on motivation and the behavior. One explanation of this relation can be found in the “self-efficacy” theory (Bandura, 1986; Pajares 1997). Researches connected with this tradition show that people have a tendency to avoid the situations and activities which require levels of the competence which people do not believe they have. Previous research also indicates that the self perception (the self confidence, the perception of one’s own learning abilities, the level of competence, and the expectations of being able to pass a course) are significantly related to the participation in adult education (Skaalvik and Knudsen, 1979). Another explanation of the relation between the self-perception and the motivation is given from Covington (1992). He builds his theory on the fact that ability is highly valued in our society and that ability is seen as the most important cause of good or poor achievement. A positive perception of one’s own abilities will therefore give a feeling of self-worth.

Self-confidence has its goal to extend the activity itself. This factor particularly is connected with the interest and the desire to learn. Cross calls this type of motivation “learning orientation”. To describe this type of motivation, are also been used terms such as the intrinsic interest value of learning (Deci&Ryan, 1985) and the extrinsic utility value of learning (Nicholls, 1984).

The aim of this paper is to present the significance of three general psychological variables for the participation and the motivation in adult education that are, the self-confidence, the intrinsic interest value of learning and the extrinsic utility value of learning.

Methodology

Procedures and sample.

For my study, it is chosen a probability sample, as it is chosen randomly from the wider population. This is very useful, because when the study will be finished, does exist the possibility to make generalizations. Positively, it is used stage sampling (Cohen, L, Manion, L & Morrison, K, 2005). It involves selecting of the sample in stages that is, taking samples from samples. From Tirana and Elbasan University, it is randomly chosen a number of faculties, and from within each of these faculties, it is randomly selected a number of courses, and from within these courses is selected a number of adult students. The sample is composed from adult students from these Universities that are pursuing part time formal education.
The interview

The information, that it is used on the focus of this paper, is obtained using a mixed interview. One of the major themes in the interview was the self-perception in general that is resolved in three components, the self-confidence, the intrinsic interest value of learning and the extrinsic utility value of learning. In these interviews, the respondents were asked to respond to the statements about themselves. They replied to each statement using a five-point scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Also, the respondents were given a detailed explanation as an introduction to the interview.

Sources of error

In common with many other studies in the area of adult education, the part of the study that is presented in this paper is based on self-reporting. The results therefore depend on how the respondents understood the explanations given by the interviewer and their readiness to fulfill the instrument. Some of the question allowed for interpretation by the respondents.

Analysis

The structure of this paper is quantitative. In this paper is discussed for quantitative data, therefore the analysis has been carried out according to statistical methods and the results are represented in tabular form with relevant comments.

Result and Discussion

Three identifiable factors are formed from twenty-one statements: the self-confidence, the intrinsic interest value of learning and the extrinsic utility value of learning. All these components made the bases for a statistical analysis which is described like factor analysis. This is a technique that is based on assumption, which emphasizing some statements we can find more and more about the motivation and self-confidence factors. The aim of the factor analyses was to analyze if factors described above can be identified, if they can diverge clearly from each other and if there exist a statistical evidence to summarize all the statement answer of the same category on a total scale, which can be used after. Table below shows the concrete statements which form each of the factors. The self-confidence factor consists on the estimation of the parameters to which respondents accepted themselves, valued themselves and had confidence in their own ability to learn. Furthermore, all statements composed to measure self-confidence and the self-worth in learning, could not be separated into other factors, and was decided to term one factor, that in this case is self-confidence. The intrinsic interest value of learning factor consisted of respondent’s general desire to learn. The extrinsic utility value of learning factor was connected with expectation of outcome or utility value of learning. Considering that in this study is used scale it was important to measure internal consistency of the scale. This refers to the degree to which the items that make up the scale “hang together” (Pallant, J. 2010). For this reason, one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency is Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. Moreover, all the scales that are used in this study are fewer than ten items, after which it is common to find quite low Cronbach values. These values were relatively acceptable for the self-confidence and the intrinsic value factors, while the value was satisfactory for the extrinsic value factor.

Table of items defining each factor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Self-confidence</td>
<td>I am a valuable person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am satisfied with myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am sure when I talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know I can manage any educational situation if I set my mind to do it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can count on myself, when I decide to learn something, but I can ask for help if it is necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I take a positive attitude toward myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know my weak and my strong points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can face all the critics without strong emotions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Intrinsic interest value of learning</td>
<td>I feel necessary to improve my knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have always wanted to learn more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is always easy for me to learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like to continue my further education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning in itself is fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Extrinsic utility value of learning</td>
<td>I learn only if the course content is interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am pursuing my education because I need a diploma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am pursuing my education because I want to find a better job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have nothing to gain by further education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am pursuing my education because I need to save my job.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

In summary, two variables that are very important for adult to come back to school are the self-confidence variable and specially the extrinsic utility value of learning. First of all, there are important, because being self-confident increases the ability for adults to participate in learning activities and to share with other ideas and opinions. Furthermore, the extrinsic utility value of learning is really outspoken in Tirana University adult students, because some variables such as pursuing the education for a diploma or keeping a job positions are very strongly and systematically related to motivation of participation.

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Shkodra Lake: Social and Environment Problems

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Abstract  The human activity is considered as the main reason for the damage of the lake ecosystem stability. Shkodra Lake is ecologically characterized by a high stability. Clean water and high productivity are considered as potential health factors of this Lake. This ecosystem is one of the most preserved wetlands of the Mediterranean. However, the unfavorable global factors and human activity have a dangerous impact on the ecosystem. The damage of the lake water regime causes oscillations, which lead to disorders for the habitats and ecosystem, creating concerns to the life of populated areas. Contamination from decomposing organic matter degrades the ecosystem in a trophic unrecoverable situation. Destruction of forests around watershed, failure to have anticorrosive measures and wastewater discharges are essential for the growth of solid flows affecting the eutrophism of the lake. Shkodra Lake can’t support these difficult situations by itself alone. It leads to water microbial contamination of beaches and increases people’s concerns. Awareness should be raised to the public, decision making, and the population around it, in order to eliminate these risk factors. Cross contamination with toxic substances penetrate the food chain of biota and end up accumulated up to the humans, causing life-threatening and deadly diseases. People should be aware and should take measures to eliminate discharges to ensure the standards of lake water and consuming resources. Long-term strategies and policies should be set up for developing the Lake region, with main objectives and measures of managing character. Natural ecosystem of Shkodra Lake and the urban ecosystem of Shkodra city will coexist in a better way if harmony and integration of natural development and human activity will be achieved.

