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The Impact of Family Functioning and of Some Other Aspects of Parental Involvement in Education, in Adolescents’ Academic Achievements

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to determine the relationship between family cohesion and family adaptability (flexibility), some aspects of parental involvement in education, of the adolescents’ academic achievement in language, mathematics and the average grade in the main subjects (GPA)\(^1\). The study also aimed at determining the degree of variability of students’ academic achievements (average grade in main subjects) that could be explained by family cohesion, family adaptability (flexibility) and parent-teacher relationships. For this purpose, it was administered a self-report measure of family functioning (Olson, Bell, & Portner, 1982), (N=714) for students at the 9th grade level from 9th grade public schools in Tirana, during the academic year 2010-2011, two measuring instruments, “Parent-teacher and teacher-parent relationship scale” (Vickers, & Minke, 1995) in order to define the level of the relationship parent-teacher (N=714) and teacher-parent (N=170), that include the dimensions of joining and communication; as well as an instrument (Robinson, 2008) intended to measure some aspects of parental involvement in education such as: parents’ self-assessment concerning their skills in helping children with their lessons, parental involvement in homework, the creation of an environment that supports learning, parental beliefs, attitudes and expectations in relation to children’s achievements in mathematics and language (N= 369). Furthermore, it was kept a rigorous report of students’ grades during the academic year 2010-2011. The study indicated a positive relationship between family cohesion, family adaptability and students’ academic achievements. Though statistically significant, these relationships were weak. Furthermore, the study identified weak positive to moderate correlations among various aspects of parental involvement in education and student results. Regarding the relationships of teacher-parent, they were positive and substantial. The data also indicate that family cohesion is responsible for 1% of academic achievements variability, whereas family adaptability (flexibility) doesn’t result statistically significant.

Keywords: Academic achievements, Albanian language homework, mathematics homework, parents’ beliefs, parents’ self-efficacy, family cohesion, family adaptability (flexibility), teacher-parent relationships.

Literature review

Adolescence is characterized by numerous changes, not only physical and emotional ones but also in the context of school and family relations. These changes affect the rapport of adolescents with their parents and are often accompanied by a decrease in academic achievement (Barber & Olsen, 2004; Eccles, 2004; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Family functioning and its role in supporting the teenager in this transition period are considered as a very important factor by researchers in the sciences of education.

Family functioning is intertwined with three dimensions of family life: cohesion, adaptability (flexibility) and communication. The concept of cohesion reflects the emotional relationship among family members, in other words, their emotional closeness or distance, the time they spend together, the way they take decisions, their interests and entertainment. The assessment of the above factors helps determining the level of family cohesion. Families with a low level of cohesion are characterized by “emotional separation,” whereas families with a high level of cohesion have as their basic quality “emotional bonding” and are considered as families with “high consensus” (Olson,1993).

Adaptability (flexibility) is the ability to adapt, the ability of the family system for change in the functioning of roles, relationships, rules established to maintain the relationship in response to stress. It has been noticed that excessive flexibility leads to a chaotic family, whereas low flexibility leads to a very rigid relationship (Olson,1993).

\(^1\) Grade point average
Family communication is measured by considering the family as a group in relation to the ability to listen, to converse, to be open and clear, respect and to pay attention to others. Concerning this dimension of family life, (Olson, 1993) provides less definitions in the characteristics, by defining it either good or poor. The dimension of cohesion and adaptability determine the type of family, whereas the dimension of communication is considered as critical (important) in facilitating the first two dimensions (Olson, 1993).

A considerable number of studies have focused on the influence of family environment on academic achievement and the wellbeing of adolescents. It is proved that family cohesion is an indicator of social support which connects positively the level of family functioning with the reduction of adolescents’ problematic behaviors, which appear to have a negative relationship with academic achievement (Barber & Buehler, 1996; Barnes, 1990; Barrera & Li, 1996; Farrell & Barnes, 1993). Steven (1991) emphasizes the positive relationship between family environment and school performance. When adolescents perceive their families as functional and have personal freedom in decision making, the academic performance increases. Family conflict, on the other hand, affects negatively academic performance. When adolescents experience more anger, criticism and debate in the families, their academic achievements decrease (Bernard, 1991). The role of the family, the level of family-school relationship and parental involvement in education are considered as important factors regarding children academic achievement throughout the years of basic education. (Fan & Chen, 2001; Hill & Chao, 2009; Seginer, 2006). Fullan, (2001) emphasises the idea that the closer parents are to their child schooling, the greater is the impact on the development and academic achievement of the child.

Some research studies have discovered that various aspects of parental involvement in education correlate positively with students’ academic achievements. Some of these aspects are: teacher-parent relationship (Fan & Chen, 2001; Hill & Chao, 2009; Seginer, 2006; Allen, 2007; Blankstein, 2010; Epstein et al., 2008; Sanders, 2006; Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999); parent-child discussion about school-related problems, family environment that supports learning, parents’ beliefs and attitudes about the importance of specific subjects as well as parents’ self-efficacy concerning their skills in supporting their children's learning (Catsambis, 1998).

Parental involvement in homework (orientation, leadership, not just supervision) is an important factor that affects academic performance (Carter, 2002). Parents’ involvement in learning activities at home is a strong predictor concerning achievements in reading and mathematics. (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999). Also some other researchers have come to the conclusion that the involvement of parents at home, especially parent child discussion about school problems and their assistance, seems to have a major impact on academic achievements. (Ingram, Wolfe, & Lieberman, 2007; Sui Chu & Willms, 1996, Van Voorhis, 2003). According to Catsambis (1998) the most effective types of parental involvement are those which focus on monitoring the behavior, but those related to adolescents’ counselling and guidance.

Various studies point out that parental expectations have a strong positive relationship with children’s academic performance. (Amato & Ochiltree, 1986; Hess & Holloway, 1984). In one of their studies, (Entwisle and Hayduk, 1988) found that parents’ evaluation of their children’s abilities in specific subjects has long-term effects on children’s academic achievements. Studies conducted in the field of education in Albania, have not focused on adolescents’ academic achievements, on the influence of family functioning or on the aspects of parental involvement in these achievements. Although there have been several studies on parental involvement in education, none of them has investigated these aspects in relation to students’ academic achievements.

The objective of the study

This study aims:

- To determine the relationship between the two dimensions of family functioning: family cohesion and adaptability with students’ academic achievements
- To determine the relationship between academic achievements and some aspects of parental involvement such as teacher-parent relationship, parent-child discussion, frequency of communication with teachers, family environment that supports learning, parental involvement in homework, parental expectations in children’s performance in mathematics, beliefs and attitudes of parents about the importance of math and language-reading as well as parents’ self-efficacy in supporting children in mathematics and language.
- To determine the relationship between teacher-parent relationships (joining and communication) upon students academic achievements
- To determine to what extent is the variability in students’ academic achievements can be explained by family cohesion, adaptability (flexibility) and teacher-parent relationship (joining and communication)
Methodology

The population of the study consists of students at the 9th grade level from 9th grade public schools in Tirana, their parents and their teachers who taught language and mathematics during the academic year 2010-2011. The sample of this study consisted of 714 students who were selected randomly from 21 schools out of 66 public schools in Tirana. After the random selection of students, in the study were involved 369 parents who were contacted on purpose during parent-teacher meetings. They were asked to complete a questionnaire that measured several aspects of parental involvement in education. The 22 language teachers and 24 mathematics teachers at the 9th grade level of 21 schools were also part of the study.

To measure the level of cohesion and family flexibility was used a self-report questionnaire "My Family", administered to adolescents (Olson, Portner, Bell, & Filsinger, 1982). The questionnaire consists of 30 items in Likert scale, where 1 corresponds to what never happens in the family, whereas 5 describes what happens more often. 16 items are intended to measure cohesion and 14 items measure flexibility. Factor analysis of the data from this study confirmed the factor of cohesion and flexibility. Reliability for cohesion is $\alpha = .76$. Reliability for flexibility is $\alpha = .88$.

In order to measure the level of parent-teacher relationship was used the questionnaire "The Parent-Teacher Relationship Scale" (Vickers, & Minke, 1995) which was administered to teachers (N = 714). The factor analysis confirmed these factors: cooperation (19 items) and communication (5 items). Reliability for cooperation is $\alpha = .92$ and reliability for communication is $\alpha = .66$.

In order to measure parental involvement in education was used the questionnaire "Parent's involvement in education" (Robinson, M. R, 2008) which was administered to parents (N = 369). The factor analysis of data from this study confirmed that the factors were consistent with those of the original scale. Reliability for each factor is as follows: "Parental involvement in language and reading" (Cronbach $\alpha = .91$), "Parents’ skills in supporting learning in mathematics" (Cronbach $\alpha = .84$), "Parents’ skills in supporting their children’s learning in language-reading" (Cronbach $\alpha = .84$), "Parental involvement in mathematics homework" (Cronbach $\alpha = .82$), "Expectations regarding progress in mathematics" (Cronbach $\alpha = .74$) and "Parent-child Discussion" (Cronbach $\alpha = .72$).

Students’ grades were taken from school records of the relevant classes. Statistical data were processed through the SPSS program. To determine the relationships between variables in the study, correlational analysis was used. To determine the factors that have the highest impact on students' academic achievements stepwise multiple regression was used. The relationship of variables included in regression was linear. The Durbin –Watson statistics of 1.90 indicated that the problem of autocorrelation did not exist. The examination of plots of the standardized residuals as a function of standardized predicted values pointed out that the problem of heteroscedasticity did not exist. Consequently all the assumptions were met and the data were suitable for multiple regression analysis. In this paper are reported only those results that are significant from the statistical point of view.

Results

The data in table 1 indicate that there is a positive relationship between cohesion, adaptability and students’ academic achievements (grades). Though weak, this relationship is statistically significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Family functioning</th>
<th>Cohesion</th>
<th>Adaptability</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Final grade in language</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
<td>0.17**</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. School leading exam in language</td>
<td>0.16**</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Final grade in mathematics</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. School leading exam mathematics</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. GPA</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
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</table>

Note: * p<0.05. ** p<0.01.

The data in table 2 indicate the existence of positive relationships between different aspects of parental involvement and students’ results. In general, relationships, though statistically significant, are weak to moderate, with the exception of the relationship between students results and parental expectations regarding progress in mathematics, which is a strong relationship ($r = .79, p<0.01$).
Table 2. The relationship between some aspects of parental involvement in education and students’ academic achievements (grades) in mathematics, language and reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental involvement in education</th>
<th>Grades</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mathemati cs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Parent-child discussion</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Homework in general</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Frequency of parent-teacher meetings</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Family environment supporting learning</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Parental involvement in mathematics homework</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Parents’ expectations regarding progress in mathematics&quot;</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Parental involvement in language and reading</td>
<td>0.28**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Parents’ beliefs and attitudes about mathematics</td>
<td>0.38**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Parents’ beliefs and attitudes about language and reading</td>
<td>0.26**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Parents’ efficacy in supporting learning in mathematics</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Parents’ efficacy in supporting their children’s learning in language-reading</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01.

The data on table 3 indicate the correlations between joining, communication and students’ academic achievements. School-family joining has a positive substantial relationship with the final grade and School leading exam in language and a very strong relationship with final grade in mathematics as well as with School leading exam in mathematics and the average grade in general. Furthermore, communication has a positive correlation with students’ academic achievements, but with lower levels than joining.

Table 3. The relationship between teacher-parent relationship and academic achievements (based on teacher’s evidence)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Joining</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Final grade in language</td>
<td>0.64**</td>
<td>0.23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Language exam grade</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Final grade in mathematics</td>
<td>0.82**</td>
<td>0.60**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mathematics exam grade</td>
<td>0.70**</td>
<td>0.53**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. GPA</td>
<td>0.80**</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p<0.05, ** p<0.01.

In order to define the proportion of variability for students’ academic achievements, (GPA) that can be explained by family cohesion, family adaptability (flexibility) and teacher-parent relationship (joining and communication) a multiple regression was used. Using the Stepwise method a significant model emerged: $F_{change} (1, 668)=10.35, p< .001, R^2 = .57$. The important variables are shown below:
Table 4. Predictor variable | Beta | P
--- | --- | ---
Teacher-parent relationship (joining) | .65 | .000
Teacher-parent relationship (communication) | .11 | .001
Family cohesion | .09 | .001

The above model explains 57% of the variation of students’ academic achievements. The most influential factor in this model is teacher-parent relationship (joining) (beta=.65) followed by teacher-parent relationship (communication) (beta=.11) and family cohesion that explains nearly 1% of the variation of students’ academic achievements. (0.38, P=.35) Family flexibility did not result a significant factor from the statistical point of view (beta = .25 P = .40).

Conclusion

The findings of this study highlighted that there is a weak, positive but significant correlation between the two dimensions of family functioning: cohesion and flexibility and academic achievement of teenage students. Weak to moderate positive correlations were also found between different aspects of parental involvement and academic achievements, with the exception of the aspect of parental expectations that had a strong positive correlation with students’ results in mathematics.

Meanwhile between the two dimensions of teacher-parent relationship, joining and teacher-parent communication there are strong positive correlations with students’ academic achievement in main subjects (GPA) and in specific subjects like mathematics and moderate with the subjects like language.

The data from the regression analysis showed that family cohesion explains a small percentage of variation in students’ academic achievements, whereas family flexibility did not result a significant variable from the statistical point of view. Meanwhile, the two dimensions of teacher-parent relationship resulted as strong predictable of students’ academic achievements, in particular the variable of teacher-parent relationships. These findings are in tune with those of other researchers who evaluated teacher-parent relationships as the key to success for high academic achievements (Allen, 2007; Blankstein, 2010, Epstein et al., 2008; Sanders, 2006). In this context, the intensification of concerning teacher-parent relationship (joining and communication) as well as the increased parental involvement in education would affect in the improvement of students’ academic achievement.

Reference


Online Videos for Specific Purposes

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Abstract Many EFL/ESL college students, enrolled in colleges and universities that use English as a medium of instruction have difficulty understanding lectures in specialized courses delivered in English such as engineering, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, biology, biochemistry, anatomy, physiology and others. To help students improve their listening comprehension skills, develop their repertoire of specialized technical terms and fill the gaps in their background knowledge, class lectures can be supplemented by specialized online videos. This paper aims to show the advantages of integrating specialized online videos, give samples of websites where specialized online videos can be downloaded, describe the criteria for selecting specialized online videos, outline the skills that can be developed through supplementary specialized online videos, and present a scheme for phases of teaching and learning with specialized online videos. It concludes with some recommendations for creating a specialized online video repository.

Keywords: Online videos, ESP, EFL students, college students, listening skills, technical terms, specialized lectures.

1. Introduction

Today, the use of online videos in the classroom is becoming more and more commonplace. Online videos provide learners with content, context and language, and play an increasing role in both ESL classroom instruction and self-study (Burt, 1999). The extensive analysis of videos provides students and teachers with engaging and intellectually stimulating hands-on and minds-on learning experiences that supplement the traditional textbook (Lee, Ginsburg & Preston, 2009). Producing and solving digital video-supported cases promotes the active and contextual aspects of the students' meaningful learning as well as their positive emotional involvement in the learning process (Hakkarainen, Saarelainen & Ruokamo, 2007).

A review of the second/foreign language literature has shown that use of authentic web-delivered video enhanced the incidental acquisition of vocabulary and listening comprehension of ESL adult learners at a major Midwestern university in the USA (Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004). Video offered L2 learners a chance to improve their ability to understand comprehensible input and allowed teachers to ask both display and referential questions. Video tasks created advanced organizers and other visual representations and descriptors (Canning-Wilson, 2000). When compared with illustrated books, interactive videos used by German secondary school students helped them learn complex content more effectively (Merkt, Weigand, Heier & Schwan, 2011). Videotape recordings of dramas (movies, television programs, and plays) offered Japanese college students a means and an interesting context for developing linguistic knowledge into usable language skills and were effective in helping students gain confidence in using English to ask and answer questions and listen to and comprehend details. Students' attention span and interest also improved (O'Donnell, 1990).

In content area courses such as engineering, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, chemistry, biology, physics and mathematics, use of online videos proved to be effective as well. For example, medical students who watched video clips were more active in using collaborative eLearning tools and achieved higher course grades (Romanov & Nevgi, 2007). Similarly, third-year medical students, enrolled in a pediatrics clerkship, who learned in a virtual modality with a digital video case, engaged in more critical thinking (Kamin, O'Sullivan, Deterding & Younger, 2003).

To improve the quality of educational resources available outside of the classroom and to foster student engagement with ideas and concepts, Cox (2011) incorporated digital learning elements in organic chemistry and biochemistry courses. He integrated health-related YouTube videos directly into PowerPoint presentations. Likewise, McCormack & Ross (2010) used a collaborative approach to integrate technology with a lab on bacterial transformation. Students viewed websites and created videos to increase their conceptual understanding. In another study, recording and streaming video-linked lectures allowed the students to view them at a later date and provided an additional resource to support student learning (Wang, Mattick & Dunne, 2010).

In colleges of engineering, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, science, business and computer science where English is used as a medium of instruction and where students are non-native speakers, there is a great need for integrating online videos in class lectures as many freshman students majoring in those areas lack background knowledge and have difficulty following and comprehending class lectures delivered in English in specialized courses such as engineering,
dentistry, pharmacy, physiology, biology, biochemistry, anatomy, physics and others.

Results of a survey with 365 Saudi freshman students majoring in engineering, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, physics, chemistry, math, and computer science, showed that many freshman students have difficulties comprehending specialized lectures delivered in English, understanding abstract and complex concepts, remembering too many details using unfamiliar technical terms, understanding, visualizing, connecting, recalling, and retaining structures, classifications, definitions, causes, whole-part, processes, descriptions of systems. To help freshman students majoring in those areas overcome those difficulties, supplementary specialized online videos related to the topics covered in their area of specialization can be used.

For the above reasons, the present study aims to show college instructors teaching content courses to EFL Saudi students in English how specialized online videos lectures, video courses, science animations, and presentations can supplement specialized class lectures. Specifically, the present study shows how specialized online videos can be utilized to help freshman students learn, comprehend, retain and apply basic knowledge in specialized courses such as engineering, business, biology, biochemistry, anatomy and physiology. It shows how online videos can be used to fill in gaps in the students' specialized knowledge, develop advanced listening skills and enhance their knowledge of technical terms.

Specialized online videos with a variety of topics, speakers, difficulty levels and lengths can be easily downloaded to the students’ laptops or smart phones for free. Students can view those specialized online videos anywhere, anytime and as many times as they need. They can select and specialized videos that match their proficiency level and background knowledge and help them understand abstract and difficult information.

2. Materials and tasks

The course instructor can make a list of useful supplementary specialized online videos related to the topics to be covered in the course. He/she may assign a weekly video or give the students the video URL to view it or download it. Students can also search for videos on their own by enclosing key terms (whether single nouns or compounds) such as “free market”, “introduction to biology”, “elements & substances”, “respiratory system”, or “gum diseases” in quotation marks in the Google or You Tube search box. Specialized videos can be downloaded from Learners TV (http://www.learners.tv/), a comprehensive website that provides thousands of free downloadable specialized video lectures in different subject fields such as biology, physics, chemistry, medicine, dentistry and nursing. Learners TV provides free video lectures of whole courses delivered by instructors from reputed universities around the world. There are also animations that provide students with fun and innovative ways of learning. Examples of free downloadable specialized videos are:

- The free market (animation): [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9kFNBV6FyyQ](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9kFNBV6FyyQ)
- Pharmacology: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=pharmacology&aq=farmacology&aq=0s&aqi=g-s10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube-psuggest.1.0.0l10.217733l235630l0l237718l111110l0l0l0l210l1652l2j8j11l10](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=pharmacology&aq=farmacology&aq=0s&aqi=g-s10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube-psuggest.1.0.0l10.217733l235630l0l237718l111110l0l0l0l210l1652l2j8j11l10)
- Gum diseases: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=gum+disease](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=gum+disease)
- Cell biology: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=cells+biology&aq=%22cells%22&aq=0&aqi=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube-psuggest.1.0.0l10.16887l19565l0l23005l1515150l0l0l216113211l10j3j150](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=cells+biology&aq=%22cells%22&aq=0&aqi=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube-psuggest.1.0.0l10.16887l19565l0l23005l1515150l0l0l216113211l10j3j150)
- DNA animation 3D: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=dna+animation+3d&aq=DNA+animation&aq=2&aqi=g3g-m7&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l3j0i5j7.135754i139887l0l142445l151610l10l0l185l1039j1l140](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=dna+animation+3d&aq=DNA+animation&aq=2&aqi=g3g-m7&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l3j0i5j7.135754i139887l0l142445l151610l10l0l185l1039j1l140)
- Hormones: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=hormones&aq=hormones&aq=f&aq=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l10.30397l3222110i36047l18i111110l185l1039j1l170](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=hormones&aq=hormones&aq=f&aq=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l10.30397l3222110i36047l18i111110l185l1039j1l170)
- Architecture: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=architecture++&aq=architecture++&aq=f&aq=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l10.6326l6326l0i792211110l0l0l2131213l2-1j1l10](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=architecture++&aq=architecture++&aq=f&aq=g10&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.12.0l10.6326l6326l0i792211110l0l0l2131213l2-1j1l10)
- Programming languages: [http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=programming+languages+lecture&aq=programming+languages+s&aq=1&aqi=g7g-m3&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.11.0j1i5j3.42892l46124l0i48402l21.1l1i8i1l1207i1698il5j6j2130](http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=programming+languages+lecture&aq=programming+languages+s&aq=1&aqi=g7g-m3&aqal=&gs_l=youtube.11.0j1i5j3.42892l46124l0i48402l21.1l1i8i1l1207i1698il5j6j2130)
3. Guidelines for Selecting Specialized Online Videos

Videos selected should be related to the course topics under study. The video length in minutes, content difficulty level, and speed of the speaker should be taken into consideration as well. They should also be based on their capacity for inspiration, motivation, interest, content, clarity of message, pacing, graphics, length of sequence(s), independence of sequence(s), availability and quality of related materials, and potential classroom use (Burt, 1999). The video content should meet the students’ interests, knowledge, understanding, abilities, and experiences.

Subtitled and closed-captioned videos should be selected. Two studies by Harji, Woods & Alavi (2010) and Yekta (2010) found that Iranian students who watched videos with subtitles scored significantly higher on the vocabulary tests than those who viewed the videos without subtitles. Subtitled videos also enriched the students’ processing and comprehension of the target language. Adding German subtitles to German videos assisted learners in acquiring new vocabulary and developing listening comprehension (Froehlich, 1988). Closed captioned videos provided an effective tool for presenting nanotechnology information in a meaningful way to ESL students (Kumar and Scarola, 2006). They were more effective for performance on aural vocabulary tests, increased students’ attention, improved processing, reinforced previous knowledge, analyzed language and served as a crutch for learners (Winke, Gass and Sydorenko, 2010).

Since science videos are often fast-paced, information rich and pose cognitive difficulties, scientific concepts should be fragmented and embedded within larger issues to reduce cognitive issues and enhance students’ understanding (Pace & Jones, 2009).

4. Instructional strategy with online videos

Instruction with online videos can proceed in three phases: (i) before watching a video, (ii) while watching a video, and (iii) after watching a video. Each of which is described below.

4.1 Before watching a video

The instructor sets goals for watching videos (goals for the whole course and each topic and video), introduces the video by giving the title and summarizing the content, tells the students what they need to do and focus on, and gives pre-questions to help the students understand the content of the video lecture. The students can watch the video on their own, at home or school, either before or after taking a class lecture. The instructor can serve as a facilitator. His/her guidance is crucial in facilitating use of digital video to improve students’ listening comprehension skills, background knowledge and knowledge of specialized technical terms. S(he) encourages and models the skills that the students need to acquire or practice.

4.2 While watching a video

Watching the video should help develop the students’ listening comprehension skills of specialized material such as: (i) Listening for main ideas and supporting details; (ii) listening for organizational clues (descriptions, classifications, definitions, processes, whole-part and cause-effects relationships); (iii) deriving meanings of difficult technical terms from the spoken context, through definitions, explanations, illustrations and examples given through the flow of speech; (iv) note-taking skills while listening to class lectures using short hand, abbreviations and key words; (v) connecting
information; and (vi) outlining the content of a lecture by listing the topics and subtopics, main ideas and significant supporting details.

To help the students make the most of specialized videos, they should avoid watching videos passively. Based on findings of a study with second-year undergraduate civil engineering students, Cherrett, Wills, Price, Maynard & Dror (2009) found that interactive videos enhanced the students’ learning experience. They concluded that passive observation of a video is not cognitively engaging and challenging, and learning would not be as effective as it should. Therefore, the students should watch interactive videos in which they play an active role. While watching the video, they should be required to engage, participate, respond and be actively involved. They can take notes of main ideas, important details, key technical terms, pay attention to specific information while listening, answer questions while listening or make an outline of the lecture.

In addition, Micro-level activities, such as stopping the video or browsing were found to be more beneficial for learning than features enabling macro-level activities, such as referring to a table of contents or an index (Merkt, Weigand, Heier & Schwan, 2011).

To improve learning outcomes, the instructor must contextualize assignments by making explicit links between content and its use in a workplace setting. Seddon (2008) found that contextualization to be responsible for a deeper style of learning that was adopted by the majority of students. He contextualized assignments by having the students’ present their results as a role-play video of a veterinarian/client consultation.

Finally, Canning-Wilson (2000) recommended that video tasks be multi-layered in order to exploit all information and elements contained in the aural and visual texts. Video tasks and lessons should be perceived by the learner as challenging and requiring effort. Students should not be able to answer questions based solely on what they see instead of what they hear.

4.3 After watching the video:

The students can work individually, in pairs or groups, discuss answers to questions, summarize or retell video content orally. They can use mind-maps, diagrams, flow charts or photos to show information details and relationships among concepts and topics. To motivate students to watch online videos, they can keep a log of the videos they have watched. The instructor can give extra credit, include the video content on tests and give written assignments. The assessment strategies selected by the instructor should support and develop students’ understanding of the content under study. During all instructional phases, the instructor should support inquiries while interacting with the students and should encourage all the students to fully participate in learning.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

To help freshman students who are non-native speakers comprehend specialized lectures delivered in English, the present study recommends the integration of specialized online videos in specialized content courses. The students can download digital videos related to the topics to be covered in their courses from Internet websites such as You Tube and Learners T.V. However, watching an online video does not mean that meaningful learning will occur automatically. Karppinen (2005) indicated that learning outcomes depend largely on the way videos are used as part of the overall learning environment, i.e. how viewing or producing videos is integrated into learning resources and tasks. For learning with online videos to be effective and meaningful, it should be (i) active, (ii) constructive and individual, (iii) collaborative and conversational, (iv) contextual, (v) guided, and (vi) emotionally involving and motivating (Karppinen, 2005).

To allow instructors and students’ quick and easy access to specialized digital videos on the Internet, the present study recommends that each college create a specialized digital video repository, which integrates MPEG-4 encoding, full text indexing, high-resolution streaming, and Synchronized Multimedia Integration Language (SMIL), for delivering on-line digital video, for enabling content-based search for certain segments of a video clip stored in the repository. This specialized digital video repository will enable students and instructors to store, search and retrieve catalogued streaming of specialized digital video content to be used for instructional purposes. This is believed to enhance teaching and learning in Saudi English-medium colleges.
References


The Social Impact on Children with Incarcerated Parents

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Abstract: This study sought to define the socialization needs of children, whose parents are incarcerated. A review and critique of related literature indicated that there are unintended consequences on children due to the incarceration of their parents. These consequences include a low self-concept, impaired school achievement, poor peer relationships, changes in behavior, and isolation. Information was collected through reviewing and critiquing current literature regarding the effects of having parents in jail/prison on their family, especially their children. The information and data gathered, through this research, is intended to help social workers and others professionals to provide meaningful services to children and their families with information that can be used in designing and modifying future guidance and counseling programs. Strengths and weaknesses of this research are given, as well as recommendations for future research. The research has shown that the family suffers economically, socially, and emotionally. There may be some stigma attached to the family or feelings of anger, guilt and depression. Future recommendations on this topic would be to look at the family situation prior to the parent being incarcerated.

Keywords: socialization, children, incarceration parents, social work

1. Introduction

In general, our parents are the first people we know and with whom we create our first bonds. They provide, with few exceptions, shelter, security, love, and nourishment. Children learn how to build and foster relationships by watching how their parents and family interact with each other and society. Any changes within the family affect all members of that family. Family cohesion and harmony have been determined to be significant variables in the development of positive self-esteem in children (Napoli, Kilbride, & Tebbs, 1992).

Imprisonment has a more immediate and wide reaching impact on affected families. Hagan (2000) states that the incarceration of parents can seriously diminish the economic and social capital on which families and communities depend to successfully raise children. The disintegration of the family that often results from imprisonment means that children can experience prolonged and intensified periods of instability and uncertainty. He suggests that parental imprisonment may have the following negative effects: the strains of economic deprivation; the loss of parental socialization through role modeling, support and supervision; and the stigma and shame of being labeled by society.

Children can be affected in different ways, depending on the role that was played by the parent who is imprisoned. One significant issue that arises is the provision of alternative care in cases where women who were the primary caregivers are incarcerated. Women are more likely than men to be primary caregivers prior to incarceration, which means that the children of female inmates are likely to experience greater disruption to care-giving arrangements (Healy et. al, 2000). Extended family networks often become involved, with grandparents, aunts and uncles taking over the role of carer. If such support is not available, foster care becomes an option (Howard, 2000). On the other hand, the imprisonment of fathers can sometimes remove the main earner from the family structure, which increases the likelihood of financial hardship. Remaining single parents may therefore have less money and less time for their children, which can affect their overall development.

Children of incarcerated parents are among the most vulnerable populations of children, at high risk for neglect, abuse, behavioral health problems, delinquency and substance abuse. The problems of children, whose parents are incarcerated, if unattended, can produce intergenerational patterns of crime and violence. Historic changes in family structure, substance abuse rates, criminal sentencing policies and related increases in the number of incarcerated parents have exerted a profound negative impact on the well being of children of incarcerated parents.

The following sections outline some of the difficulties that children may experience as a result of parental imprisonment. The difficulties involved in making any generalizations about the impact on children of separation from their parent as a result of imprisonment have been noted by several commentators (eg, Shaw, 1992; Johnston et. al, 1996), however. Seymour (1998) states that the true extent of the problems caused by parental imprisonment cannot be
estimated because few reliable statistics exist. She outlines how much of the research on children with incarcerated parents has been methodologically limited and that there have been no longitudinal studies following children through different phases of parental incarceration and release. The extent to which a child will be affected by parental incarceration depends on a large number of variables, including the age at which parent-child separation occurs, the length of separation, the child’s familiarity with his or her new caregiver or placement, and the degree of stigma that the child’s community associates with imprisonment.

2. Perspectives from the Literature: Impact of Parental Incarceration on Families and Children

Over the past dozen years, a number of studies have examined the impact of parental incarceration on families and children. Most notable are Gabel and Johnston (1995), Parke and Clarke-Stewart (2002), Petersilia (2003), Travis (2003), and Farrington and Welsh (2007). By looking at the impact of incarceration on children as a process, we are better able to understand how and when incarceration affects them. The three stages in the process of incarceration from children’s perspectives include (1) arrest and immediate separation, (2) incarceration and parental unavailability, and (3) the effects of reunion after incarceration.

Stage 1 - Arrest and immediate separation.

Gabel and Johnston (1995) describe the trauma of arrest that affects children of any age. They relate that one in five children is present during the time of arrest and witnesses the parent being taken away by authorities. More than half of the children who witness this event are under seven years of age and are left in the sole care of their mother. Some argue that explanations should be minimized to protect the child, while others argue that nondisclosure is harmful and exacerbates distress when the child is lied to or left to wonder about his/her parent’s whereabouts. This is often referred to as a “conspiracy of silence” or “forced silence” that can raise even greater anxiety in the child.

Stage 2 - Incarceration and parental unavailability.

This is the most complex stage of the incarceration process. It includes issues related to the developmental level of the child (infancy through young adulthood), the effects on the incarcerated parent and family unit, and whether or not programs within the criminal justice and social service systems meet the families’ needs. Travis (2003) states that:

“Their children must come to terms with the reality of an absent parent, the stigma of parental imprisonment, and an altered support system... In addition, in those communities where incarceration rates are high, the experience of having a mother or father in prison is now quite commonplace, with untold consequences for foster care systems, multigenerational households, social service delivery, community norms, childhood development, and parenting patterns.”

A. Financial effects

According to studies that have been conducted in countries that include Denmark, England, the United States and Australia, the majority of prisoners tend to come from low income backgrounds, which have immediate implications for their families. The findings indicated that the children of imprisoned fathers tended to be socially, financially and educationally deprived to start off with.

The socio-economic status of prisoners’ families often means that their needs do not receive much attention. As Wedge and Boswell (1999) point out, prisoners’ families tend to belong to low income and low status groups, whose needs and rights do not receive routine consideration during the sentencing process and who are not seen to merit systematic support during the sentences themselves. In some cases, mothers who are left to support the children on their own may have no option but to take up employment outside the home. Their children could therefore receive less attention than they had in the past.

B. Emotional and behavioral responses to parental imprisonment

It has been noted that some children can become defiant or aggressive and can display antisocial behaviour as a result of having a parent imprisoned (Springer et. al, 1999). According to one of the first studies carried out on the children of
prisoners (Sack et al, 1976), typical reactions that can characterize their responses to parental imprisonment include more aggressive and disruptive behaviour, reduced levels of obedience and a decrease in school performance.

Children whose parents are incarcerated carry tremendous emotional burdens. In such cases therapeutic help may be beneficial for trauma, anger, fear for their parent’s safety and well being, abandonment and other emotional issues (fear, anxiety, sadness, loss and guilt). Problems relating to lack of contact; physical care and custody; child abuse and neglect; family stress associated with community and family reintegration, may also improve with services, including therapy.

- Children need parental guidance, love, and a strong role model.
- There is stigma, harassment, mocking by other kids.
- Children are often exposed to drug abuse in the home, before, during and after parental incarceration.
- Children often have to raise themselves and/or their siblings.
- Children often have to deal with the fact there is no food, no clean clothes, and no support for going to school.
- Children may feel confusion and/or fear for parent(s) and insecurity regarding their future/what will happen next, after arrest, and beyond.
- There are often changes in living location and conditions including school and friends.
- There is often a lack of accessible benefits/services (e.g. medical, dental, nutritional, behavioral, and counseling).
- There is often difficulty with the reunification and transition processes.
- Children may develop negative views of authority figures.

C. Stigma caused by parental imprisonment

Previous studies have found that it is common for families to feel stigmatized when one of their members is imprisoned, which can have long-term effects on children’s development. Fear of stigmatization can place children under further stress, in that they may feel pressurized into keeping the reason for their parent’s absence a secret from their peers or people in the wider community. Further problems can be caused by the fact that parents or caregivers may be unwilling to tell children the reason for the parents’ absence. Prisoners’ families may be concerned about how others would react (Myers et. al, 1998):

“Some parents, due to the very realistic concerns about community scorn or rejection; try very hard to hide the truth of the situation from their children… As a result, children may experience shame, and many have reported social isolation from their friends.

According to Shaw (1992), the lack of information can be very frightening for children and can encourage their fears or fantasies about where their parent actually is. Gabel et. al (1995) state that the fact that the truth may be hidden from the children or from the community in general can be very detrimental for children because they “are unable to process the effects of trauma, including the trauma of parent-child separation without expressing their feelings verbally”.

Stage 3 - Effects of reunion after incarceration

Reentry into society has become a major issue in corrections over the past 10 years. Travis (2005) sheds light on the magnitude of the problem, as unprecedented numbers of men and women have been incarcerated under the sentencing reforms of the past 30 years; and, having completed their sentences, now are reentering the lives of their families and communities. They are often reentering unsupervised, without guidance in overcoming old or new obstacles to making the transition a successful one. Travis notes difficulties associated with reintegrating the formerly incarcerated parent into his or her family, unsupported. Travis goes on to say, would take community-wide coalitions, strong support from local governments, and partnerships with state correction agencies that shared the coalitions’ goal:

“...to recognize the important role that families can play in successful reintegration, to minimize the harm experienced by the children of incarcerated parents, and to promote strong and healthy families for each prisoner (p. 149).”

3. Other Impacts on Children of Parental Incarceration

Criminological research has shown that having an antisocial parent or parents (those who lie, steal, disobey, and engage in violence) is one of the strongest predictors of violence or serious delinquency in adolescence and youth adulthood.
Lipsey and Derzon (1998) found that youth with the most antisocial parent(s) were three to six times more likely to exhibit violent or serious delinquency than youth with the least antisocial parents. The authors estimated that from 15 to 20 percent of youth with the most antisocial parents would become delinquent, and from 47 to 62 percent of all who became delinquent would have at least one antisocial parent. In contrast, from 94 to 96 percent of those without an antisocial parent would not become delinquent, and from 77 to 78 percent of those who did not become delinquent would not have an antisocial parent. These percentages indicated that parental criminality is an important risk factor for adolescent antisocial behavior.

Saving Children from a Life of Crime (Farrington & Welsh 2007) examines decades of rigorous studies about the early risk factors for offending. Citing classic longitudinal surveys by Joan McCord (1977) and Lee Robins (1978), it found that criminal parents tended to have delinquent and antisocial children. To explain why, the authors described “six possible explanations (not mutually exclusive) for why offending tended to be concentrated in certain families and transmitted from one generation to the next” (Farrington et al. 2001):

1. Transmission of offending is part of a larger cycle of deprivation and antisocial behavior.
2. Assortative mating -- female offenders tend to cohabit with or marry male offenders.
3. Direct and mutual influences of family members on each other, although there is no evidence that parents directly encourage their children to commit crimes or teach them criminal techniques.
4. Environmental mechanisms: Arrested fathers tend to impregnate young women, to live in bad neighborhoods, and to use poor child-rearing methods, such as harsh or erratic discipline.
5. Genetic mechanisms, the important question being how genetic potential interacts with environment to produce offending behavior.
6. Official (police and court) bias against known criminal families.

The extent to which a child will be affected by parental incarceration depends on a large number of variables, including the age at which the parent-child separation occurs, length of the separation, health of the family, disruptiveness of the incarceration, and the child’s familiarity with the placement or new caregiver. Other variables may be the strength of the parent-child relationship, number and result of previous separation experiences, nature of the parent’s crime, length of the parent’s sentence, availability of family or community support, and degree of stigma that the community associates with incarceration (Seymour, 1998).

Dr. Denise Johnston, Director of the Center for Children of Incarcerated Parents at Pacific Oaks College in Pasadena, California, has studied the impact of parental crime, arrest and incarceration on children’s development. Her work is summarized in table 1 (Simmons, 2000).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Developmental</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Developmental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infancy (0-2 years)</td>
<td>Total dependency</td>
<td>Attachment and trust</td>
<td>Parent-child separation</td>
<td>Impaired parent-child bonding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early childhood (2-6 years)</td>
<td>Increased perception and mobility; incomplete individuation from parent</td>
<td>Sense of autonomy, independence and initiative</td>
<td>Parent-child separation; Trauma</td>
<td>Anxiety, developmental regression, acute traumatic stress, survivor guilt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle childhood (7-10 years)</td>
<td>Increased independence, ability to reason, importance of peers</td>
<td>Sense of industry, ability to work productively</td>
<td>Parent-child separation, enduring trauma</td>
<td>Acute traumatic stress and reactive behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early adolescence (11-14 years)</td>
<td>Increasing abstract thinking, future oriented behavior, aggression, puberty</td>
<td>Ability to work productively with others, control of emotions</td>
<td>Parent-child separation, enduring trauma</td>
<td>Rejection of limits on behavior, trauma reactive behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late adolescence (15-18 years)</td>
<td>Emotional crisis and confusion, adult sexual development, abstract thinking, independence</td>
<td>Achieves identity, engages in adult work and relationships, resolves conflicts with family and society</td>
<td>Parent-child separation, enduring trauma</td>
<td>Premature termination of parent-child relationship; intergenerational crime and incarceration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another aspect of the children’s life that may be affected by having a parent incarcerated is lowered self-esteem or self-concept. Self-esteem is learned through social interactions and accomplishing the tasks that we set out to do. These expectations that we have about ourselves do not have to be based in reality. They are fostered through an individual’s actions, behaviors, and beliefs about themselves.

Hopelessness and negative self-esteem are likely to be associated with social withdrawal, resulting in part from the perceived futility, helplessness, and lack of confidence of social encounters. Limited social interactions with others are likely to foster diminished social reinforcement, withdrawal, or lack of approach responses on the part of others and, in a reciprocal fashion, further social withdrawal (Kazdin, Rodgers, and Colbus, 1986). How children see and respond to a given situation will affect all aspects of their life. It has been shown that people with low self-esteem often have little confidence in their abilities. If a child lacks self-confidence the risk is that no effort will be made toward attaining their goals.

4. Recommendations

I. The research has shown that the family suffers economically, socially, and emotionally. When a parent is imprisoned, the family may need to move away from their home in order to be closer to the incarcerated parent or to escape the social stigma that is placed on their family. Having a parent in prison may influence children on their outlook on life. They may feel that it is inevitable for them to also be placed in jail. A sense of hopelessness regarding their future may develop. Without positive role models the children will look at their peers for guidance and direction. In some cases, the children will join gangs to have a sense of connection and belonging.

Future recommendations on this topic would be to look at the family situation prior to the parent being incarcerated. One could look into the family dynamics; determine the roles of the family members. In addition, researchers could investigate what the living conditions were before the incarceration or design a study that looks into the background differences and family circumstances. These are just a few of the variables that will need to be considered in future studies.

These children are innocent victims who should have the right:
- To be kept safe and informed at the time of their parent’s arrest;
- To be cared for in their parent’s absence; and
- To be emotional support as they struggle with their parent’s incarceration.

References


Problems of Third Age According Cases Study at Daily Elders Centre of Durrës Municipality

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Abstract: The object of this study is Daily Elder Centre (DEC) in Durrës. Subject of this study is the target group that it is support DEC. The aim of this study: “To known social problems that has elder people, members of Daily Elders Centre (DEC) in Durrës. The objectives of this study: To identify problem of DEC members, and to evaluated every problem. There were study 90 persons (member of DEC); were created two questionnaire formats to collect the information by DEC members. Were used as source the basic registers of DEC and personal files of members. Were considered as indicator assessment “hierarchy of needs” according to Maslow’s theory, and low number 7703 on 11/05/1993 for “minimal and maximal pension for old people in urban aria of Albania; contemporaneous services offered for old people in the developed countries. Discussion of the results brought some of these conclusions: 1. The elderly of the DEC consider the income level insufficient. 2. The elderly of DEC do not have the life that desire. 3. The elderly of DEC feels in threatened from old age. 4. The elderly of DEC feels alone. “Aging at home” is identified as a very significant desire among the elderly. This preference for living in a family environment seems to indicate a desire to maintain independence, and not to withdraw from society.