Introduction

Shkodra Lake represents a habitat of large dimensions, very interesting, unique and quite complex. Shkodra Lake is located in the Southwest part of the state border of Albania – Montenegro. It is considered as one of the 40 lakes most world known under various names in different languages: in Albanian it is known as Liqeni I Shkodres; in Serbian: Skadarsko Jezero; in Italian: Lago di Scutari, in English Shkodra Lake, etc. The name of this Lake comes from the City of Shkodra (Skadar, Scutari), a town located north of Albania.

The development and the survival of natural ecosystems of Shkodra Lake goes parallel (side by side) with the development of the urban ecosystem of the Lake. Shkodra Lake is included in the system of waters of the Adriatic Sea basin and is located close to it. The characteristics of the Lake are associated with the water regime of this Lake that changes seasonally. The Lake also plays an important role in the demographic development and its surrounding urban area. The Lake watershed has a more complex character and shows a hydrological and ecological interest. The Lake basin provides the existence of the Lake through the water supply.

Buna river that springs from the Lake and flows into Adriatic Sea, historically has been the opening of the city and the region to the Adriatic Sea. In the watershed of Shkodra Lake there live around 330,000 inhabitants, of whom nearly 85% of them are located along the Lake as for instance in Shkodra, Podgorica, Koplik, Bajza, Tuzi, Virpazar, etc. The lower areas of the Lake watershed are agricultural lands used by the residents. The use of natural resources, the industry in the basin of the Shkodra Lake and other economic activities, show that environmental issues of Shkodra Lake are closely related to the problems of the region, with the population and economy and they need perspectives and strategies for a sustainable development. Political changes in both countries, Albania and Montenegro, have also influenced the developing policies related to the ecosystem of the Shkodra Lake.
The demographic movements in the area of Shkodra Lake have been quite frequent recently. Initially, first residents that started to settle near the Lake saw it as an alternative source of living. In this early period, fishery sources were much greater than the demands of the residents hence no management needed. Nowadays, the demand is much greater than the fishery sources of the Lake itself, making it necessary for a right and sustainable management of these resources, which have to do with the development of such policies that require the solution of environmental issues and social problems nationally coordinated.

The identification of the environmental issues of Shkodra Lake and the related social problems of the region should be accompanied by integrated management of solutions, which guarantee a sustainable development of the urban and natural bioecosystem.

Initially, we have identified the environmental problems of Shkodra Lake, based on the two books published by DHORA (2005, 2012) about Shkodra Lake. The diagnostic aspects of the situation are also taken from the GROUP AUTHORS, ROYAL HASKONING (2006), while as to the assessments of habitat and bird community problems; we've been helped by the work of DENAC et al. (2010). Out of this preliminary study, we have selected three environmental problems that are most important from the ecological and functional perspective for the Lake, but also vital to the urban population, particularly those closer to the Lake and the surrounding areas.

The three complex environmental problems are addressed in principle, in accordance with DHORA (2012), but adjusted to our estimates for the recent situation of the Lake. The sociological approach of the problems, closely related to the above, is solely our own contribution. They are observed, identified and addressed in this study according to emergency problems, or due to the abnormal environmental situations of the Lake, often caused by human factors.

**Environmental – Social problems from demographic movements**

In the region of Shkodra Lake, especially during the last decades, an intensive demographic movement towards the shores of the Lake was developed. This movement became apparent after the 90-s, with the change of the political regime in Albania and as a result of poverty, the number of residents in these areas is growing constantly seeing the Lake as a source that contributes to their welfare.
A typical example is the creation of meadows newly neighbourhood of the city, an urban development without criteria in an area quite near the Lake, which right at the start generated many social problems.

The seasonal fluctuations of water level are characteristic of the stability and sensitivity of the Lake.

The development of the Lake beyond the maximum threshold triggers the flooding of meadows area, creating inevitable problems and difficulties for the population, which are often isolated by high water level and even forced for a temporary abandoning of their homes. Problems arising from the floods are associated with the damage of good lands, instability and alterations of habitats, cyclical developments of large areas, which further complicate the problems and difficulties arising to the residents of these areas.

The reduction of the Lake waters under the acceptable maximum level would mitigate the fluctuations and would prevent flood disasters. But it would have a harmful impact on the flora and fauna, would reduce wetland surface, and consequently would have a polluted Lake. Temporarily, we would gain a hydrological and ecological balance, but recovery would last long and the risk of some species to extinct is high. The agricultural lands gained by water decrease under the minimum edge could not be balanced as compared to the devastating impacts on flora and fauna. The above mentioned effects would have a negative impact if the water level would go below its minimum threshold, making the Lake even more polluted, with its surface reduced, parts of the Lake would lose connections, the morphology of Buna River would change and water temperature would rise, etc.

It would therefore be better to have measures that reduce the maximum water threshold but increase its minimum, bringing them to acceptable limits, what would be in favour of a certain ecological desensibilization, and a necessary diversion from hypersensibilization, but with a positive impact to the Lake.

Since the water regime is the main factor of Shkodra Lake ecosystem, the decisions that solve the problems should be based on the complex studies of ecological character. It would be good that the Lake water level be affected simply by the flows and the relationship between flows and exits through Buna River had an acceptable ratio.

Another example is the population of the lowland of Upper Shkodra, the area under Shkoder – Hani i Hotit road, which is a protected area and constructions are prohibited. Human settlements anywhere around the Lake are a concern for the Lake itself, for the presence of birds, vegetation of this area, development of agriculture in an unsustainable area ecologically approached, which means the digging of land, use of uncontrolled of pesticides, etc. Population that settled around the Lake from other areas, was not motivated by the needs and opportunities of agriculture to absorb labor force, on the contrary the remained rest of the population was demotivated to work in agriculture, thus considering the Lake as a source of their livelihood. Poverty and unemployment were the main causes of these migratory movements, but poverty and impatience for a rapid development and prosperity led to an over use and degradation of natural resources of the Lake and its basin in general. The Lake was being seen as a warehouse, that anyone could abuse easily. All these factors, directly or indirectly, led to the deterioration of the water quality of the Lake, damaging and wiping out of forests, destruction of fish populations and change of population structure of species required by the market and reducing the number of birds and even their decolonization.

The use of land around the Lake areas for the purpose of agriculture, tourism, small industries and fishing farms cause considerable damage to the biodiversity of this area. The cultivation of agricultural products has increased so is the use of pesticides and fertilizers, but still the economic benefit from this area remains low.

The population in the basin of the Lake had an unsustainable demographic development, which led to the spoil of the sustainable development of the ecosystem itself.

Demographic movements towards urban centres, even around Shkodra Lake, should be viewed as a positive phenomenon, but that require special attention since they become a factor for the rise and aggravation of the problems in the context of ecosystems, whether natural or urban. The sustainable development always requires environmental support, and should be inclusive of various community problems. As Misja (1998) writes, the general equilibrium can be established only in the context of harmonization of mutual links to the population - environment – development trinomial.

Social - Environmental problems caused from pollutant human activity

Shkodra Lake is highly impacted by human activity. The contamination from decomposing organic matter, out of several sources, degrades the ecosystem into an irreparable trophic situation. Discharges of wastewater containing mainly decomposing organic matter, phosphorus detergents and agricultural fertilizers, which drain from the basin to the Lake, have a major impact on the Lake trophy. Many cities and other populated areas of Montenegro drain in the Lake. Even part of wastewater of Shkodra City, in specific situations, drain into the Lake.
Such difficult pollutant situations, Shkodra Lake cannot support all by itself. This brings the microbial contamination of the waters of the beaches, the risk of various epidemics, the shrink of tourism activities, etc., which adds to the concerns of social problems at the residents of these areas.

The relations saprob - trophy have great importance in creating sustainable ecological situations. Saprobia, which is related to the degree of decomposition of organic matter, is indicated by the amount of oxygen and the composition of the invertebrate animal community. Trophy associated with the amount of nutrients in the water is indicated by N and P and the composition of the invertebrate community. When these nutrient sources are internal as for instance from the biomass of macrophytes, the self cleaning of the Lake brings balance between saprobia and eutrophia in the Lake. But when organic substances enter from aldotone sources like sewage, organic waste, affluent feeds, etc, the establishment of equilibrium between trophy and saprobia becomes impossible.

Chemical pollution of the waters of Shkodra Lake happens due to the factories i.e. from the Aluminum Plant of Podgorica and that of Niksic Steel Processing Factory. These are toxic and cancer substances like: PCB, PCT, PCDD, PCDF, PAH, phenols, F and CN, etc. Their impact increases when discharged substances are combined with each other. Toxic pollution is very harmful because they enter the food chains of biota and end accumulated in high levels in humans causing deadly diseases. Most of these substances are very stable and their chemical decomposition, even from microorganisms, is extremely difficult.

The transfer of nitrates into the digestive apparatus of the humans brings negative consequences for human health causing deadly disease of methemoglobines. Also other toxic pollution as piralena, phenols, etc. are present in the Lake. If taken by humans, they cause diseases to skeletal, respiratory, genital, endocrine systems, etc. Also, even the pesticides used on agricultural lands around the Lake have negative effects on human health.

Metal and plastic materials, not only spoil the view of the coasts, but also become a source of dangerous pollutants. A similar risk comes especially from the area of Zeta, where the wastes of Podgorica City are deposited, which, in different ways and states pass into the waters of the Lake.

The Lake water is the main abiotic component of Shkodra Lake ecosystem, which sustains all the community of living organisms. The utilization of this waterfront property constitutes a development perspective in the region and beyond. The Lakes are a national wealth, but Shkodra Lake belongs to both countries, therefore it requires the development and implementation of agreements and integrated management plans that will lead to a successful development of the Lake and its surrounding areas. The values of the Lake should be preserved and protected by both sides.

Social - environmental problems from the inappropriate use of resources.

Shkodra Lake is quite rich in terms of its natural resources. In the Lake, so far there have been recorded 52 species of fish and 112 species of water birds. The Lake is considered as one of the 4-5 most important wetlands for wintering bird in Europe, with a capacity of 0.25 million individuals, complementing also the Ramsar criteria for the total number of individuals, for the number of individuals for some species, and for the number of bird pairs nesting on the Lake.

Fishing is one of the most profitable activities for the residents around the Lake. During the recent years, fishing in Shkodra Lake has undergone descending changes in amounts and suffered changes in the structure of the species, in the detriment of species required by the market. During the last decades, with the growth of the population and economic standard, processing industry etc, the demands for fishing in the Lake are always increasing. Unlawful fishing, often without licenses or a detailed fishing plan and often using illegal means for fishing such as explosives, generators, poisons, etc., has led to disorder and unawareness of the situation of the population and fishery resources, in general. But the bad situation in fisheries is mainly due to three factors: the overuse explained above, the introducing of unknown species to the Lake and the disruption of reproductive habitats.

The decline of fisheries in general and of special species in particular, mainly due to fishing in the Lake beyond the existing capacities, without protecting the young species, often during the periods and places of reproduction, using extermination means and tools, have led the populations to the brink of collapse, which later will turn into a big problem for the stability of the ecosystem, while socially, there will be lack of fish in the market and less profits for hundreds of fishermen.

The birds are another important resource of Shkodra Lake. The list of birds of the Lake counts 282 species, representing about 55% of the total number of species of Europe, out of which 112 are aquatic species. Almost all species are migratory or nomadic, in spring and autumn. This phenomenon is more widespread among aquatic species and especially to cikoniforms and anseriforms. 189 species or 67% of the total number of birds of Shkodra Lake are nest builders. The recent decade developments along the shores of the Lake have reduced and even
extinct certain species, loss of bird nesting’s and habitat destruction was recorded, etc. Referring to Denac et al (2010), sustainable hunting does not negatively affect bird populations, but illegal hunting proved to be a much bigger problem in the post-communist societies. Given the importance of migratory birds and their habitats in a sustainable economic development, ecotourism included, a controlled hunting is needed, through a new legislation and cooperation between our two countries with the aim of maintaining, managing and protecting the region of Shkodra Lake and migratory birds in particular.