Keywords: elderly, needs, incomes, loneliness, decreased physical activity

Introduction

In the world practice, as the entry threshold in the elderly group, the age of 60 or 65 years is used. The limit 65 years is usually used in cases where the country's population is characterized by a high degree of obsolescence. But there are few cases in which an elderly can maintain vital features of a young man, regarding psychic abilities such as attention, memory, logic, creative feelings etc. It is important to remember that the beginning of aging is a personal phenomenon that has different rates and depends on numerous psychological, social, environmental factors, which promote or inhibit this phenomenon.(2)

In our country under the applicable law an “Elder Person” is a person who has reached the retirement age. In Albania, one of the most five threatened groups that constitutes a social problem is the third age group. (4)

The Albanian population, like many other developing countries is at a fairly rapid transition phase. The reduction of fertility and the increased longevity of the Albanian population have led to the classic demographic transition. For our country, a distinctive feature of population has been its young age. According to INSTAT (the Institute of Statistics), the elderly in our country occupy 8% of the population, of whom 52% are female and 47% are male. Thus Albania as a nation currently has a relatively young age, but its falling trends tend to be visible, and if we refer to INSTAT, from 2001 to 2010, the third age population is increasing by 14.7% or 33,470 of elderly. Therefore, as a result of continuing the trend of fertility decline since 1961, as the specific weight of the first age group will continue to decrease gradually, the third age group will grow so much that, in about four decades, the specific weight of the elderly over 60 years, not only will reach but, perhaps will pass the first age group. According to rough estimates, in 2050 it is thought that the elderly will reach
about 25% of the population, a figure close to the current average of two countries like Italy and Spain, which are among the top aging countries in Europe.

Durrës has about 195,135 inhabitants, of whom 26,569, or 13.6% are elderly. The number of elderly is increasing to 14.7% or 3347.

Aging of population has social implications that go beyond the fact of collecting demographic data. The progressive industrialization and urbanization are effectively contributing in our population geographical distribution. Above all, the mass migration to a new sector of the population from rural to urban areas is not only adding the older population in rural areas, but at the same time is depriving this group of people of the traditional economic and social support. This phenomenon, on the other hand, has made formal requests for support grow more and more.

As for those elderly people who have moved to urban areas, except the problem of accommodation, they are added the problems of poverty, health and nutrition. All these changes have been presented as a challenge in front of the Albanian government, bringing social, economic, medical and political implications.

To cope with the aging population, it was previously thought as a matter belonging to the family and in this light, the family or its members who offered services were underestimated and, in many cases, even excluded from the formal system of social services. It was only given in extreme cases or when the crisis was too late.

There exists a network of state and non-state services operating in this direction by offering day care centers and residential social services for senior citizens. These activities are conducted in a limited number of residential state institutions, respectively in Kamëz and Saranda.

Cities like Durrës and Tirana have day centers for elderly, supported by local budgets and projects which they apply for. These centers have been established alongside the community. The existence role of these centers is supportive, entertaining and integrative.

The object of this study is the Day Center for Elderly (DCE) associated with the target group it supports. Currently it supports respectively 110 elderly people per year. DCE is an institution which has been supported by the Municipality of Durrës since September 2001. Overall, it has supported 380 senior citizens. The center offers numerous psycho-social programs, that intend to improve the quality of life of the elderly.

At the time of the survey the center is attended by 95 members. Part of the study have been 90 of them or 94.7% of the attendees.

For this study the basic registry books were used, and the data were collected by personal cards that each member of the center possesses.

**Methodology**

This study sample consists of 90 individuals, of whom 47.7% are female and 52.3% are male. A necessary condition for the individuals who became part of this survey was their inclusion as beneficiary members of services at the “Day Centre for Elderly” Durrës. The age of the sample belongs to the group of 65 years and above, or the elderly. All the individuals who participated in this study reside in Durrës. The sample has an extension in 94.7% of total mass for a year of services or 23.6% of all beneficiaries in years.

**Instruments**

We used two types of tabs in this survey. The first tab has to do with bringing in a format as an unstructured interview. This file collected data about "issues" considered as a problem for the senior citizens of the center. This format contains comments from the elderly about these issues. The comments contain their natural feelings about several issues. These sensations were used to give a real tangible character of the problem and to help us develop a second tab. The second tab has to do with the identification of the current social situation of elderly people who attend the center, giving statistical information about the issues which they pose as problems. This file brings us statistical information about the identified problems in the first file. Unlike the first one, the second tab is structured in the form of a questionnaire that contains definite elements which need to be found. From the first tab, 20 free interviews were conducted, or 22.2% of beneficiaries. The second tab was handed out to 90 members of the center, and was supplemented with information by 90 elders or 94.7% of attendees.

**Data Analysis**

Instruments used in this study were put into a database using SPSS. Data analysis consists of a descriptive analysis.
conducted through the program by calculating frequencies, percentages, elements of average and correlations between problems such as loneliness and loss of spouse etc.

Also, helpful indicators such as the “Hierarchy of Needs” according to Maslow’s Humanistic Theory were used in the evaluation. The evaluation is intended to identify the sort of the problem under the level of personal needs; Law no. 7703 dated 11/05/1993 for “Retirement Pension”, which aims to find which group of pension benefits the elderly of the day center are part of; DCM (Decree of Council of Ministers) no. 209; dated 12.4.2006, “On the Determination of Criteria and Required Documentation for Admission of Persons in Residential, Public and Private Institutions, Social Care”; Chapter 3, on “Beneficiaries Considered Seniors in Need”; “Contemporary Service Models for the Elderly, and social policy”, which aimed at the identification of what is called a problem based on the philosophy of services to the third age group that these models bring.

Discussion and Results of the study

In this study, the “first tab” was created in the form of a non-structured interview. This file collected data about “issues” considered as a problem for the senior citizens of the center. Moreover, the “first tab” contains comments from the elderly about problems of these issues. Comments contain their natural feelings about issues. For the “first tab” 20 free interviews were conducted, or 22.2% of beneficiaries were involved. A set of variables have been extracted from this file, which emerge as a problem for the senior citizens in a certain extent. Precisely, measure values of each problem are presented in Table (01.) This table expresses in percentage the measure of the value to each problem. These problems not only occur at high rates, but they can also be seen as interdependent on each other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of problems</th>
<th>Low income</th>
<th>Dependence</th>
<th>Alteration of Civil Status</th>
<th>Hermitage</th>
<th>Alteration of Health diseases</th>
<th>Alteration of Cohabitation</th>
<th>Alteration of Housing</th>
<th>Alteration of social status</th>
<th>Alteration of appearance</th>
<th>Mentality</th>
<th>Lack of privacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value in %</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey data showed that the problems of concern to seniors in DCE Durrës are the income, the amount of benefit, type of benefit, education, loneliness, the social status of the members of the center that expresses the loss of spouse, cohabitation, dependence etc.

Personal income are a problem in 95% of members. They are identified as a problem, because the elderly say they are very low in comparison with the needs they have to meet. “With this pension I cannot afford even my medication,” said the elderly lady R.B.

“Insufficiency of income brings dependence on others”, says A.M. This kind of dependence on others appears in 87% of the concern of members. Addiction is a kind of slavery! Especially in the situation of a “conditioned slavery” (10). According to INSTAT publication in 2010, in the region of Durrës, the number of pensioners was 34,041, of whom 17,122 are women and 16,919 men. In the “Day Center of Elderly”, Durrës, the number of beneficiaries should not be greater than 110 elderly people. Is there a need for other centers? Figures speak for themselves.

But let’s analyze the recorded and placed problems that the first tab helped us view in the table (01.) To analyze these problems we used the second tab, which relates to the identification of the current social situation of older people who frequent the center. It gave us statistical information about the issues that pose a problem for them. This file was compiled in the form of a survey and helped bring us statistical information about the problems that the first tab identified.

The information on “income” from table (01.) which result as a problem in 95% of cases of members of the Center, was treated in two variables, “the source of income” and “measures of profitability”. This is to see how much the measure of profitability from the revenue source is.
From the results of the study, the variable “the data for the income source for the members of the DCE” the results obtained from the table (1.) were put aside for an interpreting effect in Table (1.1), and if we refer to this table, we note that 88.9% of the members of the center benefit a retirement pension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of income</th>
<th>Retirement pension</th>
<th>Retirement + Disability pension</th>
<th>Economic aid</th>
<th>Disability pension</th>
<th>No income</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value in %</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This shows that the main source of visitors on the center is the retirement pension. But why do 95% of old people say that their revenues are not sufficient or even a problem?

To come to the conclusions of Table (1.1), we also studied another variable that is the “measure of profitability for each source”. Based on these two variables, namely “the recognition of income source”, and “benefit amount” minimum and maximum, we decided to look at the addiction that these variables have from each other. Thus the measure of profitability variable was divided into four values, which include the contributions from any source of income and all no income households that included 1.1% of visitors on the center. So referring to the Table (1.1), the voices of variable “measure of benefit” include all kinds of sources of income that beneficiaries of the center have.

But what do we understand with the problem of income, if members receive a retirement pension? According to DCM no.763, of Law no.7703, dated 11/05/1993 for “Retirement Pensions” we have data for the maximum and minimum types of pensions that the Social Security Institute provides in the country. So according to this source, the minimum retirement pension in the city (the place where our study takes place) is in the amount of 13,600 lek per month (95EU). The maximum retirement pension in the city is given to the extent of 22,000 lek per month (160 EU). Let’s see how the income from the survey results are, referring to these profitability measures, minimum and maximum.

According to the Table (1.2), only 4.5% of the members of the center are near the maximum pension benefit. While 78.9% of the members have an income below the minimum limit of the pension benefit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of benefit</th>
<th>0-5000 lek/month</th>
<th>5100 -10 000 lek/month</th>
<th>10 100 – 15 000 lek/month</th>
<th>15 100 – 22 000 lek/month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value in %</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data came from the analysis of these two variables, which means the analysis of the income source and the amount of benefit which is shown in Table (1.) below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of benefit</th>
<th>Retirement pension</th>
<th>Retirement + Disability pension</th>
<th>Economic aid</th>
<th>Disability pension</th>
<th>No income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5000 lek/month</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5100 -10 000 lek/month</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 100 – 15 000 lek/month</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 100 – 22 000 lek/month</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So as we can see from the table there is an important link between the income source and the amount of benefit ($r = 0.143$, $p = 0.017$).
This table shows that 78.9% of attendees receive a retirement pension near the minimum 13,600 lek/month. And only 4.5% of them benefit income over the minimum or maximum retirement pension of 22,000 lek/month. This part of the beneficiaries or “privileged”, in the case of our study, are those members, who receive two pensions, both the retirement and disability. In this category of beneficiaries there are included 4.5% of the members, who have severe health problems.

According to the “Financial Assistance and Social Services” law no 9355 dated 10/03/2005, the income from the disability pension is not counted as such, inasmuch as this income is used for disability, while these elders apparently seem “privileged” by the amount of profitability.

Another category of beneficiaries is that of the members who have no income, which occupies 1.1% of members. 2.2% of attendees are included in the voice that benefits from the financial assistance scheme. The economic aid is not more than 5000 lek/month (36EU). These identified elderly with no income or insufficient income live with the help of both their relatives and the center.

From these data we notice that the old people who come frequently in the center benefit from the pension scheme to the extent of 93.4%, and considered as revenue source, the pension is insufficient and this is a problem for them. These results can be considered as a negative impact on the members’ lives.

In developed countries, such as Italy, there is developed a social policy which is very supporting for the third age people regarding their income. This refers to the liquidation that the individual gets after retirement. The Liquidation or “Trattamento a fine rapporto” TFR, under the Article No 297, dated on May 29, 1982, guarantees to every employee their TFR, which is calculated based on their last salary from their employment, multiplied by the years they have worked. This amount serves as a savings fund of the personal income, which is collected by the government based on the social security contributions, which is then delivered in the end of labor contribution. Thus it is an income that creates a kind of guarantee in the future. The lack of income constrains individuals in choices of their everyday life.

According to Maslow’s Humanistic Theory on the Hierarchy of Needs it is worth repeating that: 1. The Physiological Needs, according to Maslow, include needs such as food, water, sexual relationship, exercising and rest. Man has physiological needs until some of these needs are met, at least partially. The highest-level needs in the hierarchy may become more needful when the physiological needs start being met. If we refer to the data of the results, the income of 95.5% of the members of the center is below the average, the remaining of 4.5% receive a disability insurance, thus they belong to those elderly people that have specific needs depending on their health conditions, meeting partially the physiological needs that Maslow poses.

According to Maslow, after the basic needs are met, comes another stage that needs to be met, which is the security need. The need for security involves such needs as safety, stability, protection and freedom. During all his life, man needs not only to meet his needs, but also needs them to be stable. The investment throughout our lives, on education and career, aims to return in the end of the social security contributions an income such as the pension, which depends on the rate of social contribution. For example, education is an instrument that provides the possibility of being involved in a certain profession, on which you may rely during your life. In countries like Italy, France, England, etc, pensions and their benefitting rates is differentiated. One of the causes of this differentiation among others is education. Based on the data we have about the minimum and maximum pensions, the difference doesn’t seem to be
so significant referring to the amount of benefit from the pension and education. In the members of the center, taking into account the dependence of these two variables, of the “education of the elderly” and of the “benefit rate”, we notice that they do not have a significant interdependence. This is shown even in the following table.

Let us refer to the table (2.):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit Rate</th>
<th>No Education</th>
<th>primary education</th>
<th>secondary education</th>
<th>middle education</th>
<th>Higher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5000 lekë/month</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5100 -10 000 lekë/month</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 100 – 15 000 lekë/month</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 100 – 22 000 lekë/month</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see on the table, the above data shows that there is no significant relation between the benefit rate and education (r= 0.079, p=0.221). The uneducated beneficers occupy 7.8% of the total beneficers, but more than half of them benefit a minimum pension, same as the other beneficers with primary, secondary, middle or higher education. Thus education does not affect the increase of the amount of pension benefit that the center’s members have.

Old age affects drastically the human’s ability to work. Of course, with increasing age, productivity affects, but this is generalized. Elderly people often balance their physical loss, caused as a result of old age, with a contribution that does not require the use of physical strength, but the use of knowledge and experience. The work activity of elderly people, if it is properly chosen, does not wear off the potential of the human life, but preserves it, inhibits the aging process and also helps in choosing an active life.\(^{(15)}\)

In Japan we see a model that is followed in order to maintain the social status of elderly people. The content of the Japanese model is related to the model of the active elder person.

Figure 1 shows at its best the situation of the employment of these ages, compared with other countries’ situation.

In Japan the employment level of elderly people, even of those who have passed the retirement age, results to be very high. Thus we see a power of the system, when it’s used in life. Often Japan is mentioned for the increase of the level of the active elderly population, mostly of males. In 2008, almost 95% of men of the ages of 55 and 59 years old were active at work. Almost ¾ of those between the ages of 60 to 64 were equally active at work, and 1/3 of those at the age of 65 were following the same example. Among them nearly all preferred to work: The elder individuals or those near the third-age work in sectors protected by the state. This is the “life use” system, which settles the compensation based on seniority, thus practically based on age. This system that is used by Japan requires a highly developed state.\(^{(16)}\)
Our country does not follow such policies, which create the opportunity for people to choose by themselves when to retire, because as we said the aging process is not only a natural issue but also a personal one. In our country, people are forced to retire (excluding any special case). The retirement creates a series of problems such as the loss of social status, dependence on others, feeling worthless, loss of spouse, loneliness, etc, which are accompanied by fear and insecurity.

The State Care for its individuals is a constitutional obligation. It is the individual’s right to feel safe and protected as part of the community where he lives. Thus the social treaty aims the protection of the contractors, which in this case refers to the third-age generation. They should feel the presence of the State by being involved in helping, not in being excluded and abandoned. They need to be considered as an inseparable part of society, not as a black excluding stain of it.

The demographic movement in the country brought many changes in the pace of life, in its needs, etc. Changes happened even in the mentality of people. Before the 90’s it was a “great shame” if the “oldest son” or the one that “was supposed” to live with the parents would leave. From the family and society it was regarded as abandonment. Whilst after the 90’s this mentality started to change. Looking for jobs in the national labor market, and most of the time in the international labor market, the children were obliged to get separated from their families of origin in order to make a living. This phenomenon, did not only “shock” the traditional family, but also made the phenomenon of “loneliness” of the third-age generation even more frequent. Loneliness, based on the table (0.1), constitutes 73% of the concerns of elderly people. In order to analyze the loneliness problem, in this research, for the elderly people of the QDM, was thought to be chosen two variables contained on the second card. These variables are: “the status of the members of the center” and “perception of this status”. From the processing of the data collected from these two variables, the result was table (3). In table three we notice how these two variables get intertwined with each other. And if we see carefully, we notice that these variables have an important connection with each other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status Perception</th>
<th>Widowed</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Divorced</th>
<th>Unmarried</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lonely</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15,5%</td>
<td>7,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not lonely</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>26,7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>26,7%</td>
<td>15,5%</td>
<td>7,8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So there is an important connection between the “perception of the status” and “marital status or social status”, since \( r=0.303, p=0.041 \).

Those elderly people who lost their spouse, in 100% of the cases, they feel 100% lonely, and in this case they constitute 50% of the frequenters. The same thing happens with the divorced and unmarried ones. The old people that are still married do not feel loneliness up to 100%. According to Maslow, the needs for belonging and love are related to such motives as love and affection, which are considered as the need for belonging and the need for love. When we have such needs, we feel the urge to have friends, a family and social contacts. We need to be part of a social group or family. As adults we need to give and receive love. Maslow believes that if the needs for belonging and love are not met, then psychological problems will come to light even in love.

In order to analyze again the “loneliness” phenomenon, we took under consideration even the interconnection that it might have with the “cohabitation of the member” of the center. Therefore, does a member generate loneliness, in combination with his cohabitation type? According to Table (4) we notice that elderly living with their children and spouse do not feel lonely. Also, even the elderly living with their spouse do not feel lonely.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loneliness Perceptions</th>
<th>Living with their spouse and their children</th>
<th>Living with their spouse</th>
<th>Living with their relatives</th>
<th>Living with their children</th>
<th>Living with their parents</th>
<th>Living alone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table (4.)

Some types of cohabitation of the members of QDM
In 42.4% of the cases, those people who have lost their spouse feel lonelier. Thus we see that there is an important connection between the loneliness feeling and the type of cohabitation of the members (r=0.209, p=0.024).

The factors that we mentioned above, such as the loss of the spouse, the children’s departure, enhance the loneliness feeling in the elderly people and make them feel as if the house is empty.

“After my husband’s death, if I wouldn’t have come in this center, I would have ended up in a mental hospital”, said the elderly woman T.N, who lives alone but has the economical support of her daughter who lives abroad.

The loss of the spouse leaves a huge emptiness in the life of the old person. This is what the member R.I says for the loss of his spouse:

“When L.....went out of my life, a part of me was buried with her. Now we needed each other more than ever, but we didn’t know it! It’s so sorrowful, so painful!”

Those individuals who used to live only with their spouse, so had no children or other relatives, get worse because of the loss of their spouse. However, there are even some old people that consider the loss of their spouse as a “temporary separation towards the next life”, that’s what the old H.K says. Men suffer more than women for the loss of their spouse. From the socializing process, men are not used to take care of themselves in the everyday life, such as to cook, clean, do the laundry, iron etc, and as a consequence they suffer more than women for the loss of their spouse. 

(20) To analyze this conclusion, were chosen two variables, “loneliness” and “gender, or division according the sex”. This variables’ analysis, from the processing of the data was summarized on Table (5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loneliness perceptions</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lonely</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Lonely</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the graphic we see that 45, 6% of men who frequent the center, feel lonely, or 87% of men in the total male frequenter, feel lonely. Even females feel lonely, but compared to men we have the 28%, or 58, 3% of all women in total, feel lonely. So men feel lonelier than women, in cases of their spouse loss or because of living with relatives or alone.

Conclusions

The elderly people of the center consider their income as a problem and insufficient. 95% of the benefiters think that the income is insufficient. 78, 9% of them have an income nearly to the minimum pension. Elderly people rely mostly on their families, relatives and daily institutions like this center in order to make a living.

Lack of income deprives them from the opportunity to live as they would wish to. Regarding this they feel dependent on others and have a low self-esteem. From the study (table 0.1), 87% of them feel dependent on others, 63% of them feel they lack private life and 70% claim to suffer from the mentality that the society has about these elderly people depending on daily centers. The lack of income makes the food medication needs that they have, to remain unmet. The elderly people of the center feel threatened by old age, based on table (01), 89% of them are worried about their health and diseases. Also loneliness was one of the problems of the elderly, which was highlighted. It is caused from many factors, such as the loss of the spouse, departure of children on immigration, loss of friends, etc. From the study it results that 73, 3% of the elderly people feel lonely and live with the loneliness burden. Mainly those who have lost their spouse, up to 50% of the frequenters, feel lonelier. The elderly living with their spouse and children constitute 3, 3% of the cases and according to the study, they do not feel loneliness. But nowadays the traditional family has a tendency to fall apart and as such, institutions like the family are becoming less supporting for the third-age. Therefore it is the duty of the community and of the government to provide the ways to support the third age and their problems. The elderly of the center need more love, because the loss of their loved ones, the social status change, loneliness, mentality and other problems illustrated on table (0.1), show what a nightmare age becomes for them.

- Retirement pensions should ensure a dignified life for the elderly people.
- Day care centers should be focused on the loneliness issues. (the loss of the spouse, friends, relatives, the change of the social status)
- Besides the supporting role, daily care centers should have an integrating role.

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The Albanian Cultural and Social Welfare

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Abstract The transition of Albanian society of course that brought a range of changes in all aspects of our life. Some of the major changes are seems in education system, family institution, economy and policy systems. ‘Cultivation of mind’ is the strong point of social civilization nowadays because the social welfare depends on directly from high culture of society. According to, the sustainable development is a normative concept which involves trade-offs among social, ecological and economic objectives, and is required to sustain the integrity of the overall system. This is usefully formalized in terms of a social welfare function which is based on an aggregate of individual preferences and, as a prerequisite of intergenerational equity and overall system integrity, on a set of sustainability constraints. A ‘sustainability-based social value function’ is proposed to integrate these issues, and to go beyond traditional conceptions of sustainability that are either based on a value principle of maintaining some aggregate of capital (‘weak sustainability’), or stationary-state criteria of maintaining social, ecological and economic assets constant over time (‘strong sustainability’). Along with individual preferences and macroeconomic objectives, the proposed welfare function integrates principles of basic human needs (‘critical economic capital’), integrity of the ecosystem (‘critical ecological capital’) and the socio-cultural system (‘critical social capital’). This implies restrictions of the social opportunity space within which sustainable development can proceed and the new value function is defined.

Keywords: Mind cultivation, Basic needs; Criticality; Distribution weights; Economic development; Population growth; Social welfare; Sustainability

1. Introduction

Some functionalists deny that paying attention to cultural factors contributes to our understanding of social policy. The idea that moral ideas and debates would have a significant influence on the design of social policies has been equated with the idea that the party and gossip on deck would determine the course of the ship (Schoor, 1984, in Deacon, 2002). Baldock (1999) has argued that culture, as a set of common values, norms and attitudes shared by the majority of a national population, is not a missing variable in understanding social policy.

However, those who deny any significant relation between culture and social policy take a lonely position. Much more often than not one can read opposite views expressed in the literature. It is, for instance, a broadly accepted view that the early development of Western welfare states can partially be understood as resulting from a power struggle between classes and risk categories (Baldwin, 1990), but partly also from a struggle between various ideologies such as conservatism, liberalism, and socialism (Chatterjee, 1996; Fitzpatrick, 2001; George & Page, 1995). In addition, it is acknowledged that religious cultures have had their influence on the formation and design of Albanian welfare (Hornsby-Smith, 1999; Van Kersbergen, 1995), and that a political culture of neo-liberalism has been steering the restructuring of Western welfare states during the last two decades (Bonoli, George & Taylor-Gooby, 2000; Deacon, 2002; Powell & Hewitt, 2002). Recently, it has even been posited that the process of globalization, which urges many welfare states all over the world to adapt, is essentially a cultural process of rationalization (Rieger & Leibfried, 2003).

Many more examples could be given to illustrate that relations between culture and social policy do exist. They exist not only at the macro level, but also, for instance, at the level of the interaction between administrators and their clients; and not only when culture influences social policy, but also the other way round, as is claimed, for instance, by studies of the effects of welfare benefits on the work ethic and civic morality. All this does not mean that the relation between culture and social policy at present has developed into an adequately theorized, coherent field of study.
2. Methodology

The patterns of pathology are estimated by least-squares regression techniques. For each of the six pathologies, two types of relations are estimated: The first relation includes one or more other jointly determined pathologies and a subset of the root causes; this relation is estimated by Institution of family regression where the whole set of root causes is used as instrumental variables. The first relation provides estimates of the relation among the several pathologies and the partial effects of specific root causes given the level of the other included pathologies. The second relation includes only a set of root causes; the relation is estimated by level of education regression. The second relation provides estimates of the total effect of specific root causes that operate both directly on the specific pathology and indirectly through their effect on other related pathologies. All variables in both relations are weighted by the resident population of Korca city. This increases the relative effects of conditions and makes the estimates correspond more closely to the effects of national conditions. Only those variables that are statistically significant at a 95 percent level or more are included in either of the relations; as it turns out, most of the included variable are significant at a much higher level.

3. The basic Welfare factors in Korca city

Welfare is both a consequence and a cause of several conditions best described as social pathologies. These conditions include family institution, urban and rural changes, dependency, poverty, and economic capital, level of education, out-of-wedlock births, no employment population, and violent crime. The basic hypothesis of this study is that welfare dependency and the other pathologies are jointly determined and are derivative of a common set of other conditions.

Differences in the levels of these conditions among the state provide a basis for estimating the specific effects of welfare benefits, the relations among the social pathologies, and the extent to which the pathologies are based on a common set of root causes.

Albania state has a very confuse history so the level of civilization depend from its social and cultural development. So the dictatorial system essentially ignored internationally recognized standards of human rights. This legacy poses a double threat to the future of democracy. It has left citizens unaccustomed to searching for their own values and morals, more comfortable with simply accepting those supplied ready-made by the state. Such people of Albanian society can be easily persuaded to let demagogues do their thinking for them. They want to find new devils to blame for their troubles. They seek harsh measures to restore order to a complex and insecure new world...

Nowadays the development of a democratic culture is hindered by a lack of a sense of personal responsibility and accountability, a widespread apathy, and a deeply rooted expectation that others, the new government or foreigners, would simply step in and solve the country’s problems” (E. Biberaj, Albanian Transition 253).

The Albanian society has a very diffusive cultural trashegimi so it is very difficult to give opinions about welfare of cultural and social aspects.

One of the basic aggregations of cultural and social welfare in a state is the institution of family which is based institution of society in general. Nowadays sociologists as Michale Harallambos for example emphasis that nuclear modern family is the core of civilization which establishes the relationship between couple (which usual can go to deep crise or to be dysfunctional and to generate divorce). Also, relation parents-children are under the risk. From recent data, which were based on epirical study of the case through questionnaires with focus group the residents of Neighbors 7, 8 and 9 and some employers of Fan. S. Noli University shows that over last decades, changes in economic, political, social and cultural systems have started to change and to generate better conditions for functioning of close family.
As we can see, Albanian population lives in open families more than nuclear family. So the open family rate is about 70% of those surveyed while the nuclear family core occupies about 30% of the keystrokes. Open family dominates (the living of three or more generation together) which tell as the low level of our civilization in general.

4. Some other causes which influence in these changes are:

Welfare Benefits

The one variable that best reflects the welfare policy in a state is the level of incoming benefits per recipient household. State governments also set eligibility standards subject to federal guidelines, but differences in these standards are not easily measurable. For this study, welfare benefits are defined through rate of employment and unemployment benefits per recipient household as a percent of the pretax personal income per capita in the state. On a national basis such benefits are 23 percent of personal income per capita, with a range from 10.4 percent in Albania.

a. Conditions of study (nowadays the students have better conditions of study in their school or University. They have different chances to find books or scholar articles because the technology system is developing each year) but the education system is changing the form and the meaning each day. This is another trouble for Albanian students.

b. The global trade allows us to consume or to have access in different products or events which mean a good ability of human to participate in different labor or professions.

c. Social capital indeed from community awareness, and community awareness independent directly from level of public and personal culture.

d. Poverty is another basic factor of welfare conditions. Poverty is primarily determined by the level of economic conditions, education and state policy. Also, the level of welfare benefits dependent from number employment population. Education has a strong effect on employment impact. Unfortunately, the institution of statistics in Albania shows a high level of unemployment people and low welfare level.

e. The level of violent crime is also related to the composition of the population, reflecting both a direct effect and an indirect effect operating through the level of the welfare dependent population.

f. Socio-cultural values and norms, learned preferences, human capital and labor force, local knowledge of the environment, social competence and institutions, human health and life expectancy as well as cultural and social integrity and social cohesion.

5. Poverty and morals

One of the direct consequences of the economic crisis was the rise of the number of households living below the poverty line. The so-called ‘new’ poverty attracted many scholars to study its extent, social distribution, determinants and dynamics in a large number of quantitative and qualitative studies. But it also put the relation between social policy, on the one hand, and normative images of the poor and perceptions of the causes of poverty, on the other, back on the research agenda. It is usually the case that elderly people and people with disabilities can rely more strongly on less stigmatizing benefits than, for instance, unemployed people. In many European countries widows are usually better protected by national benefit schemes than divorced women; core workers can generally rely on more generous and comprehensive social insurance schemes than peripheral workers can and job seeking obligations attached to benefit receipt are usually more relaxed for older people and single parents. This common Albanian deservingness culture may have a long history in that the deservingness dimension coincides strongly with the chronological order in which different types of schemes have been introduced in these welfare states from the end of the 19th century onwards. First were the schemes for the most deserving categories of old, sick and disabled people, then family benefits and unemployment compensation, and lastly (if at all) social assistance for the ‘least deserving’ (Kangas,2000). It should be noted that in Albania studies on the relation between the social images of target groups and the social policies directed at them have been focused more on unemployed people than on the poor. In Albanian society less favorable images of unemployed people also exist (Biberaj, Albanian in transition, 1998) There are doubts about their willingness to work, but they are also
seen on average as irresponsible and unreliable, less intelligent and less persevering. The social image of young unemployed people is more negative than that of older unemployed people, but this might be due to the fact that generally older people have a more positive social image than younger people (Dekker & Ester, 1993). Studies have shown that differences in the degree of negative imaging of unemployed people depend on personal characteristics: more negative, for instance, are rightist people, authoritarian people and conservatives.

- The rate of employment people in the public administration is 31%
- The rate of self-employment is 35%
- The rate of unemployment is 25%
- The rate of people who lives with social help is 9%

The community is very altruist and the number of nonemployee population is lower than other Albanian cities. Private economy system is in middle level of development and dominates the public administration employment.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, I can say that we are a transition society (between traditional and modern recourses) as a result we do not have great level of cultural and social welfare. So the institution of family, education system, economic capital and other social pathologies are in transition too. We need to develop social policies to generate the value and standard norms in our modern society.

Farther more, sustainable development is a normative concept which embraces social, ecological and economic dimensions of conservation and change.

In addition, priority must be given to a transition process for initial states outside the sustainable development region. This study suggests that the state governments may be best advised to focus welfare on the quality of system education and a strong general economic climate appear to be the most effective policy-responsive conditions to reduce the remaining pathologies. Albanian government should be work new strategies for high level of civilization which has a basic impact in social and cultural welfare. To generate sustainability economy and better income for Albanian residents and to stimulate the higher level of education system.

References

Explaining Adolescent Delinquency in Albania
A Theoretical Approach to the Phenomenon

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Abstract: These last fifteen years, Albania is experiencing one of the most challenging phenomena of the post-communist period: juvenile delinquency. Is it a social context issue or does it depend on micro-factors such as family, school or neighborhood? The understanding of the causes and criminal patterns of juvenile delinquency is essential to determine the right treatment of the offender, as well as the prevention process and must be based on an understanding of the causal mechanisms of the phenomenon. The purpose of this article is to explain causes of adolescent delinquency in Albania by reviewing and exploring theories of juvenile delinquency. Comparisons will be drawn between theories to better understand the phenomenon and its trends. Changes in Albanian society still in transition, and relevant other factors are taken into consideration to describe theories and explain recent findings in the Albanian context. The article tries to answer the question: “what causes delinquency among adolescents?” by analyzing patterns of offending in adolescence years. It is based on the assumption that factors such as association with delinquent peer groups, school dropout, absent or authoritative parenting, previous involvement in the juvenile justice system, become the most distinguished during this period of age. The findings suggest that the contributing factors that make an adolescent delinquent are numerous and varied and often complexly interwoven in a single case. One single theory cannot explain the complex of conditions and circumstances producing delinquency.

Key words: adolescent delinquency in Albania, causes and criminal patterns, theories of delinquency, explain contributing factors.

Introduction

For most of the young Albanian people today, traditional patterns regulating the relationships and transitions between family, school and work are being challenged. Social relations and structures that ensure a smooth process of socialization are collapsing; lifestyle trajectories are becoming more varied and less predictable. The instable and most cases informal, labor market, the extension of the maturity gap (the period of dependence of young adults on the family) and the more limited opportunities to become an independent adult, are all changes influencing relationships with family and co-aged, educational opportunities and choices, labor market participation, leisure activities and lifestyles. The ongoing internal movements, the unavailability of housing and support services, poverty, unemployment and underemployment among youth, the decline in the authority of local communities, the lack of cohesion and support in the overcrowding poor urban or suburban areas, the disintegration of the traditional family, and ineffective Albanian educational system are some of the pressures young people are dealing with today.

In these years of economical and cultural transition, Albanian youth are being subjected to individual risks, but are also being presented with new individual opportunities, some beneficial and some potentially harmful. Quite often, advantage is being taken of illegal opportunities as young people commit various offences, become addicted to drugs, and use violence against their peers.

During the last years, crimes are being reported where very often adolescents were either victims or offenders. Data from Albanian Ministry of Justice1 show an increment of minors involved in offensive crimes and contraventions, 407 in 2008 compared to 211 during 2007. According to the Head of the Training Sector in Albanian Justice System2, the number of adolescents involved in criminal acts in 2010 was 255 and among them 150 were on probation. In the mean time, as statistical data related to this issue is being discussed, very less is being done toward analyzing what are the specific, context related roots and causes of juvenile crime in Albania.

As this paper discusses further on, researchers worldwide, do not fully agree on the causes of adolescent delinquent3 behavior; nevertheless they all accord in the fact that these behaviours are far more common among minors, that in every

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1 Annual Statistical Report, Albanian Ministry of Justice, (Tiranë, 2008).
3 It refers to the antisocial or criminal activity of the child below 18 years of age and which violates the law. The same activity would have been a crime if it was committed by an adult. Crime and Disorder Act. 1998.
other age group. Offences, such as drug abuse, theft, assault or murder, increase in frequency during adolescence and high school years.

Exploring different classical and recent theories of delinquency, this article considers whether there is an ‘Albanian delinquency’ case with its own characteristics and trends by responding to the following questions: What are the implications of adolescent delinquency in Albania? Is such behavior a matter of individual choice? To what extent do environmental factors influence juvenile deviance? What is causing adolescent antisocial and criminal behavior in our country?

**Basic Assumptions of Delinquent Behaviour**

It is impossible determining the suitable prevention and intervention process without trying previously to understand the reasons behind adolescent involvement in criminal activity. Different approaches are used in scientific and practical literature on juvenile crime and violence to define and explain delinquent behaviour by young people. To Albanian criminologists and law, juvenile delinquency encompasses all public and penal wrongs committed by young people between the ages of 14 and 18. Most of the theoretical approaches the article will discuss through, are based on the Positive School of criminology initiated in the late nineteenth century (Radzinowicz, 1966) which can be applied to any theory that analyzing causes of delinquency, assumes that personal, social or environmental causes determine criminal behavior. The so called Neoclassical School theories point out the personal choice and responsibility of the young individual toward his own actions, with a special consideration that minors do not have the same capacity to make rational choices as do mature adults (Shoemaker, 2000).

Understanding delinquency from this point of view and analyzing its roots, encompasses a variety of disciplines, such as biology, psychology and sociology, together with considering social and economical context of our country, both past and present.

**Biological Theories**

Biological theories refer to the effect of inherited physical traits on human behavior. They present strongly deterministic explanations of delinquency and criminality, and hold the opinion that some people are “naturally born criminals” with physical qualities that govern their deviant tendencies (Curran & Renzetti, 1994). These qualities include genetic, biological, and biochemical profiles that theoretically cause, or have a strong effect upon, one’s inclination for deviant behavior. Several biological theories of delinquency focus on physiological determinants such as face features—'honest face' or ‘evil face’; head shapes and proportions; primitive physical abnormalities as indicators of criminal predisposition; heredity or inherited tendencies for criminal inclination; hormonal imbalances or dysfunction; body features and mesomorphy (Marsh & Katz, 1985).

The biological arguments to crime and delinquency are inaccurate and subjective, they are not supported empirically and do not explain the role and correlations between physical traits and environmental factors such as family dysfunction, underclass cultural role, and why some adolescents seem to be predisposed to engage in deviant behavior norms, and antisocial group dynamics.

**Psychological Theories**

Psychological theories ascribe deviant behaviors to cognitive and personality disorders brought on by one’s environment, brain chemistry, or some other psychological condition. Such theories are not as rigorously deterministic as other approaches to causation, because they allow for some degree of free will, albeit a disordered free will.

**Psychoanalytic Theory**

Early theorists of psychoanalysis, such as Carl Jung (Campbell, 1976) and Sigmund Freud (Gay, 1989), attempted to construct systematic models to explain human personality. The personality systems they designed created classifications to explain correlations between one’s personality and behavior. Healthy development of the personality components occurs early in life, so these early experiences are critical for future adult behavior. Troubling or traumatizing events during childhood can become catalysts for delinquency and criminality. Juvenile delinquents are, according to psychoanalytic theory, persons without sufficiently developed egos and superegos. If the moralistic superego is weak, a person can easily act out on his or her primal urges without remorse and mislabel deviance as acceptable behavior. Such
behavior, if illegal, forces society to define the individuals as delinquents, and to deal with them accordingly. Thus, people who have poorly developed or overdeveloped superegos and egos are incapable of acting outside of their own interests and are roughly analogous to psychopaths in the modern era, unable to empathize with other people’s feelings or well-being.

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory, or observational learning focuses on behavior modeling, in which the child observes and then imitates the behavior of adults or other children around him or her through a continuous reciprocal interaction of cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors (Bandura, 1977).

In his research on social learning theory, Bandura studied how violence portrayed in mass media can have a tremendously negative impact on the behavior of certain types of children watching violent television shows and then imitate the behavior of the characters. From these observations, we can conclude that juvenile delinquency is the result of imitation of aggressive actions. Bandura determined that certain types of children learn to perform violent and aggressive actions by observing and then modeling their behavior after what they have seen (Wiesner, Capaldi, Patterson, 2003). Therefore, social learning theory states that learning can occur through the simple process of observing and then imitating others’ activities.

Behavioral Theory

Behavioral theory describes the outcomes of the consequences of a certain behavior on occurrence of such behavior in the future. In other words, we learn from lifetime events and base our decisions, perceptions, and conduct on these events. These experiences, underlie socially acceptable behavior, as well as delinquency and criminality. Behaviorists concluded that human criminals and delinquents could be conditioned to continue their behavior in a manner similar to Pavlov’s dogs (Pavlov, 2001).

The likelihood of behavior is increased or decreased by the use of reinforcement or punishment. Negative and positive reinforcements and extinction strengthen certain kinds of behavior of individuals (Skinner, 1953). Punishment is a big form of operant conditioning used all over the world. When people are punished, it is to decrease that certain behavior produced by the individual. Therefore, behavioral theory refers to conditioning which leads to different behavioral pattern of juvenile offenders. Antisocial and delinquent behaviours of adolescents are either socially reinforced by certain individuals or groups within family, neighbourhood or among peers to commit such offences, or not properly punished when exhibiting them the first times.

Psychopathology Theory

The psychopathic personality theory describes criminals who behave cruelly and seemingly with no empathy for their victims. It appears that some young criminals, referred as psychopaths or sociopaths are unable to appreciate the feelings of their victims, are considered to be people who have no conscience, in Freudian terms, no superego (Cleckley, 1976). They are severely dysfunctional in their relationships with other people, and are fundamentally selfish, unpredictable, untruthful, and unstable. The term is sometimes used to describe very aggressive delinquents and criminals, who act out spontaneously without an observable motive. This aggressiveness and impulsiveness are typical manifestations of the psychopathic personality, which is why many adolescents become lawbreakers.

Sociological Approaches to Juvenile Delinquency

Sociological theorists look at how groups and society influence people. The sociological perspective stresses that people’s social experiences, the groups to which they belong, their experiences within these groups, influence their behavior and the reasons for the differences in crime rates in the social environment (Adler, Mueller, & Laufer, 2004).

In an attempt to explain the theoretical underpinnings of delinquency, sociologists associate the specifics of youth behaviour with the home, family, neighbourhood, peers and many other variables that together or separately influence the formation of young people’s social environment. Juveniles may commit crime due to poor socialization, poverty and deprivation, or class conflict and inequality. Unstable homes and social environments increase the risks for these juveniles. Family, socioeconomic status, and educational experiences also contribute to the obstacles faced as adolescents attempt to grow up toward adulthood.
According to Schmalleger (2006), there are three main sociological approaches to crime causation: social structure theories, social process and social development theories, and conflict theories. These three perspectives have in common the assumption that social groups, social institutions, the arrangement of society, and social roles all provide the proper focus adolescent delinquency study. Group organization, group dynamics, and subgroup relationships form the causal connection from which crime develops. The structure of society and its relative degree of organization or disorganization are important factors contributing to the prevalence of criminal behavior.

Social Structure Theory

According to Sampson (2008), this theory believes that a person’s position in the social structure controls behavior and motivation to reach life objectives and plays a role in crime causation. This perspective focuses on the social and economic conditions of life, including poverty, personal frustration, alienation, weak social control, relative deprivation, social disorganization, differential opportunity, alternative means to success, and deviant subcultures and sub cultural values that conflict with conventional values.

This theory is used to explain not only why individual adolescents become delinquents, but also why some classes are characterized by more delinquency than others. Since members of the lower- or underclass are assumed to be most affected by the disparity between their goals (reaching monetary success or status) and the means of attaining success (such as education or attaining a profession), this class is expected to have a higher rate of delinquent behavior. In our capitalist society success goals are widely shared and encouraged, while the means of or opportunities for attaining them are not.

In post communist Albania, there is a striking contrast between the lifestyles of the rich and the poor. Within the past decade, the gap between the richest and the poorest Albanians has grown wider and the number of families living in poverty in certain poor and isolated areas of mountainous Albania has tripled (INSTAT, 2010). Adolescents who live in poverty have a greater tendency to drop out of elementary or high school in attempt to help support their family by getting a job, but their prospects for finding a job are low. Due to their lack of economic resources, lower-class families, who originally lived in small industrial or rural areas, were obliged to move permanently toward richer and urban areas. Unfortunately, these cities weren’t prepared to offer them the job and life opportunities they had dreamt of, many of the ‘newcomers’ still live in economically and infrastructural depressed areas of their suburban community. Most of these migrant communities have poor educational and employment opportunities, lack businesses that offer general goods and services, and usually have inadequate health care facilities. These indicators of despair and neighborhood disorder are high predictors of crime (Taylor, 2001). Most poor communities are largely composed of ethnic minorities, such as Roma or Egyptians, with income levels that are significantly lower than ‘whites’ and unemployment rates that are almost triple as high. The crushing lifestyles in slum areas produce a culture of poverty and marginalization, passed from one generation to the next. This culture is marked by apathy, cynicism, social conflicts, feelings of isolation and helplessness and a broad mistrust of social institutions, such as schools, government agencies, and the police (Lewis, 1966). As a result of the social and economical disability suffered by the lower class, many juveniles turn to crime and gangs as means of support and protection. Criminal acts and drug dealing provide means of survival in an otherwise bleak existence (Siegel & Senna, 2004).