Protecting habitats is essential for the survival of species, as it is the migration of birds for tourism as an additional attraction for the guests. With the goal of preserving this natural asset, long-term programmes and specific objectives in the use of Lake resources, preservation of specific habitats, endangered species like pelicans in particular, and the increase of the existing number of populations. Finally, the importance of upholding the Lake region as an international important site of migration for aquatic birds, with a Capacity of more than 300.000 resting birds in need of undisturbed resting and feeding sites on the Lake, needs to be highlighted.

Conclusions

The natural ecosystem of Shkodra Lake and the urban ecosystem of Shkodra city will coexist better if harmony and integration of natural developments is co-ordinated with human activity.

Therefore, long-term policies for the development of Shkodra Lake region should be built, long-term strategy be set, need to have key operational objectives and managing measures to realize these goals.

The Lake is a common property between Albania and Montenegro. The rich biodiversity, tourism potentials, economic benefits from the resources of this Lake, give this ecosystem a national and international importance. Therefore, a collaboration and co-ordination is required between the two countries for the protection and management of this ecosystem.

To mitigate and solve social problems of the population, it would be of great interest that Shkodra Lake be declared an "International Biosphere Reserve", enabling the integration of protected areas in larger landscapes. This Biosphere Reserve would contribute to the preservation of natural values, spur economic and social development, which would be ecologically and socioculturally sustainable, as well as it would provide support to researching, monitoring, education and exchange of information.

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Features of the Regional Political Process: The Case of Russia

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Abstract: In the period of 1999-2007 Russia's development was characterized by rapid economic recovery, increased welfare of citizens, and formation of robust and stable political system. Actually the political competition was minimized at the federal level. This was achieved both by means of forming new institutional framework for the political process and political competition, and through direct struggle of political actors. Visible political competition, political opposition, and political protest disappeared in many of regions of the Russian Federation. The Financial Crisis, which started in 2008, radically changed the economic situation in Russia. As a result numerous protests were organized in many towns and regions. Regional opposition political groups used actively the current critical situation for the political struggle. It is becoming more difficult for the officials, political parties loyal to the government, and actors of the regional political process to maneuver between the critical socio-economic situation and the necessity of displaying loyalty to federal ruling elite.

1. Survey Methodology

The data presented in the article were obtained through a number of studies.

A) Two expert surveys. The first survey was aimed to reveal changes in the political process in Yaroslavl, Kostroma and Vladimir Oblast, the second one- to estimate impact of the Financial Crisis on main actors of the political process and main regional political institutes. More than 65 experts took part in each of the surveys, no less than per 20 experts from each of the regions.

The following categories were included in the regional expert groups:
- Representatives of regional authorities;
- Representatives of regional legislature;
- Election commission members;
- Heads of local government;
- Journalists;
- Activists and leaders of non-profit organizations;
- Representatives of academic institutions;
- Leaders of political parties;
- Business community representatives.

B) A study of the legislation on intersectoral collaboration in 83 subjects of the Russian Federation and an expert survey aimed to estimate the implementation of the legislatively fixed standards. The research tools were based on the technique developed by Professor V. N. Yakimets.

C) A poll in Yaroslavl oblast aimed to identify the relationship and trust in the main social and political institutions (governor, legislature, non-profit organizations, Mass Media and others). The study was conducted with the representative sample of regions, taking into account the geographic, demographic and social features of the population and its settlement.

D) A method of analyzing socio-political process comprised an event-analysis of the protests for the period of January, 2007 – November, 2010 in Yaroslavl, Kostroma and Vladimir oblast. For the analysis there were collected reports in the Mass Media and profile organizations (including the Institute of collective action) to be analyzed on the following criteria:

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1 The research was supported by Russian Foundation for Humanities in the project «Impact of financial crisis on the political process in the Russian regions», project № 10-03-00296a

quantity, type, form, government attitude, content, mass, authorization, availability of violence. As a result, regularities and regional features, a degree of the relationship between the crisis and protests were identified.

2. Assessment of Regional Government Institutions

As the study shows, a considerable part of the population felt deterioration in socio economic status. One third of the citizens still feels, to varying degree, the negative tendencies. Approximately the same per cent of the population notes positive changes. And a quarter of the population talks about stable status.

At the same time quite a predictable regularity is noted. The population of rural areas felt a negative impact of the Financial Crisis to a significantly greater degree than the population of towns did, and the last felt it to a greater degree than the populations of cities. Accordingly, the positive tendencies are observed mostly by the population of cities. Despite the scale of the problems revealed, the population places the greatest responsibility for the situation on local authorities. As the results show, 63% of the citizens consider the local authorities responsible for the problems in their settlements. By the degree of responsibility the regional government takes the second place- 31 %, the government of Russia is on the third position- 26 %. Other 26 % consider president responsible for such problems. It is noted that the population of rural areas places more responsibility on the federal and regional government than the population of cities does.

To the citizens' point of view, heads of the regions have more opportunities to influence the solution of the emerged and current problems. The per cent of such citizens is a little bit less than a half of the whole population. By the degree of affecting the situation, a head of the local government comes next (approximately two fifths of the population) and central government takes only the third place (a little bit more than one third of the population). Actually, this let us say that when considering real problems and mechanisms for their solution, the population is much more focused on the regional and local authorities. The federal officials are considered as some faraway institutions being inactive in solving current problems in the regions.

It is also important to note that the degree of influence of the regional legislature is actually close to that of the Mass Media - less than 10 % of the population consider them able to influence the current problems solution.

At the same time, federal officials are most trusted by the population- nearly two thirds of the population have confidence in the president and chairman of the government. They are most trusted by the population from rural areas. The public expresses one and a half times less confidence in heads of the regions in comparison with the federal officials mentioned above. Only one quarter of the population shows trust in local authorities and regional legislature.

Pressed by federal structures and the necessity of government legitimacy, regional authorities were actively creating regional legal and regulatory framework for controlling different mechanisms of intersectoral collaboration in the period of 2007-2009. If in 2007 one third of the subjects of the Russian Federation did not have a single mechanism of intersectoral collaboration, in 2009 there were no such “backward” regions at all, and the number of subjects in the group of “not fulfilling their potential” was 9 times less.

When studying and analyzing intersectoral collaboration in the subjects of the Russian Federation, the researchers calculated the values of AZ-rating for all the 83 subjects of the Russian Federation. As a result, all the subjects are divided into 4 groups:
- “advanced” with AZ-rating value from 0.75 and higher (10 regions);
- “good” with AZ-rating value from 0.5 up to 0.75 (47 regions);
- “middle” with values from 0.35 up to 0.5 (21 region);
- “not fulfilled their potential”- the values of AZ-Rating lower than 0.35 (5 regions).

If we compare the “advanced” mechanisms of intersectoral social partnership in the districts, the Central Federal District will be the leader as it is provided with the intersectoral social partnership mechanism for 2/3 of the desired level (0.64). It gets a little bit worse in the Volga Federal District (0.59) and the Siberia Federal District (0.53). Other federal districts are provided with the intersectoral social partnership mechanisms for less than a half.

Thus, we conclude that charitable activities, taxation of non-profit organizations and donors, public listening, and public examination, as well as conditions and principles of collaboration of government, business and society, are insufficiently regulated for the effective mechanisms of intersectoral social partnership in the subjects of the Russian Federation.

In the federal districts with the delay in the promotion of the mechanisms of collaboration, the experience of the most advanced subjects in expanding regional regulatory framework is not used.
3. Factors of Transformation of Regional Political Process

The experts note the dynamics and changes in the political process in regions. On average, the scale of the changes is rated 3, 8 points on a 10-point scale. 30% of those participated in the poll think there have been no changes in the political process for the last three years. 13% of the respondents noted small changes and rated 2 points. The same number of the experts (8% per each) rated 3, 5 and 7 points. The least number of the respondents (4% per each) rated 8 and 9 points.

The main factors affecting regional political process are the following:
- Redistribution of power, positions in the regional government, creation of new bodies or structures;
- Financial Crisis;
- Election campaign outcome (the campaigns for the last three years such as election of the new convocation of the legislature, appointment of a new governor, etc.);
- Federal government activities;
- Involvement of new active economic groups into the political process;
- Population activity (protests, etc.);
- Opposition activity.

But they have different impacts. To the experts’ point of view, the election campaigns outcome had the greatest impact on changing the nature and content of the political process in Yaroslavl, Kostroma and Vladimir oblast. Moreover, the federal government activities and reshuffle also affected to a great extent. The involvement of new active economic groups had the least impact.

19% of the experts noted the influence of redistribution of power on changes in the political process (10 points). Other 19% of the experts do not think the reshuffle had any impact on the political process in the region (0 points). Other points were distributed as follows: 23% of the respondents rated 2-3 points, other 23% rated 6-7 points. The average rate on the factor was 5 points.

The greatest part of the respondents (45%) noted a great impact of the Financial Crisis of 2008-2009 on the political process and rated it from 3 up to 5 points. Only 6% of all the respondents do not think the Crisis had any impact on the regional political process. But on average, the Crisis impact was rated 4, 4 points.

27% of the experts noted a great impact of the election campaigns outcome on the regional political process. Other 22% of the respondents rated this factor impact from 7 to 9 points. 10% of the respondents rated 0 points. The average rate on the factor was 6 points.

42% of the experts noted little federal government effect on the political process in the region (from 1 to 3 points). No effect was noted by 8% who gave 0 points. Only 10% of the experts rated 10 points. The average rate on the factor was 4, 8.

The vast majority of the respondents (46%) do not think the new economic groups affected the political process for the last years and they rated 0 points. Little effect of the factor was noted by 24% (from 1 to 3 points). The average rate on the factor is 2 points.

The experts do not see any subjectivity of the population in the political process. No experts noted great impact of the population activity on the political process (7-10 points). 19% of the respondents think the population activity did not affect the political process. This was rated from 1 to 3 points by 53% of the experts, that proves little, inconsiderable impact of the factor. The average rate is 2, 2 points.

The opposition impact on the political process was rated on average from 1 to 3 points given by 63% of the respondents. Other 10% of the experts chose 5 points. 10 points on a 10-point scale were chosen only by 2% of the respondents. The average rate on the factor is 3 points.

Among main changes in the political process following should be mentioned:
- Reduction in the number of the political process actors;
- The on-going concentration of power relations;
- Declining interest of the population in politics, political actors, and decreasing trust in them (except the president and prime-minister);
- Active involvement of power structures into the political process;
- Increasing appeal to the federal Centre including the authority of federal officials, federal programs, budget, money;
- Reduced confidence in political party “United Russia”, government on the whole, including the federal authorities;
- The Financial Crisis increased the authority and possible impact of the opposition structures, their political rating, and the political capital has grown but a little.
One of the main conclusions is that the Financial Crisis has a negative effect on the authority of federal leaders'. The greatest part of the experts note negative aspects of the changes: reduced confidence in the government, lack of political forces diversity, reduced publicity of the Mass Media.

4. Regional Features of Transformation of the Regional Political Process

When analyzing the results of the expert survey, some regional features of transformation of the regional political process were determined.

In Yaroslavl oblast the major change was a replacement of the governor and management team, a partial update of the legislature (of the region and the city).

The experts think massive personnel changes in the region are the result of targeted building “the power vertical” in the country. To the experts’ point of view, the reason for citizens’ passivity is that they “got tired” of politics and do not believe empty words and promises.

Among the major features in Yaroslavl oblast there should be pointed out the increasing imbalance in the system of parties: opposition parties, but the Communist party, are getting weaker and take less active part in the political process.

In Kostroma oblast the essence of changes is, as most of the experts think, in tight control of protests, that causes passivity of the population, distrust in the authorities. Along with the negative changes in the political process of the region, the experts from Kostroma note some positive ones, such as the entrance of political party “Fair Russia’ into the political arena, increasing number of self-promoted in the City Duma at the elections.