Subculture Theory

Subculture theory is a subtype theory of social structure theory. A subculture is a subdivision within the dominant culture that has its own norms, beliefs, and values (Adler, Mueller, & Laufer, 2004). Subcultures develop when people in similar circumstances find themselves isolated from the mainstream and they band together for mutual support. The lifestyles of members of a subculture are significantly different from those individuals in the dominant culture. Subculture theorists believe that teenage gangs emerge in poorer communities in response to special problems that members outside of the poor communities do not face. In these poor communities, gang members are engaged in violent criminal activity as one of the few means of attaining status, power, and economic resources (Adler, Mueller, & Laufer, 2004). Cohen (1955) suggests that children of the underclass, and potential members of a delinquent subculture, first experience a failure to achieve when they enter school. When assessed against a "middle-class measuring rod," these children are often found lacking. A result is a growing sense of "status frustration." Underclass children are simply not prepared by their earliest experiences to satisfy middle-class expectations. The delinquent subculture therefore emerges as an alternative set of criteria or values that underclass adolescents can meet.
Social Process & Social Development Theories

Sampson and Morenoff (2006) noted that the social process and social development theories believe that criminality is the end product of various social processes, especially inappropriate socialization and social learning. This perspective stresses the role of interpersonal relationships, the strength of social bonds, a lack of self-control, and the personal and group consequences of societal reactions to deviance as they contribute to crime.

Not all criminologists believe that living in poverty creates juvenile delinquents. Some theorists believe that adolescents commit crimes as a result of the experiences they have while they are being socialized by various organizations, institutions, and processes of society. Social process theorists believe juveniles are most strongly influenced toward criminal behavior by poor family relationships, destructive peer-group relations, educational failure, and labeling by officials of the justice system (Sampson & Raudenbush, 2001). Although lower-class citizens have the added burdens of poverty and strain, even juveniles who do not live in poverty may turn to crime if their socialization is poor or destructive.

Social process theorists have linked family problems to juvenile delinquency as evidence that socialization, rather than social structure, is the key to understanding the onset of juvenile criminality. Family problems linked to juvenile delinquency include inconsistent discipline, poor supervision, and the lack of a warm, loving supportive parent-child relationship (Rankin & Wells, 1990). Parents who effectively control their children in a non-coercive manner and who are supportive are more likely to raise children who refrain from delinquency (Wright & Cullen, 2001). In contrast, the likelihood of juvenile delinquency is increased if parents are unable to provide the type of family structure that gives adolescents the ability to assert their individuality and regulate their own behavior (Hay, 2001).

Albanian family is undergoing important changes in its structure, economic factors, birth rates, marriages, divorces, lifestyle and the fulfillment of its functions have marked new tendencies. It is threatened not only by traditional factors, like death, illness, physical disability, poverty etc., but also by the "nontraditional" as deviant behaviors, various internal and external conflicts, violence, alcoholism, abusive use of drugs, marital unfaithfulness, neglect, sexually transmitted diseases, prostitution etc (Beqja & Sokoli, 2000). The increase of divorces number, actually two time bigger than in 1985, the poverty of a great number of Albanian families, the emigration of at least one parent and the internal movements, families with parents having serious individual psycho-social problems, have all caused a great risk for the wellbeing of the members, especially children and adolescents and communication and support among members (UNICEF, 2008).

Educational experiences play a significant role in behavioral choices, in predicting crime and juvenile delinquency (Maguin & Loeber, 1996). Adolescents who are failing at school are more likely to commit small offences within the education system, or even drop out. Juveniles that drop out are more likely to be attracted in being members of adolescent gangs and engage in delinquent behavior. Juveniles who fail in school have been found to offend more frequently than those who are successful in school. Failing juveniles commit more serious and violent crimes and continue their criminal activity into adulthood (Maguin & Loeber, 1996).

The present system of education in Albania is suffering the “drop out” of students at the elementary and middle classes. Nowadays, a lot of Albanian adolescents both in suburban of big cities and in rural areas do not have the possibility to reach fulfillment through education. Poverty, lack of transport, lack of dorms, lack of security etc. undermine completely such a prospect (CRCA, 2007). On the other hand, school curriculum is not practically based. Children do not attain essential knowledge, which might change their lives. Teachers and educators are often unmotivated to identify and help resolve problems with which their students are confronted. No interest and lack of motivation put students in a risky situation when it comes to criminal involvement. Scarce resources can be responsible for the lack of discipline in the classroom and a limited number of teachers means a higher number of students in each class. As a result, the lack of supervision increases probabilities for children and adolescents to develop antisocial behaviors. Under these conditions, it is often easier for them to drop out of school and get involved in activities that contribute to the family income. In this context they are more likely to get involved in criminal activities.

Differential Association Theory

Socialization also plays a significant role in influencing behavior choices. One of the earliest social learning theories, differential association, was proposed by Edwin Sutherland (1939). Sutherland believed that criminality was learned through a process of differential association with others who communicate criminal values and who associate the commission of crimes. Juveniles who maintain ties with a deviant peer group are more likely to be involved in criminal activity (Fergusson, Swain-Campbell, & Horwood, 2002).
Social Control Theory

Social control theory believes that every juvenile has the potential to become delinquent, but that most juveniles are controlled by their bond to society (Hirschi, 1969). Social control theorists trace the origin of delinquency to a lack of proper socialization, of attachment, involvement, belief and commitment to traditional lines of behavior; this may lead to delinquency or flawed social control machinery. The influences of family, school and community, religious beliefs, moral values, friends, and beliefs about justice and the government regulate their behavior (Wiatrowski, Griswold & Roberts, 1981). These positive influences lead juveniles to conform to society’s rules and laws. According to social control theory, juvenile delinquency occurs when the forces that bind people to society institutions are weakened or broken (Wiatrowski, Griswold, & Roberts, 1981).

Labeling Theory

This theory explains juvenile delinquency in terms of the process by which a juvenile acquires a negative identity, such as “delinquent”, and is forced to suffer the consequences of outcast status (Chambliess, 1969). Since youths are relatively powerless in society, they are predisposed to different forms of labels and tags placed on them by adults and other authority figures that exert immense levels of control and reaction (Thornberry, Lizotte, Krohn, Farnworth, & Jang, 1991). When adolescents are labeled delinquents, they take on like characteristics and accept that label as a personal identity. However, some youths do not accept their delinquent labels, and other labels involving stereotyping and disintegrative shaming. On the other hand, some labeling theorists believe that society should be less concerned with children in terms of delinquent attitudes.

Social Development Theory

The social development perspective believes that as toddlers, individuals develop relationships and behaviors that determine their course of life into adulthood (Sampson & Laub, 1993). Transitions in life are expected to take place and follow a certain order, like starting and completing school, entering the workforce, getting married and having a family. Some juveniles are incapable of maturing into adulthood in a reasonable amount of time because of family, environment, or personal issues (Sampson, & Laub, 2003). An adolescent female who becomes pregnant most likely will have a delay in completing school, or may drop out of school altogether. An adolescent boy, whose family has been broken apart due to immigration is obliged to support the left behind members of his family by working, though he is to follow school. Disruptions in life’s major transitions can be destructive and promote juvenile delinquency (Sampson, & Laub, 2003). Juveniles who are already at risk because of socio-economic problems or family dysfunction are more vulnerable to disruptions and delays in transitioning into adulthood. The impact of these disruptions sustains delinquency into adulthood. Social development theorists believe that a career in crime is a developmental process, because juveniles are influenced by the behavior of those around them and in turn they influence others’ behaviors. Because the propensity to commit crimes is a developmental process that is neither stable nor constant, life experiences during the turbulent teen years can influence this propensity. (Sampson, & Laub, 2003). As an example, a juvenile’s delinquent behavior may turn some of his friends against him; their rejection solidifies and escalates his delinquent behavior. Theorists also recognize that as juveniles mature, the factors that influence their behavior change (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989). During childhood, family relations may be the most influential; in later adolescence, school and peer relations predominate; in adulthood, marital relations and achievements in the workplace may be the most crucial influences.

Some individuals that were delinquent throughout their adolescence may find stable work as adults and may be able to maintain good marital relationships. These life events are stabilizing and help them refrain from committing criminal acts. In contrast, a juvenile that develops a criminal record may only obtain a low-paying job as an adult, putting them at greater risk of continued criminal activity into adulthood (Loeber & Farrington, 2000).

Conflict Theories

Becker (1963) discusses the conflict theorist perspective that delinquency is the result of class struggle. This perspective emphasizes the nature of existing power relationships between social groups, the distribution of wealth within society, the ownership of the means of production, and the economic and social structure of society as it relates to social class and social control.
Conflict theory points to the economic and political forces that are operating in society as the fundamental cause of juvenile delinquency (Becker, 1963). Conflict theorists view the criminal justice system and its laws as means for controlling the lower-class. They believe that criminal justice system helps the powerful, upper-class members of society impose their particular morality and standards of good behavior on the entire society. This system is viewed as protecting the property and physical safety of the upper-class even while infringing on the lower-class members' legal rights. Those in power control the content and direction of the laws and legal system and thereby shut out others who might challenge the authority of the elites. The focus of conflict theory is on the entire economic and political system, and the socioeconomic tensions theoretically created by this system.

Conclusion

This contribution presented an overview of theoretical approaches useful to understand and describe the incidence of adolescent delinquency in Albanian. A large number of theories have been analyzed to identify and explain the causes of juvenile and criminal deviance. Early attempts to explain deviance applied the then-accepted notion that natural and supernatural forces affect human fortunes and behavior. Modern explanation emphasize one’s own responsibility and free will in committing offences. Other theories look within the society and its micro and macro factors that influence delinquency among youth.

Although many theories have been propounded to explain adolescence criminality, no single theory has been universally accepted by experts. Many theories have been designed to explain particular aspects of delinquency, but were not designed to explain all aspects of deviance. Also, every theory has adherents who focus on the strengths of the theory and critics who point out its weaknesses. It is possible that all classical and modern theories are partially correct. Some juveniles commit crimes because they are poorly socialized, some succumb to the obstacles placed in their path by lower-class life, and some are victims of class conflict. Factors commonly accounting for the deviant and delinquent behavior of Albanian adolescents include mostly poverty, family dysfunction, poor or absent educational experiences, substance abuse, low self-esteem, disadvantaged communities, and peer pressure.

Through an understanding of causes of adolescent delinquency, society may come to deal preventively with delinquency; certainly treatment of the adolescent offender needs to be based upon an understanding of the causal mechanisms that have produced it.

References

Identity in the Narratives of Albanian Return Migrants from Greece

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Abstract: Immigration is one of the most important social and economic phenomena in post-communist Albania. Following the fall of communism in 1989, hundreds of thousands of Albanians fled their country in search of a better life. Their destination was mainly Greece and Italy, because of their geographical proximity. After having lived in Greece for a considerable time period, a small but increasing number of Albanian migrants decided to return. The number is increasing rapidly during the last year, because of the Greek debt crisis. In this study we try to explore the main factors that motivated their return to Albania (we do not include the last year's returnees. This is another project of ours for the near future). Such might be family, success or failure in their personal life, in their work, etc. Did the Albanian government provide incentives for their return or was it a decision based on their limited knowledge of Albanian reality? A second aim is to understand the difficulties of their re-socialization. Albania has changed vastly since they left and, therefore, a reintegration to the new conditions is necessary. It is a different cultural setting that favors a double identity, a new Greek identity, and an old Albanian one that needs to change in order to adapt to the new conditions.

Key words: return migration, motivations, resocialization, double identity.

1. Introduction

Many theorists have suggested that migration is a ‘one-way trip’, that there is no ‘home’ to go back to (Hall 1987: 44). But if we look at recent history of international migration movements, we will see that this suggestion is far from the truth. Migration is not a no-return process. According to Russell King, the problems of return migration have been to some extent neglected by geographers and by social scientists in general. He argues that this fact comes out because of the temporal character of international migration within the European labour market (King, 1977: 241). King (2000: 7) thinks that return migration ‘is the great unwritten chapter in the history of migration’. Klinthäll (1998: 2) also argues that there is a surprising lack of empirical work on this issue, and Cassarino (2004) observes that although return migration has been a topic of various interpretations, its content remains hazy.

In this paper we try to shed some light on one aspect of the phenomenon of return migration in Albania. We do this with reference to our ongoing research with regard to first-generation Albanian migrants returning from Greece. During the conduct of our research we became aware of the fact that there are no published statistics on this specific issue. In this paper we discuss the motivations of Albanians to migrate to Greece, the reasons for returning, and the re-creation of their self-identity upon return. By exploring these motivations of migrating and returning we aim to construct a framework that would help us to understand the phenomenon of return migration in Albania. We believe that the reasons for migrating and returning are interrelated to each other, and that they will lead us to understand the returnees’ identity.

The paper is structured as follows: First, we present an overview of the few empirical studies on Albanian return migration. Second, we develop the methodology chosen to conduct this research, and finally, we provide the findings.

2. Albanian return migration

Greece and Italy are the two most reachable countries for the Albanian migrants because of their geographic proximity. To Iosifides and King (1998), the massive movement of Albanians towards Greece during the 1990s is linked to the geopolitical changes in the socialist countries of the Eastern Europe after 1989. The fall of the communist regime caused the free internal and international movement of Albanians (Iosifides & King, 1998:207). Fakiolas (2000) notes that despite the political and social push factors, the economic ones were more important in constraining the Albanians to
leave their country and migrate to Greece. He goes on saying that “the wages earned in Greece are about four-to-six times higher than those that might be earned at home in Albania.” (Fakiolas, 2000: 67). The largest group of Greece’s foreign population is composed of Albanians, followed by the Bulgarians (Triandafyllidou, Maroufof & Nikolova, 2009: 13, 17). Different researches show different results concerning the total number of Albanians living in Greece or even in Italy. One research estimates this number between 400,000-550,000 in Greece and 150,000-200,000 in Italy (King & Mai, 2004). In another (Labrianidis & Hatziprokopiou, 2005) their number is more or less the same, i.e., 450,000-550,000, but they constitute more than half of the migrant population in Greece.

According to Berryl Nicholson, many Albanians move back and forth, spending only short periods of time abroad. Most of them aim to stay long enough so that they earn a considerable amount of money and get by until they find a steady job in Albania. A considerable number of migrants have done so and have already returned (Nicholson, 2004). But there exists a gap in research with regard to Albanian return migration from Greece and Italy, with the exception of only a few projects. According to previous studies the return is largely a temporary option (Mancellari et al. 1996; Kule et al. 2002), but they leave aside the particularities and implications of it. Nicholson (2004) notes that many return migrants use money earned abroad to create a means to make a living in Albania, to start up a small business or to buy equipment in order to improve the productivity and efficiency of the different activities in which they and their families are already engaged. The benefits to the economy from investments in small business are considerable. This is more evident in some villages in the south of the country.

In general, the return of the Albanian migrant has been viewed as an ideology of failure. Two categories of migrants are thought to have returned: those who have not been able to integrate in the country of their destination and those who have been deported (Labrianidis and Lyberaki, 2004: 84). The work of Labrianidis and Lyberaki (2004), Labrianidis and Kazazi (2006) on Albanian return migration from Greece and Italy is focused on the performance of the Albanian migrants in their country, their employment status, and their after- and pre-migration circumstances. They also tried to discover the push-pull factors that lead the immigrants to choose the country of their destination, and the regions of Albania they chose to settle after their return. Another research on the same topic carried out by Germenji and Milo (2009) is centered on the investigation of the labor status of the Albanian return migrants in their country. Their research shows that migrants in Greece and Italy have done unskilled works and this had negative consequences on their educational and professional knowledge. They also highlight the preference of migrants to start up their own business.

3. Methodology

This article presents the results of 20 in-depth semi-structured interviews with Albanian migrants returning from Greece. The interviews were held in café-bars, at the work place, or at home of the returnees, during the period November – March 2012. We interviewed 7 women and 13 men belonging to the first generation of migrants, currently living and working in the city of Tirana. We chose Tirana because, firstly, it is the capital and the most developed area of Albania. Hence there are more chances for the returnees to be employed or self-employed in the field of their preference. Secondly, due to the economic development, Tirana is transformed into a modern city, and the way of life is similar to Greece. And finally, Tirana seems to be on “open-minded” society.

4. The findings

4.1 Motivations of migrating to Greece

There are different theoretical approaches to the motivations or reasons that lead to migration. Lee’s theory (1996) is based on the synthesis of push and pull factors. He argues that migration is determined by the attracting (pull) factors at the receiving country, and the repelling (push) factors at the sending country. Öberg (1996) explains that the factors for the international migration can be hard or soft ones. Hard factors are different dramatic circumstances like humanitarian crises, civil wars, environmental catastrophes, etc. Soft factors are less immediate problems, such as poverty, social exclusion, or unemployment.

Beside these theoretical approaches, a great contribution to the explanation of motivations for migration is also the theory of Taylor (1986). His theory is constructed on the basis of the presence of interpersonal migrant networks in the country of destination. These networks, constituted by people sharing the same kinship, friendship or origin, serve as ties that can facilitate the life of migrants in many aspects, and also the movement of migrants between the sending and receiving countries.
The case of Albanian migration can be explained on the basis of economic (push and pull) factors, rather than on political, social or environmental ones. Our study revealed that the Albanian migrants left their homes for economic or political reasons, and to some extent for the desire to seek adventure. The economic migration of Albanians was mainly triggered by the unemployment, low income and future low-income expectations. The difference in wages between Albania and Greece is another factor that pushed Albanians to migrate to Greece. With their income earned in Greece they supported their families in Albania. And it appears that Fakiolas’ (2000: 67) argument is valid.

“How could we stay here? After 1991 everything was destroyed and the wages were scarcely enough to maintain our family. So where else to go? Greece was a solution that time”.

Some of our interviewees migrated during the tumult of 1997, caused by the fall of pyramid schemes, which triggered riots in big cities, and the general anarchy thereafter. The period before the riots was considered a period of economic growth. Some of them were self-employed and doing well in their small business. As the political, economic, and social circumstances worsened, they decided to leave Albania forever. While they were describing how they lived those circumstances, we noticed how terrified they were. Under the pressure of the events they were convinced that Albania would never progress. In Öberg’s language, these were hard factors for migrating.

“My family was horrified. Our business was doing well, but the situation in 1997 was a disaster, worse than in 1990. There was a situation of anarchy, there was no state power, and all the people were armed because the gangs were breaking into their houses, kidnapping their daughters and stealing their money. We were all shocked, and so I … took my wife to Greece. There was no way to stay here”.

Despite the push factor, there are also some pull factors that have influenced Albanians to choose Greece as a country of destination, the most important being the presence of fellow-countrymen migrant networks (Taylor, 1986). Friends or relatives would serve as facilitators to their quick adaptation within the Greek society

“My brother was in Corinth and so I had someone to wait me there. He found me a job and so I lived in his house till I got a scholarship to learn Greek language as foreigner…”

“A friend of mine took me to where he stayed the first time. He knew a bit Greek and his friends found us a job to harvest oranges…”

Some of female returnees migrated to Greece because their husbands were there. They passed the border illegally by paying individuals, members of larger groups that were transporting people illegally through the borders, or by buying a visa. According to them, the Albanian men were the first to experience migration. Most probably this phenomenon can be explained by taking into account the Albanian traditional family structure, where man is the head of the family and has the responsibility to provide the family with what’s necessary for living. Hence, the Albanian men headed to Greece with the aim to offer to their family a better life, either by sending them money, or by taking them later to Greece, when they had a steady job and a home. During the first years, they were constrained to live with other fellow Albanians, in order to share the living costs and save money which they sent back home. The Albanian migrants in Greece can be characterized as transnational migrants, especially before 1998, because of their constant moving back to Albania and forth to Greece. The main reasons for this movement were their illegal status, their intention to stay in Greece only temporarily, and their homesickness. Living in Albania periodically, i.e., until they found a way to go to Greece, made them realize that the political and economic situation would never improve, although they continued to consider their stay in Greece as a temporal solution. This belief was then justified by the fall of the pyramid schemes in 1997. Going to Greece was the only solution, and they tried to find legal or illegal ways for doing so.

“I stayed in Veria, it’s a place near Thessalonica. I stayed there for a while and returned back. Even my friends the first years acted the same. We were illegal, because only in 1998 the process of migrants’ legalization began in Greece … we were caught by Greek police and sent us to the borders. And so one, one time, two times … after 1998 we settled in Greece”.

“I married a man who was an immigrant in Greece. I was a teacher here, my parents and brothers were here and I didn’t want to go there but my husband said that he would do the best to make my life better there. As it was a difficult and long process to make the documents of family reunion, he had to pay a Greek official to let me pass the border”.
“My husband is a sculpture. We were very young at that time and he had a great curiosity to go to Athens and see the Parthenon. Our financial situation was not good. I was a teacher of history that time. He went there and after some months we bought a visa for me and I found myself in Athens”.

A limited number of our respondents saw Greece as a passageway to other western countries. They went to Greece to work for a short period of time in order to accumulate the money needed for their illegal trip towards mainly the United States. But when they made the money, they had become a part of the Greek society. Migrating again to another far away country was not regarded with a sense of adventure any more. Although they always regarded Greece as a temporary destination, they adapted to the Greek way of living.

“I went to Greece because there was no other choice. My brother was in England and told me to go to Greece and from there someone would send me to England. I had no money and so I decided to work in Athens for a while, make the money and then go... but it was too late. The network who would organize the trip to England was discovered by the Greek police. So I remained in Athens”.

“My husband and I saw Greece not in long terms. We went there to stay for a while and then go to America. But then, we liked the way of living there and we were integrated. My husband is an engineer and had a good job. So we decided not to leave”.

Some of our respondents considered Greece as a place where they could earn enough money, go back home and invest in building a house or setting up a small business. Others considered it as a place where they could study or learn a profession. There was a great desire among Albanian students to study in universities of western countries. They wanted to abandon the traditional Albanian society and embrace the new western one, as it was presented by the Italian television (Mai, 2004). Hence, the desire to study abroad and explore a new modern world pulled them out of their world.

“I was 22 years old when I went to Greece. I was young and I wanted to see something different and to enjoy my life. My parents had a considerably high status in Tirana and there was no need for me to migrate in another country. But I had to... I was eager to explore a different world that was showed to us by the Italian television. During the communist system we attended what was going in the other world but carefully not to be noticed by the neighbors or any police officer”.

4.2 Motivations for returning

In the second section of this paper we tried to explain how migration as one of the most important issues in human geography has an extensive literature while return migration is highly neglected. This is the case for Albanian return migration. During our research we became aware of the fact that there is too little empirical evidence and statistical data about this phenomenon. So this part of the paper aims at discovering the main reasons that pushed Albanian migrants move away from Greece and return to their home. To explain these return motivations, we use the theoretical typologies of Cerase (1974), King (1986) and Gmelch (1980) that seem to be related to our case.

According to Cerase (1974) the group of migrants who return after having satisfied their initial ambitions such as saving enough to buy a home or to start a business, belongs to the category of return because of conservatism (5-15 years abroad). King (1986) thinks that this category of migrants constitutes the type of planned return migration.

In our research we found that some of our respondents returned, because they fulfilled their initial objectives, such as the accumulation of the money needed to set up a small business in their country. It is evident that the Albanian migrants like to be self-employed. They have tried even in Greece to start a small business. They return to Albania, mainly to look for chances of self-employment.

“I went to Greece with the intention to earn the money needed to start a business. I went there and I was always exploring ways of how a business functions. My wife and I were selling in the market. I thought that it was better to work for yourself than for others. One day, I meet by chance a Greek trader who needed someone to collaborate with him in Tirana,[where he decided to do business] because of the cheap labor costs. So I decided to collaborate with him and everything was going well till he died and his son took over the business. His son didn’t know how to manage a business so I was obliged to stop the collaboration. Then I bought a boutique in [the area known as] Bllok in Tirana [Bllok, in english literally Block, was the forbidden area in the center of Tirana where the heads of the communist party lived. Now it is transformed into the most cosmopolitan area of the city]. The business is going so well and I bought another boutiques in the same place. For now everything is okay”.

Some of the returnees returned because of unanticipated developments. This type of return is defined by King (1986) as spontaneous return. Two male migrants returned because it was impossible for them to afford economically and
psychologically the long process of family reunion in Greece. As we were reading their interviews, it became clear that beside of this main reason, it was although hidden the great nostalgia for their home, deeply in their hearts.

“I was tired of the bureaucracy in Greece. I had to wait for a long time to get my wife there. It was a matter of time and money. Then I said to myself, so many years alone here, what I am doing? Better to go to my home where I can be the owner of it and not the rented”.

Some young returnees who have studied in Greece returned believing that it is easier to penetrate to Albanian labour market than abroad. They also think that the labour market in Albania holds more opportunities, especially in undeveloped areas. They see Albania as a chance for doing a carrier and also for contributing to its development. Cerese (1974) defines this type of return migration as return for innovation (15-30 years): in this case successful migrants decide to return home with the hope to invest and to apply new ideas, or generally to contribute to the development and social or political change of their country.

“I finished my studies there and I found myself employed as waiter, or doing jobs not related to my degree. I had worked very hard to get the degree and so one day I decided to try my luck in Tirana. Some of my friends went there and I learnt that they were doing well... there was no way that I could make a career in Athens so one day I left”.

“I was working in a beauty center there and while I was visiting Tirana I saw that there is a great demand for this kind of business. I said to myself, what I am doing here in Greece? It’s better to go back home and start my own center. There was a great lack of knowledge in this field and with my knowledge and abilities learnt in Athens, I would provide something new to my clients”.

One of the problems the returnees faced during their staying in Greece was the Greek language and culture. The language and the unknown environment slowed down their integration. Their slow integration in the Greek society had negative effects in their professional carriers, especially for those migrants who had graduated from Albanian universities. To get by they worked for many years in fields not related to their studies. This made them feel inferior within the Greek society, because, according to them, there is a positive correlation between the labour and social status. They think that the lower the first, the lower the second, and vice versa. Hence, to some the return seems to have been motivated by the possibility of being employed in their profession.

“Before migrating I was a teacher and I had good reputation in my city. Everyone spoke to me and I felt good. Migrating to Greece, I felt killing myself. I had to work in the domestic domain. I worked hard so as to have a good relation with my boss. In the beginning they behaved to me as I was nothing, only when began to learn their language they understood that I wasn’t an ignorant. But then it was too late. I was tired of fighting to show my abilities. One day I got an invitation to work as a teacher in a private college in Tirana. I accepted the offer immediately”.

4.3 Being both Greek and Albanian

Richard Jenkins (1996) stresses the fact that identity is a social construction and makes us social beings. The construction of identity is an active process of categorizing and classifying things or people according to their characteristics, and of associating oneself with something or somebody. He argues that social identity defines who we are, and who the others are. A person chooses his identity or is forced by others to accept one. Identity in time and space can be perceived as flexible and negotiable process of self-ascription and attribution (Jenkins, 1996: 21). Hermans (2001) considers identity as a dynamic construction, responsible for the co-presence of different cultures in one’s self-construction.

The Albanian returnees feel that they have changed a lot because of their experience in Greece. Now they have more in common with Greek citizens than Albanians living in Albania. Entering to a new process of socialization in Albania, which in fact is a re-socialization, they feel like living between two different worlds. The consequence is with regard to their self-identity. While they try hard to adapt to the changed aspects of their home environment, they cling on to their migrant identity, as it was constructed under the influence of Greek way of life. Hence, the rapid social changes occurring in Albania make the returnee feel like a foreigner, with attributes similar to those that Simmel (1971) has given to the stranger. To Simmel one person is defined as stranger because of the uncommon characteristics, such as language, nationality, culture, way of living and thinking, between him and the majority of the people within a society. In our case, the Albanian migrants returning to their home see these differences and feel alienated.
“Albanians and Albania have changed a lot. I see how the people behave and I say to myself, this is not the Albania I left. The people are aggressive and impolite. They construct the relations on the basis of interest. When I came everything was black to me even the nature”.

“I felt as a foreigner. The environment and the people have changed a lot. Firstly I didn’t recognize Tirana. Not only Tirana but even the people. I thought that here I would find a little psychological support from my relatives and friends but they have changed a lot. I don’t feel the same. May be I have changed, not they”.

It is very clear that the returnees feel as foreigners in their home. They think that everything has changed, the environment, the people etc. Everything seems to be strange to them. We think that this feeling of being alienated stems from the experiences they had in Greece and from recent political and economic developments in Albania. While planning their return, the picture of Albania and the Albanian society the returnees had in mind was the initial one, the one they left many years ago. There is an antithesis between the old, known Albania and the new, unknown one. This antithesis between these two different worlds makes them feel foreigners in their homeland. They admit the fact that while they are in Greece they feel more the Albanian side of identity and while they are in Albania they feel more the Greek side of it.

5. Conclusions

From the above, it is clear to us that the Albanian return migrants share the desire to become an active part of their society. They see their return as a reconnection with family and friends, a new start or a chance for new careers. In the 1990s the Albanians left their country mainly for economic reasons, in pursuit of a better life. Greece was regarded as the easiest way to better opportunities or as a passage towards more developed countries. The presence of fellow countrymen influenced the decision of Albanian migrants to choose Greece as their primary destination. However, Greece was regarded as a temporary destination where they could earn enough money, go back home and invest in building a house or setting up a small business. Others saw it as place where they could study or learn a profession.

During the last years many Albanians returned home. The solution to their new or old problems is no more Greece, but their country. They returned home after having fulfilled their initial objectives, such as the accumulation of the money needed to start up a small business in their country. A small number of migrants returned because they believe it is easier to penetrate Albanian labour market than abroad. They also think that the labour market in Albania holds more opportunities, especially in the underdeveloped areas of the country. They see opportunities for pursuing desired carriers in Albania, and also for contributing to its development.

But Albania has changed. It is not the country they left many years ago, when they migrated to Greece. The ideal of Albanian society they had in mind is very different from the society they found upon their return. Although they had been moving back and forth, they couldn’t notice the deep social changes that had occurred during their absence. Upon noticing these changes, they felt the differences that divided them from the other Albanians. They regarded themselves as strangers within this society, alone and alienated from the rest. In order to integrate to this new society they are entering to a new process of socialization, which in fact is a re-socialization. Until it is completed, they would continue to feel strangers in their homeland or living between two different worlds.

References


Psychology of Infertility: Psychological Reactions to Infertility and Assisted Reproductive Technologies

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Abstract: Reproduction can be considered as a basic function of human individuals. Inability to procreate, thus infertility, is a widespread problem in our day societies, given that the population suffering infertility is drastically increased in the past decades. Infertility is defined as failure to conceive after one year of unprotected timed intercourse. According to demographic studies, only half of people suffering infertility, seek medical assistance for their problem. The experience of difficulties in conception, thus the diagnosis of infertility and its treatment are frequently associated with anxiety and overall distress. The rapid scientific and medical advantages in the assisted reproductive technologies and the growth of fertility treatments worldwide, has added a focus on this regard, in the last two decades. Although the treatments are relatively easily available in most Western countries today, the psychosocial consequences of these “high tech” treatments have scarcely been addressed. Infertility is considered as an individual and couple experience that affects not only the relationship between the couple but also the family social and psychological status. As the available technology has developed along with the vicissitudes of fertility treatments, patients have turned to help professions that may support in dealing with the many stresses inherent to the experience and treatment of infertility. Much of the research on infertility reinforces differing affects for women and men, with women reporting to experience greater levels of psychological distress, in response to infertility, than men. However women report to be more likely to seek information and assistance and may be better able to identify and access other areas of potential social support outside of their marriages. The purpose of this article is to explore the psychology of infertility, specifically the theoretical implication of assessment and evaluation, psychological reactions to infertility and assisted reproductive technologies, with a special emphasis on gender differences.

Keywords: Infertility, Assisted Reproductive Technologies, Assessment and Evaluation

1. Introduction

The ability to conceive is often taken for granted (Lalos, 1999). When couples become suspicious about their ability to reproduce and take the step to seek medical help they have often experienced repeated ups and downs with hopes every month for a pregnancy followed by disappointment when menstruation occurs. The ability to conceive is a “universal biopsychosocial assumption that goes unchallenged until a couple faces infertility” (Meyers et al., 1995, p 219). From 12 to 20% of couples will face infertility at some point of their reproductive life (Abbey, Andrews, & Halman, 1991; Korpatnick, Daniuk, & Pattinson 1993). The distinction between primary infertility, the inability to conceive the first child, and secondary infertility, the inability to conceive after one live birth, provides evidence that infertility effects even more couples than originally considered. In fact, an additional 10% to 12% of women experience secondary infertility, thus doubling the number of women whom childbearing is problematic (Trantham, 1996). The fact that infertility rates increase with age is an additional consideration (Mosher & Pratt, 1990), given the trend among young couples to delay marriage and childbearing in favor of career pursuits (Eunpu, 1995; Mathews & Mathews, 1986; Stewart & Robinson, 1989). A sense of loss of control of bodily processes has been described as one of the most stressful dimensions of infertility (Mahlstedt et al., 1987). Wright et al. found that both infertile women and men upon first admission to a fertility clinic were more distressed than individuals in the general population (Wright et al., 1991).

According to Whiteford and Gonzalez, the “culturally shaped desire to have children appears to be extremely strong, transcending sex, age, race, religion, ethnicity, and social class division” (Whiteford and Gonzalez, 1995). Because childbearing is a mayor, normative role for both men and women, the experience of infertility, a nonevent transition (Korpatnick et al., 1993) has been conceptualized under the rubric of the “crisis of infertility” (Atwood & Dobkin, 1992;
Butler & Korański, 1990; Slade, Raval, Buck, & Lieberman, 1992). This crisis is complex and is accompanied by various physical, financial, psychological and social stressors (Domer, 1997; Shepherd, 1992). The manner in which couples cope with infertility issues varies considerably with gender differences among several studies (Connolly & Cooke, 1987; Levin, Sher and Theodos, 1997; Ulbrich, Coyle, & Liabre, 1990). In fact, many authors suggest that women experience a more difficult adjustment to infertility than their partners, due in large part to emphasis in our society on the role of women as mothers.

The process of helping infertile people has traditionally focused on the role of medical personnel whose goal is diagnosis and treatment designed to help couples conceive (Cook, 1987). The identification of psychological and social factors puts an emphasis on the importance that the “infertility crisis”, has in the life of the couple and its individuals. The above, leads the need of helping professions that contribute to better understand and approach to this life crisis.

2. Psychological impact of infertility

A myriad of feelings, and beliefs that couples ad individuals experience contribute to the “crisis of infertility” (Cook, 1987; Leader, Taylor, & Daniluk, 1984). This crisis involves an interaction among physical conditions related to infertility, possible medical interventions to diagnose and treat infertility, social constructions about parenthood and nonparenthood, reactions of others, and individual psychological traits (Cook, 1987). In dealing with all of these factors, the couple or individual may find that they lack resources (e.g., medical, social, psychological resources) to provide support for themselves and their partners (Leader et al., 1984). Although both individuals in a couple may experience this “crisis”, research has indicated that women are more negatively affected by infertility (Abbey et al., 1991; Daniluk, 1997; Raval, Slade, Buck, & Lieberman, 1987, Ulbrich et al. 1990; Wright, Allard, Lecours, & Savourin, 1989).

Möller and Fällström investigated couples that contacted a doctor for the first time when they had suspected an infertility problem. As duration of infertility treatment increased and patients experienced repeated failures to conceive, the psychological distress was likely to grow. Depressive reactions, social isolation and feelings of emptiness were common among these couples. Many experienced a deterioration of their sexual life, often as a consequence of “scheduled sex”. Many women experienced that their marital relationship had deteriorated. Among the women, feelings of failure of not being a complete woman, increased over time (Möller and Fällström, 1991a). Lalos et al studied couples where the woman underwent reconstructive tubal surgery and found that in the follow-up assessment of those who had not become pregnant, both women and men reported that their feelings toward each other had changed negatively, and that their sex life had deteriorated. Nearly all experienced feelings of grief (Lalos et al., 1985b). Infertility is described as a crisis reaction by Lalos: “The first reaction includes shock, surprise disbelief and denial, followed by feelings of frustration, anger, loss of control and anxiety. Subsequent reactions often include feelings of guilt, embarrassment, disappointment, isolation, depression, grief and mourning.” However, the crisis of infertility differs from that of a general traumatic crisis as infertile subjects may remain in a state of long-term crisis if the problem is not resolved (Lalos, 1999). Demyttenaere points out the paradox, experienced by couples struggling with infertility, of grieving for a nonexistent child while at the same time maintaining hope that a child of their own will exist in the future (Demyttenaere, 1990).

Factors that provide a better understanding of infertility include emotional responses to medical diagnosis and treatment, and gender differences in emotional responses to infertility. Ethnicity may also be another factor that could provide a better understanding of the psychological impact of infertility for women. In societies like Albania, in which women’s role is mainly associated with reproduction and their role as mothers, is believed that infertility diagnose is associated with more feelings of guilt, embarrassment, disappointment, isolation, depression, grief and mourning. However, empirical research in this area lacks adequate samples to support any significant findings.

Mahlstedt et al., studied couples who entered an IVF-treatment and found that among the subjects who had experienced divorce, 63% described infertility as being as stressful as, or more stressful than, divorce; of the subjects who had experienced death of close family or friend, 58% reported infertility as stressful as, or more stressful than, death (Mahlstedt et al., 1987). Freeman found that before IVF-treatment 48% of the women and 15% of the men described infertility as the most upsetting experience of their lives (Freeman et al., 1985).

The psychological demands of going through IVF are strong for many couples (Mahlstedt et al., 1987) with the weeks prior to the pregnancy test described as the most stressful period (Boivin et al., 1998; Callan and Hennessey, 1988; Laffont and Edelmann, 1994). The pattern of distress during the IVF procedure is similar among women and men (Boivin et al., 1998). A failure to conceive after IVF is often accompanied by depression, anxiety, (Baram et al., 1988; Newton et al., 1990; Slade et al., 1997) sadness and anger (Laffont and Edelmann, 1994).
3. Gender differences in response to infertility – Men versus Women

Many factors affect the reactions and adjustment of the couple who is experiencing infertility, and it is not surprising that significant gender differences in coping have been found (Abbey et al., 1991; Brand, 1989; Bresnick & Taymor, 1979; Daniluk, 1997; Edemann & Connolly, 1996; Jones & Hunter 1996; Keystone & Kffko, 1992; Mc Ewan, Costello, & Taylor, 1987; Raval et al., 1987; Reed, 1987). Specifically, women have reported experiencing more marital difficulties, including sexual difficulties (Abbey et al., 1991; Daniluk, 1997; Raval et al., 1987; Wright et al., 1989). They also describe their emotional reactions as being more like a grief reaction (Jones & Hunter, 1996). Men report experiencing many of the feelings, thoughts and beliefs that women have reported (Daniluk, 1997); however the frequency of their reports and the intensity and duration of these feelings may be more variable for men (Berg & Willson, 1991; Daniluk, 1997; Edelmann & Connolly, 1996; Jones & Hunter, 1996; Keystone & Kaffko, 1992). This may be because women have greater physical and emotional involvement with infertility than men do; women carry most of the burden, in terms of medical evaluation, and carry physical reminders (e.g., menstrual period) of infertility that men do not experience (Williams et al., 1992). In a review of empirical research on gender differences, Wright and colleagues, concluded that women tended to be more distressed by the infertility experience and its medical treatment than men, even when the infertility diagnosis was not attributable to her, or when the diagnosis was ambiguous (Wright et al. 1991).

In similar study of Abbey et al. (1991), married women also reported that they believed they experienced more disruptions and stress in their personal, social, and sex lives compared with their husbands who reported they had experienced more home-life stress. In an attempt to gain control of their experiences, women also attributed more responsibility for infertility to themselves (Abbey et al., 1991; Daniluk, 1997). At the same time, their husbands held them responsible for the infertility (Abbey et al., 1991). Therefore women’s feelings of guilt about infertility were confirmed. It is interesting that both husband and wife attribution of blame to women was unrelated to their actual source of infertility, and sometimes the diagnosis was actually related to male factor rather then female factors.

When confronted with issues of loss, women tend to share their feelings with their partner or others as a means of coping (Keystone & Kaffko, 1992). They also appear to be more likely to seek information and assistance and may be better able to indentify and access other areas of potential social support outside their marriages (Abbey, and Halman, 1991). Infertility diagnosis appears to be a factor in men’s psychological adjustment to infertility, in that men with male factor infertility exhibit more negative emotional response to infertility including more feelings of stigma, loss and poor self esteem (Nachtingall, Quiroga, and Tschann, 1997). In addition, men tend to make more self-denigrating remarks if infertility diagnosis is male factor. In coping with emotional responses to infertility, men appear more often to use denial, distancing, avoidance and withdrawal into themselves and are less likely to seek social support, counseling or discussions with caregivers (Abbey, and Halman, 1991; Wright J, Duchesne C Sabounn S, et al. 1991), because for them it is stressful to talk about infertility with anyone. Men may listen to their partners and react internally but not share their feelings with their partners. Therefore, female partners may believe they are being pushed away, contributing to a sense of isolation. Such feelings of isolation may be more significant for women that for men, as a consequence of gender differences in relational process.

4. Psychological Responses to Assisted Reproductive Technologies

Over the past 20 years in vitro fertilization (IVF) has moved from an experimental procedure to an accepted medical treatment with over 3 million babies, born through IVF (Eshre, 2011). However, despite these advances, IVF and its variations continue to have not high success rate. Twenty years ago by the overall IVF procedures, only less then 20% resulted in pregnancy (Burns, L & Convington S. et al. 2000). Depending on the type of calculation used, this outcome may represent the number of confirmed pregnancies, called the pregnancy rate, or number of live births, called the live birth rate. To advancement in reproductive technology, the IVF success rates are substantially better today than they were just a few years ago. The most current data available in the United States a 2009 summary complied by the Society for Reproductive Medicine (SART) which reports the average national IVF success rates per age group using non-donor eggs (see table 1).

\[ \text{IVF success rates are the percentage of all IVF procedures which result in a favorable outcome} \]
While as recently as 20 years ago, IVF was the latest available medical treatment for infertile couples, now variation of IVF, including third party reproduction (e.g., donated gametes, gestational carrier) and assisted medical technologies (e.g., intracytoplasmic sperm injection), are increasingly available. However, these options also strain traditional meanings of parenthood. As such, an increasing number of studies have investigated psychological well-being before, during and after assisted reproduction, to assess psychological factors as mediating forces in successful outcomes and psychological response to unsuccessful outcomes.

Individuals undergoing assisted reproduction appear to be at no greater risk for psychological disturbances, although there may be greater risk of anxiety, distress and grief, especially if the procedure is unsuccessful (Downey, J. Jinggling S, McKinney M. 1999). Factors contributing to grief reactions following unsuccessful IVF/ICSI, included a belief that the treatment is the couples last chance of having a biological child, preexisting psychological illness, and overestimation of personal success (Boivin, 1995). More recent research has shown that mood (anxiety, depression, or distress) probably fluctuates in both men and women over the course of an assisted reproductive treatment cycle: oocyte-retrieval day, decreasing on embryo transfer and rising again on pregnancy test day. However, severity of response appears to diminish with repeated cycles (Boivin 1995, Merari 1992).

5. Assessment of infertile patient

The role of the mental health professional in the evaluation and screening of infertility patients is relatively new, having evolved over the past 25-30 years. The use of mental health professional either as a treatment team member or as a consultant is norm in most academically based and large private practices in the developed countries. However there are still some physicians that who do not use a mental health professional to work with their patients; this is the case of Albania, where from 8 observed clinics that offer services for reproductive health, none of them has a any mental health professional such as social worker or psychologist to offer psychosocial support for infertile patients. This is supported with the fact that the first IVF clinic in Albania was established round 2004, and this is still considered a new service for the country. Even though the number of clinics and the quality of the service they offer for infertility treatment is noticeably improved, this is not always the case.

In Albania, the care of couples during IVF treatment, is primarily given by gynecologists and midwives, whose role is to inform the couples about the treatment procedure, to instruct them about how to follow the medical regiments, to inform them about the progress of the hormonal stimulation, and to assist them when the oocytes are retrieved and when embryos are transferred.

The goal of infertility treatment are to accomplish a thorough investigation to treat any abnormalities that are uncovered to educate the couple to the workings of the reproductive system, to give the couple some estimate of their fertility potential, to counsel for adoption when appropriate, and to provide emotional support (Speroff L, Glass RH, Kase NG, Clinical Gynecologic Endocrinology and Infertility, 4th edn. Baltimore; Williams & Wilkins, 1989). And while all team members contribute to patient care, it is the primary role of the mental health professional to address the psychosocial issues that emerge as couple confronts infertility. The mental heath professional evaluates, diagnoses and treats psychological disorders, as well as providing patient education, a forum for discussing ethical and cultural issues related to treatment, and emotional follow-up when the treatment results in a pregnancy and especially when it does not (Burns, L & Convinton S. et al. 2000).

Typically, the initial psychosocial evaluation or consultation with the infertile couple is the first contact that the mental health professional has with the couple; therefore providing knowledgeable, compassionate care is imperative.

The purpose of a psychological assessment is to gather information about an individual that describes their personal history and current level of functioning. The assessment can gather pieces of information in two ways: a clinical interview and psychological testing. The purpose of the interview is to educate and prepare couples for the treatment and to detect any presence of any psychosocial problem that would be a contraindication for infertility treatment or impact participation in treatment.

Although the majority of patients do not develop overt psychiatric disorders in response to involuntary childlessness, investigators have documented the occurrence of anxiety and depressive symptoms (Baram, 1988), marital difficulties (Mitsioni, 1987) and changes in sexual functioning (Downey, 1989). For all of the above-mentioned reasons, many

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<tr>
<td>Pregnancy Rate</td>
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<td>Live Birth Rate</td>
<td>41.4</td>
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authors have recommended the routine provision of psychosocial services, both evaluation and treatment, to individuals and couples presenting for infertility treatment, especially those undergoing assisted reproductive technologies.

The service of psychosocial evaluation and testing may be offered by many different types of mental health practitioners, including psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, psychiatric nurses and a variety of therapists who have postgraduate training in social science (Burns, L & Convington S. et al. 2000).

6. Conclusions

The ability to conceive is often taken for granted, but the inability to conceive is a “universal biopsychosocial assumption that goes unchallenged until a couple faces infertility”. The desire to have children appears to be extremely strong, transcending sex, age, race, religion, ethnicity, and social class division. The crisis of infertility is complex and is accompanied by various physical, financial, psychological and social stressors.

Infertility is related with increased anxiety, depression and isolation. Gender differences in living with this experience are notable and make the unique experience of infertility different for men and women. This because women have greater physical and emotional involvement with infertility then do men; they carry most of the burden, in terms of medical evaluation and also physical reminders.

The identification of psychological and social factors puts an emphasis on the importance that the “infertility crisis”, has in the life of the couple and its individuals. The above, leads the need of helping professions that contribute to better understand and approach to this life crisis.

Although the majority of patients do not develop overt psychiatric disorders in response to involuntary childlessness, investigators have documented the occurrence of anxiety and depressive symptoms, marital difficulties and changes in sexual functioning. For all of the above-mentioned reasons, many authors have recommended the routine provision of psychosocial services, both evaluation and treatment, to individuals and couples presenting for infertility treatment, especially those undergoing assisted reproductive technologies.

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A Further Advance in Clinical Perspective:  
An Introduction to Neuro-Psycho-Education Model  

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Abstract  One thought creates an idea; an idea starts out a profession which begins to develop competing ideas; as: “In what way can contribute the production of a new model to change the life of mental people and to specify the scientific status of clinical psychology? I had this idea to develop my thesis of Master Diploma and later in my actual professional practice. This paper aims to present the importance of a new research model called ‘neuro-psycho-education’ (N-P-E-M) as a clinical tool (complement of treatment with medications) to facilitate the recovery experience of Persons with Mental Dysfunctions (P.M.D) which are increasing in over the world. It is illustrated with a recent pilot study. The measuring instrument is the manual: Let us make recovery a reality, which is divided in three challenging issues: I- examines historical roots that can be traced by January 2010. Its scientific and ethical strengths will be noted, too. II- provides a view of basic brain research in operational system of presuppositions (neuropsychology and psycho education); the content related to the interaction between brain, psyche and education. III- is dedicated to the use of clinical techniques to improve cognitive functions. N-P-E-M shows an attempt to document measurable, physiological changes at P.M.D as a result of psycho educational efforts. It can manifest first movement of N-P-E-M’and an affirmation of its merits by adding knowledge that could potentially help people in theory and practice. However, its informal status and practical success will be ri-examined, in order to assess future important organizing framework for clinical perspective.  

Keywords: clinical perspective, neuro-psycho-education model, experience of recovery, persons with mental dysfunction  

1. Introduction  
One Moment Mental Activity  
Imagine that you thinking.Try to remind your mental and emotional reaction to the thought. Think about: Which was the thought? What did become the process of thinking? What was the result? Be prepared to share it with your own mind. I will start by saying that one thought creates an idea; an idea starts out a profession. A profession in turn begins to develop competing ideas as: “In what way can contribute the production of a new model to change the life of mentally ill people and to specify the scientific status of clinical psychology? Can the production of a new model facilitate the recovery experience of persons with disfunctions? Recovery is a very known term which is used in actual clinical practice. Nowadays it is becoming a risk to become a nonapplicable concept if there are not going to be qualititative reports to show that a given intervention based in recovery experience is effective and can be used at the same time with other intervention of rehabilitation.  

Objectives:  
-Elaboration of an intervention program as an instrument to facilitate the recovery experience to different persons with mental dysfunctions and  
-Evaluation of the effectiveness of the neuro-psycho-educational model according to the results of participants.  

Hypothesis  
Can be used the Neuro-Psycho-education intervention (a complemantary treatment with medications) as a regulator to facilitate recovery experience and to show clinical utility?
Identification of variables

**Criterion variable** (dependent) meta-cognition and cognitive functions: (meta-cognition refers to emotions, cognitive functions which acknowledges the existence of internal mental states such as belief, desire, idea, knowledge and motivation).

**Predictive variable** (independent): the experience of recovery

**Moderating variable** (intrusive/adjustment): neuro-psycho educational intervention

Background

- The researches support that many people with serious mental dysfunctions can learn to succeed at their inability so they can achieve great goals regarding with independent living, (Corrigan, 2006; Whitehorn et al, 1998, Harding et al., 1987). There is a wide trunk of data that support that recovery takes place (Ridgeway, 2001; De Sisto et al., 1995), and can be described theoretically in the model and narrative (Ridgeway, 2001, Ralph, 2000; Davidson, 1995; Harding et al., 1987), that can be learned (Bullock, 2000), and can be practiced (Fres et al., 2001, Bullock et al., 2000; Copeland, 1997). Ralph and colleagues (2002) indicate that there has been several previous attempts to measure the recovery process, however, already, "Recovery from mental illness is not considered a" practice based on the data "because they are not chosen at random the clinical data with "certified" results.

Literature Review

**The concept of clinical perspective** - Based on my research, here I mean, I refer to clinical psychology as a perspectice in itself. I refer to the clinical attitude and to the ways it contrasts with related approaches which are most obvious with respect to a given case. For example, in reading a description of the problems of a person admitted to a mental institution, the clinical psychologist would search for psychological or biological relationships that might explain the "disorder". So the clinical perspective is a single discipline of research, assessment and understanding human behaviour and distress on an individual basis, that provides the substance of clinical psychology.

**The concept of persons with mental dysfunctions** - The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (3rd ed., rev.; DSM-III-R) operationally defines disorder essentially as "statistically unexpected distress or disability." This definition is an attempt to operationalize 2 basic principles: that a disorder is harmful and that a disorder is a dysfunction (i.e., an inability of some internal mechanism to perform its natural function). These problems with validity are traced to DSM-III-R's strategies for increasing reliability. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2011 APA, all rights reserved)

Another explanation of the concept comes from psychopatological perspective based on the fact that the dysfunction is not related directly with the fact of being diverse from the others; it is more a disorder of development: so a dysfunction is not based totally only at deviations of behavior but should be taken into consideration also the subjective experience and types of these experiences.

**The concept of recovery to persons with mental dysfunctions** - The term "recovery" in mental health derived from first person narration and is designed by Patricia Deegan (1988) as "the development of new meaning and purpose in life beyond the symptoms, disability and prejudice of mental illness." Recovery points out that a person can live beyond the limitations imposed by mental dysfunction and can define and meet goals that are meaningful to him. Antony (1993) defines recovery as "a deeply personal process, unique to change attitudes, values, goals skills and/or roles"

**Experience as a structure** - Our internal experiences are formed by inner representations of the five external senses. We can begin to explore this inner subjective world and learn how to change the structure of each experience. There are main components in our thought – pictures, sounds, and feelings. All this constitutes the structure of thought or experience. If we make changes to the detail to induce the state we desire, we are in a better position to create varying states of mind. The change in meaning leads to a favourable change in our feelings towards the experience.

**Clinical programs based on Recovery** - Criterion were selected by me based on research question "What clinical programs exist for recovery in current practice based on psycho-mental health data?" The literature review pointed out that there are few mental health clinical interventions and programs based on principles of recovery and recovery results.
Ridgeway (2001) notes that an effective program of recovery builds applied knowledge that encourages the potential for recovery. This allowed me to start with the research question:

a) **Psychoeducation as a way to facilitate the recovery experience?** - How to study and measure the recovery by helping people with mental dysfunction to achieve their needs, desires and goals is outlined in the literature field. Individuals who live continuous forms of the disease which participate actively in their health care are known to have better outcomes (Holman & Lorig, 2000; Wagner, et al., 1996). A way to participate actively in health care and treatment decisions is through increased knowledge about mental dysfunction, its effects and treatment options. Bullock and colleagues (2000) suggest that the wider issue of recovery for persons with psychiatric disabilities is a process that can be promoted successfully by psychoeducative intervention.

b) These searches did not give me the right answer, because I was trying to find a way how to stimulate their nervous system through psychoeducation. The process of my thinking became a cornerstone because I could potentially create a new model to change the life of persons with mental dysfunctions; exactly neuro-psycho-education.

**What is Neuro-Psycho-Education in Itself?**

N-P-E- it’s a model not a theory. For this, I have used operational system presuppositions of two fields, neuropsychology and psychoeducation which cannot show what is right or what is wrong; it does not include a definitely reality but I think, it is acceptable to make an intervention in clinical perspective.

**It Contains Three Challenging Issues:**

1. **Historical roots of new Model based on Psychoeducation**

"Every piece of your life means something to someone"
- Justification on this reflection is set by considering the result of my thought which became a kind of intervention, which I used as an entrance which leads directly to the window of my vision that motivated me to realize another step in clinical perspective. It is:
  - Firstly: **Experiential**: As I did a lot of practices during the academic years of studying psychology and looking them closely in the everyday life of individuals with mental illness in Psychiatry, different Orphanages and Associations, because of the illness of a very close person to me, I was motivated to follow their life experiences associated with serious mental health problem.
  - Secondly: **Challenging**, because it reminds me of both clinical situations and the everyday life in general. It remembers me how important it is to be endured, more courageous or even better listening.
  - Thirdly: **Educational**, because life that the participants do describe in this study clearly convey what is the experience of recovery, what helps them to reconnect with life, with what is important in general. Taking this into consideration, I have tried always to develop some principles for their treatment to minimize their disorder. So, the main idea **can be traced by January 2010**, including the consultations with my scientific advisor, when I was preparing for the master thesis concerned with the maintenance of mental stability and hygiene of individuals with dysfunctions.

2. **Ethical values of new Model based on Psychoeducation**

Remember: we are always in the same boat and sometimes in a nearly sea. Only a moment is just enough to change our life, especially our psychic stability and health.

Keeping in mind that:
- Cannot obligate a person to participate or to make something against his/her values or moral
- In its content, does not have any mystical, magical or occult thing
- Internal recourses can be activated through the actual psychological mood
- Can make a person to feel comfortable and educate to say new things or to form positive images for him/herself.

1Psychoeducation is defined as "systematic, structured and didactic information on the disease and its treatment and which includes integrated emotional aspects in order to enable participants / patients and their families to cope with the disease."
- Goes beyond obstacles and mechanism of defenses and opens their minds for new ideas, positive thinking regarding their mental illness or behavioral disturbances

3. Scientific Value of Model based on Psychoeducation

**Theoretical:**
- The programme marks a starting because commits the nervous system, the way he/she thinks, the feelings changing some components in him/ herself providing immediately a positive effect in behavior. The person with these dysfunctions begins to feel under control.
- The results can provide an educative curriculum full of qualitative information regarding specific elements of impact of neuro-psychological model at facilitation of recovery for the individuals with mental dysfunctions.

**Practical:**
- Can be developed in a natural environment, not in laboratory
- Can be used individually and in group too.
- Some of the techniques to improve the cognitive dysfunctions can be exercised by themselves regarding to their need without creating dependence from the clinical psychologist.
- Persons with mental dysfunctions can not only take knowledge about the recovery but to live it indeed.

**Pressupositions of neuropsychology and psycho education**

Research in operational system of presuppositions in neuropsychology

Here neuropsychology, as effect of intervention refers to the mind, the way how does a person think, refers to the nervous system and how the disfunctioned brain elaborates the guides. It is divided in two branches:

**Operational system of presupposition**

**Pressuposed beliefs** - A belief describes a basic structure in model of the world that is seen as a reality. Here the beliefs are called basic beliefs and they act as filters that determine how we perceive external reality. Beliefs of a person (what he/she sees as important or not) in a powerful way do form its perceptions.

**Presupositions of mental processing**

**Representative system** - All our experiences are the result of what we hear, see, feel, touch and smell, for this through the five senses which is called the representation system. Although that human beings share the five senses and their neurology basis, their unique experience changes as our five fingers. And this is a big difference between persons. Maps and Filters: When a person describes his/her world, he/she uses it on two levels: an objective, external reality and internal reality subjective. At this new model the "map is not the territory." Territory is the reality and the map describes what exists in the mind of the person's mental understanding of the territory. When a person wants to give the sense to the experience, it builds its internal representations. The maps consist of beliefs, values, attitudes, language and other psychological filters and these are perceived as thoughts. Maps of the internal representation interact with a person's physiology and thus are able to be generated. The reason why people see the world differently lies not in the world, but due to different filters (healthy or damaged) by which each person sees him/her world. The new model wants to change the map but not the reality.

Research in operational system of presuppositions in psycho-education

**Psychological operational system of presupposition** based in work of:

2-the performance of some composite cognitive activity; an operation that affects mental contents; “the process of thinking”; “the cognitive operation of remembering”

3- a presupposition is background belief, relating to an utterance, that: Will generally remain a necessary assumption whether the utterance is placed in the form of an assertion, denial, or question,
Fritz Perls- Reading *An Introduction to Clinical Psychology* among others Gestaltist therapy, I took into consideration with techniques of Perls and found that can be used his Perls therapeutic procedures and to experiment with them. Techniques are as following: Here and now, Contact, Learning through experience and Internal dialogues.

Virginia Satir- reading the electronical book, *Family therapy* I found that theory of Margaret Satir is modeled correctly. Techniques are as following: Erasures –Reframing, Anchoring and Gentleness.

Eric Ericson– reminding the Lections of Developmental Psychology, I remember some known techniques as following: Sources, Report, Rhythm

Educational operational system of presupposition based in work of:

Milton Model-This model can be used while talking with art somewhat undefined in order to move the person toward the desire to give the relevant opinion.

Logical levels, Dilts created a model of personal change. From a psychological perspective, the person can be educated in these six levels: Spiritual - What is my purpose?, Identity - Who am I? This is the basic sense of self, the core value and mission in life, Beliefs and values-Why am i doing certain things?, Skill - How am making some aspects? Behavior - What am I doing? Environment - Where and when?- The way a person reacts to other people

System and techniques of Neuro-Psycho-education

Modeling –that according to Bandura; the modeling can be described as the brain (neurons) and it works and how materializes expressing it through verbal communication and behavior or nonverbal. Result is a strategy or model to teach to the others how to achieve improvements in mental health, what indicates that beliefs of a person, behavior, feelings, and thinking up form a certain skill in a specific moment. According psychopathological perspective: a skill is then an inner experience or sequence of experimental events in mind

Management of mental status - mental condition has to do with thoughts and emotions, specifically with the unconscious thoughts. The mood is neither good nor bad but is a result that may be appropriate, not appropriate, and able to, limited and no source. Changing the situation changes all the time and this can be done by *anchoring* that may refer to a stimulus to change a position to recreate a condition. Emotional mood is a way of being in any given moment. (McDermott & Jago 2001).

Setting goals - Present state and desired state - Establishment of purpose in neuro-psycho-education model wants to look to the desired state more than the state of present problems. Abaraham.Maslow states that a goal gives purpose and direction and is the first step towards his/her achievement arritjes. Sipas, following objectives are important to set goals (*The main goals needed to be*)

Research Methodology

Outline of research- This reasearch was under a prospective with selected control trial. It is used the technique with no-probability which do not allow to generalize the findings to the whole population.

Selection of sample - Selected sample is made from the Project Hope at the Diurnal Center of Occupational Therapy and Socialisation during 24 weeks (*February-June 2011*). The sample in this research included 10 persons with mental disfunctions, (6 girls and 4 boys) among which 4 with *mental retardation*, 3 with *moderate intellectual deficits*, 2 mentally ill and 1 with *behavior disorder*. To meet the criteria for selection of participants I studied diagnosis and made the mini-examination mental status. Also I have reviewed the relevant files with clinical data regarding inclusive and exclusionary criteria.
Criteria for inclusion:
- Participants shall be included if:
  1. Receive support from Project Hope
  2. Meet diagnostic classification of mental retardation, intellectual deficit, mentally ill
  3. Is between ages 17-30 years and
  4. Has no organic disorders or substance abuse, deemed as a major cause of the symptoms.

Criteria for exclusion:
- Participants shall be excluded from the research if:
  1. Is unable to shape the give an approvation
  2. Taken to hospital for clinical diagnosis at the time of the research
  3. Has a significant head injury or other damage resulting in significant cognitive impairment
  4. Has a mental retardation (premorbid IQ <85),
  5. Stands to any other home at the time selected for the research

Experimental group: Experimental treatment included 24 weekly sessions according to neuro-psycho educational model with 7-10 participants. Each session was 50-70 minutes and is held by me as the main investigative and supported from a multidisciplinary team.

Instruments: The instrument used in this study was application of neuro-psycho-education model through the Handbook of Recovery: Let’s make the recovery a reality divided into 9 sections that can be met within a period of research. No content has not been excluded from manual and practical exercises and topics covered. Each session was designed to include a combination of learning, discussion, design, animation, group and individual work time to complete practical and therapeutical exercises. Each session included a variety of educational techniques drawn by titles of authors Spaniol & colleagues to enhance learning and to gain attention.

Specific goals of Recovery Handbook: this contains the part of techniques with topics as: 1. To become aware of the recovery process, 2. To increase the knowledge and control, 3. To become aware of the importance and nature of stress, 4. To increase personal understanding and values, 5. To build personal support, 6. To develop goals and action plans, 7. To manage anxiety and confidence, 8. To manage the mental preparation, 9. To control the flow of the mental status.

The effectivity of its utility is measured by:

1. Self-reported recovery experience; which assess their perceptions: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, olfactory, tactile, and motoric preferences in life circle (knowing, doing, getting, relating and being)
2. Descriptive reporting of educators; which assess the process of life circle in everyday activities, so in knowing, doing, getting, relating and being
3. Clinical reporting protocol; which assess, the processes in life circle according the stimulation of internal mental states such as belief, desire, idea, knowledge and motivation in knowing, doing, getting, relating and being

Gathering Of Qualitative Data

The main themes emerging from self-reports of recovery experience were: Comparisons, Confidence, Hope, in knowing, doing and being during the development of life circle in Home-Families.

The main themes emerging from the reports of educators were: Turning return, - Understanding, Relationships in getting, knowing and doing the things during the development of life circle in Home-Families.

The main themes emerging from clinical protocols were: knowing, (concept formation, knowledge acceptance), doing, (action, motivation, self-belief) getting, (attention, idea advice), relating (association, desire interconnectness), being (perception, mental imagery, belief, existence) during the development of life circle in Home-Families.

The Final Survey

It is concluded that the participants have undergone significant changes as follows:

a) Feeling understood: the construction of confidence - a point in treatment when participants felt understood and began to believe by showing willingness to engage in the treatment of

b) Efforts to improve: the role of medication - underlines the confidence of participants in their healthcare team and the willingness to take medicine as a way to simplify matters for symptoms, Also experienced battles that result from issues
related to the effects effects of medications (psychotropic drugs); that means this is conform what honoured Dr. Gezim BOÇARI has explained to us in subject of psychopharmacology.

c) Efforts to improve: beyond mechanism of defences-during this period of stability of symptoms they began to use non-medicated strategies such as making changes in lifestyle, being engaged, supporting the others, challenging their views and taking part on personal interests as ways to manage their symptoms and increase their knowledge that they are much more than the suffering of mental dysfunction.

d) Start to feel better - a complex period where participants noted changes in itself indicative of improvement and provided various data related to daily life as waking up on a set schedule, cleaning the house, washing clothes, looking on tv of a preferred program together, going to church or outside home-family, etc. that they had started to feel really good. Participants also recognized the feelings of sadness and began to complain to me if I had the opportunity to repeat it again in a longer stretch of time.

Conclusion

As to follow up with my conclusions, as Ivanov Smolenski writes “non e facile stabilire fin dove arriva il fisiologico e dove incomincia il patologico, quando entrano in azione i mecanismi di difesa: nella misura in cui impediscono la normale attivita sono patologici, nella misura in cui proteggono la cellula sono normali”. Starting by this clear explanation, I understood that to wash the punto malato (pathological point) was necessary to stimulate or to use a positive induction during the intervention program. Here the results showed an interesting finding because through this program it is arrived to stimulate a punto alla periferia (peripheral point) of pathological seat, following it under a provocative stimulation only for some short moments to keep its effect, not adding local inhibition. So the question was to create artificially a second pathological seat of inhibition to enter in concurrence with the firsts one in order to change their experience in a positively way. Taking these into consideration, it does exist a connection between the nervous activity, mind and education, because the recovery experience was facilitated through this intervention, through the positive stimulation of internal mental states such as belief, desire, idea, knowledge and motivation in knowing, doing, getting, relating and being regardless of the medication effects. So the N-P-E-M shows an attempt to document measurable, positive physiological changes at P.M.D as a result of psycho educational efforts because as Hebb writes: the education consists in a lasting change of facilitations between the activities of specific neural structures. The finding gives an acceptable answer, because the participants have had simple psychic reactions and not the locking of cortical circle. The last one can happen after a lot of purposeless mental and hygiene activities. It can be said that the domain of clinical research is also significant and is evidence of the first controlled selection that examines the effects of neuro-psycho educational intervention, based entirely on principles of positive stimulation of nervous system preparing the persons with mental dysfunction to think and to let the mind flow freely and experiencing excited emotions. Hence, it can manifest first movement of N-P-E-M and an affirmation of its merits by adding knowledge that could potentially help people in theory and practice. However, its informal status and practical success will be re-examined, in order to assess future important organizing framework for clinical perspective.

Limitations

The first limitation was that it used a modified version of the original baseless and Recovery Handbook. It is not covered all the content because of the study aims, but time is recommended to cover the material is reduced from 30 weeks to 24 weeks.

The second limitation was a lack of standardised reporting observations. They are elaborated only purposely Logistics of the study did not allow collection of additional data other than the period of 24 weeks.

The last limitation was the lack of a control group

Possible confounding of this study include: a- Effect of Group Leader and b) Time of Day

Recommendations for Research, Training and Practice

Research- For further researches held within this focus on persons with mental dysfunctions to be added to the findings of this intervention with other samples like at orphanages or psychiatries

Training- For existing labor force of mental health including clinical psychologist to get training for “recovery” and possess knowledge and understanding of different models of recovery experience

Practice - That clinical psychologist in conjunction with mental health team promotes understanding and to facilitate
positive sense and effective ability to solve the problem for the recovery of persons with mental dysfunction implementing the successful and practical intervention called Neuro-Psycho-education.

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The Impact of Psychological Practice in Albanian Daycares: Reflections of Parents and Caregivers

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Abstract: This qualitative study analyzes reflections of parents and caregivers on the impact of psychological practice in daycares. There have been taken 39 semi-structured interviews with parents who bring their children in daycares and 26 semi-structured interviews with caregivers working in five daycares in Tirana. The results taken by parents’ semi-structured interviews suggested that psychological practice in daycares need to focus more on parents as well. Even though there are a few contacts between parents and psychologists in daycares, parents demonstrated interest in having consultation with psychologists regarding the child development. On the other hand, the results taken by caregivers working in daycares suggested that psychological practice has had a great impact in their work with children. According to them psychological practice has been supportive especially in caring for children with autism and other pervasive developmental disorders, in training them with current information in child development and in implementing the curriculum in daycares. However, some caregivers expressed the idea that psychological practice would be more helpful especially if they could model from psychologists the age-appropriate behaviours that need to be carried out during the interactions with children. On conclusion, there is an immediate need for further intervention targeting parents who bring their children in daycares so as to support them in their parenting role. Also there is a need to collaborate with caregivers in a way that provides models of behaviours that come from everyday interactions with children.

Keywords: psychological practice, Albanian daycares, intervention, parents, caregivers

1. Introduction

The psychological practice in Albanian daycares has been developed the last 8 years. During these years especially in Tirana daycares, psychological practice has changed significantly the work of daycares’ caregivers. Even though providing psychological services to infants and toddlers is challenging, psychologists in Tirana daycares have progressed in several main aspects of their work that are related with the curriculum in daycares, providing trainings for caregivers and early intervention.

The last two years psychological services in daycares are applied even in another city of Albania which is Durrës (Hamzallari, 2011). Meanwhile psychological service in daycares lacks in other cities.

On the other hand, psychologists work in at least four daycares and sometimes these working conditions might slow down the collaboration with parents who bring their children in daycares. One of the elements of psychological practice in daycares is related with increasing parenting skills and enhancing the relationship between infants, toddlers and their parents (Mowder, Rubinson, & Yasik, 2009).

The main aim of this qualitative study is to provide a frame of the parents’ and caregivers’ reflection on the impact that psychological practice has had on them. Thus we can analyze the aspects of psychological practice in daycares’ that have been successful and those aspects of the work of psychologists that need to be strengthened. On the other hand by analyzing the important impact of psychological practice in daycares, it is attempted to put psychological practice into service in every daycares in Albania. Recently it is highlighted the importance of psychological service in infants, toddlers and young children (Knitzer, 2007). In addition some important functions of the psychologists’ work with caregivers, parents and children in daycares have been emphasized (Ohtake, 2005).

In conclusion, enhancing positive interaction and providing age-appropriate experiences for infants, toddlers and young children with parents and daycares’ caregivers is a step toward a better trajectory of development.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

There were 39 parents and 26 caregivers that participated in this study. Parents and caregivers were randomly chosen to
be interviewed. Parents who took the interview had their children in daycares. There were semi-structured interviews 6 fathers and 33 mothers.

2.2 Instruments

The instrument used to measure the parents and caregivers reflections regarding the impact of psychological practice in daycares was a semi-structured interview. The semi-structured interviews of parents had different questions regarding their parenting role, their parenting dilemmas and the psychological service in daycares. The caregiver's semi-structured interviews had questions regarding their education, working condition, and the impact the psychological service had on their work. In this study will be discussed only that question related to the impact the psychological practice has had on parents and caregivers.

2.3 Design

This is a qualitative study and the main aim of the study is to measure how psychological practice during these last 8 years in Tirana daycares has influenced the work of caregivers and also how it as influenced parents in their parenting role and the development of children who stay for nearly 8 hours in daycares.

2.4 Procedure

The semi-structured interviews have taken place in five daycares in Tirana. One of the daycares was located in the suburb of Tirana while the other four were located near to the city centre. Before conducting the semi-structured interviews, the informed consent was taken from the director, caregivers and parents. The semi-structured interviews took place in a quiet and comfortable room in each of daycares. Each interview was recorded so as not to lose any information during the interview. Parents’ semi-structured interviews lasted 10 minutes on average and caregivers’ semi-structured interviews lasted 20 minutes on average.

3. Results

3.1 Parents reflections

The results taken from the parents' interviews are divided in two categories: parents that had consultation with the daycares' psychologists; parents that have had no contact with the daycares' psychologists.

Parents that have had consultations with the daycares’ psychologists

Only 4 parents out of the 39 parents interviewed have had at least one consultation with the daycares’ psychologists. These parents put great emphasis on their children development and one of the reasons why they met with the psychologist in the daycares was to discuss about their children development.

One parent states: “The psychologist told me that my child has normal development. Mostly they contacted parents whose children development was not within the normal range.” Another parent states: “I have taken some brochures in daycares related to child development. I have had only one conversation with the psychologist. The psychologist informed me about some developmental disorders which show some symptoms I need to be careful and gave me some brochures related to these disorders.”

Parents that have not met with the daycares’ psychologists

From the 39 semi-structured interviews with parents, 35 parents have not met the daycares’ psychologists. Nearly 19 parents expressed interest in meeting the psychologists. However parents listed some reasons why they have not contacted the psychologists so far. One of the most mentioned reasons was not having time. One parent said: “I have not met the psychologist yet but I would like to if the psychologist is here when I take my child. But I guess it is too late at that time...” Another reason why some parents have not contacted the psychologists was that they did not have the information that the daycares provided psychological service. One parent said: “I don’t know if a psychologist works in daycares...If there is a psychologist working in daycares, I would like to contact him or her because I would like to discuss
about my child reaction.” Mostly parents who did not have information about the psychological service in daycares have been bringing their children in the later months. On the other hand there were some other parents who stated that they would like to have consultation with the daycares’ psychologist but they did not know their timetables at daycares. Here is what a parent said: “I would like to contact the daycares’ psychologist but I don’t know when the right time is.”

From 39 parents, 16 parents declared that there was no need to have consultation with the psychologist in daycares when children do not have developmental disorders. One parent stated: “I think I am kind of psychologist myself.” Another parent declared: “I don’t feel like it is necessary to contact the daycares’ psychologist. I don’t have any doubts about my child normal development but if I would have one of course I would contact him or her.” There is another parent that stated: “Why should I contact the psychologist? My child does not have developmental problems until now.” These statements taken by parents generalize most of the parents’ answers to the question “What kind of impact has had on you as a parent the psychological practice in daycares?”

3.2 Caregivers’ reflections

The results taken by the caregivers’ interviews are divided in three categories: the impact of psychological practice in implementing the curriculum; the impact of psychological practice in training caregivers and the impact of early intervention in daycares.

The impact of psychological practice in implementing the curriculum

All the caregivers that were interviewed expressed that daycares’ psychologists have had a great impact in their work with children. Psychological practice has helped significantly the implementation of the daycares’ curriculum. One caregiver declared: “We have changed professionally since daycares’ psychologists have started their work in daycares. Before we just had the same routines of feeding, changing the children’s diapers but now it is completely different. The implementation of curriculum has enhanced the child activities during the hours he or she stays in daycares.” However, 6 caregivers during the interviews claimed that they needed more help especially during the working hours. One caregiver said: “Mostly, during everyday activities with children we are alone and it might be of help if we could model from them especially during the time of play activities.”

The impact of psychological practice in training caregivers

All the interviewed caregivers stated that they have carried out many trainings conducted by daycares’ psychologists. According to them the trainings have been of vast importance especially in three aspects: current information on child development; identifying children with developmental disorders and information regarding how to communicate with infants and toddlers. One caregiver said: “We have been in much training. During these training I have learned how to play with kids, how to behave with them.”

Another caregiver said: “We have learned a lot from trainings especially information related to psychomotor development and by observing during play I can indentify children that might show delays in psychomotor development.” Other caregivers stated that training have helped them even by softening the tone of their voices when communicating with children.

The impact of early intervention in daycares

Psychological practice has been essential even in early intervention. Most of the interviewed caregivers stated that daycares’ psychologists intervened when children showed: a) developmental disorders; b) behavioural and socio-emotional problems. One caregiver stated: “In my group we have had several times autistic children. We have had consultation with psychologists; they have diagnosed the autistic children and have monitored us during intervention. We have observed a lot of progress with the time.” Another caregiver said: “When we have difficulty in managing the child’s behaviour we turn to the psychologist for help. I remember a child who had a very difficult time socializing with other children the first months in daycares. He was always crying and did not involve himself in play activities. The psychologist contacted the parents and then oriented us toward the whole process of the child’s adaptation with the new environment. At first the child stayed only with me and then step by step with one child, and then another child until he got used to play with children and did not cry when seeing his parents going away from the daycares.”
4. Discussion

The aim of this study was to form a framework of the psychological practice in daycares. Also this study aimed at emphasis aspects of the psychologists' work that need to be enhanced. From the semi-structured interviews with parents it has been noticed that only a few parents have had a few contacts with the psychologists. Furthermore, we see that nearly 16 parents have a narrow attitude related to the psychologists' work in daycares. These parents analyzed that psychological practice is of help only to those parents whose children face developmental disorders. However, there is another group of parents who show interest to have consultation with psychologists so as to know more about their children development, to discuss about their parenting dilemmas when behaving with their children. For several reasons, even this group of parents have not met with daycares' psychologists. Thus, psychologists need to inform parents about their role in daycares and to organize group consultation or individual consultation with parents so as to help parents solve their everyday dilemmas with children hence enhancing their parenting skills.

On the other hand, psychological practice has had a great impact in the caregivers' work with children. From the results we can conclude that caregivers have enriched children experiences in daycares by implementing the activities of the curriculum. As well caregivers' knowledge about child development has been expanded due to trainings with daycares' psychologists. As a consequence caregivers have become more aware of the children's developmental needs and more skilled in identifying children with socio-emotional and developmental problems. On the other hand psychologists have supported caregivers by monitoring the progress of children that have faced different socio-emotional or developmental problems. However, some of the caregivers expressed the need to learn the age-appropriate models of behaviours by having the opportunity to observe psychologists' interaction with children.

In conclusion, there is an immediate need to inform parents how psychological practice in daycares might be of help to parents in general so as to manage as better as possible the everyday interactions with their children. Also there is a need to expand psychological practice even by working with families.

Meanwhile, psychologists need to spend more time with caregivers not only by training them theoretically but as well by transmitting the models of age-appropriate behaviours with children during the daily practice.

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An Overview of Assessment Instruments Used to Evaluate Stress and Parental Coping of Parents of Autistic Children

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Abstract: A number of studies have demonstrated that parents of children with developmental disabilities experience higher levels of stress than parents of typically developing children, others studies have shown that parents of autistic children shows more stress than parents of mental retardation children and down syndrome children. Parents of such children face more challenges in everyday living to cope with different stressful events. The aim of this study is to provide an overview of the different instrument used to evaluate stress of parents of autistic children and strategies that parents report aid them in coping with stress. The method of research of electronic databases on the internet has been used. Systematic review of research articles published in scientific journals having as search criteria and key words the terms: autism spectrum disorders, coping strategies, stress, parental stress, coping technique. The review report instruments that are used professionally in assessment of parental stress of parents of autistic children and report that parents used a variety of strategies to cope with stressors to having a child with autism. This review inspires a number of implications for clinical practice, it necessary when developing an interventional program for children with autism, to assess not only the child but also the parents, assessment of parental stress should became a routine part of child evaluation and practitioners can help parents to teach techniques for coping with stress.

Keywords: autism spectrum disorders, autism, coping strategies, stress, parental stress.

1. Introduction

Autism is a complex developmental disability, it is characterized by severe and pervasive impairments in several important areas of development: reciprocal social interaction and communication as well as behavior, and imagination. (American Psychiatric Publishing, 2000). The definition of autism has evolved over the years and was broadened with the introduction in the 1980s of the terms pervasive developmental disorder (PDD) and Asperger syndrome. In the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders IV-TR (DSM- IV-TR), PDD is the umbrella term covering Autistic disorder, Asperger’s disorder, Pervasive developmental disorder NOS (not otherwise specified), Rett’s Disorder, Childhood Disintegrative Disorder. Having a child with autism means that the family suffers a crisis at the moment of final diagnosis and especially for parent’s demands for coping with the disability means are determination of the roles in the family changes in social life and social roles, the mother abandoning her work and less free time for all family members. Research has shown that the parents of autistic children report more stress than parents of typically developing children or with others disabilities.

2. Literature Review

Research has shown that the major sources of parenting of autistic children are associated with irregular intellectual profile of autistic children, pervasive behaviors and long care to children’s. (Bebko, Konstanantareas, & Springer, 1987; R. L. Koegel, Schriebman, Loos, D. Wilhelm, Dunlap, Robbins, & Plienis, 1992; Moes, 1995; Moes et al., 1992). A study conducted with mothers of autistic children and mothers of mental retardation results that mothers of autistic children have higher level of stress than mothers of mental retardation children’s. Children behavior problems is associated with increasing level of stress, and this study showed that most stressful for mothers were related with difficulties in relation to nutrition, clothing and behavior problems of autistic children. Parents of children with developmental disabilities experience higher levels of stress than parents of typically developing children (Hastings, 2002; Konstantareas 1991; Scorgie, Wilgosh & McDonald, 1998), others studies have shown that parents of autistic children shows more stress than parents of mental retardation children and down syndrome children. Parents of such children face more challenges in everyday living to cope with different stressful events. They have to face more financial strain to provide necessary medical expenses, have to pay more attention to the child and parental demands increase which in turn enhance psychological strain. (http://www.autism-org/site/). Robert Burton, in 1624 wrote of the sources of disease and melancholy (depression) in particular, emphasizing social stress as one of the greatest causes of malady. For the clinician in
psychology and medicine, for the human resources professional in industry, and for educators in classroom, stress is a foundation concept as well. (Stevan E. Hobfoll 1998). The literature reflects researcher’s belief that stress is a major factor affecting people lives and is related with mental health and with many problems of physical health. Stress is experienced when our subjective demands of a situation are incompatible with the ability of meeting and adapting to these demand and the internal perception of the ability to adapt or even respond when the demand impair the achievement of other important matters of survival. Four different conceptualizations or definitions of stress can be distinguished, and each has been applied to families of children with development disabilities. First, in one of the earliest theories stress is understood as the physiological and psychological reactions that an organism goes through, usually in stages, to adapt to a stressful situation. Although not universally accepted by parents or professionals, this definition has been quite widely applied clinically with families of children with development disabilities. A second conceptualization of stress is referred to as the "stressful life events" paradigm. This paradigm suggests that stressful life events have a negative impact on mental and physical health. This model has been extensively researched in many health areas and, generally speaking, the relationship between any particular stressful event (e.g., loss of job) and any particular outcome (e.g., depression) is weak because there are many intervening variables (e.g., what social supports the person has, what the job loss "means" to them, what coping strategies they use, and so on). A third approach to conceptualizing stress is the "daily hassles" paradigm, which suggests that it is not necessarily a major life event that is stressful but all the everyday frustrations and hassles associated with it. In the case of families of children with DD, this theory has been used extensively. It leads to the assumption that it is not the single life event of having a child with difficulties that is stressful but, rather, the cumulative effect of smaller day to-day annoyances and hassles associated with caretaking (e.g., changing diapers on a big child, taking the child to various appointments, etc.). Thus, it is important to discriminate between stressors (stimuli) and appraisals of stressors. A fourth definition of stress involves the concept of a "resource imbalance" between the demands of a situation (stressors) and a person's resources or coping ability. In the case of families of children with development disabilities, this approach implies that stress is not simply a function of child characteristics (stressors). It is more than a single stressful life event or even a series of daily hassles. It depends to a large extent on the individual parent's coping abilities, the resources in the family, and the supports the family receives from others. (Adrienne Perry). Lazarus and Folkman defined coping as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person”. (Stevan E. Hobfoll, 1998). Two basis categories of coping include efforts to alert the troubled person - relationship and efforts to regulate emotional distress. Problem-focused coping encompasses numerous specific coping strategies, such as defining the problem, generating, evaluating and selecting potential solutions and attempting to cognitively reappraise the situation by shifting level of aspiration, reducing ego involvement, finding alternative channels of gratification, or developing new standards of behavior. Emotion-focused coping includes strategies such minimization, positive comparisons, seeking positive value from negative events, selective attention, distancing, avoidance, exercise, and meditation, alcohol use, venting anger, and seeking emotional support. (Edwards, J. R., & Baglioni, A. J., Jr. (1999). Problem-focused and emotion-focused coping are not exact opposites, but generally lie on either side of a continuum between active and passive responding. Most problem-focused coping is still as healthy because it acts to help achieve goals. This include active coping, planning, seeking support on task, and restraint coping to wait for proper timing. However, emotion-focused coping becomes divided into efforts that help sustain motivation or problem-solving versus emotion-focused coping that limits goal directed effort. Helpful emotion-focused coping might include acceptance and positive reinterpretation. Negative emotion-focused coping, involves avoidance, dwelling on negative emotion, or denial.

2. Methodology

This study aimed to provide an overview of different instrument used to evaluate stress of parents of autistic children and strategies that parents report aid them in coping with stress. The method of research of electronic databases on the internet has been used. There has been an extended research in articles published in scientific international journal, having as search criteria and key words the terms: autism spectrum disorders, autism, coping strategies, stress, parental stress as well as combinations of the above. The documentation of the data has been made on the basis of a table of data-input including:

The name of the first author of the study and the country of origin, the key words of the research, the publishing journal as well as the date of publication, the aim of the research, the measurements used (questionnaires, interviews). For the inclusion criteria the following were applied: the study should relate the parental stress and coping of children with autism, the study should be original, the study should have clear results regarding the parental stress and parental coping, the study should specify instrument that researcher have used to evaluate stress and parental coping. As exclusion criteria
are: the Language Limitation in the English Language because of the researcher’s ability to study in this language, the limitation study focus in stress of parents of autistic children and in coping strategies that parents report aid them in coping with stress. Period of study September 2011- January 2012.