The experts believe the reason for these changes is the change of the government election system and financial troubles in our country for the last years.

In Vladimir oblast the experts noted a considerably increased impact of party “United Russia” and reduced role of the Communist Party. The experts noted that both a cause and a consequence of the process were strained relations between the governor and legislature. Changing the content of the Legislative Assembly in Vladimir oblast was associated with the past elections of deputies, where there was a significant increase in the role of “United Russia”.

In all the regions of the survey the experts note the involvement of youth into the politics: young people take active part in the elections not only like electors, but like candidates to the authorities. Moreover in all the regions there was noticed a considerably increased widespread impact of “United Russia” on the political process- the respondents note “monopolization "and “totalitarianism” of the ruling party. However, the attempts to create a feedback from the public were also noticed (such as public listening, Internet), but to experts' point of view, such feedback is decorative.

5. Impact of the Crisis on Relations between Institutions of Power and Elite Groups

By the survey results, one third of the experts thinks the Financial Crisis had an impact on behavior inside the political elite. To their point of view, there was neither growth nor decline of the contradictions within the regional elites. 17% of the respondents rated -3 points, and 13 % of the experts rated - 2 points. Extreme 5 points (maximum increased contradictions within the elite) and -5 points (maximum increased cooperation and consolidation of the elite) were given by the equal number of the respondents: 6 % per each.

The average rate on a 11-point scale (from -5 to +5) was -0, 75 that let us speak about forming and accumulating contradictions within the regional elites.

To the question of the Financial Crisis impact on the processes of political administrative centralization per 23 % of the respondents rated 0 and 5 (on a scale from “-5” – “promoting decentralization to the lowest level”, “0” - no changes, to “5” - “promoting centralization to the highest level”). Per 10 % of the experts gave 2 and 4 points to the promoting centralization to the highest level. 3 points were chosen by 13 % of the respondents.

By the survey results, the average rate was 2 points. That let us think that the experts note a tendency of political administrative centralization in the relations “federal level-regional level”.

When describing the tendencies of developing the relations “regional level- local government”, the greatest number of the experts (27%) rated 0 points on the same scale, and it shows the lack of changes in the relations system. The most popular answers were 5 points and 3 points- 23 % and 15 % respectively. The equal number of the respondents (4 %) rated 1, 2 an -1 points. Per 2 % of the respondents gave from -2 to -5 points.

The average rate on the issue is also 2 points. That shows that the experts note the tendency of political administrative centralization in the relations “regional level- local government”.
6. Impact on Civil and Democratic Institutions

As the experts think, the Crisis caused the curtailment of democratic reforms. 21 % of the experts responded that the Crisis did not affect democratic transformations in our countries. The average rate on the factor was -0, 96 points. 27 % of the respondents noted significant curtailment of the democratic transformations, and only 6 % noted acceleration of democracy.

The major part of the experts (48%) thinks the civil society institutions got politically more dependent on the control bodies under the impact of the Financial Crisis. 42% of the respondents did not note any changes in the field. 48% of the respondents think the civil society institutions got politically more dependent on the control bodies. Political independence of the civil society institutions from the control bodies under the impact of the Crisis was noted only by 13 % of the respondents. And 29 % of the experts don’t think there are any changes in the field.

52 % of the experts think the number of civil society institutions has not changed under the impact of the Crisis. A decrease was mentioned by 27 % of the experts, and the increase in the number of civil society institutions for the last few years was noted by 13 %.

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The major part of the experts noted the political capital of “United Russia” has increased inconsiderably for the Crisis period. The average rate was 0, 32 points.

The worsening quality of the civil society institutions for the last few years was noted by 44 % of the experts. Other 31 % did not note any changes in the quality, and 13 % think the quality of the civil society institutions was increased.

On the whole the experts note increased both political and economic dependency of the civil society institutions on the control bodies and the decrease in their quality for the last years.

On their point of view, the Crisis had little impact on political capital of the parties: the average rate to the issue is not more than 1 point. The experts think the political capital of such parties as Liberal Democratic Party of Russia, Patriots of Russia, Just Cause, and Apple, has not changed. In comparison with other parties, the political capital of “United Russia” and the Communist Party has increased considerably.

The majority of the respondents think the character of population activity in the struggle for its political rights has no t changed for the last years. 35 % of the respondents gave 0 points, other 31 %- 1 point that proves lack of changes. Little increase in this kind of the population activity was noted by 10 % of the experts (2 points). The extreme positions for a considerable increase or decrease of the activity were chosen by 6 % of the respondents per each.

The most common rates for the active struggle for social-economic rights of the population are from 0 to 2 points. The majority of the respondents (63 %) consider the character of such an activity has not practically changed for the last few years. The rate of 3-4 points is the second popular answer. It was given by 10% per each. Only 6 % of the responded noted a considerable decrease of the population activity in the struggle for social-economic rights.

7. Formal and Informal Changes of the Political Process

By the expert survey, no considerable formal or informal changes in the regional political process and system of political institutions were revealed, especially those caused by the Financial Crisis.

At first, the experts noted approval of anticrisis programs of the authorities and a widespread increasing taxes and tariffs.

A kind of respond to the challenge of the Crisis and stimulating actions of the federal authorities is the approval of cluster development strategy and design of concepts for monocities development in Yaroslavl Oblast.

Among the most considerable informal changes there was the reduced role of municipal leaders in the last few years. In Yaroslavl oblast it was due to the personnel influence of the governor, who became a major figure in the political field of the region.

The Financial Crisis has exacerbated the conflicts in regional politics such as:
- The regional government- local elites. This conflict may become both visible ( for example, in Yaroslavl oblast the conflict between the governor and the head of Tutayev District and the head of Poshekhyonye District; the governor of Kostroma oblast and the Lord Mayor of Kostroma), and invisible for the public (the governor of Yaroslavl oblast and the Lord Mayor of Yaroslavl).
- Interelite conflict. There can be mentioned two main examples. In Yaroslavl oblast the conflict is between the former government of the region in the face of the former governor, former elites (both at the regional and local levels) and the
present acting governor. In Vladimir oblast the conflict is between the supporters of communist ideas (the direct supporters of the governor) and the supporters of “United Russia”.