3. Findings

The various studies shows that parents of autistic children are more stressed than parents of developed children. Mothers of ASD children report significantly greater stress, greater depression, greater social isolation, and a lower level of marital intimacy when compared to mothers of normal children and mothers of Down's syndrome children (Bengt Sivberg, 2002). Mothers compared with fathers, were significantly more stressed, more involved, and reported higher levels of stress and coping related to car giving. (E. Tehee, R. Honan and D. Hevey, 2009).

High levels of stress are present in mothers when their children are quite young, and also provides evidence that fathers of very young children share high levels of stress and depressive symptoms. Deficits/delays in children’s social relatedness were associated with overall parenting stress, parent–child relationship problems, and distress for mothers and fathers. (N. O. Davis & A. S. Carter 2008). Other studies shows that the child’s autism severity was the strongest and most consistent predictor of stress, and emotion-oriented coping moderated the relationship between pessimism stress and autism symptomatology, and distraction coping was a moderator between parent and family stress and autism symptoms. (A. M. Lyons, S. C. Leon, C. E. R. Phelps, A. M. Dunleavy, 2010).

Mothers report more problem focused strategies more frequently than fathers and parents with preschool children reporting more frequent use of these coping strategies than parents of school – age children. (R. Hastings, H. Kovshoff, T. Brown, N. J. Ward, F. D. Espinosa, B. Remington, 2005). Acquisition of social support and reframing were the most frequently used coping strategies on parents of autistic children. (Luther E. H., Canham D L, Y. Cureton V, 2005). One other effective ways that they coped as a family were in the areas of informal and formal social support networks. Parents used passive appraisal to cope. (Twoy R, Connelly P.M., Novak JM, 2007).

People do not approach each coping context anew, but rather bring to bear a preferred set of coping strategies that remains relatively fixed across time and circumstances, but the idea that such stable coping styles exist is controversial, Folkman and Lazarus have repeatedly emphasized that coping hold be thought of as dynamic process that shifts in nature from stage to stage of a stressful transaction. Such a view suggests that the development of a coping style would at best be counterproductive, because it locks the person into one mode of responding rather than allowing the person the freedom and the flexibility to change responses with changing circumstances (C. Carver, M. Scheier, J. Weintraub, 1989).

These studies are coming from different country: United States of America (6), England (3), Israel (1), Ireland (1), Sweden (1), Japan (1), China (1), India (1), Canada (1), Poland (2) A number of assessment instruments have been created so that parental stress levels can be systematically measured and quantified, can provide information about the amount of stress a parent is experiencing. Once an instrument or a battery of instruments have been selected for the assessment of a parent's stress level, it is appropriate to administer the tests as part of the initial screening of the child. Instrument must: (1) measure the impact of a handicapped child on the family yet be broad in the issues and concerns addressed; (2) data must be available to support its technical qualities; (3) be easy to administer, score, and interpret; (4) the measure must be available and reasonable in price; and (5) the measure must require minimum administration time. (S. E. Mott, R. Fewell, M. Lewis, S. J. Meisels, J. P. Shonkoff, R. J. Simenson, 1986).

1. Questionnaire on Resources and Stress (Short-Form) (Friedrich et al. (1983). The measurement of stress in families of developmentally delayed or mentally retarded children has been a difficult task. QRS, Holroyd, 1974 was designed to answer this need, but the length and psychometric weaknesses of this instrument have interfered with more widespread usage. The original 285-item true/false scale was developed to measure the impact of a developmentally delayed, handicapped, or chronically ill child on other family members. Friedrich et al. (1983) recognized the problems of length and technical quality in the QRS and developed a shorter and psycho - metrically stronger inventory, the QRS-F52 items. These items were factor analyzed, and four distinct factors were found The QRS-F has four factors: (1) parent and family problems, (2) pessimism, (3) child characteristics, and (4) physical incapacitations. (F. WN, G. MT, C. K, 1983).

Scores produce a total stress score (0-52). The internal reliability of the subscales ranges from 0.77 (Physical Incapacity) to 0.85 (Child Characteristics), with the internal reliability of the total stress score being 0.89. Researchers have previously used this tool for samples of parents of children with ASD in assessing stress in parents (Hastings & Johnson, 2001), and it allows comparison with previous studies. The total stress score from this scale has good reliability and validity for research with parents of young children with ASD. (L. A. Osborne, P. Reed, 2009). QRS-F has the following characteristics that suggest it is appropriate for use in programs for young handicapped children and their families, data are available to support its technical aspects, questionnaire is easy to give, available in the literature, and cost is minimal,
has been effective in measuring parent change resulting from intervention over time. (S. E. Mott, R. R. Fewell, M. Lewis, S. J. Meisels, J. P. Shonkoff, R. J. Simensson, 1986).

2. The Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF). is a brief version of the Parenting Stress Index (Abidin, 1995), a widely used and well-researched measure of parenting stress. The PSI-SF has 36 items from the original 120-item PSI. The version was developed in response to clinicians’ and researchers’ need for a shorter measure of parenting stress, that measures stress directly associates with parenting role. PSI-SF, is one of the most widely used instruments for measuring parenting stress in families of children with ASD. Although it was not devised specifically for assessing parents who are raising a handicapped child, the items have a great deal of face validity for this group. Another important consideration is that the PSI not only captures family characteristics pertaining to stress-financial stress, the family’s emotional and physical state -but also provides for the assessment of specific characteristics of the child. PSI-SF is also a clinical tool that is widely used to identify parents in need of counseling services. (A. Zaidman-Zait, P. Mirenda, B. D. Zumbo, S. Wellington, V. Dua, K. Kalynchuk, 2010). The instrument yields scores for several factors (parent/child dysfunctional interactions, parent distress, difficult child) in an addition to a total stress score.

3. The Coping Health Inventory for Parents Mc.Cubbin et al., 1983 is, a self-administered questionnaire, 45- item used to assess parents perception of how he or she manage family life with a child with a chronic illness. 45- items are divided into three sub-scales 1. Family Integration, Cooperation and an Optimistic Definition of the Situation; 2. Maintaining Social Support, Self Esteem and Psychological Stability; 3. Understanding The Health Care. The scale uses a four-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 'not helpful' (0) to 'extremely helpful' (3). The authors report the internal consistency of all three subscales to be satisfactory. The instrument can be used to develop intervention strategies and measure change in parent’s ability to cope when faced with parenting a child with chronic illness.

4. Perceived Stress Scale. The PSS (Cohen, Kamarck, T., and Mermelstein, R. 1983) is a 14-item questionnaire, is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring the perception of stress. It is a measure of the degree to which situations in one’s life are appraised as stressful. The items are easy to understand, and the response alternatives are simple to grasp. Instruments that assess stress based on the number of stressors present in a person’s life fail to take into account the way that people interact with those stressors and the influence that coping resources may have on the actual experience and perception of stress. Although the PSS does not measure the amount of coping resources available to a respondent or the skills necessary to effectively utilize those resources, by assessing how stress is being perceived, the effects of those resources are measured indirectly. Responses are scored from 0 to 4 on a Liker-type scale. (Cohen et al., 1983). The PSS provides an assessment of the amount of stress individuals believe they are experiencing, which for some purposes may be a more effective tool than an instrument that measures the number of stressors present in an individual’s life. This scale might be especially appropriate for identifying parents who need training in the effective use of coping resources. (Lessenberry, Beth M. Rehfeldt, Ruth Anne, 2004).

5. The Coping Orientation of Problem Experience Inventory (COPE) (Carver et al., 1989), the instrument has had a good deal of use, there were some problems with its length, as a consequence, is created an abbreviated version of the COPE, called the Brief COPE. 60 items was developed to assess a broad range of coping responses, several of which had an explicit basis in theory. Respondent indicate what he or she usually do when experience a stressful event. The inventory includes some responses that are expected to be dysfunctional, as well as some that are expected to be functional. The items have been used in at least 3 formats. One is a "dispositional" or trait-like version in which respondent’s report the extent to which they usually do the things listed, when they are stressed. A second is a time-limited version in which respondents indicate the degree to which they actually did have each response during a particular period in the past. The third is a time-limited version in which respondents indicate the degree to which they have been having each response during a period up to the present. The COPE inventory is divided into 13 scales Focus on and venting of emotions, Use of instrumental social support; Active coping; Denial; Religious coping; Humor; Behavioral disengagement; Restraint; Use of emotional social support; Substance use; Acceptance; Suppression of competing activities; Planning. (Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K., 1989).

6. Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS, Endler, Parker 1990). The weakness of most of the measures lies in their unsatisfactory psychometric properties, unstable factor structures, and lack of cross-validation. These shortcomings have been overcome with the CISS, that was developed in an accurate and rigorous way and in a balanced approach, including rational and empirical steps. CISS include 48 item, with 16 items per scale. A general
instruction was used, aiming at a "typical" coping response ("...how much you engage in these types of activities when you encounter a difficult, stressful, or upsetting situation"). Coping behaviors were compiled that fitted the two generally accepted coping functions problem solving and emotion regulation. Factor analyses, performed for men and women separately, yielded three factors: task-oriented, emotion-oriented, and avoidance-oriented coping. The avoidance dimension could be further subdivided into a Distraction scale and a Social Diversion scale. Very good psychometric properties were identified in several validation samples. Construct validity was documented by appropriate correlations with the WCQ and various personality traits. The instrument is disposition-oriented and, therefore, covers only one facet of coping.

7. The Family Stress and Coping Questionnaire (FSCQ-A, Tehee, Honan & Hevey, 2009) was adapted from the Family Stress and Coping Interview is a questionnaire designed to quantitatively and qualitatively, which measures perceived stress and coping related to caregiving in families of individuals with developmental disorders across the lifespan (J.S. Nacheshen, L. Woodford & P. Minnes, 2003). Specifically, the FSCQ-A elicited responses from parents regarding their level of perceived stress in the following areas: (1) the diagnosis and the cause of their child's ASD, (2) explaining ASD to family, friends, community and interacting with them, (3) dealing with health professionals / health board / teachers / education system, (4) creating friendship / leisure opportunities for their child, (5) deciding on the best level of integration for their child, (6) meeting the needs of their other children, (7) meeting their own personal needs, (8) meeting the needs of their partner, (9) maintaining their own personal friendships, (10) dealing with their child's sexuality, (11) concerns about present/future work/employment for their child, (12) concerns about present/future long-term accommodation for their child, (13) planning wills/trusts/guardianships, (14) planning emotional and social support for their child, (15) planning assistance with care, (16) attaining respite care, and (17) dealing with financial issues. It consists of 26 self-report using a 4-point Likert scale, Open-ended questions requested parents to list the top three sources that cause them most stress at present. (E. Tehee, R. Honan and D. Hevey, 2009).

8. The Parental Stress Scale (PSS) is a self-report scale that contains 18 items representing pleasure or positive themes of parenthood and negative components, it is intended to be used for the assessment of parental stress of children with and without clinical problems. Respondents are asked to rate each item on a five-point scale. The PSS demonstrated satisfactory levels of internal reliability (.83), and test-retest reliability (.81). The scale demonstrated satisfactory convergent validity with various measures of stress, emotion, and role satisfaction, including perceived stress, work/family stress, loneliness, anxiety, guilt, marital satisfaction, marital commitment, job satisfaction, and social support. (Berry, J.O. & Jones, W.H., 1995).

9. The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) is based on Lazarus model of stress and coping. In the 1970s, the stress and coping research group of Lazarus developed the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCC) in line with the transactional phenomenological stress theory that suggested two main functions of coping: problem solving and emotion regulation. From 68 items with a yes-no response format, 40 items formed the problem-solving subscale, and 24 the emotion-focused subscale. Since this classification did not reflect the complexity and richness of coping processes, a series of factor analyses with different data sets were carried out, generating over time the current version of the instrument now called WCQ, it consists of 50 items (plus 16 fill items) within eight empirically derived scales. A difficulty with the instrument has always been that the number of extracted factors changed from sample to sample or from stressor to stressor, but this seems to be a general problem with most coping measures, reflecting the unresolved disposition versus situation issue.

10. Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES: McCubbin, Olson, & Larsen, 1987). The F-COPES is a 30-item, self-report questionnaire used to assess ways that families cope with stress. The measure uses a 5-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." There are five subscales: acquiring social support, reframing, seeking spiritual support, mobilizing family to acquire and seek help, and passive appraisal. This measure has good internal consistency and an overall alpha of 0.86. The overall test-retest reliability is 0.81. The alphas for the subscales range from 0.61-0.81, and the test-retest values range from 0.61-0.95.

4. Discussion

The objective of this review was to offer some information related with instrument used for assessment of parenting stress and coping of parent of autistic children. Some assessment instrument may be more useful and effective than
others, some can be more effective for some intervention program. For example, the PSI seems to be attractive, as it assesses a variety of outcomes. PSS appears to be an effective tool for assessing the level of stress that can be attributed to the parenting role. Other scales, such as the QRS-F, may be adequate for some programs, but may be too narrow to tap the outcomes of others, other have a number of advantages for using in clinical practice, for example Family Stress and Coping Questionnaire is developed in collaboration with families, uses qualitative and quantitative research methods, addresses issues across the lifespan. COPE is not the final word on what aspect of coping should be measured, because there are too many different ways to deal with life’s adversity. Diversity among measures of coping should be constrained only by limits on insight into the nature of coping process. Which coping functions are important and which are not can be determined only by measuring and testing them. (C. Carver, M. Scheier, J. Weintraub, 1989). The need to include complementary outcome measures seems particularly relevant to the area of family assessment, and users should gather additional information about them. Researcher has been used different instrument to evaluate stress and coping strategies of parents of autistic children. These studies are important for specialist that work with children and families of children with autism, they can offer a different perspective not to focus only to autistic child but to focus to family system on impact that autistic children have at family system, and in mental health of their parents. It’s necessary that professions that work in institution that offer services for child and families of autistic children to have information about instrument that are used to evaluate stress and coping strategies and to have a better coordination in order to use these instrument for evaluating parenting stress and as a measure of programs effectiveness that operate in a variety of service settings that serve families of autistic children. If we refer Albanian Institution that offer services for children and families of autistic children, specialist of multidisciplinary team that work with parents of autistic children don’t use any instrument to evaluate stress and coping strategies of parents of autistic children. (S. E. Mott, R. R. Fewell, M. Lewis, S. J. Meisels, J. P. Shonkoff, R. J. Simensson, 1986). The instruments could potentially be used to determine the effectiveness of experimental treatments or interventions, as well as to compare the overall effectiveness of existing interventions for autistic children and to improve services provide to the families of autistic children.

5. Conclusion And Recommendation

1. This review is based in 18 published research article, studies showed that autism is a source of parental stress all over the world.
2. The instrument described in this review are very effective for evaluating stress and identified coping strategies of parents of autistic children.
3. Institution that provide services for families of autistic children it’s necessary to ensure that a child and his or her family is receiving the best treatment. An initial step in this process is evaluation of stress and coping strategies of parents of autistic children.
4. Assessment of stress and parental coping should be part of child screening and evaluation in Albania institution, if we want to offer the best treatment in context of family system in order to minimize health problems of parent.
5. The instrument reviewed used to evaluate stress and coping strategies can be used in combination with other instrument in order to get more information about amount of parental stress and coping strategies.
6. Assessment of parental stress and coping strategies would be used to assess changes in parent stress level and coping strategies after a course of child involvement in a therapy.
7. Assessments of stress and coping are necessary because according to results of instrument practitioner can identify needs of parents, and can design counseling program or training program on stress reduction and coping strategies.

References


The Impact of Cancer in Patient's Caregivers: A Literature Review

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Abstract: This paper aims to explore the effects of cancer in mental health and health-related quality of life of the primary caregivers to patients. Cancer can change in many ways the status quo of the family. All the members of the family will change in some way. From a family systems perspective, dysfunction or illness in one family member affects other family members, because a family unit functions as an interconnected whole. Although many research is done having cancer patients in their focus, there is a limited research regarding the impact of a life-threatening disease in the patient’s family and especially in the persons that care for them. It makes sense that caring for a cancer patient, can create numerous needs in these individuals, causing various psychosocial or other types of problems. These various problems will be in the focus of this literature review.

Keywords: cancer; family; health; mental health; quality of life.

Introduction

Cancer diagnosis is a unique living experience, the consequences of which often persist after diagnosis or treatment. The impact of this disease can be just as strong in the individual, in his/her family and social network; people around the patient may find it difficult to accept it or maybe are not aware of the ways to help. The kind of the relationship as well as the attitudes and perceptions of cancer affect the way of experiencing the disease and caregiving.

A caregiver’s life can change greatly as a result of cancer diagnosis. For example, he/she can quit his/her job in order to care for the patient, someone else may move out to another city or in an area closer to the patient etc. All changes happen due to the demands of caregiving. Important aspects of family life can now take a second place, economic difficulties may arise, which reach up to selling the house to afford health care. In other cases, changes are seen in everyday life, which can create more of a sense of uncertainty and confusion about planning and hopes for the future.

Various studies reveal that the fear experienced by family members is much higher than that experienced by the patient. Different dimensions of distress, anxiety and depression that are reflected in a family where one of its members has cancer are disability, fear and anger, which are referred to as the anxious emotions, especially in the phase of chemotherapy. Individuals closer to a patient with cancer will experience a wide range of responses towards the disease. Their emotions will be complex and difficult to express. Caregivers often neglect their own needs and the health care personnel is also focused on the patient. The caregiver’s problems can become more serious if left untreated.

Definition of caregiver

An overall definition of the caregiver refers to the individual, whom is responsible for caring for another person, that suffers from mental health problems, has physical disabilities or has a poor health because of his/her illness or age.

Caregiver’s needs

Individuals that have the responsibility to care for their sick relatives, can display a variety of problems and negative thoughts. They often overlook the fact that they have undertaken a very important and difficult task: continuous support and care for a very long period of time. In many cases, caregiving provided by the family can last for long periods of time, it is difficult, requires different skills and interferes with their personal lives, increasing the probability of causing physical and mental problems.

It is important to know the problems that arise in persons who care for other persons. Knowing and better understanding the caregivers’ experiences is an important step to appropriate support, which will influence everyone positively.

Caregivers’ responsibilities to patients with chronic diseases are multiple and numerous. Some of the possible duties and responsibilities of caregivers are: giving medications, shopping, cooking, feeding, bathing, dressing, get the patient...
up from the bed, change positions in bed, helping to carry personal needs, changing of clothes, doing other obligations such as payment of bills, emotional support, etc.

In some cases, caregiving can be a traumatic experience for the individual who has undertaken this task. The patient may have lost many of his/her abilities, he/she could also be altered as a personality, may have behavioral changes, can be more aggressive or more passive, etc. For this reason, caregivers often face very difficult situations.

Some of the most common problems of physical and mental health caused to caregivers are:
1. Physical exhaustion;
2. Low levels of energy;
3. Insomnia;
4. Excessive appetite or lack of appetite;
5. Pain in different body sites;
6. Stress;
7. Frustration;
8. Depression;
9. Bad mood, melancholy;
10. Anger towards the person of caring or others;
11. Reduction of social contacts with friends and family;
12. Lack of interest in favorite activities or activities with other family members;
13. Feeling that they have no time to dedicate themselves.
(What happens in individuals that care for sick relatives?, 2009)

Cancer Caregiving

Over the last decade, caregiving for a relative with cancer has increased in terms of the number of individuals involved in this process, as well as in terms of task complexity that caregivers must carry. Between 1997 and 2005, the number of Americans diagnosed with cancer is increasing: from 900,000 (1997) it has reached 1.3 million (2005), but the number of survivors has also increased: from 7.4 million to 9 million (American Cancer Society, 2005). The global burden of cancer continues to increase significantly due to aging and global population growth, "supported" by the adoption of a set of behaviors that cause cancer, especially smoking in developing countries. Based on statistics of GLOBOCAN 2008 (cited in Jemal et al., 2011) in 2008 about 12.7 million new cancer cases and 7.6 million deaths were reported, of which 56% of cases and 64% of deaths were reported in developing countries (Jemal et al., 2011). In 2030, the projected number of deaths from all types of cancer combined is expected to reach 11.5 million, a number almost double the 6 million people in 1990. Moreover, nowadays cancer is not perceived as a rich country disease. Worldwide, the percentage of all new cancer cases emerging in countries with low and average income is increasing: in 1975 it was almost half (51%), reached 55% in 2007 and projected to reach 61 % in 2030 (Thun, DeLancey, Center & Jemal, 2009).

Cancer itself is not only a disease but a constellation of diseases. As a result, informal caregiving for cancer patients follows the same path, and it reflects the diversity of abilities required related to the type and stage of disease, patient's age and the different possibilities and peculiarities of treatment. However, these variables that constitute the process of care are only a part of the picture. What happens to the caregivers? What attributes bring to this experience? What is the impact of the diagnosis in the family? What is the financial situation (O'Mara, 2005)? These are some of the many questions that have been the subject of study and exploration of many years in other countries. In Albania, there are no studies focused on caregivers of cancer patients.

Therefore, the purpose of this review is to summarize the state of knowledge on the following questions:
1. What psychological problems do primary caregivers of cancer patients face? Similarly, do they experience increased levels of anxiety and depression?
2. Does quality of life change for a caregiver? Are there any changes in health – related quality of life?

Methods

The method used in this paper is that of a systematic literature review. For this reason, the author has selected related articles, from 1980 until 2011. Due to limitations in accessing all electronic sources the final articles reviewed reached the
Results and Discussion

Anxiety, depression and caregiving

Findings in different studies show an increase in levels of anxiety and depression to caregivers of both genders. Depression symptoms tend to show more often in cancer caregivers, but women have a higher prevalence of depression compared to men. Theoretically, high levels of anxiety to caregivers could be related to their concerns about the future, coping with a difficult situation, the fear of loss or fear of being alone, to the greater responsibility for children, to coping with unfamiliar tasks at home etc. (Strang & Koop, 2003). These are situational factors, which are perceived as stressors that affect the caregiving situation, as highlighted in the study of Coristine, Crooks, Grunfeld, Stonerbridge and Christie (2003). Anxiety is thought as an indicator of negative experiencing of caregiver burden and explains its negative impact on caregiver. However, anxiety can be perceived as a stressful factor, which affects the reactions of caregivers towards caregiving. According to Montgomery, Stull and Borgatta (1985) the direction of the causal link has not yet been found. Findings from different studies show that the psychological burden and that of relationships is more important than the physical one in a caregiving situation. The high level of anxiety may stem from the fact that most caregivers are attached to the patient, and therefore they experience the fear of losing them.

Payne, Smith and Dean (1999) reported that female caregivers experience higher levels in psychological morbidity and strain in the palliative phase. However, this finding is not confirmed in other studies (Grov, Dahl, Moum & Fossa, 2005). Other studies are focused in different types of cancer and cultural contexts. Grunfeld et al. (2003) found that caregivers of both genders show high anxiety and depression levels in late palliative phase and beginning of terminal phase. In the study of Grov Dahl, Moum and Fossa, (2005) male caregivers experienced more distress in their new role. One reason for that could be the higher possibility that female patients can have a metastasis in brain. Therefore, some vital cognitive and behavioral functions of them are damaged and this increases the difficulties to the caregivers, it is an extra burden. These stress levels should be taken into account from the health care personnel.

In another study, the stress process model was used (SPM), which includes some fields that can predict stress, like for example the context of caregiving, the demands of caregiving and the necessary resources. All these fields influence considerably the variance of primary stress. For example, in the caregiving context there are some indicators that predict role overload of the caregiver. Younger caregivers report feeling fatigue due to the caregiving tasks they have to do. Many studies highlight the possibility that young caregivers have competing responsibilities. In this case, the demands of caregiving conflict with other roles of individuals as raising children, full time job and other financial responsibilities (loan, cost of child rearing, health security, etc.). All these roles can trigger emotions of fatigue and emotional overload in young caregivers (Clipp & George, 1993). Similar findings came out in employed caregivers, whom due to the job demands felt trapped in their caregiving role.

The importance of competitive roles, especially for those caregivers who face challenges in different socio-economic aspects, might explain the effects of gender on experiencing primary subjective stress. Women more than men tended to show more often feelings of role captivity.

Income may be a buffer to stress, having a negative relationship with perceived role captivity. For caregivers of a low socio-economic status, the opportunity to meet some of the hardest demands of care (e.g. time lost from work) may not exist at all (Oberst, Gass & Ward, 1989).

The personal care that families provide to their relatives with cancer often has negative effects on the emotional distress of caregivers (Given et al., 1993). Another important impact of emotional stress of caregivers are their resources. For example, a multidimensional analysis shows that perceptions of social and emotional support from other family members and friends played an important role in assessing the relationship caregiver - patient (Gaugler et al., 2005).

In another study wellbeing or mental health of caregivers of patients with esophagus cancer was very low and much lower in comparison with caregivers of other patients (Mooney & McNeill, 2001). Caregivers of esophagus cancer have distress and tension levels comparable to those of caregivers of patients in palliative phase. Also, they reported that they experienced high levels of subjective strain, which is related to experienced emotions (and not so much "objective"strain, which relates to the physical demands of care) (Donelly et al., 2008).

Specific aspects of the profile of caregivers in cancer chemotherapy patients has emerged in a recent study. The ratio male: female was almost equal, indicating that beyond the traditional beliefs, the probability that a caregiver may be...
male was almost the same as for women. This inconsistency may be due to the cultural changes occurring in modern societies. Historically, caregiving has been attributed to women, but nowadays, where labor demands are the same for both genders, men need to spend a considerable amount of time to provide care. Beyond gender, a typical caregiver had an increase in psychosomatic symptoms observed (headache, morbidity, sleep disturbances, anxiety, depressed, fear and irritation) (Pellegrino et al., 2010).

Regarding the profiles of the caregivers, findings from Cipolletta, Shams, Tonello and Pruneddu (2011) resulted in three profiles. The first profile, where there were individuals that had received help from others, was dominated by women. These may have been the wife or daughter of a patient or they could have another kind of relationship with him. These women typically had high levels of depression and anxiety and a poor social network, because it was difficult for them to identify a single important person in their lives. In the second profile, which is characterized by low levels of anxiety and depression, caregivers had a high number of resources, and a dependency level focused mainly on the mother and patient than on the caregiver itself; that is why this was an unexpected profile. It is expected that caregivers should be based mainly on themselves, that is why this was a profile beyond expectations. However, trust in others, and mostly in mother, apparently made them feel less depressive and anxious. In the same study, a third profile of caregivers was characterized by low overall dependence and higher dependence from oneself. This can be an expected profile of caregivers. The high dependence on themselves allows caregivers to have greater confidence in their helping role, which prevented them from high levels of anxiety and depression.

Every field of caregiving experience can be explained by various factors, the total variance ranging from 11 - 46%. Negative experiences related to caregiving correlated with low income, living only with the patient, with an unsatisfactory relationship, with a high dependence to the patient and with a high involvement in the care tasks. Caregivers with a low educational level had greater appraisal for caregiving. Although caregiving can lead to depression, especially in those individuals that experience loss of physical strength, caregivers can maintain a satisfactory quality of life by raising their self – esteem due to the caregiving (Nijboer et al., 1999).

Chinese caregivers of cancer patients experience high levels of depression symptoms and were exposed to many factors related to care, as the characteristics of caregivers, patient’s distress, subjective burden of caregivers etc. Moreover, depressive symptoms where predictable by the demographic characteristics of caregivers as well as by their subjective burden, rather than by the patient situation or by objective burden of caregiving (Yang et al., 2011).

Depression in partners

Many studies have explored the level of depression in partners of caregivers. Anxious and avoidant attachment related to more symptoms of depression. The diagnosis of cancer in a partner can activate the attachment system. At this point, individuals attached to an anxious manner where more preoccupied with themselves and provided a non – emotional care. Moreover, because of the seriousness of the disease and the fear of death, these individuals became emotionally alert (Mikulincer & Florian, 2000). Anxious individuals are prone to chronic mourning after the loss due to fear of abandonment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Consequently, these individuals may have a greater tendency to experience depression when faced with cancer of their partners and their potential loss.

Individuals with an avoidant attachment style have less knowledge about how to support others and have less sense of trust in relationships. Also, they tend to distance themselves from partners in need and from signals of suffering. Avoidance strategies have been effective to reduce stress in neutral situations but not in a threatening and chronic context. Coping with advanced cancer of partners can make them feel confused, because of the awareness of a possible death and separation, which can result in a high-level depression.

On the other hand, problems in marital relationships (marital dissatisfaction) were an important contributor to the depression of caregivers or partners. Furthermore, marital dissatisfaction can sometimes be such a strong source of depression that can be compared to the objective burden of caregiving. Providing care to patients with advanced cancer requires not only the partner to be attuned to the needs of the patient, but also demands from the couple to interact in intimate and difficult situations. In such cases, it may be satisfying for someone to provide care to another individual with whom he/she has a satisfying relationship (Brown & Stetz, 1999).

The role of caregiving is relatively new for those who undertake it, compared to other roles they have (e. g. employee or parent) and providing care to cancer survivors demands a lot of effort. This is the reason why caregivers are a very vulnerable group in many aspects. Employed caregivers and those who care for children while also offering their services to cancer patients were more likely to experience psychological stress and had difficulty in finding the meaning of their new role as a caregiver of a cancer patient (Youngmee, Baker & Spillers, 2006).
Health related quality of life

Quality of life is a multidimensional concept that includes, but is not limited to, the status of the individual’s physical health, psychological wellbeing, social functioning and mental health. Quality of life is subjective, but many studies that use standardized questionnaires have shown that quality of life can be measured in a population of patients with cancer, but also that of their families and caregivers.

Quality of life is a term often used to refer to the general wellbeing of the individual; it is applied for many years in the field of caregiving. Studies conducted in Western countries have revealed factors related to quality of life during the period of caregiving for a cancer patient. They can be divided into four categories: (i) sociodemographic characteristics, (ii) the requirements of caregiving, (iii) available resources, psychological and social, and (iv) the caregiving situation (Lu et al., 2010).

Physical aspects of quality of life during caregiving include fatigue, sleep problems, lack of appetite and need for rest; there were reported in a study of women caregivers for patients with prostate cancer (Kornblith, Herr, Ofman, Scher, & Holland, 1994). Axelsson and Sjoden (1998) found that spouses suffered from insomnia and needed help to care for the hygiene and clothing of patients.

Psychological aspects in quality of life could include an emotional turmoil, stress, anxiety, nervousness, anger, worry about their husbands, destruction and depressive feelings. Vickery, Latchford, Hewison, Bellew, and Feber (2003) reported that levels of anxiety of partners of patients with cancer head and neck were on the border for clinical assessment for mental health problems, but on the other hand, their levels of depression were within the normal intervals. In a longitudinal study, Borneman et al. (2003) found that caregivers had psychological problems that deteriorated after palliative surgery.

Patients in advanced stages had low physical quality of life and their spouses had the lowest emotional quality of life. Poor emotional well-being of spouses in the advanced stages relates to the percent of caregivers that ask for help in mental health services; a reason for this may be the highest threat for life associated with the disease in these stages. Dyads in advanced stages reported more distress, which is linked to lower quality of life. Interestingly, patients who received hormonal therapy reported less social support compared to patients taking other kinds of therapies, perhaps due to lack of awareness of side effects by other people (e.g. low sexual desire, redness, etc.) (Northouse et al., 2007)

Conclusions

Cancer patients cope not only with their disease, but with many other difficulties. This is the case for their caregivers. Caregivers are individuals that have the duty or the satisfaction to offer care to a relative that suffers. Sometimes, it is not their choice. In many studies, caregiving is associated with high levels of distress, anxiety and symptoms of depression, which are not always related to the objective burden of caregiving, but to the subjective one. Caregiving also influences the perceived quality of life of caregivers. The continuous demands of caregiving can result in fatigue, sleep problems and a poor health. Further studies should be conducted in this field, especially in developing countries.

References


The Role of the Parents in Assisting Children with Autism

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Abstract: The study aims to identify the role of the parents in assisting children with autism (3-6 years old). The qualitative method was used in the study. Semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was the instrument for data collection. Data collections were made possible by interviewing 11 parents of children with ASD, who were outpatients and inpatients at National Centre for Growth, Development and Rehabilitation in Tirana, Albania. Through data analyses it came out that the assistance of parents towards children with autism consisted of the following: (i) every day services of personal care such as eating, washing, dressing, personal security, etc; (ii) socializing of the child in out of home environment as well as encouragement to participate in games and other activities with his/her peers; (iii) accompaniment of children in receiving services provided for them and implementation at home of specific tasks asked by the professionals; (iv) mothers are the ones bearing more responsibilities due to the fact that fathers are the main bread winners at home. In conclusion, it can be said that parents of the children with autism with their assistance have a very important role in facilitating and provision of important development and educational possibilities for these children.

Keywords: children with autism; role of parents;

1. Introduction

The role of the parents in assistance and treatment of children with autism is very important especially when bearing in mind the difficulties that these children have in behaviour and communication and when socially interacting. The assistance and continuous intervention of parents at home coordinated with other activities in development centers, kindergardens and schools, facilitate and provide important development and educational possibilities for these children. Parents are natural component of a child’s development and therefore every change of this role would not be correct. Their main aim is to assist in a optimal development of the child in a safe environment. Here, something is clear that in order for a child to move forward the role of the parents is irreplaceable. The role and assistance of the parents towards their children is affected by a number of factors. It is of importance to understand that the role of the parents differs from one culture to the other (Gopfert, Webster, & Seeman, 2004).

Understanding this role of parents as a social rol should be seen from various perspectives. The traditional models of parenting are focused in the basic care toward the child leaving aside many other indicators such as warmness, bahaviour, etc. Outside the basic needs the children have other needs and therefore it is very important that the parents fulfil them. Studies show that children have needs related to health, education, emotional and behavious development, capacities of selfcare, family and social relations, etc (Largo, 2000).

Presently, the role of the parents is considered very important for various areas of the development of the child such as stimulation, directions, etc. The parents need to understand their child and in order to get to this they should adapt themselves with the circumstances and demands of the child (Smith & Cowie, 1993). Children with autism should not be separated and locked up, but asisted and stimulated and this should be felt as part of them. The aim should be to teach the children to perform as many activitie in their life. This asks for patience, devotion and knowledge from their parents (Powers, 2000).

The parents hold different views regarding whether the child’s development depends on hereditary factors or their social impact (Largo, 2000). If they think that all future characteristics and capabilities of the child are inherited, they become fatalists, but even if the parents are of the opinion that the social environment in which children grow is the only deciding factor in his/her development then they take upon themselves a great responsibility. Inheritance and social environment are not opposites, they complement each other.
The development of a child is characterized by uniformity and variability. Each child is unique in his way (Largo, 2000). Parents rightly understand and with intuition the behaviour of their child. Personal experiences as a child play a crucial role besides intuition. The manner in which the parents have lived through their childhood and the relation they had with their parents affects their attitude. A child needs the help of the parents in order to have good development. A child grows better when parents suit to their needs (Jordan & Powell, 1995). Impacts or consequences of unfavorable living conditions and psychosocial neglect on children have been proven through numerous studies.

The role and support of parents towards the child can be affected by many factors such as marital conflict, stress, health problems, substance abuse, etc. These factors may lead to reduction of parental help to children (Gopfert, Webster, & Seeman, 2004). Given that parents of children with autism also lose their jobs and face economic difficulties, social problems, children with autism are seen as a stress for the family system. The capacity of the family to cope with this situation depends on family resources like money, the ability of parents to work with the child, their ability to solve problems, their attitude towards life and their religious faith. At the same time when other support networks such as friends, relatives, social service agencies exist, families have an easier time coping with this situation and therefore experience less stress.

Parents are forced to play many roles and perform many tasks and what is troubling is that an overload of a role or function may affect the fulfillment of other roles and therefore cause stress for parents (Boyece, Behl, Mortensen, & Akers, 1991).

Studies have shown that parents of children with disabilities experience high levels of stress and other problems of mental health due to intensive care that they show to their child, (Atkin & Ahmad, 2000; Hastings & Beck, 2004). Accordingly, another study by Eikler (1981) shows that single mothers are more stressed, are less likely to be employed and have greater need for financial, personal and social support.

Although, the majority of literature in this area focuses on the needs of children with autism, it should be noted that the needs of parents who care for these children are very important. The separation of services for children and adults makes the process of identifying their needs difficult, especially when parents attend their children's services (Small, 2004). Capacity building of parents is a very important element because the assistance they would offer to their children would be the best possible. Of course, assessing the needs of parents depends on many factors such as resources, philosophy, culture, development of services, etc. Every time that the parents interact with their children, they learn something from them, but the capacity for positive change in children is limited. Today, many parents of children with autism have taken individual initiatives to expand their knowledge, learn more in order to better help their children. Whereas other parents who are too busy with work, are becoming more aware that they should provide more opportunities for their children by being involved in the process themselves (Trevarthen, Aitken, Papoudi, & Robarts, 1996).

Identify the needs of parents with children with autism is a very important process because according to them, professionals and policymakers will be able to develop effective intervention strategies and policies to meet the needs and minimize the problems and difficulties with which they encounter while providing daily care (Reder & Lucey, 1995). Identifying the needs of parents with children with autism requires cooperation with professionals. Only cooperation will enable their needs to be clear and work with children with autism have the desired result.

In conclusion, we can say that parents have an irreplaceable role and impact on the overall development of children with autism. Today, despite numerous problems, a new phase has begun for children with autism, an phase in which parents and professionals work together with the aim of providing the most specialized assistance and creating greater opportunities for development for these children.

2. Research Methodology

The aim of the study was to identify the role of the parents in assisting children with autism (3-6 years old).

2.1 Method

The qualitative method was used in the study. Selection of method and instrument for data collection was carried out in compliance with the aim of the study.

2.2 Instrument

The instrument used in this study for data collection was the semi-structured interview with open-ended questions. The questions of the interview were developed based on the literature of the field as well as to the purpose of the study. In
order to group the information of the study the interview was made up of three sections, which included variables for
which I was interested. The use of descriptive questions was a very important element encouraging the collection of
qualitative data. Also, in order to create broader space to the participants in their responses the questions were of
reflective and building character.

2.3 Participants

Data collections were made possible by interviewing of 11 parents of children (3-6 years old) with ASD, who were
outpatients and inpatients at National Centre for Growth, Development and Rehabilitation of Children, Tirana, Albania.
Their selection and participation in this interview was conducted on the basis of certain criteria such as representation,
capacity to describe the phenomenon under study, area of residence and age of the child.

The interview process was conducted face to face, each of which lasted about an hour. Participants in the interview
were encouraged to speak freely and openly. Interviews were recorded to be analyzed later. Interviews of participants
were conducted in a suitable and comfortable environment at the National Centre for Growth, Development and
Rehabilitation of Children in Tirana. Consideration of ethical issues and the preservation of the identity of participants and
their children has been a priority of the study.

The study sample consisted of 10 mothers and 1 father. Data showed that the age of the sample participating in the
study ranged from 23-41 years. Marital status of all participants in the study was married. 8 of them were resident in the
urban areas, while the remaining 3 in the rural areas. 4 parents of children were outpatients whereas 7 others were
inpatients. With regards to their education status; 2 parents had university degrees, 7 parents were with secondary
education and 2 others with elementary education.

Parents involved in the study had in common the age of the child with autism (3-6 years). Of course, they had their
particular characteristics regarding age, residence, education, etc.

The process of collecting and processing data of the study was conducted in the period 01/10/2011-31/10/2011.

3. Findings and Discussion

The analyses of the interview process provided a clear picture about the role of parents in helping children with autism.
Criteria for the validity of these results were a very important element of the study. The validity of the findings consisted of
a cooperative relationship between the data and interpretive method.

Although, individual experiences of parents and their children involved in the study were unique, there was much in
common between them. Descriptions of parents are an important tool in order to analyze the tematics, similarities and
differences between them. Transcripts of the interviews are provided in order to support the interpretation of data and
examples.

Through data analyses which were made possible by interviewing 11 parents of children (3-6 years old) with autism,
who were outpatients and inpatients at National Centre for Growth, Development and Rehabilitation in Tirana, we found
that:

(i) The role of parents of children with autism consisted of daily assistance in terms of major personal services. Parents
stated that their help had to do with bathing, feeding, clothing, safety, etc. According to parents, children have difficulty in
achieving personal care services, so it is necessary to assist in carrying them out as well as in learning and performing as
many individual activities with the aim of being independent. Also these children can not concentrate, are in continuous
motion and indicate obliviousness to different situations or circumstances. These children need ongoing monitoring and
care of parents in terms of personal safety aspect, because, according to parent these children may be at risk at any
moment. Although, parents constantly insist on the implementation of guidelines, in most cases children with autism have
difficulty in understanding and therefore implementing these guidelines. Parents would spent a major proportion of their
time doing these activities with the child. To illustrate the qualitative data are some descriptions of parents.

This is what the mother of a 5 year old child says;
“My role as a mother has to do with the daily main activities how to feed, dress, wash, and be especially careful because
the unexpected may come from him. My child needs taken care of for everything".
Another mother says;
“As it is a child with problems, care for him is thorough and continuous, for everything. I can call it, total care”.

(ii) Data collected showed that in their daily activity parents of children with autism were focused in socialization activities for children. Parents attempted and tried to involve their children in activities with other children. According to them, children with autism do not like to be involved and participate in relations with children and other people. They show no interest in verbal communications. Also, they do not prefer to approach and play with their peers, and when they do, they do it for a very short moment. Another feature of them is the isolation or the desire to stay alone at home, and this they do often, and therefore parents encourage them to get out and stay with other children. Another aspect of the activity of the parents was the socialization and teaching of children with feelings of fear, because according to them in most cases the children do not know it. The parents wanted the child to be taught to operate both within the family environment, as well as out of it in an open environment.

This is what the father of 5.5 year old child says;
“I, myself dedicate a lot of time to my son. When I can, because I'm at work, I go out with him, I walk with him. My wife tries to engage him with other children although it is very difficult”.

Another mother says;
“Although my child cannot stay focused and finds it difficult to stay with other children, I try to teach him in an open environment. He prefers more to stay alone”.

(iii) Another activity carried out by the parents was participation of services offered to children with autism. According to them, this activity is very important not only for children because specialized treatment creates greater opportunities for development but also for them because it offers opportunities for more knowledge in this area hence a more suitable assistance for children at home. Parents would follow these services correctly, showing the maximum attention to the advice of specialists and would try to implement them. As this activity was taking considerable time and require great commitment, it would often leave other activities unfinished. Also, implementation at home of specific tasks given to them by the experts was a very important activity for them, but also very tedious, because it requires great concentration and extensive knowledge. Given the problems of these children, parents emphasized the lack of specialized services in areas where they lived, and the need for more services for children as well as for themselves.

Here’s how a mother responds;
“I have accompanied my child at the specialists. I listen carefully to everything you say. Then I try to implement them at home. Truth be told the other duties are often overlooked. However we are tired because this is every day”.

While another one stresses;
“I bring my child on regular basis to therapy. I try not to miss any days because the child needs it. Every day that passes does not come back”.

(iv) Data proves that mothers are those who spend more time with the child with autism. Mothers are occupied almost all the time with them, taking care of everything from basic care to the specialized one. Given the fact that mothers in most cases are unemployed as a result of the comprehensive care necessary for the child, it is the fathers who most of the time are occupied at work or other activities so as to ensure economic and financial income for the family. However, mothers stressed that fathers too when they return home and when they have the opportunity they deal constantly with the child.

This is what the mother of 4.5 year old boy says;
“I am the one dealing with the child almost singlehandedly. My husband is 90% of the day at work from morning till night because we have to eat. It is only on Sundays, his day off that my husband deals with him by going out”.

While another mother says;
“I deal with the child all day, because I'm at home whereas the husband works. He deals only in the evening when he comes home, but is more relaxed than I am”.

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The discussion on the results of the study takes into account many factors. It is important to understand that every parent has his/her own individuality and that each child is different. Of course, the differences between them are not only due to each individuality but also because of the environment, culture, resources, etc. The interaction among these factors brings about a better understanding of issues related to the role of parents in helping children with autism.

The above results reveal what studies in this field have stressed (Smith, & Cowie, 1993; Largo, 2000; Gopfert, Webster, & Seeman, 2004) that parents have a very important and irreplaceable role in assisting and development of children. The role consisted not only in daily personal care activities such as bathing, feeding, clothing, safety, etc, but also in other activities related with socialization, guidance, support, treatment, etc.

With regards to socialization activities, the results showed that more and more parents are involved in these activities so as to provide more opportunities for the children (Trevarthen, Aitken, Papoudi, & Robarts, 1996; Harris & Glasberg, 2003). Parents would stimulate the children in games and activities with other children. Suitability of the child with the external environment was very important for them.

The commitment and correctness of parents in the following of specialized services for child was accompanied by a desire to learn more in this area with the aim of extending appropriate assistance to the child at home. Despite positive developments in the treatment of children with autism, the lack of specialized services in many areas is still notable. The need for more services is not only for children but also for their parents.

The study showed that mothers are more involved than fathers in activities and time spent with the child. Mothers would spent almost all the time taking care of them, from basic care to specialized one. The role of the father is seen as the traditional role, that of providers of economic and financial income of the family. However, when possible even fathers would engage in activities with the child.

This discussion emphasizes once again, but in the context of the albanian reality what scientific studies in this field stress that parents have a very important and irreplaceable role in supporting and development of children with autism.

4. Concluding Remarks

In conclusion we can say that the parents of the children with autism with their assistance have a very important role in facilitating and provision of important development and educational possibilities for these children. Their role consisted in: (i) every day services of personal care such as eating, washing, dressing, personal security, etc; (ii) socializing of the child in out of home environment as well as encouragement to participate in games and other activities with his/her peers; (iii) accompaniment of children in receiving services provided for them and implementation at home of specific tasks asked by the professionals; (iv) mothers are the ones bearing more responsibilities due to the fact that fathers are the main bread winners at home.

I think that some proposals may be necessary to increase efficiency and further develop the role of parents in helping children with autism in the future, so for example; greater support and assistance to parents by experts, training of parents with individual and specific programs for their children, greater participation and involvement of the parents in this process, establishment of support programs for parents, establishment closer collaborative relations among parents and professionals, greater participation of fathers in activities with children, establishment of new services not only for children but also for parents, and provision of extension services in as many cities, etc.

This study is a first attempt to answer the issues raised concerning the role of parents in helping children with autism, and it needs to be followed by other studies. In order to achieve this it is neccessary the work and dedication and greater cooperation of professionals who operate in this field.

References

Altruism and Social Learning in Kuwait; an Analysis of Gender Differences

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Abstract

Our paper aims to identify the gender differences in helping behavior. It also seeks to explore how gender roles and prescribed norms affect the kind of helping behavior displayed by men and women in Kuwait, a collectivist society. In addition, we examine how altruism is related to the social learning theory and the effects of media as a major component of social learning. Authors explored whether altruistic behavior is impacted by observing others perform helping behavior. The Rushton et al. "Self-Report Altruism" scale was used to gather this information. We distributed 652 surveys to respondents between the ages of 18-33 living in Kuwait. The main findings concluded that males living in Kuwait are more altruistic than females and as both males and females get older, they tend to help more. Furthermore, the results show that there is a strong correlation between the social theory and altruistic behaviors. In Kuwait, both culture and religion emphasize that men are expected to provide help both at home and work, whereas women are only expected to provide help at home.

Altruism

Being kind to others and outwardly performing acts of kindness is universally considered to be ethical. Whether one chooses to perform an act of kindness; however, is contingent on many variables: the nature of the relationship, need for help, and sense of responsibility to help the beneficiary amongst other factors (Meissner, 2003). A set of criteria can be used to define altruism:

“Altruistic behavior (a) must benefit another person, (b) must be performed voluntarily, (c) must be performed intentionally, (d) the benefit must be the goal by itself, and (e) must be performed without expecting any external reward” (Piliavin & Charng, 1990, p. 30).

Still, many others disagree. Some theorize that there is no true sense of altruism, that any act of kindness can inevitably be traced back to self-interest and the satisfying one’s own ego. These two divergent views are framing modern inquiry into the study of altruism. According to Emmerik and Jawahar (2005), helping behaviors are "activities entailing more commitment than spontaneous assistance in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, organization or cause" (p. 347). There are two types of helping behaviors. The first type is helping that happens within one’s own group such as friends, relatives and close neighbors, also called organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

"Helping behaviors differ on two dimensions, the familiarity with recipient and moral obligation” (p. 349).

In other words, an individual would filter out whom they would help, inclining more towards people to whom they connect with or to someone they feel truly requires assistance. It is also common to volunteer for a cause that personally affects the individual rather than something they know nothing about. For example, a recovering alcoholic is more empathetic towards someone going through the same situation and is more likely to volunteer as a sponsor to help with problems he experienced earlier. Similarly, a parent would be keener to help a relative or a friend when a situation related to child rearing arises.

Still, despite a vast landscape of inquiry into altruism in the fields of psychology and sociology, scholars have struggled with the best empirical and methodological approaches to study the subject. The field of inquiry now has moved away from merely a philosophical debate to one that centers upon the origins of altruism. One of the challenges is trying to understand if altruism is merely a character trait that is learnt behavior or a genetic predisposition hard wired into one’s genetic code (Losco, 1996; Meissner, 2003). Inherent forms of altruism are generally classified as autonomous altruism and normative altruism is based on social learning and conformity (Skarin & Moely, 1976).

Scholars subscribing to the autonomous paradigm posit that altruism is linked not only to evolutionary traits but also to human nature. The idea being that one can be as concerned with others as individuals are concerned with themselves, underscoring a strong human propensity for compassion (Meissner, 2003). One point of view on the derivation of altruism is rooted in the Judeo-Christian idea of the Golden Rule, which states that one should love others as one loves oneself (Meissner, 2003). However, this idea of being a Good Samaritan is still grounded in the tenets of the social learning...
theory, as these religious ideas need to be transmitted through social religious settings such as attending church or through Bible study classes.

Several studies have found that altruistic expression was less about being a Good Samaritan but was often times linked to amendments for wrongdoing (reparative altruism). This approach routinely aligns altruism with guilt and adherence to social norms frequently involving trial and success until optimal or acceptable altruistic behavior was adopted. To this end, investigations have found that altruism can at times rise out of private situations outside of group or public displays, leading some to wonder how much of altruism as social learning is in fact conformity to group norms (Losco, 1996). Conversely, the limit here is perhaps a lack of understanding that social learning may be at work outside of group situations once it has been adopted. For example, one may choose to eat with a knife and fork, and with a napkin placed in their lap, even though they are eating home alone, when adhering to proper etiquette can be precluded altogether outside a group dining setting.

Another challenge is that individual differences need to be factored in any time an experiment is conducted into altruism. Many studies emphasize external forces and often times mitigate the individual differences of subjects in the experiments (Losco, 1996). Still, despite these individual differences studies show that altruistic tendencies and behavior increases as we age (Meisner, 2003).

Altruism, Age and Gender

Research findings suggest that just other factors change and develop as children age, so too does the understanding and expression of altruism. Many of these variables are linked to cognitive development and the constant assessment of child’s own judgment of morality. So the expression of altruism will become stronger as a child grows and cements moral judgments. Data however doesn’t just place the construction of altruism solely on cognitive development; it further stresses that there is a compounding effect of both cognitive development and socialization processes on altruism (Skarin & Moely, 1976; Losco, 1996). As the child grows and develops higher cognitive function, they rely on models upon which to base their actions.

“As children grow up, their altruism may be increased because of growing empathic sensitivity, greater ability in perspective-taking, broader knowledge of cultural norms, increased social responsibility and competence, or enhanced moral reasoning capabilities.” (Piliavin & Charng, 1990, p. 38)

Males are socialized to be competitive and assertive, while female are socialized to be caring, subservient and dependent. Females conform with the role of care provider who fulfills a function that is contradictory to the male role. Some studies propose females may be socialized to be more in tune to the emotions of others more so than men are (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987; Skarin & Moely, 1976).

In a sample of 11 studies on gender and empathy, the results were comparable across the collection of data. What the research showed was that females consistently scored higher on the empathy scale (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1987). In a field experiment conducted on children ranging from ages 5 to 12, the females in the trial demonstrated the highest levels of altruism. The significance of the findings signify that females are conditioned to be caregivers and so are more likely to help other children needing help and males are socialized to be competitive so are less likely to assist. The only noted exception being, females were less likely to help if the altruistic act was one of physical aid directed toward the males, as this was seen as inconsistent with the female gender role (Skarin & Moely, 1976).

Piliavin & Unger (1985) found different results: Looking at a sample of adults, their data indicated that men and women were equally likely to engage in altruistic behavior. The only difference noted is that women would most likely engage in altruism in low-level scenarios in addition to high-level, whereas men generally only acted in high-level scenarios. This disparity again was attributed to gender roles where females reported more often providing emotional support and counseling to friends, while men tended to indicate only lending aid when the action was more high risk or protection was needed (Piliavin & Charng, 1990). Still, overall, women in the literature were more likely to engage in altruistic behavior than men.

Social Learning Theory

Baldwin et al. (2004) contends that the social learning theory is behavior that one learns from observing those around them. This observation however is not limited to personal interaction and oftentimes includes mediated messages from both television and movies. Albert Bandura first developed the theory in the 1960’s. He proposed that both adults and children learn through the process of observation (Baldwin, 2004; DeFleur, 2004).
The paradigm emphasizes that media acts upon individuals. Adults and children learn acceptable behavior through consumption of these media messages. Therefore behavior is not only learnt or modeled but rather it is adopted (Baldwin, 2004).

The theory, initially applied to the subject of learnt violent behavior, was subsequently extrapolated from aggression to other types of learnt behavior. Bandura posits that in a social setting behavior was learnt and adopted by simply watching others and seeing their behavior as positive (DeFleur, 2010). By observing or by consuming mass media, the social learning theory would conclude that trial and error could be circumvented, and through observation and then adoption of appropriate behavior, one assimilates positive social behaviors. Social learning then could be constructed on a myriad of behaviors from how to dress, how to speak, how to act and suitable gender behavior for both male and females (Severin, 2001).

Bandura attempted to demonstrate the media effect of leaned violent behavior with an experiment on children. In the pioneering experiment, the Stanford University psychologist placed preschool children in a room and made them observe a video of adults hitting a plastic blow-up clown—Bobo; while another group of children watched the clown being hugged. The children were then placed into the room with Bobo shortly after viewing the video. The kids then modeled the behavior demonstrated in the video: The ones who had seen the violent video began hitting the doll in a similar manner to the mediated message. Furthermore, the children elevated the violent behavior by picking up toys strewn throughout the room and hitting the doll with these other instruments in a manner more severe than what was demonstrated in the video. Conversely, the kids who viewed the video of the clown being hugged also duplicated the behavior they had observed (Dominick, 2009; Rubinstein, 1978; Baldwin, 2004).

An interesting twist in the area of social learning theory is how much of social learning is actually conformity. Nicolas Claidière and Andrew Whiten (2012) studied conformity and its relationship with social learning. Conformity is defined as that “behavior (that) is said to conform when an individual in a group displays behavior because it is the most frequent the individual witnessed in others” (p. 129). Looking at an experiment by Solomon Asch in 1955, Claidière and Whiten found that often times in experiments respondents are unwilling to voice a dissenting opinion in a group setting even when they know they are right. Once they learn what behavior is appropriate they are routinely unwilling to diverge from this action.

The social learning theory is then much more than just learning through observation of friends, peers and media, but many individuals are conforming to group norms because they do not see their action or behavior as an individual choice. While social learning is mainly about acquiring new knowledge and demonstrating this through action, oftentimes conformity is illustrating action that we have already learnt is appropriate. For example, if altruistic behaviors were acquired through social learning, then conformity would require an individual to demonstrate such behavior when the situation requires helping action. Several factors are listed as necessary for the conformity to occur: An individual "(a) has to choose between several alternative behaviors, (b) chooses the one displayed by a majority of other individuals, and (c) does so because it is the option chosen by the majority and not for alternative reasons." (p. 128)

In 1984, a researcher at Kuwait University replicated Asch’s original study using cards and a group of actors (confederates), whose role was to mislead deliberately respondents by providing erroneous answers, in order to judge group influence on responses. The aim of the Kuwait experiment was to see if there would be a strong tendency for Kuwaiti undergraduates to conform to group norms and to see how conformity in Kuwait would rank compared to previous experiments conducted in other cultures. Many other studies had found little conformity (Amir, 1984) with many investigators concluding that the culture must play a heavy hand in conformity. For example, Asch’s original experiment took place during McCarthyism, where conformity to group norms was especially high; and so effectively many subsequent experiments, didn’t find the same effects Asch did. However, the recent Kuwait experiment was different. When the experiment was replicated here, results found that Kuwaiti students had a powerful propensity toward conformity. The results were comparable to the original Asch study in 1950’s USA. This study reinforced several researchers claim that Kuwait’s cultural makeup plays a strong role in conformity to group norms (Amir, 1984) and avoiding alternative choices. We can surmise then that social learning is a strong force in the culture of Kuwait for acquiring norms such as altruism.

Cultural Background

Kuwait is a Middle Eastern country bordering Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and the Persian Gulf. Kuwait is a collectivist society where family, religion, and tradition are highly emphasized. Kuwait is predominantly an Islamic country with more than 80 percent of the total population being Muslim (The CIA World Factbook). The rest of the population includes, amongst others, Christians and Hindus. In Islam, altruism is highly emphasized and because Kuwait has a high Muslim population, in addition to its strong collectivist nature, society generally emphasizes and encourages altruistic acts. In 2005, Kuwaiti
women finally received full political rights, which led some women to participate in the electoral process, including running for parliament and voting (The CIA World Factbook).

Media in Kuwait

Kuwait has some of the most liberal media laws in the Persian Gulf and in all of the Middle East. The Kuwaiti constitution guarantees freedom of the press and freedom of expression, as long as disparaging remarks about Islam and libelous statements about the His Highness the Emir of Kuwait and the Crown Prince are avoided. More than 78.3% of the Kuwaiti population report listening to the radio and 46% watch TV regularly. With Kuwait having close to an 80% literacy rate, local newspapers, overwhelmingly in Arabic, still are the dominate source of information in the country despite widespread access to the Internet and to foreign satellite television. Most of Kuwait’s TV and radio have been historically controlled through the Kuwait News Agency (KUNA), a branch of the Ministry of Information. KUNA also provides significant local news content to newspapers (pressreference.com & reporterswithoutborders.com). In 2006, Kuwait liberalized its publication laws and opened its doors to new newspapers and radio and TV broadcasting stations. In addition to traditional and foreign media, black market access to satellite, DVDs and CDs are mainstays in the media landscape of Kuwait, largely due to government censorship (Wheeler, 2000).

Despite the proliferation of western foreign media, both legal and illegal, one study observed foreign media could be used for social learning. For example, in one study a Kuwaiti respondent said the best way for her children to understand and learn Kuwaiti traditions was to watch foreign programs with them and explain Kuwaiti customs when American/Western traditions were on display. By this method, traditional values and customs are transmitted through social learning theory processes and the discourse of mediated messages (Wheeler, 2000). If this same process is also applied to TV and radio consumption of local Arabic media, then we can assume that social learning is occurring through the transmission of media, as parents use the opportunity of watching television to explain traditional customs and values to their children.

Religion in Kuwait

In Kuwait, Islam is the main religion, which has a big role in helping behaviors. In the country, a predominantly Islamic society, both genders are brought up with the idea that helping others will erase their sins in a somewhat karmic fashion (Çetin, 2006). For example, when a person does something that Islam prohibits, such as lying, giving to charity or helping a poor family may assist in erasing that sin. This is a way for the person to feel that society, and God, will excuse their ill behavior. We assert that this may be one of the underlying reasons for altruism in Kuwait (Çetin, 2006).

Gender in Kuwait

The interplay between family, tradition, and religion plays an important role in defining gender role. In Kuwait, males and females act in a certain way in order to gain acceptance in the society. Gender roles in Kuwait do not “only indicate specific roles for men and women to adopt, but also shape cultural and religious beliefs that structure men’s and women’s rights, access to resources, and mobility in society” (Torstrick & Faier, 2009, p. 112).

With respect to altruism, it is the norm that males will usually display altruistic behavior towards strangers, in addition to family members. “Men are expected to provide for the family and make major household decisions as well as those pertaining to children” (Torstrick & Faier 2009, p. 112). Their role is to stop and assist a person with a flat tire, or a person being attacked on the street. If a man doesn’t assist the family, or in some cases the entire household, financially he is viewed as irresponsible. In Kuwait, families usually live in the husband’s family house with extended family members (Torstrick & Faier, 2009) and the males are expected to provide financial aid for relatives in need. Conversely, females are most likely to display altruistic behavior to family members or in indoor situations. For example, if a woman doesn’t help with the household, this is considered disrespectful to the family and she will be criticized. In Kuwait, women are perceived as “weak…and that women’s virtue must be protected” (Torstrick & Faier, 2009, p. 112). Thus the differences in the ways males and females are raised and treated within society defines the ways both will display altruistic behavior within that society.

In this paper, we will be focusing on the following hypotheses:
1. Men will exhibit helping behavior more than women will.
2. A female will less likely offer help to a male.
3. Helping behaviors increase with age.
4. Gender roles will determine the type of help offered by the individual.

Methodology

We conducted our research by distributing the Self-Report Altruism questionnaire equally between both genders. The Self-Report Altruism Questionnaire consists of 20-items designed to examine different types of altruistic behavior (Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981). Participants were asked to rate the recurrence of their altruistic behavior using the categories 'Never,' 'Once,' 'More than Once,' 'Often,' and 'Very Often.'

In this study, we randomly selected the respondents with equal numbers of males and females in our sample. The questionnaire was given to a group of university students who were trained and supervised by the research team. The survey was distributed to ages 18-33. Many surveys were distributed in universities, companies and shopping malls.

Results

A total of 652 adults completed the Self-Report Altruism Scale. The sample size by age and gender is depicted in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-29</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>652</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Final sample size by age and gender.

The Self-Report Altruism Scale yields scores ranging from 20 to 100. These scores were analyzed using a 4 x 2 factorial analysis of variance with age (18-22, 22-25, 26-29, and 30-33) and gender (male, female) as between-subjects factors. As anticipated, this analysis found a significant effect of age on these a scores, F (3, 644) = 8.18, p<001; a significant effect of gender, F (1, 644) = 5.3, p<.05; and no interaction, F (3, 644) = 0.35, p = n.s. These results are depicted in Figure 1.

As illustrated in Figure 1, age was a defining variable in respondents’ disposition toward performing altruism acts. There was a marked increase in the altruism scale scores from those 18 to 21 to those who identified as 30 to 33. While there wasn’t a strong surge between each age group, the growth on the altruism scale increases incrementally with each higher age category. The results show a consistent increase on the scale, with the age of the respondents in our sample, demonstrating a substantial correlation with age and altruism.

Furthermore, when examined by gender our findings indicate that males tended to score higher on the altruism scale than females. This phenomenon was consistent and was observed in all age groups across our sample. Males in all age categories outscored females in the self-reported altruism scale, with the most marked difference observed with males and females 18 to 21. Given the lack of data specific to culture in our research, we can only hypothesize that perhaps as the students enter university stringent attitudes toward gender roles within the culture are broken down with each successive university year and exposure to academic ideas and classmates outside their usual socialization routes. However, given the limited amount of university students in older categories in our sample (98) we would need balanced sample sizes across age categories to draw stronger rationales for the disparity in gender.

Nevertheless, none of this diminishes the overall trends, which cogently demonstrate that no matter the variables, males of any age group are reporting higher levels of altruistic behavior and attitudes than females. In summary, our findings prove that males in our sample tend to gravitate toward altruism more so than females and that older subjects are more likely to score higher on the altruism scale than those who are 18 to 21, remaining consistent with our original hypothesis.
Discussion

As predicted, the males in our sample were more altruistic than the female respondents. These results are contrary to the data found in western countries where numerous studies have shown that females tend to have a higher propensity toward acts of selflessness than males (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1997; Piliavin & Charng, 1990; Skarin & Moely, 1976). In those investigations, it was reported that women are socialized to be primary caregivers in western societies and this conditioning translates to acts of altruism because of the social desirability in those cultures for women to be primary helpers (Skarin and Moely, 1976). This is generally true in Kuwait as well, where women are the primary caregivers and men are the primary breadwinners (Torstrick & Faier, 2009). However, due to Kuwait being a more conservative society that does not allow women to help outside the realm of their home and extended family, we see a strong tendency for males to engage in more altruistic behaviors, especially outside of the home and with strangers. This would be especially true since the survey items were tailored to reflect altruism tendencies in the west by asking questions such as: “I have given a stranger a lift in my car” and “I have made change for a stranger.” The behavior displayed in the situations presented in the survey questions would be considered taboo for females in a conservative Middle Eastern society.

In our research however, we found that social desirability toward altruism is culturally directed toward men. Due to the strict traditional gender roles and gender segregation, women are not often expected to come to a person’s aid outside of the immediate household. Men on the other hand, are conditioned through social learning processes to engage in altruistic behavior. As discussed previously, Kuwait is a patriarchal society where men are expected to be the breadwinners and to be the ones who have to help extended family members (Torstrick & Faier, 2009). This duty is largely attributed to the collectivist nature of Kuwait, where aiding others is part of the sense of obligation to traditional values and norms. For example, a man may be willing to stop and help a stranger with a flat tire on the street while it is inappropriate for a woman to do the same. Similarly, a woman’s duty may include helping in the home but it’s not generally expected that she aid outside the home as her husband would. It’s more acceptable for a man to offer aid outside of his familial role. By contrast, in western society, women often aid outside of their homes because their role as care provider often translates outside of the household (Eisenberg & Strayer, 1997; Skarin and Moely, 1976). However, our data demonstrates that this luxury only extends to the men in Kuwait. Moreover, the collectivist culture dictates that males are often mandated to live up to reputational, societal and familial expectations. As a result of these factors, we deduce that these strict gender roles are what account for the disparity in Arab females’ altruistic behavior compared to their western counterparts in our sample, and higher reporting of altruism behavior among the men.

Another result we found is that both males and females become more altruistic as they grow older. This is consistent with findings of similar studies conducted in the west. We believe that the reasons behind this are the same examples provided by Piliavin & Charng: as children grow older, they learn expected behavior from their parents, peers and media. These agents of socialization act in accordance with the social learning theory, which says that societal forces condition both males and females to their roles in society (Baldwin, 2004; DeFleur, 2010). While one school of altruism says that perhaps helping behavior is inherent, the differences between females in our study and those in western studies would refute this idea (Skarin & Moely, 1976). However, in line with the innate argument for altruism, we see an increase
in levels of altruistic behavior as age and social experiences increase and gender roles and cognitive maturity crystallizes. Perhaps with age also comes an increase in cognitive abilities and a person rationalizes their behavior to offer aid (Skarin and Moely, 1976; Losco, 1976).

Even though some of the rigidity of Kuwait’s culture is slowly being diluted with the effect of globalization and western media imperialism, Kuwait is still a fairly conservative society that abides by rules and regulations set by the social learning: education, culture, family, religion and media. Males are continuing to see their roles as the primary helpers in and out of the home, with the existing social learning process, it seems unlikely that we will observe any decaying of this role in the foreseeable future.

Limitations and Future Research

The study had, and lacked, information that might have affected our results, such as the survey makeup. The survey was more western-centric; in other words, the questions that were asked focused on what western women would do, such as offering a stranger a ride. However, females in Kuwait feel it is oftentimes inappropriate to offer physical aid to strangers. Another theory is perhaps social learning of religious traditions says women should limit their interactions with strange men, so perhaps males are helping both genders and women are reporting less helping behavior because they are helping other women primarily. The gender of those being helped would have to be measured. A follow-up investigation would have to be initiated to determine why women and men help and why they don’t help, to understand the social learning processes that encourage or discourage people in Kuwait from altruistic behavior. Moreover, variables such as media, parents, and peers could be examined independently to gauge the contribution of each agent on altruistic behavior.

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Math Learning Disabilities (MLD) and Teaching Students with MLD

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Abstract Mostly of students have difficulties in mathematics but some of them are born with those problems and are classify at the group of students with Math Learning Disabilities. This paper will give definition of MLD, types of dyscalculia, factors that cause it like: heredity, problems during pregnancy and birth, incidents after birth etc, and will give some strategies that are used for teaching students with Math Learning Disabilities. Some of those strategies are: involve students in Goal-Setting, Provide Advance Organizer, model strategic Behavior and Thinking, reinforce strategy application through Feedback, Relationships and Rules, Mnemonic Strategies, giving MLD students homework etc. This mean that, even that LD is lifelong issue, if parents and others professionals discover a child’s learning disability early and provide the right kind of help, it can give the child a chance to develop skills needed to lead a successful and productive life.

Key-words Learning Disability (LD), Math Learning Disability (MLD), Dyslexia, Dyscalculia, Dysgraphia.

1. Learning Disability definition, symptoms and factors that cause it

1.1. Learning Disability(LD)- general definition

Learning Disabilities, as opposed to other disabilities such as vision impairment or paralysis, are invisible- or considered a hidden handicap. For this reason they tend to be misunderstood and their impact underestimated. Because learning disabilities cannot be seen, they often go undetected.

Recognizing a learning disabilities is even more difficult because they severity and characteristics vary. Learning disabilities vary from person to person. One person with LD may not have the same kind of learning problems as other person with LD.

LD is neurobiological disorder that affects the brain’s ability to receive, process, store, express, and respond to information. With LD a person's brain works or is structured differently to think and remember. Learning disabilities can affect a person’s ability to speak, listen, read, write, spell, reason, recall, organize information and calculate. It is important to be shown that persons with LD are not “lazy” or “dumb”. In fact, they usually have average or above average intelligence often they fall within the range of “gifted”. Their brains just process information differently.

Since 1976, the number of students identified with LD has more than doubled; there are 3 boys for every 1 girl challenged by LD (Garett, 1998).

1.1.1 Common Learning Disabilities

Dyslexia- a language based disability; in which a person has trouble understanding words, sentences, or paragraphs.

Dyscalculia- a mathematical disability in which a person has a difficult time solving arithmetic problems and grasping math concepts.

Dysgraphia- a writing disability in which finds it hard to form letters or write within a defined space.

1.1.2 Math Learning Disabilities definition

The concept of dyscalculia is less well known. This article describe this term. Individuals display a mathematics disability when their performance on standardized calculation tests or on numerical reasoning tasks is significantly depressed, given their age, education and intellectual reasoning ability (Mental Disorders IV (DSM IV)). When this loss of ability to calculate is due to cerebral trauma, the condition is called acalculia or acquired dyscalculia. Mathematical learning difficult that share features with acquired dyscalculia but without evidence of cerebral trauma are referred to as developmental dyscalculia (Haughes, Kolstad and Briggs, 1994). The focus of this review is on developmental dyscalculia (DD). Students who show DD have difficulty recalling number facts and completing numerical calculations. They also show chronic difficulties with numerical processing skills such recognizing number symbols,
writing numbers or naming written numerals and applying procedures correctly ((Gordon, 1992). They may have low self efficacy and selective attention difficulties (Gross Tsur, Auerbach, Manor & Shalve, 1996))

Not all students who display low mathematics achievement have DD. Mathematics underachievement can be to a range of causes, for example, lack of motivation or interest in learning mathematics, low self efficacy, high anxiety, and inappropriate earlier teaching or poor school attendance. It can also be due to generalized poor learning capacity, immature general ability, severe language disorders or sensory processing. Underachievement due to DD has a neuropsychological foundation. The students lack particular strategies necessary for acquiring and using arithmetic knowledge. They can learn successfully in most contexts and have relevant general language and sensory processing. They also have access to a curriculum from which their peers learn successfully.

Types of dyscalculia.- In order to discuss the types of dyscalculia that have been reported, it is useful to examine the areas of activity in which individuals completing an arithmetic task need to engage. As a first approximation, pupils need to manipulate the numerical information defining the task in the following ways; they need to:

1. read the data defining the task; this includes naming correctly each arithmetic symbol, including multi digit numbers, comprehending or retrieving its meaning, combining the meanings in the intended ways and discriminating relevant from irrelevant data,
2. decide what the acceptable outcome will be like,
3. link the task with earlier learning,
4. recall and apply appropriate procedures to the data given,
5. recall particular number facts,
6. manage, plan, monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of their efforts, and if these are judged to have been unsuccessful, to rework the task.

In a landmark article, Kosc (1974) identified six types of DD. Subsequent investigators, for example, Rosselli and Ardila (1997), have validated them. These types are:

• a difficulty using mathematical concepts in oral language, talking about mathematical relationships sensibly (verbal dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); aphasic acalculia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)). Kosc noted two aspects of this type of dyscalculia: a difficulty (1) identifying spoken numerals (although the individuals could read the numerals, and (2) recalling the name of a quantity (although they could read and write the number).
• difficulty manipulating concrete materials, or enumerating a quantity. The difficulty here seemed to involve converting one’s arithmetic knowledge to actions or procedures in relation to quantities (practognostic dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); spatial acalculia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)).
• a difficulty reading mathematics symbols such as numerals (lexical dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); alexic acalculia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)). Students with this difficulty can talk about mathematics ideas and comprehend them in oral discussion but have difficulty reading both individual symbols and number sentences.
• a difficulty writing mathematics symbols: (graphical dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); agraphic acalculia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)). Students can comprehend mathematics ideas in oral discussion and can read numerical information but have difficulty writing their understanding in math’s symbolism.
• a difficulty understanding math’s ideas and relationships; (ideognostic dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); anarithmetia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)).
• a difficulty performing specified mathematical operations; (operational dyscalculia, Kosc (1974); frontal acalculia, Rosselli & Ardila (1997)).

Any one student does not necessarily show all areas of difficulty. Any of the six types may occur, either in isolation or in combination.

1.2 Symptoms and factors that cause math learning disability

1.2.1 Symptoms (characteristics)
There are wide varieties of characteristics a student with a math learning disability may display. Some examples are: Does not remember and/or retrieve math facts; does not use visual imagery effectively; has a visual-spatial deficit; is confused with math operations especially multi-step processes; and has a difficulty in language processing that may affect the ability to complete math problem solving.

Note: Students with LD may also show signs of anxiety or anger, due to stress caused by their inability to learn at a pace similar to their peers. In addition, learning disabled students tend to be forgetful, unorganized, and have difficulty maintaining a schedule.

1.2.2 Factors that cause it

There is no single proven cause for a learning disability. Sometimes, there are many factors working together, other times the cause is entirely unknown.

The three general categories of causation can be classified as:

1) Heredity,
2) Problems during pregnancy and birth,
3) Incidents after birth.

2. Strategies for teaching MLD students

There is a range of math difficulties that students with learning disabilities can experience. Some students have difficulty with mathematical problem solving, or the kind of thinking needed to work out mathematics problems. Students who have difficulties with sustaining attention may jump around and not perform the problem in a linear or organized method. For that the teacher is the primary person that helps students to exceed those difficulties.

At the teaching process it is important to keep student's attention. For that teacher should:
- Call upon students at random to read from books or to carry out examples on the chalkboard. This will force them to closely follow along, not knowing when their attention will be tested.

Note: Teachers should never set out to embarrass students by calling on them to read difficult passages or asking them to work a problem that they are clearly unable to do; further embarrassment and frustration might ensue and is clearly not a desirable result.
- Use students' names in examples during lectures. Hearing one's own name or a fellow student's name called and/or referred to, can immediately bring a student's attention back to the lesson.
- Move around the classroom to draw their student's attention. This action will prove to show that when the teacher is more involved with their students, they will find that their students are paying closer attention to the lesson at hand. Mobility around the classroom can also give the teacher a chance to see if the students are following along and/or taking appropriate notes.

Teaching students to use specific strategies help them learn how to approach mathematical tasks in a logical manner. We will give some of those strategies like:

2.1. Involve students in Goal-Setting

It is important that teachers seek ways to help students become more proactive and involved in planning their academic program. Certainly, one way to do so is to involve students in establishing math goals. The teacher's primary role in the goal-setting process is to make sure that the goals are high enough, yet realistic for the student to achieve. Figure 1 (Susan P. Miller, Sherri Strawser & Cecil D. Mercer) lists suggestions for implementing a goal-setting conference.

Figure 1. Goal-Setting Conference Suggestions

- Allow adequate time for the goal-setting conference (e.g., 10 to 15 minutes).
- Arrange to conference with students in a place that does not permit others to overhear.
- Encourage students to do most of the talking, that is, LISTEN!
- Begin the session by guiding students through a self-evaluation of their progress.
- Listen to students' ideas without interruptions or judgmental comments.
• If necessary, lead the students to revise their goals realistically by asking open-ended questions.
• Encourage students to set goals in skills at the acquisition, proficiency, and maintenance levels of learning. Students may refer to these goals as easy, average, and difficult goals.
• Record the results of the conference and provide copies for students. You may wish to develop a form for the conference that has space to record:
  the time frame for the goals self-evaluation of progress in “easy” skills self-evaluation of progress in “average” skills self-evaluation of progress in “difficult” skills amount of time spent working on each skill prerequisite skills that they did not have goals for “easy, average, and difficult” skills amount of time they plan to work on each skill.

2.2. Provide Advance Organizers

Advance organizers provided at the beginning of a math lesson help students prepare for instruction. Typically, a verbal advance organizer tells the student what the lesson is going to be about, provides a rationale for learning the content, and ties the current lesson to previous learning. Advance organizers also can include prompts and cues for the student to use particular math strategies. Sample verbal advance organizers are presented in Table 1 (Susan P. Miller, Sherri Strawser & Cecil D. Mercer).

Sample Advance Organizers

“Remember yesterday when we learned to multiply using plates and bingo chips? Well, today we are going to learn how to multiply using plates and cubes. The problems will be the same type we did yesterday, so I know you'll be successful. Who can tell me about the adding-on strategy that we learned to save us time? . . . Good remembering! We'll use that strategy again today. Who remembers why it is important to learn to multiply? . . . Yes, those are good reasons.”

2.3. Model Strategic Behavior and Thinking

Modeling is used frequently in mathematics instruction to show students how to perform a variety of algorithms. Specifically, the teacher writes a problem on the chalk board and then proceeds to solve it while the students watch. Modeling also can be used to show students how to use strategies that help them solve unknown problems. Modeling of this type involves showing students the strategy and letting them hear the related cognitive processes by “thinking aloud.” In other words, the teacher demonstrates the steps to the strategy while verbalizing the related thinking.

2.4. Reinforce strategy application through Feedback

Once students have learned a new math strategy, it is important to reinforce the use of the strategy. Elaborated feedback routines are excellent opportunities for teachers to provide prompts or necessary reteaching when students fail to use a strategy and, consequently, make errors on their math work. Feedback routines are also useful for reinforcing students who used a strategy successfully and thus figured out some difficult problems. Figure 2 (Susan P. Miller, Sherri Strawser & Cecil D. Mercer) illustrates this process.

Examples of Strategy Use and Feedback

• Make at least one positive statement about the student's work, thinking pattern, or effort.
  “I am very proud that you worked on your math for the whole independent work period today... Good job!”
• Specify the student's error pattern by focusing on the type or content of the error. Avoid using the word "you."
  "When zero is added to any number, the answer is the number” instead of “For most of these problems, you didn't remember the rule for adding zero.”

Demonstrate the correct completion of the problem using one of the strategies the student has been taught.
  “I will show you how to do these problems. Look at the first problem. It says '5 plus 0 is how many?' Because the first number is 5,1 start by counting 5 tallies. Then, because the second number is 0, I don't count any more tallies, which is the same as counting nothing. The answer is all of the tallies I have counted. I have counted 5 so the answer to the problem, 5 plus 0, is 5.”
• Give the student opportunity to practice.
  "Now please do the rest of the problems on the worksheet using the strategy.”
• End with a positive comment about the student's performance and your expectations for future success with similar problems.
"Good job adding 0 in all the problems. I am sure you will use the strategy for all the problems in which a 0 is added to other numbers."

2.5. Relationships and Rules

When teaching mathematics to students with LD it is helpful to teach relationships and rules. Students can use relationships and rules to figure out challenging problems.

Math rules, such as any number divided by itself is one, also can help students determine problem answers when their memory fails them.

Figures 3 and 4 (Susan P. Miller, Sherri Strawser & Cecil D. Mercer) outline a variety of rules and relationships that students can use to help find solutions to unknown problems.

Examples of Mathematical Rules

**Addition**

- Any number plus zero is the number.
- Any number plus 1 is the next larger number.
- The order of numbers in an addition problem doesn't change the answer.

**Subtraction**

- Any number take away zero is the number.
- Any number take away the same number is zero.
- Any number take away 1 is the next smaller number.
- In subtraction, when the bottom number in the ones column is bigger than the top number in the ones column, the ten is traded. (Bigger number on Bottom means Break down the ten and trade).

**Multiplication**

- Any number times 0 equals 0.
- Any number times 1 equals the original number.
- 2 times any number equals the number added to itself.
- Changing the order of the numbers in multiplication does not change the answer.

**Division**

- 0 divided by any number equals 0.
- Any number divided by 1 equals the number.
- Any number divided by the same number equals 1.

Examples of Mathematical Relationships

**Addition & Subtraction**

Addition and subtraction facts have the same numbers, but in different order.

- \[ \begin{array}{ccc}
    9 & +4 & 13 \\
    13 & -9 & 4 \\
    & +4 & 9 
\end{array} \]

Because addition and subtraction are related, you always can state a subtraction problem as an addition problem.

- \[ \begin{array}{ccc}
    14 & -8 & 6 \\
    & +8 & 14 
\end{array} \]
To check a subtraction answer, add your answer to the number that is being subtracted. If the sum of these two numbers equals the top number in the subtraction problem, your answer is correct.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
13 \\
\underline{-5} \\
8 \\
\underline{+5} \\
13
\end{array}
\]

**Multiplication & Division**

Multiplication and division facts have the same numbers, just in different order.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
7 \times 6 = 42 \\
42 \div 6 = 7 \\
42 \div 7 = 6
\end{array}
\]

Because multiplication and division are related, you can always state division problems as multiplication problems.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
56 \div 7 = \square \\
\square \times 7 = 56
\end{array}
\]

To check a division answer, multiply your answer by the number that the total is being divided by. If the answer to this multiplication problem equals the total, your answer is correct.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
24 \div 8 = 3 \\
3 \times 8 = 24
\end{array}
\]

### 2.6. Mnemonic Strategies

Mnemonic strategies involve procedures that can be used to improve initial learning and later recall of important math information. Acronym mnemonics (i.e., forming a word from the initial letters of other words) used in mathematics can cue students to the steps involved in solving computation and word problems (Miller & Mercer, 1993). Research has shown that mnemonic memory devices are helpful for students with LD (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1990; Watanabe, 1991). Table 2 (Susan P. Miller, Sherri Strawser & Cecil D. Mercer) lists several acronym mnemonics that can be used for math instruction.

**Table 2. Acronym Mnemonic Devices Designed to Facilitate Memory**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Steps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| DRAW    | Discover the sign. \\
|         | Read the problem. \\
|         | Answer or draw and check. \\
|         | Write the answer. |
| FAST DRAW | Find what you're solving for. \\
|         | Ask yourself, "What are the parts of the problem?" \\
|         | Set up the numbers. \\
|         | Tie down the sign. \\
|         | (DRAW steps are the same as above). |
| SIGNS   | Survey question. \\
|         | Identify key words & labels. \\
|         | Graphically draw problem. \\
|         | Note operation(s) needed. \\
|         | Solve and check problem. |
SOLVE (Miller & Mercer, 1993)
See the sign.
Observe and answer (if unable to answer, keep going).
Look and draw.
Verify our answer.
Enter your answer.

3.7 Writing assignments on board

This is one strategy that I use with my students with Math Learning Disability and it is working well because students have positive results on their math learning. It works like this: Write rulers are key things of lecture on the chalkboard. Figure 5 give one example.

Figure 5. Example of Writing Assignments

Multiplication Signs

\[
\begin{align*}
+ \cdot + &= + \\
- \cdot - &= + \\
- \cdot + &= - \\
+ \cdot - &= - \\
\end{align*}
\]

Homework is also very important for students with MLD. It is important teacher to:

- Write assignments on the chalkboard as soon as they are assigned so that questions may be addressed and misunderstandings can be reduced.
- Periodically reminded students of what is expected of them and when it is due, so that MLD students form a habit of doing their schoolwork. This process not only helps MLD students to remember to do their work, but it also increases their chances of accurately completing assignments.
- Help students with a Math Learning Disability begin their homework during class if possible. This is assuredly not meant to decrease the amount of time spent at home on schoolwork, but to simply assure the teacher that MLD students are prepared enough to work on their assignments independently.

3. Conclusion

The good news about math learning disabilities is that scientists are learning more every day. Their researches provide hope and direction. It parents, teachers and other professionals discover a child’s learning disability early and provide the right kind of help, and it can give the child a chance to develop skills needed to lead a successful and productive life. Even that LD is a lifelong issue, I think that it can manage and the primary role is the role of the teacher.

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The Influence of Instant Messaging Communication on Standard Written Language and Social Communication

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Abstract: Unlike many other types of communication technology, the one through instant messaging or as referred to in the language of technology IM (Instant Messaging), has not been the focus of research or studies conducted. For this type of communication is spoken and studied very little, although its use is growing. Given that it affects the culture of writing, social and cultural factors are also a strong reason why this type of communication is not studied. Nowadays, it is increasingly difficult to come across letters or postcards that are distributed among the people; "postal service" looks like an old term and above all, time is what everyone is missing. In a world where technological developments are proceeding at a dizzying speed, and where cultural globalization does not only mean values but also anti-values, it is really difficult to maintain the classical forms of communication. It is true that communicating through instant and short messaging could be very easy and comfortable, but the point is that we totally forget about the fact that this kind of communication influences the way that we write and it would also influence our thinking process if we do not take it into consideration. The aim of this paper, is to analyze some of the major problematic issues regarding Instant Messaging Communication; the linguistic forms that are used, advantages and disadvantages of this kind of communication and the impact that it has on the culture of writing.

Introduction

Think back to when you were in middle and high school. What songs did you listen to? Did you have a transistor radio, boom box, or Walkman? Did you use to send postcards and letters to your friends and relatives? Did you have a computer or a play station?

The students we teach today are products of a very different environment, one in which the ability to stay connected with others is constant, and communication takes many forms. Writing, for students who live in an age of digital communication, has taken on new importance and plays a prominent role in the way they socialize, share information, and structure their communication.

The current information and communication technologies (ICTs) are fundamentally changing the ways in which youth today read, write, and communicate. Their writing uses the mediums of instant messaging (IM), text messaging (or texting), Twitter, and e-mail, as well as shared electronic documents and postings on blogs and social networking sites. The writing itself does not always follow traditional conventions, featuring instead images, audio recordings, and a form of shorthand in which vowels and punctuation are irrelevant and time-consuming to use.