- Interparty conflicts. This kind of the conflict was most visible in Vladimir oblast. This is due to the fact that the governor of the region is a supporter of the Communist Party, but common tendencies of political process development stimulate strengthening positions of “United Russia”. The same conflict was also noted in Yaroslavl and Kostroma oblast. However, it was of less importance due to the undisputed dominance of “United Russia”.

- A conflict between the population and government. It was most visibly demonstrated by the experts from Kostroma oblast, who noted the reduction in funding social projects.

8. Assessment of Anti-Crisis Measures in the Terms of the Financial Crisis

To stabilize the situation, the federal government has initiated implementing a range of special programs on the terms of co-financing with regional and municipal authorities. In particular, when fighting with unemployment, in the beginning of 2009, the Russian Government allocated 43 billion rubles on the terms of partial co-financing from regional budgets for implementing regional programs on advanced training of workers in the labor market organized in more than 40 subjects of the Russian Federation. The programs were aimed both at providing financial support to 36 thousand entrepreneurs and 11, 5 thousand citizens, and at retraining of 133 thousand workers and in-depth training of 5, 7 thousand graduates.

Undoubtedly, the programs played a serious role to prevent the development of a large-scale social crisis in Russia by providing many citizens of Russia with freedom of choice and new but few opportunities. They helped reduce social tension, minimize the scale of the protests.

But on the whole, the experts give low assessment to the effectiveness of the anti-crisis measures of the regional authorities- only 2.8 points (on a scale from 0 to 10 points). 27 % of the respondents think the anti-crisis measures of the regional authorities were not effective (0 points). Points 1-3 (on a 10-point scale) were given by 42 % of the respondents. Maximum effectiveness of the anti-crisis measures was noted by 6 % of the experts.

Anti-crisis measures of the municipal authorities were less effective. The average rate of the experts is 1, 6 points. The majority of the experts (46 %) noted the anti-crisis measures of the municipal authorities did not have any results. Other 45 % of the respondents gave low assessment to the effectiveness of anti-crisis politics in municipalities and gave points from 1 to 5.

That let us say that the experts consider the actions of the regional authorities to be more effective to reduce a negative impact of the Financial Crisis. However, in general, they were not effective as well.

When questioned on the Mass Media objective coverage of the Financial Crisis impact on regional economy, the majority of the experts (21 %) gave the average rate of 5 points. Other points were distributed as follows: 15 % of the experts chose extreme 0 point, per 13 % of the respondents chose 2 and 3 points. The least popular rates from 8 to 10 points were chosen by 6 % of the experts. The average rate is 3, 6 points. It can be concluded that the experts do not think the Mass Media is objective on the issue.


Undoubtedly, uncontrolled increase of social tensions caused by the worsening economic situation had a great impact on the political process in the subjects of the Russian Federation. All-Russian sociological studies show that the citizens consider protests against a drop of living standards more real. 24 % of the experts think the protests are possible. Mostly citizens of cities and towns are sure in possible protests in their settlements (34 and 31% respectively). Every 5th citizen of Russia is ready to support a protest.

2009-2010 have demonstrated the possibility of citizens’ rapid self-organizing to protect their rights and interests. The citizens were ready to use all the possible means of protesting- from mass demonstrations and processions (Kalinigrad) to power performances (“partisans” actions in the Far East, attack of the “defenders” of Khimki Forest on the administration of the town of Khimki). Activity of a well organized and socially united group of miners after the accident at mine “Raspadskaya” should be mentioned as well. The control bodies had to make great efforts and considerable concessions to reduce the social tensions and protests.

The event analysis of news sites reports in Yaroslavl, Kostroma and Vladimir oblast for the period from January, 2007, till November, 2010, revealed that the citizens’ protest activity reached the peak in Autumn (from September till October) of 2007. That was mostly due to the electoral campaigns at federal and regional levels.
A sharp decline was observed in 2008 and later in 2009. New wave of protests was noted in May, 2010, but the number does not exceed the level of 2007. The citizens show the least activity in summer period. In total, for the analyzed period in the electronic Media there were reports on 287 protests.

The study showed that during the period of 2007-2010 there were three peaks of the activity. Firstly, around 15 actions were organized in March, 2007. Secondly, the activity increase was observed in September, 2007, in the period of preparations for the Russian State Duma elections (29 actions). Thirdly, more than 20 actions were organized in April, 2010. This was due to the increased activity of trade unions, public organizations, etc.

Increased activity in 2007 was evident in all the declared fields, where Kostroma oblast was a leader. In the electronic Media there were reports on more than 40 actions. In Yaroslavl oblast 36 actions were covered by the Media, in Vladimir oblast – 33 protests. But in 2008 a considerable decrease in the population activity was observed. In that year only 5 protests were organized in the Kostroma oblast, 25 in Yaroslavl oblast, and 19 in Vladimir oblast.

According to the reports in the Mass media, low protests activity was observed in Kostroma and Vladimir oblast also in 2009- there were the reports on only 5 or 6 protests respectively. But in Yaroslavl oblast there was a burst of 38 protests. In 2010, an imperceptible increase of the activity was noted in the regions. By the reports in the electronic Media, in Yaroslavl oblast there were 35 protests, in Kostroma oblast- 27 and in Vladimir oblast-14 protests.

The data let us talk about a kind of wave-like protest activity from election to election, and by next federal elections in 2011 the population of Kostroma and Vladimir oblasts will have become active. The situation is different with Yaroslavl oblast. The level of the activity is nearly just the same during the whole studied period (more than 35 protests a year), but the year of 2008, when only 25 protests were observed.

It should be noted, that the protest activity in Yaroslavl oblast is higher than that is in Kostroma and Vladimir oblast. The number of analyzed protests in Yaroslavl blast exceeds twice the number of the protests in Vladimir and Kostroma oblast. In Yaroslavl oblast the protests are mostly negative: the citizens protest against utility tariffs, benefits, taxes, while in Vladimir oblast the protests are often organized by few members of The Young Communist League (YCL) and The Communist Party against NATO, that is beyond the competence of the local authorities and do not resonate with the public.