Teachers may be concerned about the way some students write using these different ICTs, imagining the potential negative impact on their students’ academic writing, but this interest can be an instructional advantage.

What is IMC and some of the major influences

Unlike other mediated communication technologies which have been analyzed over decades, IM communication has been the focus of relatively few academic inquiries, and very little is known about the content of “real world” instant messages. Increasingly, corporate users are forgoing e-mail for IM because of its synchronous nature and absence of spam (Strom, 2006a; Strom, 2006b.). A study released by Gartner Research in December 2005, predicts that by 2020, 90% of people with business e-mail accounts will have IM accounts, and the Radicati Group forecasts 349 million enterprise IM users by 2008 (Faulkner & Culwin, 2004). Unlike other technological communication innovations which were introduced and slowly gained acceptance and widespread use, IM has gained widespread adoption as a critical communication technology so quickly that scholars have had little time to investigate the characteristics and functions of communication within this medium.

Additionally, the fact that IM has not been supplanted by more media rich technologies such as internet based videoconferencing and voice communication is surprising, indicating a unique role of text-based communication in human interaction.

♦ Short Message Service (SMS), more popularly known as text messaging, developed as an initial by-product of the cell phone industry (Goldstuck, 2006). SMS messaging is closely related to instant messaging (IM) (Goldstuck, 2006). IM is a
function of online chat rooms and has expanded to mobile phones due to their ability to carry applications that can be downloaded to the handset (Faulkner & Culwin, 2004). According to Goldstuck mobile phones were introduced to the youth market in the late 1990s. During 2004, 500 billion SMS messages were sent worldwide. A study conducted in the United Kingdom found that teenagers view text messaging as an additional means of communication, seeing that they have been exposed to it since childhood (Baron 2000).

♦ Email has become a very popular means of communication during the last decades, but it was not originally meant to serve as a means of transmitting personal information. The phenomenon was a result of various research projects during the height of the Cold War. The idea was to develop a decentralized network of computers that could be used in order to transmit information across the United States in case there was a nuclear attack. If one target was struck, it would not cripple the nation’s ability to distribute defense data elsewhere in the country (Baron 2000: 241). In the mid 1990s, computer chat groups such as IRC, for instance, were very popular.

They were inexpensive and provided anonymity by camouflaging voices and sexual identity. They allowed people from all over the world to chat with each other, and one might compare this with the excitement of having a pen-pal from a different part of the world. Technically, email is a form of writing but its usage conventions are closer to face-to-face or telephone conversation, according to Baron. People sending email often reveal an editorial non-chalance, reflecting the casual tone of the medium and a psychological mind-set (however mistaken) that email, like the telephone, is ephemeral (www.microsoft.com, accessed 14 April, 2009). In contrast to a telephone conversation, when writing an email, one has the possibility to edit.

♦ One type of electronic communication is Internet chat. This new means of communication across great distances became increasingly popular in the mid 1990s, with mIRC (Internet Relay Chat) as one of the leading channels for this type of communication. mIRC allowed people from all over the world to chat with each other either in multi-user group conferences or in one-to-one private discussions. Svennevig says that when emails and Internet chat groups came into being, people started communicating with each other without having any conventions that were established for this particular genre of communication. This resulted in new genres being developed. Svennevig says that Internet chat builds on the conventions of speech. In addition, Internet chat has developed new conventions that are particular for this means of communication, such as a system of abbreviations and icons (such as smileys).

In the late 1990s, mIRC seemed to decrease in popularity, and a new type of instant messaging took over. This Microsoft created phenomenon was called msn (messenger) and was meant for people who already knew each other, as one had to add people’s email address in order to be able to talk to them. When logging on, one would automatically see who else was online, and one was able to chat in private with one’s friends online. Msn was constantly updated since its début in 1995, and by 2005, it allowed for more symbols (moving smileys and small figures) to be used, in addition to sharing pictures and transmitting video conversations (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, 2006).

♦ When Facebook was founded in 2004, it gradually started to take over the popularity that Msn had possessed since the beginning of the 21st century. Facebook allowed people from all over the world to get in touch with one another, and to share photos, videos and send messages to each other. The idea behind the phenomenon was that people would be able to stay in touch with friends, as well as reconnect with old friends. In 2007, Facebook developed a means for instant messaging which allowed people to talk to friends who were online. The chat window at Facebook is smaller than the one that msn uses, and it seems that people are now abbreviating even more than they used to because of this. The use of capital letters is very rarely found in instant messaging (unless capital letters are used for indicating shouting, or marking something of importance), where the need for giving quick responses might be essential.

I think that it is worth mentioning that the development of these kind of mediums of communication are closely related with the development of language and everybody is familiar with the fact that in our days English is the language of technology and communication. For this reason, I think that the concept of Standard English and the influences of IMC on Standard English deserve a special attention.

Before talking about the influences that IMC has on writing and English Language in particular, I think that we should try to define a clear meaning of the concept of Standard English. By that I mean standard written English. I will not discuss the varieties of English around the world, because I think that the varieties of a language can not be regarded as standard or non-standard language. The idea of correctness is in fact what matters most when we talk about standard language. Grammars will therefore be discussed, as will dictionaries because knowing how to use words in the correct context is also something I consider to be important. For my purposes, grammar and spelling are the most important.
aspects of language. That is why I will only discuss pronunciation briefly, although pronunciation is also an important part of language.

Linguists and lay people talk about ‘correctness’ in different respects. Lay people talk about correct and incorrect use of language with regard to dialects, grammatical structures, pronunciation and spelling, whereas linguists talk about different varieties of language. For linguists, there is no such thing as incorrect use of language, merely non-standard use of language. Linguists are known to be of the opinion that there is nothing inherently better about a standard language than any other varieties.

The standard language came about through selection over many years, and the variety that was most widely used survived. Hudson says that a typical standard language will have passed through four processes. These are as follows:

1. **Selection.** A particular variety must have been selected as the one that would be developed into a standard language. This can be an existing variety or it can be an amalgam of various varieties. The chosen variety gains prestige, and the people who already speak it share in this prestige. Thus the choice is of great political and social importance.

2. **Codification.** Dictionaries and grammar books are written in order to “fix” the variety, so that everyone agrees on what is correct and what is not. This job usually belongs to some sort of agency or academy. After codification has taken place, every “ambitious citizen” wants to learn the correct forms, and this may take years of a child’s school career, according to Hudson.

3. **Elaboration of function.** In order for the selected variety to be used in all functions associated with writing and with central government, it may be necessary to add linguistic items or norms to the variety. This may be technical words, for instance, but new conventions for using existing forms may also have to be developed, such as how to write formal letters or how to formulate examination questions.

4. **Acceptance.** The selected variety must be accepted by the relevant population. Usually, the variety serves as the national language. Once the variety is accepted, the standard language serves as a unifying force for the state. It also serves as a marker of its difference from other states, and as a symbol of its independence of other states.

Now, the question that discomfort linguistics and researchers is whether this kind of communication influences the use and concept of standard language and which are the most frequent influences. Regarding many researches and studies conducted in respect of Messaging Communication and the language that it is used there, linguistics agrees that this kind of writing deform the use of standard language.

If we have a look at all the mediums of Messaging Communication, we will notice that each of them plays a crucial role in the transformation of standard language; each of them have their respective characteristics but on the other side, they all deal with grammatical and conceptual transformations.

1. **SMS** - English language slang, as it is used in mobile phone text messaging, is referred to as SMS language (SMS Language). According to the Oxford Dictionary slang is defined as “very informal words and expressions that are more common in spoken language”. Text messaging resembles code rather than standard language (Baron 2000: 193). Standard English is often referred to as standard language. Standard English is the variant of English that is usually used in writing (especially printing); it is associated with the educational systems of English speaking countries worldwide. Individuals who make use of Standard English are viewed as educated and outsiders and other educated people alike, can understand Standard English.

   According to Thurlow text messages may be perceived as non-standard typographic or orthographic forms, which can be divided into the following types:

   - G-Clippings (excluding the end -g letter), for example: "Goin" (Going)
   - Shortenings (deletion of end letters), for example: "Aft" (After)
   - Contraction (deletion of middle letters), for example: "Nxt" (Next)
   - Acronyms and initialisms (formed from initial letters of various words), for example: "LOL" (Laugh out loud)
   - Number homophones, for example: "B4" (Before)
2. E-mail and Facebook chat - The general opinion is that email has elements of both spoken and written style. With regard to grammar and vocabulary, one might say that email is closer to speech than conventional writing. Lexically, the messages tend to be extremely informal, including clipped words (such as prob for problem), simplified spellings (for instance thru for through), and the use of words like nope or yep (Baron 2000). Crystal says that the 'save a keystroke' principle is widely found in e-mails, virtual worlds and chatgroups. Whole sentences can be produced without punctuation or capital letters. Further, he says that '[s]pelling errors in an e-mail would not be assumed to be an indication of lack of education (though they may be) but purely a function of typing inaccuracy. Syntactically, emails tend to be quite casual, omitting modals, articles and subjects. There are similar levels of formality in punctuation, with high use of exclamation points and also lack of capital letters (So-called “emoticons”, or “smileys” are often used as paralinguistic footnotes to the messages.

The chat window at Facebook is smaller than the one that msn uses, and it seems that people are now abbreviating even more than they used to becouse of this. The use of capital letters is very rarely found in instant messaging (unless capital letters are used for indicating shouting, or marking something of importance), where the need for giving quick responses might be essential.

All these changes that are taking place in the transformation of standard language mainly influence student's writing and this way teachers and linguistics are now worried about the future of writing. Regarding many surveys students are using IMC more and more everyday and this might be risky for the culture of writing and their thinking process as well. Instant messaging can cause some serious issues the classroom, especially if your child is just developing writing/spelling/vocabulary skills. During the early education years, texting could be detrimental to proper language development. Here are some of the reasons why.

Spelling — vocabulary is key skill in early education. The first grades are all about vocabulary lists, and spelling tests, not to mention sentence writing. Spelling can take a hit when kids, during this critical learning time, use short forms before they know the whole word; let alone how to spell it.

Grammar — A big part of grammar is punctuation. It takes years to learn how to properly use it, and even then punctuation can be a landmine for mistakes. Online messaging has practically no punctuation, and is basically a grammar free-for-all.

Complete Thoughts — another key skills that IM has a blatant disregard for is that of the complete, cohesiv thought. The major challenge in writing is to be able to express an argument clearly as a complete thought: with a beginning, a middle and an end. One word sentences that are prevalent in IM don’t help to develop the complete thought skill – they detract from it. Text messaging changes what and how students write. Whether these changes are viewed as positive or negative depends on an individual’s beliefs on how closely writing should adhere to accepted conventions of formal writing (Wellman p. 439, 2001). It was indicated by the majority of educators (54.6%) (n = 12) that learners use mostly simple sentences in various writing tasks given to them during creative writing. Some educators (40.9%) (n = 9) have also noticed the shortening of sentences during creative writing tasks over the past 4.25 years. The incorrect use of full stops (13.6%) (n = 3), commas (45.5%) (n = 10) and exclamation marks (45.5%) (n = 10) were encountered more in comparison to questions marks (4.6%) (n = 1), in learners’ written work.

Homework — it’s hard enough to stay focused on homework without being distracted by the chiming alerts of a messaging system every few seconds. If your child struggles to complete his homework, be sure that he signs out of IM before he begins so that he can dedicate some uninterrupted time to focus on the task at hand: homework.

Social Influences of IMC

However, the IMC does not influence only their academic or school performance, but also their social life and the way that they get in touch with each other and create their own network. Physiologists believe that this virtual communication, sometimes may lead to future communicative implications.

Based on a survey passed out at Stanford University, 90% of the students use IM on a weekly basis. This survey, given out to 70 undergraduate students, asked the participants about various aspects of how they use IM including the topics they discussed, how much time they spent online, how comfortable they felt over IM and in person and how they
used IM to flirt with others. Almost three-fourths of the students indicated that they would be as likely (if not more,) to gossip on IM than with any other tools of communication (i.e. phone, etc.) Two-thirds of the students also that they also would be likely to use IM to set up social events in real life as well as use it for ranting and complaining. Other popular activities through IM include wishing a friend a happy birthday and flirting. Although these survey results are from Stanford students, these responses are probably representative of college students nationwide.

Research on online interaction shows that online interaction causes its users to reduce their social abilities because of less face to face interaction with others. As argued by Barry Wellman, only a limited number of waking hours exist in a day. When one uses the internet, “the internet may compete for time with other activities in an inelastic 24-hour day,” including activities that would have the users interacting with others in real world situations. (In addition, as Tom Tyler points out, online interaction could possibly even replace those activities that one traditionally does in the real world.)

Despite the initial concerns raised about the isolating effects of online interaction, the later research conducted reached very different conclusions regarding virtual communication. It is true that this kind of communication may cause a feeling of isolation. In fact the internet creates an initial increase in depression. However, in approximately two years, as soon as the person becomes a “sophisticated internet user,” the level of depression is reduced (Bonebrake p. 553, 2002), due to the acquired familiarity of the internet by the user.

This kind of impact is very important and sometimes psychologist advice using these social networks because in a kind of way they substitute the audience, the possibility to be heard and, let's face it, it is easy to speak your mind in a world full of conventions and standardized.

And this is closely related to the topics that people chose to talk about when they use IMC. It is not difficult to imagine that the major topics used by students and the majority of those who use IMC are gossip, setting up social events etc.

As noted from the survey results, students using IM do not talk about only one thing.

Conversations through instant messaging include many different topics. IM chats are as varied as conversations held face to face. Some students’ online conversations may be shallow and impersonal, but there are also many others whose conversations are very in depth and meaningful. As Bonebrake states, “The Internet provides a unique environment for relationship development; it can be very personal yet at the same time, a feeling of personal space can be maintained”. One trend that was found in the survey is that if a conversation on IM became too personal for the student, they would use another form of communication to continue the topic.

Topics which are normally regarded in real space as impersonal and informal (i.e. gossiping, complaining, setting up social events, etc), were much more likely to be discussed through IM while those topics which are considered more serious and personal (sharing religious and political views, giving bad news) were discussed less on IM and more in person or over the phone.

Conclusion

Instant messaging is a communication phenomenon which is becoming increasingly pervasive in modern life. Such a technology has the potential to alter the ways in which humans communicate. In this article, I have tried to provided a detailed summary of the linguistic dimensions of IM phenomenon among college students as a benchmark for future studies within this medium. This kind of mini-research showed a significant difference in levels of emotion based on conversation dyad as well as significant linguistic. I think that it has raised numerous questions and areas for future study in this realm. As yet, scholarly inquiry in this area has not resulted in significant theories about text-based mediated communication, but there is no denying the increasing popularity of IM for communication. As far as we have seen and read in this paper, using IMC has profoundly changed the way that we write, but most of all the way that students write in our days and as a matter of fact, academic writing is the most contaminated among all kinds of writing.

The nature of the perceived influence of IMC language includes the encountering of spelling adaptations that are based on the IMC language categories, shortening of sentences and incorrect punctuation use. Sentence structure and length is also perceived to be influenced as sentences are shortened and simplified. Furthermore, punctuation is also perceived to be influenced. The incorrect use of full stops, commas and exclamation marks are encountered the most in learners’ written language tasks.

However I believe that it is worth mentioning the fact that the linguistic environment in which these changes are taking place, is developing and transforming the concept of writing. According to many scholars and studies IMC language is undoubtedly a deformation of standard language, but the present and the trends of future writing are transmitting a different effect.
In our days, students do not consider abbreviation or using symbols as a kind of grammatical or linguistic error and these kinds of changes are affecting not only the written but also the oral communication. One can hear many examples of speaking abbreviations during their conversations and nobody considers them mistakes anymore.

On the other hand, linguistics argues that using some of the major characteristics of IMC language is not a grammatical “sin”. If we write “don’t” instead of “do not” does not mean that we are threatening standard language. If we all agree with the development of language than we should all accept the fact that there might be changes that we are not obliged to appreciate. After all, if language is meant to be a medium of communication it means that it will always change; as globalization changes the way we live IMC language is changing the way we write in such a way that it will become increasingly difficult to define what is standard language, because standard language is whatever symbol, word that makes you feel comfortable or able to express yourself.

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Internet as a New Source of Information, Opportunities and Problems

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Abstract: With the start of the new century, technological innovation has no doubt some of the great changes in information and communication area. The advent of online information creates new perspective but also placed at suitable new problem in the processing of information sources. In this article we deal in particular the growing number of "information sources" with the advent of the internet in the field of journalism and making news. Here we try to understand with examples and cases that in the internet does not exist any guaranty for the information which in many news network are given by groups or individuals who may not know the truth or don’t want to tell the truth, then you wonder how to trust that content and what tools used to prove the reliability. A new vocational skills that the reporter needs that, you can define a "network culture" (and digital), ie a type of knowledge that takes hold of us working on the internet looking for information in different places where we discuss (in blogs, twitter, facebook, mailing lists etc.) by using new search engines and other tools that can provide network and periodically renewed. We will try to understand how the term information has expanded its meaning over the past decade with the rise of New Journalism, and which meets the seasonality difficulty in finding and interpreting information source on the network.

Key words: Internet, information, journalism, reliability, innovation

Introduction

With the start of the new century, has no doubt that the technological innovation has given the great changes in information and communication. The advent of online information poses new problems to the processing of information sources; new technologies exactly have facilitated the grid of a large number of social actors who use tools and logic of communication similar to those used by the media. In particularly in journalism has been a real multiplication of "information sources" thanks to the advent of the Internet1 (which will be discussed later) become in a short time and at great distance from any point on the globe. If once the sources were represented mainly by news agencies (whose reports are then reworked by the journalist) and a series of personal and professional relationships, now on the web you can find more news and detail than ever before.

Even now, mostly in newspapers all journalists are based on materials from the agency, but if you want to give more original information, it occurs more and more to address to other sources to make differences from competitive media, and the amount of detailed information on the net is destined to grow even more. We are facing here a first problem: to become familiar with the online world, to know how to use it in the best way, you need to have the tools to find and check/verify everything found there.

On the internet there are no guarantees for any information found, for instance, if in the articles published in newspaper "Shqip" are the guarantors of the correctness of information (the director and his journalists), many reports on the network are given by groups or people who may not know; then you wonder how to trust that content and what tools you need to use to prove their reliability.

The journalists and the Internet

A new professional competence sees the journalists equipped with what that might be called "network culture" (and digital), namely a type of knowledge of which are mastered working on the internet looking for different information in places where are discussed (in blogs, in mailing list, facebook, twitter, etc.) using new search engines and other tools that

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1 In March 1989, Tim Berners Lee physicist at CERN in Geneva conceives the idea of a "hypertext system" to facilitate sharing between research groups, with the creation and management of IP (Internet Protocol) that enables communication between computers connected to the web, internet become finally a hypermedia information space, open to anyone. Marco Pratellesi, New Journalism, Bruno Mondadori, 2008, p.20
the network is able to offer periodically renewed.

For the journalist, the research and evaluation of sources types in the multimedia nature of the Internet, concerning not only to the simple texts but also images and video, poses new problems (in the case of photos and video are known the risks to which it meets of trusting only on what you see). In general, the changes occurring in the information, regards precisely the journalistic source: we seek to understand how this term has expanded its meaning over the past decades with the rise of New Journalism2 (Pratellesi, 2008), and what are the difficulties encountered by the journalists in obtaining and interpreting a source of information on the network.

By observing the processes of change in place, two issues are emerging: on one hand is claimed that the profession of the journalist has not changed with the advent of new digital technologies, so the journalist has not changed with the advent of new digital technologies, so the journalist is a mediator who selects and hierarchized the news and has a duty to inform and interpret events in full compliance with the rules governing their journalism.

On the other hand is claimed that the way of working of a journalist has changed profoundly: the changes introduced by new media (computers, cameras, digital recorders, wireless devices, Internet, email, search engines, databases), intended as a new information sources (in addition to traditional sources such as news agencies), have changed the course of research, examination, testing and writing the news.

In the late nineties and early twenty-first century, next to journalism in print, it's imposed the "online journalism" in the media system: faster news in real-time, constant updates, interactivity, multimedia contents, personalization. Now question is how this new journalism has influenced the production processes in the work of drafting new rules and imposing a new internal organization. Among the new figure as a journalist (e-journalist-)3 and the internet, stands in the first place the difficult task of organizing or rather quickly assemble an increasing number of reports and news within the network.

However, the risk which may incur the journalist who blindly trusts the sources on the Internet, without careful review the source of reference, is to spread wrongly false or unfounded news. Network communication, taking in account the ease of reproducibility of the messages, low cost and lack of filters, may promote the spread of rumors, real "buffaloes data transmission" (now known for some time, in some cases created specifically/ad hoc to deceive less experienced journalists). One has to wonder if this is a common factor in journalism and the media linked to the growing concern of finding information that "mark the headlines".

The tendency to sensationalism4 in making/doing information, the lack of time necessary for a control or verification are without doubt elements that play in favor of false information on the network. Sometimes it is verified that certain news taken from the network at the end turn out to be false ending to discredit the individual journalist and the media in which they work (write); is clear that in this case the responsible is the journalist and not the network containing false news. But it is always the network that also allows you to see these errors, to understand haw as been build a false information (ultimately to reveal the way to make the information), thanks to the activism of the people in the network.

So, the "the sources control" of information has now become increasingly a topic of discussion since the credibility of the news and journalism in general in recent years is collecting less consensus in the relationship with the public. The control of information sources and verification of the news, through the web tools, either by crossing the information with the traditional controls, should be an important part of future training for the journalists (online).

In the recent/last years, an element has dramatically increased the credibility of online journalism, increasingly gaining the respect and trust of readers, the practice of "linking" the sources and documents used in preparing the piece so that the reader can get their own idea and judge the work of mediation conducted by the journalist.

The news source

Proper evaluation of a source of information used to write an article is always an important qualification that marks the good work of the journalist, and more generally the treatment of sources is what distinguishes an quality information tool

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2 Multimedia Journalism. Term used to indicate the changes that the evolutions of new media are introduced into the work of journalists from the last decade of last century. Ibid, p.25

3 The term emphasizes the close connection that increasingly binds the reporter to the information technology and internet world, through preparation and a more specific knowledge and qualified in the field of information. Ibid. p.39-40

4 Sensationalism is not a technique but a way of conceiving the news. Each notice must make sense, which should impress the reader. This is the result of a neurotic journalism with obsession of the "scoop": the sensational news that is exclusively published is the dream the journalist. Papuzzi Alberto " Journalist’s Profession " Donzelli, Rome, 1998, p.95
(printed, both audio-video or digital) from another that cannot be consider the same. The source constitutes the "basis of
the news," and much of the value attributed to the news depends on the great ability of the journalist to identify and treat
the source of information.

The relationship between the journalist and the sources represents the most sensitive aspect of his profession;
determining which the source of news is, constitutes the first step that carry out the journalist to understand how to set up
the news and what its nature is. The goal of the journalist is to have a number of sources sufficient to ensure wider
knowledge directly related to events\(^5\) (Pratellesi, 2008) However, the freedom and independence of the journalist are
possible, with the condition to be himself to access to sources and these sources are not controlled or manipulated\(^6\)
(Pratellesi, 2008).

The source in itself does not constitutes the certainty of the event because it is still limited compared to the totality
and complexity of the event. The source provides no absolute truth but a partial one: so is the quality of the source that
guarantees a certain credibility\(^7\) (Pratellesi, 2008) to the news itself and the journalist; he must be able to interpret the
version of the event regardless the type of source he is using (institutional/non-institutional, direct/indirect) based on his
own cultural skills, technical and editorial. Furthermore should not forget that the journalist must produce the article within
a precise conduct control.

As above mentioned, often the journalist is not a direct witness to an event which happened, so its need is to rely on
sources to ascertain the veracity of the event. It is possible to distinguish two source levels: the first level or primary
sources (top-level), and sources of second-level or secondary. The top-level sources provide credibility to information
because they have an institutional authoritativeness or they are guaranteed by a specific skill: ministers, mayors,
magistrates, lawyers, unionists, pleadings, etc. The source of the first level not only transmits an image of reality but is a
part of the reality. The sources of the second level instead are those whose reliability is entrusted to the same journalistic
quote in the sense that it is the duty of the journalist to legitimize them in the public eye, by connecting the same sources
with the others to confirm the veracity of the event: the eyewitness, the neighbor, the spectator of an event, the man in
the street.

Unlike the sources of the first level, the second level sources which are not trustable individually require careful
review by the journalist. Another distinction regards the direct sources that is the information (mostly raw materials) that
the journalist interprets and elaborates, and indirect sources that are the materials elaborated in various forms from the
press release to the full article, until it reaches the status of news\(^8\) (Lepri, 2005): press offices, public relations, promotion
offices, press officers, secretaries, spokesman. The main indirect sources are the news agencies which unlike the other
sources are presented as the specialist firms that operate within the information system.

### Internet as a source of information for journalists

Regarding the issue of sources of information, it surely affirm that the internet however is unquestionably a great primary
source, a new arena for the journalist thanks to the enormous amount of information that circulates inside the network
itself. However the internet as a source is sometimes not considered legitimate by the journalist, but his ability to propose
new issues, the ease of finding information (especially those such as a phone number, the definition of an abbreviation or
an author's biography), has become a useful tool for journalists working in different media.

At the same time very often exactly on the internet, is impossible to verify the origin of the source of information and
exactly this particularly aspect\(^9\) affects the quality of information. With access to the Internet increases the sources of
information and the journalist’s job is to verify the degree of reliability and truthfulness of what he provides. Given that the
reporter does not tell the truth, but at best "the journalistic truth", exactly the latter is the result of a correct application of
some strict rules within the journalism and communication in general to maintain a certain authority in relationship of trust

\(^{5}\) Ibid, p. 29

\(^{6}\) Today, the threats to the independence of the press in most cases arise from the organization, orientation and manipulation of
journalists' sources. The widespread distribution of press officers, politician's spokespersons, public relations of companies and
institutions it is a reflection.

\(^{7}\) The reliability or credibility of the source is an element crucial to the news with reflections also on aspects of ethics.

\(^{8}\) The news values are conventional evaluative criteria governing the selection process because they help to determine the
newsworthiness of an event, which is its ability to count as news.

\(^{9}\) While the activity of public information is made easier and faster, from the other side is seeing a sort of unintentional distortion of the
with readers:

Avoid publishing rumors, unless you really are attributed to a reliable source; Being skeptical in regard to news reported by one source or from anonymous sources; Exercising the right and duty of criticism and verification of information disseminated by other media; Always indicate the source used; Always respect, when possible, the rule of crossing two independent sources of each other before publishing a news story, Distinguishing, when possible, if information comes from institutional sources or from other non-official sources; Giving attention to the possibility of being manipulated by sources for private interests that were extraneous to the information service to readers; An anonymous source on any subject is not in itself trustful; The mere fact that the sources indicates information, does not mean per se that this information is complete or that are completely justified.

While until a few years ago the basic information of the newspapers was exclusive of news agency, thanks to direct access to the internet the information market has suffered changes: in the network the sources of information have multiplied (most of the sources are free), increasing day by day. However, in Internet the information sources are the same not only for news agencies and newspapers but for anyone who wants to receive information directly without the journalistic mediation so are sources for the same consumer market in competition with the press. The truth offered by the primary sources is a coded truth which the journalistic mediation must decode. Through the direct approach to the Internet who can ensure that the source is reliable and his information is credible?

The Internet and multiplication of sources

The potential use of the Internet as the main source of information (research of information and credibility of the sources), in the last decade have led to debate on some important issues:

a) The multiplication of information: in the near future the Internet will be the tool to ensure greater freedom on condition that the information must be as correct as possible, and the sources are reliable; however having a lot of information can create confusion and disorientation.

b) The multiplication of sources: until a few years ago the production of information was the sole responsibility of information professionals that are the bodies of written and spoken information.

The advent of the Internet has brought the business of information (especially during news gathering phase) to reorganize own work in response to new needs, thereby aiming to dramatically reduce production costs and maximization of digitized information profits. In addition to encouraging a multiplication of information, the Internet has led to the emergence of an infinite number of sources. In Internet many sources of information (individual and private) occur freely in the absence of authority that ensure, or call into question the credibility and reliability of those sources.

Today we invest less in the activity of news making (retrieval of news) characterized by a used source of information mainly distributed by news agencies and institutional sources, while focusing more resources in the phases of newsgathering (selection of news). The change in the management of communication has led to reflections on the organization of the same process of editorial work (working time, selection criteria, codes, values and styles), while these reflections have made public information activities easier and faster, the other gave rise to a sort of unintentional distortion of the news.

Also in the path that leads a fact to become news, media are engaged in an activity of "trading" between the sources and recipients of information, or the public.

Currently, the retrieval of information is more through intermediate sources and these sources thanks to modern digital technologies distributes in a timely manner a huge amount of material that often requires only a few minor changes before being published. The news before gets to the media is selected and encoded by particular types of sources. The

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10 The communication actors seem to be only two as in direct communication: the source and the observer, in ibid, p.55

11 In other words is find from the media a half preference for indirect or intermediate sources which intentionally spread the news at the expense of indirect sources, which must be sought with more difficulty, in ibid, p.60

12 It is constantly in place a "bargain" by which the source is such, only if he can get in touch with the apparatus of the media, which in its turn, may decide to discard it or attempt to obtain from them a certain kind of information even it is often the source itself to have "bargaining power". Everything then has to be developed keeping always in mind the potential public expectations, which constitute a key variable in the selection process of the news. Ibid, p.64

13 This relationship which appears to be linear only in appearance, it is actually characterized by a substantial circularity, in the sense that the relationship sources-media-public has within it a different flows of feedback, as the three elements are able to influence mutually. Ibid, p.66
multiplication of sources allows us to reconstruct a credible set of events through the comparison of different information and knowledge. By virtue of these new opportunities offered by digital technology, the editors of the mass media can consult numerous sources and investigate the cases treated.

However in the network emerges a numerous complex problems because new material is introduced from which depend subsequently the direct relationship with the source; the end user of the communication that is the public, seems to seriously jeopardize the mediation of traditional media. The mediation of journalism: direct access to information sources on the Internet threatens to eliminate the institutional role of journalism that is the function between those who produce information and those who search to meet up its own information needs. In the absence of mediation, the journalism risk to extinction, then it must recover its basic function due to the selection of information in circulation, and especially the operation of control. Computerization of society: must bear in mind that the internet as a guarantee or less as a contribution to freedom of information concerns not only the current and future journalism. Internet has proved to be a useful mean for the dissemination of ideas and knowledge of free initiatives. In the field of communication the internet is presented as an forced alternative to the traditional journalistic information, and as confirmation of direct information (from the issue of message to the recipient) that can do without newspapers; so the journalists to protect their function as mediators of the “truth”, must produce correct and impartial information. The journalists work either on traditional sources or the one accessible through the network and in some cases in the selection process of the news it is possible to be guided by an image, sound, video and also become potential sources of information.

The technology (internet) represents a major opportunity for a change in the way of working of journalists. The Internet has facilitated, simplified and speeded up the archival research, has dejected some limits on access to information thanks to databases; has reduced the physical presence to the office and travels for research and consultation of the documents; has improved the investigative work.

Electronic access to sources has introduced some innovative features: the possibility of a search by mail location (convenience); raise enormous amounts of material (productivity) direct access to source documents.

However, the use of the Internet as an information source also involves some risks to the reporter:

a. false identity, must be asked whether there are reasons to doubt about the statements or information found in the network assigned to a particular character and verify the origin of the source.

b. False information: it is possible that the news could be put into circulation with the purposes of propaganda or conditioning.

c. The evaluation of the source and verification of a fact are equally important and essential, in both ways, to work with materials in the network, whether if it’s a statement of official or unofficial sources.

d. There are urban legends and they are spread also in Internet until they become globalized legends.

Often, the urban legends are not without consequences: for example, in August 2000 an American college student Mark Jacob was able to introduce in the Internet, the false news about a U.S. company that manufactured optical fibers which came to be in a serious state of Economic crisis. The urban legend in the network depends on two critical elements: the speed with which they spread the news once occurred on the internet and the speed in the process of acquiring, writing and re-launching the news (online journalism). For this reason, the reporter must show great care and sensitivity when dealing with news coming from the stream network.

Given the need to move in a very short time in the midst of a myriad of potential news, the journalist must step up its own expertise and with them, the tools to select what is relevant and what is not, what can be trusted and what needs to be subjected to careful and scrupulous verification. To be defended from false information in the network is essential to know the Internet and then be able to assess/evaluate the context in which information occurs in the online circuit. First of

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14 Many sites created by university professors of the Faculty of Economics and Commerce have been successful in spreading news and opinions that would not easily can be read in the business pages of newspapers more than any other subject to the influences of economic and political power. Papuzzi. A “Journalist’s Profession” Donzelli, Rome, 1996, p.70

15 Internet offer an ample ground for investigative reporting and research; are many cases in which, thanks to the network you can find information that once required a patient and expensive search work with displacements also challenging. Just think of the possibility of collecting data on individuals, companies, to find documents of public bodies and ministries. Ibid. p.73

16 This information is taken from some official agencies such as Bloomberg and the financial section of Yahoo! The maneuver allowed to Jakob a speculation on the stock exchange that make him earned $ 250,000, but the company lost about $ 2,000,000 in market value; and exposed and arrested a week later, Jakob was sentenced to 44 months imprisonment. Ibid. p.78
all you have to wonder what is the origin of the document, the authors, site managers, the place and date of publication and the data.

Conclusions

By now the Internet has become one of the information sources because there is an public to be kept exclusively informed in prevalent or occasionally way on the web from home or work through a personal computer or other supports/facilities (such as smart phones or PDAs). The public itself has led to the formation of an information market online, and news online. The Internet represents itself more possibilities to obtain faster information, in any place, anytime, in real time, gaining access and documents and materials without moving to look for them personally. And this fact has changed notably the profession of journalism. This is the only profession that is faced with the risks arising from Internet as a source of information. Because every news can face three major problems: false identities, misinformation and urban legends. All three have their roots in the power that internet has today regarding the theme/topic of information.

At the end I want to stress that the journalist is facing some issues: such as the loss of privileges for access and direct control of the sources; the end of the central journalistic feature of its old-fashioned template in a organizational and productive context in which news were unearthed and documented personally; the need to develop new languages and new features of multimedia communication; the renunciation from a cultivated handwriting, literary, not compatible with the network environment.

All this makes us think that the internet is a new source of information, however, has its positive and negatives sides. One major caution on problems that may occur using the Internet as a source is one of solutions to get real news.

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17 For example, if the document has arrived via a search engine is essential to visit the "home page" of the site and assess all the other "link" necessary for orientation and to determine the context in which the document is inserted; another element of evaluation is the "domain" in which is worth to mentioned an institutional site which is known or not, if it has a clear name or a mark that does not refer to anything. Ibid, p.80
The Role of Internet and Social Network Sites in Teenage Social Life

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Abstract. Adolescents today interact with computer and internet in almost all aspects of their lives, including communication, entertainment, and formal education. More and more adolescents choose to live in a virtual world, a world of computers social networks, losing touch with the real world and its problems. Undoubtedly that the benefits of computers in everyday life cannot be questioned, absolutely in every field of science or life the computer has become a good and indispensable friend due to its specific effectiveness. But recent studies show that the teenagers who spend very much time using the computer soon get to develop various problems. This paper aims to: to find advantages- disadvantages- effects cause by use of computer and internet use in teenages spare time. This paper through the literature reviewing provides an overview of the effects caused by use of computer and internet in adolescence. The data presented that use of computer by teenagers in this vulnerable period correlate to the lack of family support. Many teenagers choose to fill their free time by using computer and internet which offer ways of socialization, communication and information, but in the same time drive them away from their family and from the real life.

Keywords: Identity; internet; teenage, behavior problems; social networking sites

1. Introduction

Whatever that is television, radio, internet, they are all connected with technology that in their own time they have been the cause of “revolution.” Today’s internet has increased the ability of individuals interacting with other individuals who live further apart from each other, but have similar interest. In the 20th Century youth used face to face communication and over the phone conversation to stay connected with each other. In today’s world teenagers see the internet as the main way to communicate and stay in touch with their peers. (Lenhart, Madden & Hitlin, 2005; Lenhart, Rainie & Lewis, 2001; Subramanyam, Greenfield, Kraut, & Gross, 2002; Tidwell & Walther, 2002).

For the first time in Albania this “revolution” started in the late 90’s. In today’s world with all the changes going on the internet has brought a whole new way, changing people’s lives and especially youth who are in the process of shaping their personality. It’s common that certain parts of society position themselves in the opposite side. Lately we have seen a lot of reaction and criticism linked to the idea that people are not communicating with each other face to face and spending too much time online. Not balancing attention has impact in the shape of personality (Clifford Stoll, 1995). The latest researches (Roco, 2004) have shown that people who spend a lot of time using the computer develop a range of problems. For children and teenagers the use of computers is mainly a source of entertainment who takes away the biggest part of their day (Dinca, 2004).

The number of internet uses recently have increased in Albania. According to INSTAT, the number of people who use the internet in the year 2005 was 120,408 in the recent years the number of internet users has boosted even more and as a result people are using the internet and its benefits. Open Data Albania has done research to see how has the number of internet users have increased through the years. The data that they have used has been taken from the ITU. Last decade the number of internet users has changed as shown in the graph below.
As the graphic shows there is an increase in the internet users in Albania, throughout the year 2010 around 43.5% of Albanians (or around 1.34 million people) are internet users compared with 41.2% in 2009 (ITU).

2. Literature review

2.1 Concepts about children development

Freud (2004) present the adolescence as an age of important change. Adolescence is a phase of life characterized typically by changes. Changes in adolescence years are physiological, but being unpredictable, unstable and contradictors, inevitable bringing destabilizing results. They involve people in their whole spectrum modifying the needs, which are; Physiological, social and material as shown in Fig.1.

On present time the youths world is not made up only from family, friends, school, but from all connections they create in social networking with other peers. Social networking has brought to teenage years a lot of possibilities for confrontation. If we refer to fig.1, and the way that SNS works its totally normal for children to be involved in it, until the moment that the virtual world becomes predominate in the minds and children’s life. Then we are threatening by a risk (Carla Antoniotti, 2011).

If we analyze the use of the internet from children, according to ecologic model Fig.2 which describes development of children as a complex phenomenon, made during the interaction between individuals, families, communities and social elements, in a certain contexts all these elements follow each other. Reaction to protect children, according to this system, creates an environment where individuals themselves have the authority to change the system around them. FIG.2

Ecologic model is a system that analysis multiple indication and correlation that social elements have with an environment which is naturally connected with children interaction thru SNS.

During the adolescence years from 12 to 18 years old

Child has a need for;
- Appreciation and feeling that you belong
- Develop self-esteem
- To take more responsibilities
- To express their sexuality
- For interaction with their peers
- To get educated
- Discover and adventures
- Freedom and independence
- More knowledge’s about international culture and morals
- Hope for the future
- Role models

An adolescent learn and develops thru:
- Finding their own identity in the society
- Criticism/Rebellion
- Dangers behavior
- Discussion about life and death
- Finding their role models to follow
- New opinions and ideas
- Developing the morals the faith and values
- Separation from family

All the adolescence start to calculate to fulfill their needs, but each and every one has their own way of dealing with life, according to their modalities and their specific characteristics. Lukoff (2004) has identified certain factors that increase adolescents' tendency to the Internet.

2.1.1. To grow and develop with computer and internet.

In today’s world the majority of this group age spends a considerable time in the internet. According to com score Networks 713 million people ages 15 an older (representing 14% of the global population) used the internet in June 2006, with 153 million of those in America (Lipsman, 2006). These numbers are growing as computer technology and telecommunications capabilities reach further and deeper into the countries of the world. This type of media or communication naturally is very attracted to children and teens, because of interactive nature is very fit for group age, also because of new prospective and practical side of this new development. Also in Albania, with the slow motion, but steady has created the info structure that made it possible to use the internet; this is a phenomena that more often has been seen, although children are using the internet often as a resource without deep knowledge.

2.2. The impact of internet usage and SNS on social life

The use of technology always have had a impact on the development of society. Today’s interest in the technology of information, in creating and advancing; and developing the theory they look like interest never imagined before (Bar 2000). The information technology are in the center of the society’s net. Specially to create connection in the internet and to gather information. Adolescence are the biggest users of the internet and social network sites (SNS). The studies have discovered that the youth spend a big part of their time communicating through this technology. The most common questions about the use of this technology are connected with the effects that are caused by the use of this technology in their development. The use of a PC from adolescence has effect in their personal life, the family relations and the way they get along with their peers. In one analysis to internet users in a group made to 93 families, was discovered in the first year of their computer access adolescence spent most of the time online; showing an increase on the hostility in social involvements, and an increase of loneliness and depression feelings (Krout 1998). Researchers are concerned about their physical, social and personal development, from the long hours of usage on the computer (Dorman 1997 and Miller 1993).

2.3 Effects for short and long time utilization of the computer and internet (Runcan, Patricia Lucian 2009)

Some authors call computer and internet addiction “the one minute more syndrome” according to the answer of the person asked to leave the internet or to shut down the computer (Mitrofan, 2005). Due to the excessive utilization of the computer and internet, the most affected areas of the child and teenager’s life are the following: the health (mental and physical), the emotional and social life.
Among adolescents, both boys and girls are equally likely to go online, but younger teens remain slightly less likely to go online than older teens. Fully 95% of teens ages 14-17 go online compared with 88% of teens ages 12-13. Most of the variance among younger teens is accounted for by 12 year olds, of whom 83% go online compared to 92% of 13 year olds.
Teens continue to be avid users of social networking websites – as of September 2009, 73% of online American teens ages 12 to 17 used an online social network website, a statistic that has continued to climb upwards from 55% in November 2006 and 65% in February 2008.

Over recent years, there has been an explosion in the number of people using social networking websites, such as Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, and LinkedIn. Facebook, for instance, has over 800 million active users, and over a 100 million people use Twitter each day. These sites have brought with them many benefits, but also some downsides. It would be very beneficial to take a look at the advantage and disadvantage of these social networks.

2.3.1. Advantages of social networking

- Easy access to a large amount of information;
- Speed in finding worldwide events;
- A very attractive alternative in spending the free time;
- The improvement of the cognitive capacity;
- A strong self confidence, a higher self esteem;
- Decreasing the boredom and the temporarily depression;
- Increasing the number of friends from “chat” services;
- To refuge into another world.

2.3.2. Disadvantages of social networking

- Informational overload;
- Internet based relation addition;
- He forgets face to face communication;
- The student’s involvement in educational programs decreasing;
- Eye problems, headaches and back pains occur;
- Continuous tiredness due to the lack of sleep;
- The lack of physical activity;
- He is not pay attention to a basic needs;
- Low communication with his family;
Decreasing teenager’s social activities;
Increasing the depression and loneliness on long term.

3. SNS affect psychological well-being and self esteem

“I like my online friends more than my offline ones”

Adolescents are regarded as the best candidates for being Internet addicts (Mossbarger, 2008; Yen at al., 2007). Self-esteem and psychological well-being are two most common outcomes of interest in prior internet and SNS studies. A key debate among researchers considers whether higher use of the internet affect’s one’s self-esteem and psychological well-being (Kraut et al., 1998; Valkenburg and Peter, 2009). In these studies, it is seen that adolescents with low self-esteem tend to spend more time in social networking sites than those with higher self-esteem (Ellison, Steinfeld & Lampe, 2007; Steinfeld, Ellison & Lampe, 2008).