For the last 4 years in Kostroma oblast the most active protesters were human rights organizations (especially in 2007) and trade unions (2010). Protests were rather common in the sphere of culture, health care, education, environmental protection (in particular, the construction of a Nuclear Power Plant in the region). In the early 2010 there was a series of protests against the increasing utility tariffs, which resonated with the public.

The most massive protests were those in February and March, 2007, April, 2008, October, 2008, September, 2009, September and May, 2010. The Mass Media reported that on average 2500-3700 persons took part in the protests per month mentioned above.

It should be noted, that in the summer period there is a sharp decrease in the number of persons participating in protests due to the season of vacation (on average, only several hundreds of persons per month). Low degree of public participation in protests is also noticed during the winter period because of the New Year's holidays. The increase in the number of participants is typical for Autumn, that is the beginning of the school year and work season.

When summarizing the number of participants in the protests reported in the Mass Media, it can be mentioned that for the four years 43 505 persons participated in the protests in the three analyzed regions.

The most popular forms of protesting are pickets and rallies. It should be noted, that in 2007 the most popular form was a picket, but by 2010 rallies prevailed. For the period of 2007- 2010 such forms of protesting as hunger and withdrawal of an official were isolated cases.

As rallies are more massive than pickets are, it can be concluded that in the Central Federal District different public groups such as interest holders, state employees, and others are becoming more and more active. Thus, the demonstrative activity of parties and public associations takes second place after the real public protest movement that indicates the increasing political literacy of the population.

In the “peak” 2007 different human rights organizations were most active and organized more than 20 protests. In July, 2010, people enjoying benefits became active and organized more than 12 protests. There have been many protests on the issue of wages and different services for this group of the population. Some spheres were named “other” and comprised different memorial actions, protest of Vladimir Communists against NATO, etc.

It should be noted that the majority of protests was authorized and held without force. A 4-years’ prevalence tendency of peace and authorized protests changed- in 2009 in Kostroma oblast and in 2008 in Vladimir oblast, where there were more nonpeaceful and unauthorized protests. However, in Vladimir oblast the number of unauthorized protests was decreased in the period of 2007-2010.
For the period of 2007-2010 neutral government reaction to protests prevailed. In this case, the neutral reaction is follows: lack of reaction, mixed reaction, uncertain reaction. Thus, it can be concluded, that in the majority of the events (except riots and non-peaceful rallies and pickets) the government keeps indifferent to such activities. But in 2007 and 2010 (the periods of the greatest public activity—more protests) the authorities were more aggressive.

The most active protests organizer is the Communist Party often accompanied by movement “Social Resistance” and movement “Forward”. Some protests of the organizations were supported by youth movements—The Young Communist League (YCL) and Red Youth Vanguard (RYV).

10. General Conclusions

The results of these studies suggest that in the subjects of the Russian Federation changes of the political process are minor for the period from 2008 till 2010. The methods of involving the population into the process, used by the control bodies, political parties are still the same.

The government has little interest to involve the population into the political process. Amorphous political parties do not see the reason for involving the population into the process in the pre-election period. Despite the fact, that in the regions elections are held almost every half a year, political parties seem not to invent any new methods. It should be noted, that the Financial Crisis let several opposition parties (first of all, the communists, Fair Russia, and less Liberal Democratic Party of Russia) use more “crisis” rhetoric for criticizing the government, party “United Russia”.

The studies demonstrated insignificant connection between changes in social economic situation and political process. Among the most obvious changes in the political process, the experts single out concentration of power. They also single out the attempts of administrative pressure and building of the vertical power. This was reflected, primarily, in collaboration with local elites. In Yaroslavl oblast pressure of the regional government over the local authorities was expressed in conflicts with the Head of Tutayev municipality Y. Andreyev, in Kostroma oblast— with Mayor I. Pereverzeva.

There were attempts of hard administrative pressure on the elections which brought to low-competitive elections. The experts noted a certain merge of politics and economics in the face of certain persons. The Crisis forced several political elites to do business but not politics. It was caused by the complicated economic situation of the structures controlled by politicians. As a result, consolidation of elites, reduced number of conflicts between the actors of the political process was noted. The main actions were transferred into the sphere of economics.

The study suggests, that in the subjects of the Russian Federation infrastructure changes (adoption of laws, establishment of control bodies, etc.) were not fulfilled under the impact of the Financial Crisis. The subjects were led by different motivations.

In the subjects of the Russian Federation accumulation of social tension was observed. In reply the government conducted several measures to minimize the negative outcome of the Crisis, including a growing protest mood, which helped to preserve relative stability and control of socio-political processes.

It should be noted, that the protests are still hardly controlled. It is mostly because they are organized not by certain political organizations but on the citizens’ initiative to protect their rights and interests.

Formation of the protest organizations and movements is related to the coincidence of interests of a large number of protesters. Among them there are people ready to lead the protest. If the problem solution is blocked and all the possibilities are exhausted, the protest movement will turn to political slogans and force.

In principle, a protest signs that the administration committed serious errors. If they respond quickly to the demands of citizens and correct mistakes, the protests will disappear as easily as they appear. This let us say that real massive protests will be organized not on the initiative of some political forces but because of the infringement of citizens’ interests. And the protests will last till these interests have been satisfied or the most active organizers of the protests have been killed. But killing organizers will just transform the protest into a latent one, ready to burst out at any time.

Accumulation of the protest potential reduces life satisfaction, causes conflicts, destroys the society. In the present situation the majority of protests arises spontaneously and the authorities are lacking any certain tools to work with the protest groups. This causes ineffective actions stimulating the growth of protests. As a result, social tension is growing and an additional base for the protests is being formed.

The present event-analysis of the protests in Yaroslavl, Kostroma and Vladimir oblast did not reveal a great burst of protests even for the period of the Financial Crisis. A growth in the number of protests was noticed, but the average number per month was not exceeded in comparison with the pre-election year of 2007, however, the period for the protest activity was a little bit longer in Autumn, 2008.
References