The researchers found that longer use of the internet was related to increased depression, loneliness, and smaller social circles. The results suggest that internet use isolates individuals from their friends and family, and has a negative impact on one’s psychological well-being. This effect is known as the reduction hypothesis (Valkenburg and Peter, 2009).

4. Internet use by Albanian’s Teen

From a study done in Albania, Tirana-Albanian from Media Institution with UNICEF support with 500 students ages 13-18 titled (children and media) resulted that internet is very important for Albanian youth; results conclude as followed (see graph below)

How important is internet in your life?

- Many: 68%
- Rather: 24%
- Few: 7%
- Nothing: 1%

The question about internet usage in their life the Albanian teenagers answers as follows: from 1 more and 5 less (see the graphic below)

This high frequency of internet use shows the tight connections that this age group has for this type of media. Impact as shown from the questioner, the often reason of internet use was visiting social network sites, were only a small part of people that were interviewed said they don’t use these sites. (See graph below)
You can surely say this group age, uses this way to communicate, there is no doubt they use this more than traditional media. Perhaps in some cases you can say that virtual reality that they got through the internet occupies more space in the lives of this group age compared to everyday reality.

5. Conclusions

This article offers an over look of the studies which show that technology, is an important part in adolescence life. At the same time studies show that youth behavior, from using of this technology is indicated behavior. For today’s youth the new technology of communications are important variable, which shows advantage and disadvantage analyzing these advantages will help imputing the right balance.

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Facebook Related Privacy Issues; Perception and Awareness among Albanian Users

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Abstract; Social media has become a must for everyone to stay in touch with the rest of the world. Immense information and data are exchanged through social media every instant. With more than 800 million active users1 Facebook has turned to be both a basic tool for and a mirror of social interaction, personal identity, and network building among users. However with the increase in usage of Facebook there are certain privacy issues and perceived risks associated with its usage. In this paper is investigated upon the privacy awareness of Albanian users on Facebook by analyzing the perception and behaviors of university students. The author tries to find out the extent Albanian users are concerned about how their identity information may be misused in different ways by third parties and how they understand the potential threats to their privacy. One more thing that was of much interest is whether Albanian users did allow Facebook to share their information with third parties or not. It is intended to figure out the behavior patterns of users affected by their awareness level. For this purpose a survey was conducted to 100 respondents. It is decided to focus more on university students as recent researches reveal that they are the most frequent Facebook users. Several papers and articles related to the topic were analyzed prior to start conducting the data analysis in order to get a clearer idea of the subject matter. The author came through interesting conclusions which are explained more in details in the Findings section.

Key Words: Facebook, Social Media, Privacy issues

1. Introduction

Even though still considered a relatively young technology, we can talk about social networking as a global phenomenon. According to a 2010 study done by PewResearchCenter nearly half of the users who have access to the Internet around the world are members of some online social networking.2

Information sharing in the form of hyperlinks, videos, status updates or photographs, has gained increasing popularity with the advent of online social networking sites.2 Especially among young people Web 2.0 technologies are viewed to have revolutionized their ability to communicate and exchange information without the need for face to face meetings (Anderson, 2007).

According to Boyd & Ellison (2007) social network sites are web-based services that allow users to construct a public or quasi-public profile within a system, to have a list of users’ friends and provide a view of their list of connections and those made by others within that system. As Shafie et al. (2011) state in their work the popularity of social media networks is due to their conversational tone as knowledge is effectively shared through a process of discussing, storytelling and collaborative editing.

Among social networks Facebook is definitely the most used social networking service by worldwide active users.3 We have come to a point that the life of a young boy/girl is almost unimaginable without having access to Facebook. Unlike other online networks, Acquisti & Gross (2006) state that Facebook offers its members very granular control on the searchability and visibility of their personal information (in particular, by friend or location, by type of user, and by type of data).

Despite the popularity Facebook has gained there are certain aspects of the privacy problem that have been examined by many researchers and still users keep on complaining about. There is a common belief that users shall be given as Hansen (2008) stresses “control of their identity” and so they will have greater control over their own privacy because as Bonneau & Preibusch (2009) admit there is now “strong evidence that the social networking market is failing to provide users with adequate privacy control”. Through Facebook, users have the chance to share information and

1 www.facebook.com/statistics
3 A January 2009 Compete.com study ranked Facebook as the most used social networking service
create their own social networks, however not everything is as easy as it seems because there are risks associated with sharing information with many people.

Users must be aware of the consequences that might happen with the information they and their friends reveal on Facebook, so that they make proper decisions about how to share their information.

In this perspective we will have a look at previous related works regarding Facebook privacy issues and after designing our hypotheses we will analyze our own findings through the conducted survey. Finally we will present our own conclusions.

2. Literature Review

Due to the huge and rapid development of social media in a few years of time, many researchers have done many studies on the impact of social media on individuals and society, often by focusing on the main problem social media raises that is privacy risks. Facebook privacy issues have been a subject matter for; Debatin (2009), Acquisti and Gross, (2006), Hansen (2008), Bonneau et al. (2009), Tuunainen et al. (2009), Tow et al. (2010), Liu et al. (2011), Stutzman, (2006), Boyd, (2010), Fletcher, (2010), Dwyer et al. (2008), Hey Tow et al. (2010), Lewis et al. (2008) etc.

Among many other researchers Brooks (2007) states that the real privacy risks arise when users disclose identifiable information about themselves online to people who they do not know well or normally would not trust (Brooks, 2007). Actually we need to have a clear idea about the meaning of privacy when analyzed in this context and as Bergman (2009) define it “Privacy...means the right to self-determination regarding data disclosure...each user should be able to control how much personal information he is willing to give to whom and for what purpose” (Bergman, 2009).

Facebook has been often blamed for its failure to protect users' privacy. In a report of the watchdog organization Privacy International following a six-month investigation into the privacy practices of 23 key Internet based companies Facebook was ranked in the second lowest category for “substantial and comprehensive privacy threats”.4

When someone first registers on Facebook, by default Facebook privacy settings will make his entire information viewable by anyone. The new user's profile is also viewable by anyone who is “friends” with him on Facebook. Meanwhile anyone who is not a friend of the new users even though cannot view his profile, by default they can still locate him using a global search function as well as view a version of his profile with only of his photograph, name, and some few other information. Lewis et al. (2008) from Harvard University state that in order to make yourself totally 'hidden' and not searchable to non-friends on Facebook there are several not easy steps that you have to follow in order to limit the visibility of your profile to strangers.

Hoffman (2010) in his work states that privacy is an issue for older people as younger people value the value of connection and transparency. This is supported by the research of Gross & Acquisti (2005) whose findings indicate that users are unconcerned about privacy risks. Furthermore Zuckerberg in his keynote Open Graph speech in 2010 would say "We're building a Web where the default is social" letting us understand that the Facebook guys believe the age of privacy is over. Unfortunately in this way Facebook users expose themselves to various risks like cyber risks, data theft, personal information used by advertisers without consent etc. Furthermore according to Tuunainen et al. (2009) unauthorized access to private information may cause economic losses to the individual (Tuunainen et al., 2009).

As stated in a joint document published by Facebook and the Province of Ontario’s Office of the Information and Privacy Commissioner, “at any point in time and potentially without any notice . . . information from your profile and logs of your online activities may be used and disclosed in unexpected ways that can affect your privacy”, showing that even Facebook admits that users' data may be used without any consent: (Cavoukian & Facebook 2007, p. 3).

Acquisti and Gross (2006) show in their study that the majority of Facebook members claim to know about ways to control the visibility and searchability of their profiles, however a significant minority of 30% of students are unaware of those tools and options. They claim that users do not know much about privacy settings and about who can have access to the information they share even though surprisingly users have high trust in Facebook and find their information safe. But Boyd & Ellison (2010) state that Facebook has a history of leaving default privacy settings at an open stage assuming the user wants to broadly share information.

Govani & Pashley, (2005) showed Facebook users having low levels of awareness about Facebook’s privacy policies. Furthermore, their study showed users’ awareness of Facebook’s privacy options/policy didn’t have a significant effect on the utilization of privacy tools.
A study done by Dunlap (2012) shows that even though 65% of respondents of a survey he conducted said they were comfortable with privacy protections on social media sites; they still were concerned about potential privacy risks. Based on the same study 28% percent of them expressed they were relatively uncomfortable about privacy protections. And among those who avoided social media sites, 73% cited privacy concerns as their main reason for not participating.

The findings of Reynolds et al. (2009) reveal that while overall privacy concerns are not reflected in posting behaviour, awareness and familiarity with privacy controls is reflected.

This is supported by Govani and Pashley (2007) too, as it results to them that 84% of participants in their study of Facebook reported that they are aware that they can change their privacy settings, but of those people, only 48% made use of the privacy settings, thus showing a big discrepancy among perception and actual behavior of Facebook users. Regarding this paradox Rauhofer (2008) argues that as long as people agree to give away their information in exchange for very small rewards this shows that they do not put much value on their privacy.

Despite the positive aspects that may be present while disclosing personal information in Facebook, there are potential negative consequences too that have to be taken into account. Peluchette and Karl, (2008) state that Facebook profiles have been used in assessing users' employment candidacy, and that students have been suspended from school and others criminally charged based on the information they posted on Facebook. Muise et al., 2009 observed that information disclosed in Facebook may potentially have a negative impact on romantic relationships of users.

The literature review above identifies the need for more investigation in order to understand why the phenomenon of disclosure of information on Facebook occurs despite knowledge of the potential privacy risks and consequences and ways how to prevent them.

Based on the literature review above, the following four hypotheses for the survey were proposed:

H1: Most Facebook users have limited familiarity with Facebook privacy settings.
H2: There is a negative relationship between Facebook users that are concerned about privacy issues and the degree their Facebook profiles are visible to others.
H3: Females seem to be more familiar with Facebook privacy settings than males.
H4: For most users, even though there is a trend of considering Facebook a waste of time it is an integral part of their everyday life.
H5: Generally speaking Facebook users do not trust that their identity information is well protected by Facebook.
H6: Facebook users aren’t fully aware of how does Facebook use or share their information with third parties.

3. Method

As far as the research subject is related to internet the method used to gather the empirical data is a web questionnaire. The paper’s research topic has been designed based on a survey analysis method. The survey has been adopted from Plew, M., S. (2011) from Georgia State University and Hoy & Milne (2010). The participants of the questionnaire were randomly recruited from the undergraduate and master studies of Epoka University, additionally the survey was randomly sent to few other people employed at Epoka University. The survey was mostly limited to the university environment because according to Gangadharbatla (2008), a student sample is a relevant and significant group, as college and university students fit the demographics of Social Network Sites (SNS) users. The data analysis is done based on the answers of about 100 participants; this convenience sample was justified because this is a novel research field for which data are not easy to obtain. The questionnaire was prepared by the help of Google Documents and was delivered to the students’ Epoka University web mail addresses. All the participants’ answers were stored to Google Docs waiting for being processed later on.

The questionnaire is divided into 3 sections and consists of 25 questions in total. Section 1 questions are close-ended demographic questions requiring participants to answer questions like gender, age, city coming from in order to get feedback from different geographical backgrounds and their year in university (freshman, sophomore, senior etc). The Section 2 questions are designed to collect information on Facebook Usage. In Section 3 the survey is focused on Facebook Privacy Issues. This section’s questions require participants to give information about their familiarity with Facebook privacy settings and how concerned are they about online privacy, about whether they have read the Facebook privacy policy, if they make changes in privacy settings or not. Several other questions are designed to understand users behavior towards privacy issues like who can see their Facebook profile, what they have revealed in their Facebook accounts, whether they feel that their identity is well-protected by Facebook or not, do they portray themselves in Facebook the same way as in real life or not etc.

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4. Findings

4.1 Demographics

The survey was published online up to the moment that the number of random respondents reached (n=100), and then we stopped collecting data and started analyzing the completed questionnaires. All the surveys were valid to be analyzed. Talking about the demographics of the survey respondents 57% were males and 43% females. 48% of respondents belonged to the age range 18-20 years old, 39% belonged to the range 21-23 years old, 9% of respondents declared themselves belonging to the range 24-26 years old, and only 5% were 27 or older. Regarding the city were respondents came from 44% of them came from the most populated area of Albania, from the cities of Tirana and Durrës, meanwhile the remaining part came from the rest of Albania. As previously stated the survey was conducted at Epoka University, so we made a question regarding the year of university they were enrolled in and the results show that 31% of respondents are Sophomore (2nd year) students, 22% Juniors (3rd year), 16% Freshmen (1st year) students, 15% Senior (4th year) students, 11% declared themselves as Master students and the remaining 6% declared themselves Other than the mentioned categories. We asked them about the daily time they spend on internet too and a considerable percentage of 41% of the respondents declared that they spend 1-3 hours a day navigating in internet. 23% of them admitted spending up to 5 hours a day in internet, 14% of the respondents would spend more than 5 hours of daily time in internet, meanwhile 18% declare spending less than one hour per day navigating in internet.

4.2 Facebook Usage

Of the respondents the vast majority of 85% have a Facebook account and 52% of those who have a Facebook account declare to have created it during their high school years and 16% created it when they entered university. The very low percentage (3%) of those who declared to have created their Facebook account before entering high school shows that Facebook is a relatively recent trend in Albania.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University Year?</th>
<th>Do you have a facebook account?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshman (1st Year)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore (2nd Year)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior (3rd Year)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior (4th Year)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master Student</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we make a Pivot table to see whether there is any relationship between the university class and having or not a Facebook account we can see from table 1 that there is a similar trend in all the classes and we can easily say that the university class does not have anything to do with having or not a Facebook account. Of those who actually have a Facebook account 25% of respondents visit Facebook 3-4 times a day, however there are about 18% of users who don’t visit Facebook every day. As the number of daily visits increases up to 9-10 times a day the percentage of visitors decreases up to 4%, but surprisingly after that point there is a sudden increase and 9% of respondents declare to visit Facebook 11 times or more per day. Further analysis on the gathered data give the chance to illustrate the time spent on Facebook daily. The highest percentage of users, about 21% of them spend 30-45 minutes on Facebook. It is interesting to see that about 27% of users dedicate from one hour to two hours a day to Facebook, which is a considerable amount of time.

Table 2. Reasons of Facebook use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Connect with people</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing Information/files</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make new friends</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintain old friends</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I don't know what else to use my time for</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 2 are presented the reasons of using Facebook and their respective percentages according to the answers of
respondents. We can notice that 72% of respondents use Facebook to be connected with people. 59% of them use Facebook as a mean of maintaining their relationships with old friends. Interestingly a considerable percentage of users declare to use Facebook as a mean of sharing information with others. This can be best supported by the recent Arab Spring riots in which people used mainly social media in order to share information with each other about the gatherings and events. Only 15% of respondents claim to use Facebook as a mean of making new friends which shows that Albanians still do not trust interactive ways of creating different relationships with others. 11% of users, in addition to other options or maybe for the only reason, say to use Facebook due to the fact they don’t know what else to use their time for.

As seen in table 3, the majority of Facebook users openly reveal their School and Country information at a percentage of 84% and 80% respectively. At the second line interestingly comes Religion at a rate of 58%, which shows that the majority of respondents do not hesitate to make public their religious beliefs. It can be noticed that as the information comes closer to the personal identity the percentage of those making it public falls, surely due to the fact they want to ensure their privacy is protected. Political Views are among the least revealed to others in facebook, which maybe happens as they want to prevent any kind of repercussions that may be raised towards them after stating their political views. This is actually weird because generally speaking Albanians like to state their political belongings, however this result is reasonable too because maybe they fear of keeping record of their political views.

4.3 Facebook Privacy Issues

H1 predicted that most Facebook users had limited familiarity with Facebook privacy settings; therefore, they will likely make little effort to protect their Facebook profile and would less likely make any privacy settings change. However contrary to H1 respondents resulted, as seen in table 4, considerably aware and familiar with privacy settings. More than 50% of Facebook users turn to be moderately familiar up to very familiar with privacy settings. Moreover when asked about when they did make their last change in their profile privacy settings only 9% of respondents admitted not to have made any privacy change and about 34% of them claimed to have made modifications in their profile privacy settings recently in spring 2012. Another reason to oppose H1 is the fact that only 7% of the respondents admit that everyone can see their profile, meanwhile 65% claim that only their friends can see the majority of their Facebook profile. In this way H1 was not supported.
information privacy issues and the degree their Facebook profiles are visible to others. In order to support H2 we need to prove that the majority of those users who have set their profiles to “Only my friends can see the majority of my profile” are concerned about Facebook privacy settings. As can be seen from table 5, the respondents who prefer to make their profile completely visible to everyone have almost an equal distribution in both sides of the Likert Scale. Meanwhile those who restrict certain parts of their profiles and those who show their profiles to only their friends are clearly positioned to a vast majority in the “Concerned” side of the Likert Scale. Consequently we can say that as the degree of concern increases Facebook users tend to make their profiles less visible to others. In this way H2 is supported.

Table 6. Gender based Familiarity with Privacy Settings Pivot Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender?</th>
<th>Very Low</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Very High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10.80%</td>
<td>2.70%</td>
<td>10.80%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>21.60%</td>
<td>10.60%</td>
<td>35.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>8.50%</td>
<td>6.60%</td>
<td>12.70%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>14.80%</td>
<td>14.80%</td>
<td>21.20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H3 predicted that Females are more familiar with Facebook privacy settings than males. As can be noticed from table 6, in terms of percentage, females fall moderately to a higher percentage in the “Familiar” side of the scale than males. Consequently it can be said that H3 is partly supported.

H4 claimed that even though there is a trend of considering Facebook a waste of time it is an integral part of users’ everyday life. It is very surprising to see that even though we found out that an absolute majority of respondents had a Facebook account, and that Facebook users are much related to it by visiting it at a mean of about 3 times a day and spending considerable time in it as listed in table 1, when we asked about at what extent they considered Facebook a waste of time very interesting results were taken. Facebook users at a rate of 62% consider or strongly consider Facebook as a waste of time. Only 13% of respondents do not consider Facebook as a waste of time. The findings in table 2 make us believe that there is a considerable discrepancy between the perceptions of Albanians and their actual behavior. In this way H4 is strongly supported.

Table 7. Identity protection by Facebook

| On a scale of 1-5 do you feel that your identity information is well-protected by Facebook? |
|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
|                                         | No                                       | Yes                                      |
|                                         | 1                                         | 2                                         | 3                                         | 4                                         | 5                                         |
|                                         | 26%                                       | 17%                                       | 23%                                       | 20%                                       | 7%                                        |

According to H5, generally speaking Facebook users do not trust that their identity information is well protected by Facebook. As seen from table 7 the percentage of those saying that their identity is definitely not well-protected is considerably high, 26%, meanwhile the percentage of those claiming that their identity information is well-protected by Facebook is extremely low, 7%. Those who think that their identity information is moderately protected and those who are skeptic in this issue are nearly equally distributed. When the data gathered from the surveys are analyzed we find out that only about 39% of respondents admit to portray themselves on Facebook the same way they do in real life, 35% does it only sometimes and the rest never portray themselves as they actually do in real life. Generally speaking we can say that Facebook users are skeptic and tend to believe that their identity information is not well-protected by Facebook. Thus we can say that, even though not strongly, H5 is supported.

H6 predicted that Facebook users are not fully aware of how does Facebook use or share their information with third parties. According to the answers gathered from the respondents we found out that about 30 % of respondents don’t know how may Facebook use the information they post on their profiles. Moreover a surprising 40% of Facebook users don’t know whether Facebook shares their information with third parties like advertisers. Only 33% are sure that Facebook doesn’t share their information with advertisers. Consequently H6 is supported.

6. Conclusion

The findings of this paper conclude that Albanian young Facebook users are aware and concerned about their privacy and most importantly they show to be to a certain extent familiar with Facebook privacy settings. The absolute majority of respondents had a Facebook account and the majority of them claim to have created it during their high school years.
Their behavior towards privacy issues suggests that they are attentive as an absolute majority of them told us to have restricted their profile visibility. However when it comes to trust that Facebook protects their identity information, they show skeptic attitudes. Interestingly we viewed a discrepancy between how they considered Facebook as a waste of time and still they give strong reasons to make us believe that Facebook is an integral part of their daily life. We noticed that users are not fully aware about how may Facebook use their information and share it with third parties even though they say it is very important that they are aware and knowledgeable about how their personal information will be used when submitted online. Finally we suggest that Facebook users need to be further educated about the risks and potential threats to their privacy and encouraged to be careful about their identity information posted on Facebook. We hope that our findings in this paper may contribute to this process.

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In Pursuit of Performance Assessment in Higher Education: Between Rankings and Institutional Diversity

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Abstract: The New Public Management reform wave emanated by US and UK liberal governments in the 80’s stressed the need for developing public accountability systems based on performance indicators across all types of public services. University ranking systems are an important and useful tool in comparing universities and in stimulating competition among them. But are these rankings adequate in evaluating and comparing different universities coming from different cultural contexts or holding different institutional profiles? Accordingly, the main argument stressed in the paper is that internationally-used university ranking systems favor research-oriented higher education institutions leaving aside universities with traditional teaching or learning as main activities, thus affecting institutional diversity. I conclude by offering alternative ways for assessing higher education performance taking into account institutional diversity.

Keywords: higher education, performance, institutional diversity, university, ranking systems, research

1. Introduction

In the last past three decades there has been a worldwide research focus on developing performance indicators in the education sector due to a general widespread wave of public management reforms with a specific emphasis on performance management and instruments of measurement. In this respect, „performance” has become a common conceptual denominator for solving certain public needs, such as reducing budget deficits, redefining responsibilities between actors (legislative vs. executive, public sector vs. market, politics vs. administration) and redesigning mechanisms of accountability (Bouckaert, 2009).

In the European Union context, higher education is being regarded as a key element for creating and assuring a „knowledge-based society” through transfer of knowledge, products and technologies into the economic environment and as well as through delivering high qualified human resources. As result, there is a strong international science policy trend that emphasizes the research performance of the university sector due to an increase of both public and private financial dependence which led to a performance-based budgeting strategy. As Serenko and Dohan (2011) well say, the contemporary society is fascinated with ranking, and the academia hasn’t been an exception as well. University ranking systems have burst out since the 2000’s with the most popular international academic ranking report of Shanghai Academic Ranking of World Universities published in 2003 which places American and UK universities at the top of 500 best universities. In the last few years, the Shanghai ranking system has been heavily criticized because of its emphasis on measuring scientific research productivity in terms of number of papers published in Science and Nature journals and citations by paper, diminishing or even ignoring the importance of social and art sciences or by eliminating books and conference papers as significant publications though they may well contain valuable scientific information (Frey & Rost, 2010, Moed, 2005).

2. Institutional diversity in Higher Education

2.1. The change of paradigm

In his article on Karl Jaspers' “Renewal of the University”, Jürgen Habermas (1987) tackles the phenomenon of expansion that has evolved after World War II in higher education, which led Talcott Parsons to speak of an “educational revolution” (p.3), thus affecting and changing both nature and structure of higher education systems. Since then, there

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1 Beneficiary of the “Doctoral Scholarships for a Sustainable Society” project, project co-financed by the European Union through the European Social Fund, Sectoral Operational Programme Human Resources and Development 2007-2013
has been a growing demand to widen access to higher education, which was bound to change the elitist nature of universities (Rosenblit et al., 2007, p. 373). For example, in the German Reich between 1933 and 1939, the number of students had been cut in half, dropping from 121,000 to 56,000, and by the mid 1950’s, 50 universities could already accommodate 150,000 students (Habermas & Blazek, 1987, p. 5). The phenomenon of massification in education, in general, and in higher education, in particular, which began to take place after the 50’s, called for a reanalysis and reassessment of the role of education in a postindustrial society. OECD publication of Universities under Scrutiny (1987) was the first official point of view regarding the changing role of higher education and it came to question “its very purposes and functions in post-industrialized societies”. Policy proposals sketched by the OECD referred to coupling university’s self-definition with external expectations by designing policies that would promote greater vocationalism and a sense of “appliedness” (Peters, 2004, p. 68), as well as a greater focus on efficiency, productivity and accountability. However, the massification of higher education within OECD countries also involved rethinking new funding models apart from those delivered by the state. In this sense, funding becomes the new key variable in dealing with higher education policies.

Starting with the 80’s, in higher education spectrum a change of paradigm in terms of what universities are supposed to be and to offer in the larger context of a knowledge-based society has been taking place. In this new context, universities are expected to adapt faster than before to maintain their leading role in contributing to societal progress (Rinne & Koivula, 2009, p. 186). The trend included state budget cuts, pressure for efficiency, conditional contracting, evaluation systems, managerialism and emphasis on the values of an enterprise culture (2009, p. 183). On the one hand, higher education is being regarded as having a social value by matching its production of knowledge to the social and economic needs given in a certain national, regional or international context. In this certain case, knowledge turns into a commodity and its transfer into the society the most important universities’ feature, or as Peters stressed it (2004, p. 73), knowledge is now valued for its strict utility rather than as an end in itself or for its enlightenment effects. On the other hand, the concept of research has suffered significant transformations. The notion of “problem solving research” introduced by Gibbons at al. (1994) gives account of thinking of scientific research as a central element in the “new production of knowledge”, as well as an account for the third mission attached to universities, apart from its classical features of teaching and learning (Laredo, 2007, p. 445). This third mission is intimately connected to research activities and to its purposes.

2.2. Higher education governance in the context of a knowledge-based society

In the last past thirty years, the concept of governance in the field of education, and mainly in higher education, has suffered structural changes with the redefinition of the roles of the state and universities in designing education policy strategies. Several researchers have been discussing even about a “hollowing out” of the nation state and the emergence of network governance mode of public management (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2007, Enders, 2004, Neave, 2000) with functions moving from the nation state upwards to European Union level (Ferlie et al. 2008). Developing this topic, Guy Neave (2000) argues that this change of paradigm that characterizes the field of higher education and which has been undergoing for the last fifty years has marked the transition from “comprehensive” to “specialized” university (p. 25). That is, the vision of university having a full range of faculties has shifted to a narrower one which encourages institutions to get specialized, thus restricting the range of disciplines, research fields, and saleable services. On the other hand, Jürgen Enders (2004) highlights the national dimension of universities by recalling that the contemporary university was born of the nation state and it was only until the 19th – marked by the nation-building process in Europe - and 20th century that it acquired its identification with science and technology (p. 365). There are several features that have been identified and which have influenced and reshaped the relation between state and universities in the last few decades. These refer to the process of massification in higher education which has begun after World War II, but also to globalization and internationalization (Bleiklie & Kogan, 2007, Enders 2004, Neave, 2000, Rinne & Koivula, 2009). As such, the concept of governance in higher education has gained new dimensions. One of the most significant relates to what Bleiklie and Kogan call the university as a stakeholder organization (2007, p. 477). In this view, the state is no longer the predominant player in regulating the higher education sector, but there are other stakeholders interested in higher education’s inputs, processes and outcomes, and they vary from public bodies to transnational organizations, funding organisms, private firms, students.

In this respect, the European Commission has put forward a clear vision for the governance of European higher education institutions, which includes, among other things, a diversification of funding resources, an intensification of ties between universities and industries and a closer match between the supply of qualifications and labour market demands (Dobbins et al. 2011, p. 666). Moreover, the evolution of higher education policy in the early 1980’s has to be seen not as
a narrative driven by a changing higher education agenda, but mainly by a series of agendas, financial, social and
economic, consequent on higher education’s absorption into the public policy making context (Shattock, 2009, p. 182).

On the other hand, the changing role of universities, along with processes of massification and internationalization,
represents an additional argument for sustaining it. The massive expansion of higher education across all continents has
been one of the defining features of the late 20th century and early 21st century, by the 2000 the total enrolment within
higher education institutions was about 100 million students, representing about 20% of the relevant age cohort
worldwide (Rosenblit et al. 2007, p. 374). In the European Union context, the governance of higher education has been
shaped through the initialization of what is known as the Bologna process, represented by a series of intergovernmental
conferences of European education ministers at which programmatic declarations and communiqués were passed (Witte,

2.3. Institutional diversity in Higher Education

The concept of diversity applied to university systems is being perceived as an inherent good (Huisman et al. 2007); in
writing of higher education in the US (King, 2004, p. 166), Robert Birnbaum described institutional diversity as one of its
“major ideological pillars” and as having “a strong ethical component”. It is often argued that a more diversified system
enhances much better students’ choices and consequently levels of participation (Huisman et al. 2007, p. 563). Debates
on higher education diversification can be traced back in the 1960s when the structure of higher educational systems
became a major issue in higher education policies. In this sense, the establishment of polytechnics in UK, the
Institutes Universitaires de Technologie in France and the Fachhochshulen in Germany initially supported the view that most
European countries placed prime emphasis on institutional diversity (Rosenblit, 2007, King, 2004), and that two-type or
multi-type structures were likely to emerge in many countries. Starting with the 1980s, efforts have been made for
defining diversity in higher education, what is intended to achieve and finding ways for fostering it.

But the notion that universities should specialize and focus on what they are good at has a long history, particularly in
the US, initially formulated to justify a plurality of religious environments to match respective practices of students and
staff (King, 2004, p. 119).

Birnbaum’s classification of seven forms of diversity gained popularity among scholars in the field: systemic diversity
(institutional diversity), structural diversity (organizational dimensions), programmatic diversity (curricula), procedural
diversity (modes of teaching), reputation diversity, constitutiential diversity (types of students served), values and climate
diversity (internal culture and social environment) (Teichler 2008). In recent accounts of institutional patterns of the higher
education system, Teichler (1998, 2007) points out that national higher education systems are described concretely in
most cases according to: different types of HE institutions, different types of programs (academic versus professional),
various levels of programs – sub-degree, bachelor, master and doctoral programs), variation in reputation and prestige
within formally equal institutions and programs, different substantive profiles of institutions and study programs.

On the other hand, Huisman et al. (2007, p. 566) analyzes higher education diversity relative to five dimensions:
institutional size, form of institutional control, range of disciplines offered, degrees awarded, and modes of study. Most of
these analysis emphasize the multidimensional aspect of the concept of diversity in higher education arguing that the last
changes in higher education governance which have undergone for the past thirty years - diversification of funding
sources, introducing market competition in attracting resources and creating public accountability mechanisms and
quality assurance procedures – have rather led to a process of homogenization of HE systems. Moreover, competition for
scarce resources, mainly funds for research, causes institutions to become more similar because the uniform
environmental conditions of competition bring forth similar responses. Accordingly, national HE systems worldwide have
been moving from a “specialized regime”, that is institutions which are supposed to develop their own specific profiles,
towards an “integrative regime”, featuring a standardized system where all institutions are defined and measured
according to one set of criteria (Zha, 2009, p. 460). This move away from specific and distinct missions and profiles of HE
institutions stands for an increasingly determination by hierarchical orders which makes institutions more vertically
diverse, but often engaging in “academic drift” (Bleiklie, 2007), that is a drift toward the structure and norms typical of
more prestigious universities (Morphew & Huisman, 2002, p. 492). As a consequence, Morphew and Huisman argue that
in many countries in the world, colleges and universities are growing more alike over time as smaller, newer, less
comprehensive institutions become more like their larger, older, more comprehensive peers. In US, examples of
academic drift would include four-year colleges adding Master’s degree programs and comprehensive universities adding
Doctoral degrees. On the one hand, studies like those of Morphew and Huisman (2002), Neave (1979, 2000), show that
this type of academic drift can be explained as universities’ response to complying with standards of quality, and to the
quest for prestige. On the other hand, scholars like Rossi (2010) and Zha (2009) propose that HE institutions are neither
becoming strictly homogeneous and isomorphic at a national or global level, nor highly differentiated and polymorphic at the local-organizational level, but they could rather be conceived as variants of the three major institutional archetypes constructed on two dimensions: functional and operational.

3. Higher education performance assessment and rankings

3.1. Performance

There can be identified three main reasons for the legitimacy of performance and university rankings use. The first one relates to performance-based budgeting and resources allocation in higher education sector due to the major financial shift from state allocations to more and more capital flow coming from the private sector and NGOs. This trend has led to what some of the scholars (Toutkoushian & Webber, 2011, p. 123) define as “academic capitalism” and the possibility of research for financial gain more than for authentic discovery of knowledge. Another reason is public accountability regarding stakeholders giving evidence for ways of spending public funds as well as the increasing significance of research, development and innovation in the context of a knowledge-based society and economy. The demand for quality has created the incentives for designing higher education performance measurement tools for research, teaching and learning, a quality assessment movement along with the development of new performance indicators. Thus, several performance assessment forms started to put increasing pressure on the academy, with universities being “sandwiched” between the state and the market, between imposed external evaluations and their self-evaluation of the pursuit of their own objective (Sarrico et al. 2010, p. 36). In this respect, the problem of measuring research performance is a highly debated issue, for policy makers, administrators, academic community and various stakeholders involved in the academic process. Assessing higher education research performance is possible by creating and using a set of indicators that measure both the impact and the productivity of scientific research. Scientific research is considered to be the most important field in higher education because of its main function of creating and developing new knowledge and technologies. Research performance indicators are designed to highlight the productivity of researchers from different education fields and the impact of their products, respectively the number of published papers and the number of citations per paper (Hirsch 2005). Bibliometric indicators and peer review are regularly used for this purpose, and the most popular rankings are those that use publications and citations as indicator of scientific worth (Frey and Rost, 2010, p. 2). But these bibliometric tools are purely quantitative reflecting the position or rather the significance of a scholar, university or country relative to others (Butler, 2007, Dill & Soo, 2011, Frey & Rost, 2010), and there have been some attempts to differentiate quantity from quality in evaluating research outputs through peer-review systems. On the other hand, efforts have been made for introducing recursive field-normalization bibliometric indicators that try to correct for the fact that the density of citations differs among fields (Waltman et al. 2011).

3.2. University rankings

Beside the use of performance indicators in evaluating higher education institutions specific activities such as research, teaching and learning, there is also a more world-wide recent focus on university ranking systems or league tables in providing valuable information regarding education quality for improving the international market for higher education. Following the example of the US News ranking, a growing number of commercial media and research institutions have begun to release ranking world-wide or nationally (Shin & Toutkoushian, 2011, 2) and some of the most well-known international ranking systems include the Academic Ranking of World Universities by Shanghai Jiao Tong University, the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES), World’s Best Universities Ranking – US News and World, Leiden University Ranking, the Taiwan Higher Education, the Accreditation Council ranking and others. According to Shin & Toutkoushian (2011), in 2009 there were at least 33 ranking systems of higher education around the world. The ranking systems mentioned above comprise a combination of institutional performance variables in fields like research, teaching, services, and a set of institutional characteristics - mission, size, external environment. The differences between these systems lay on the one hand in the criteria used, and on the other hand, in the weight that is being attached to those criteria as well as data collection and analysis (Guarino, Ridgeway, Chun & Buddin, 2005, Liu & Liu, 2005, Miguel, Vaquera & Sanchez, 2005). In the following section I describe three of these international university ranking systems, namely the Academic Ranking of World Universities or Shanghai Ranking against the Times Higher Education Supplement in order to highlight the main differences and convergence in higher education quality debates.

3.2.1. Academic Ranking of World Universities (Shanghai Ranking)
The story of ARWU actually begins in 1998 when Shanghai Jiao Tong University (SJTU) was selected by the Chinese government to be among the first group of nine universities in the ‘985 Project and this ranking was first published in 2003 and has been updated since then annually (EUA Report on Rankings, 2011). Shanghai Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU), was initially designed to compare Chinese universities’ research performance in the fields of science and technology, and to compare performance between the Chinese national higher education sector and the rest of the world, especially the United States, thus being primarily a tool for steering national research policy and planning; it therefore targeted policy makers and public authorities (in particular the ministries of education, science and technology) (Westerheijden, 2010, p. 40).

ARWU ranks universities based on their success in four fields: quality of education, quality of faculty, research output and per capita performance of the university and the weights for each are as at follows:

1. 10% quality of education expressed in alumni of an institution winning Nobel prizes and Fields Medals;
2. 20% quality of faculty expressed in staff of an institution winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals;
3. 40% research outputs expressed in two directions:
   a. Papers published in Nature and Science – 20%
   b. Papers indexed in Science Citation Index-expanded and Social Science Citation Index – 20%
4. 10% per capita performance of the university expressed in per capita academic performance of an institution with respect to the size of the institution.

Looking at these criteria, it can be argued that this ranking system is highlighting a research-oriented perspective on higher education quality, mainly through the major weight attached to research performance indicators. As such, the second criterion awards points for the number of highly cited researchers a university has in a broad range of academic disciplines, thus attending to the important question of a university’s ability to attract outstanding researchers in various fields (Taylor & Braddok, 2007, p. 253).

3.2.2. The World University Ranking – Times Higher Education

The Times Higher Education World University Rankings was first published in 2004, and, in a certain way, it was an ‘answer’ to the Shanghai ARWU ranking that was first published in 2003. Then, Times Higher Education Supplement, which later became the independent Times Higher Education Ranking, used Quacquarelli-Symonds (QS) as its data collection and processing engine between 2004 and 2009. In 2009 the Times Higher Education (hereafter THE) announced that it was ceasing cooperation with QS and that a new cooperation was being established with Thomson Reuters (Baty, 2009 in EUA Report on Ranking 2011). Between 2005-2009, THE focused its measurements not only on research performance aspects but also on features related to mechanisms of peer review as well as the size of institutions. Thus, the major weights are being attached to peer review both academic and institutional, on research and student enrollment rate. The turning point is evident, expressing the heavy critics brought over time to the international university ranking systems.

In 2009, the Times Higher Education has signed an agreement with Thomson Reuters to provide data and the methodology has been revisited and changed by introducing new indicators and weights for its 2010 ranking:

- Economic activity/Innovation - Research income from industry -2.5%
- International mix – staff and students – 5%
- Teaching – the learning environment – 30%
- Research – volume, income and reputation – 30%
- Citation - research influence – 32.5%

The changing methodology goes hand in hand with a change of approach in defining and understanding quality and performance in higher education. The 2009 new methodology focuses mainly on reputation surveys and on the added value of education in the broader framework of a knowledge-based society. Research performance is measured along with quality in teaching and its outputs. With respect to reputation surveys on teaching, they are based on surveys of experienced scholars. Thus, though more than a third of the overall weight has been assigned to the bibliometric indicators, the reputation surveys also continue to constitute over one third of the total weight. Beside reputation and social and economic added value, the rank puts emphasis on regional comparability as well as on subject areas. The
regions include Europe, Asia, North America, South America, Oceania and Africa and among subjects, it covers life sciences, arts and humanities, social sciences, engineering and technology, health and physical sciences, thus rendering the opportunity of ranking HE institutions by region and by subject.

4. The struggle between “performing” and “being different”

4.1. World-class university rankings: revealing what, which and who’s quality

Taking a closer look at the two world university rankings, they each try to outline a certain definition of what academic quality is. The main research question addressed here is if the notions of quality implied by these rankings do really reflect academic quality or is there another way of dealing with quality in education that takes into account institutional diversity, or better said, is this notion of quality enhanced by these rankings compatible with differences among higher education institutions in terms of mission, academic profile and external environment? In effect, the act of choosing a set of indicators and weightings imposes a one-size-fits-all definition of quality (Usher & Savino, 2009, p. 257).

Both systems are highly research-oriented and reward institutions with a scientific profile. Ellen Hazelkorn (2007) argues that bio-sciences are favored because their activity is best captured in internationally, publicly available and verifiable database, e.g. Scopus, or Thomson ISI. Another side-effect refers to the preference for English speaking journals and non-native English speaking academics are required to publish in these journals if they want to perform. As a consequence, these rankings turn out to be misleading in that they may over-differentiate among institutions, assigning different rankings to institutions that may be more or less indistinguishable (Guarino et al. 2005, p. 148). Moreover, it is often argued that rankings are handicapped by methodological concerns due to the fact that there is no clear, agreed-upon measure of quality. Thus, this lack of consensus drives systems into creating their own set of indicators based on available data and combining it in a formula that can be questioned both on the basis of its contributing elements and the manner in which those elements are aggregated. As noted above, higher education ranking systems and calculations depend heavily on published and available data (Vaquera & Sanchez, 2005, p. 204), but also on the purpose of the ranking. For instance, international rankings such as Shanghai and THE rather serve as a “reputation barometer” because they do not intend to label HE institutions as “the best”, being limited only to hierarchy. However, even if their main purpose is not labeling, these systems are being intensively criticized by academia both for methodological short-comes and research performance orientation. But the issue of quality in higher education cannot be resumed to what and how it is being measured, but it also raises questions on how and what we understand as quality; thus, one should better discuss the qualities of higher education than its quality (Blackmur as cited in Sarrico et al. 2010, p. 40) and several studies point at a multidimensional approach on higher education quality due to the complexity of the matter. The multidimensionality of quality in higher education is also due to the different dimensions associated with fulfillment of higher education’s mission, namely the quality of inputs, outputs and processes, which have to be combined with the demands put forward by students, universities and society each time one intends to assess quality (2010).

The current debates around higher education policies and governance concern mainly identifying the means to accommodate HE institutions’ compliance with general performance and quality standards and criteria with creating incentives for institutional diversification. Moreover, a particularly debated issue is whether, and to what extent, current trends of change in higher education governance – globalization, internationalization and quality management - have led to more diverse systems, able to accommodate a wider range of student needs and preferences, and to perform a broader range of functions (Rossi, 2010, p. 277). It is argued that increasing vertical and horizontal diversification is most likely to be the result of growing “competition for success” (Teichler as cited in Kitawaga & Oba, 2010, p. 508). In the realm of the market economy, universities are no longer competing only for funding and resources, but they also strive for international recognition and prestige. For this record, the use of rankings and league tables in the field of higher education highlights the importance which education and research have gained over the last past thirty years. The value of education and research is no longer assessed on an academic scale, with knowledge being an end itself. In their research on the Japanese higher education system, Kitawaga and Oba (2010) talk about a differentiation of HEIs not only according to specialization by functional categories (e.g. teachers’ colleges, engineering, nursing, liberal or research universities), but also such diversity is ordered hierarchically, from two-year colleges and bachelor degree institution to graduate ones (universities). Consequently, the worldwide trend is that each higher education system has established a hierarchical system, with a standardized rank order where all institutions are measured and positioned with respect to an often limited set of criteria (Bleiklie, 2003, p. 343).

At European Union level, the debates around the use of global rankings have moved to the supranational level. In this line, on 2 June 2009, the EU Commission announced the launching of a feasibility study to develop a multi-dimensional
global university ranking, called U-Multirank (Vught & Ziegele, 2011). The basic argument behind the project holds that existing rankings tend to focus on research in "hard sciences" and ignore the performance of universities in areas like humanities and social sciences, teaching quality and community outreach. While drawing on the experience of existing university rankings and of EU-funded projects on transparency in higher education, the new ranking system should be: multi-dimensional: covering the various missions of institutions, such as education, research, innovation, internationalization, and community outreach, transparent: it should provide users with a clear understanding of all the factors used to measure performance and to offer them the possibility to consult the ranking according to their needs, global: covering institutions inside and outside Europe (in particular those in the US, Asia and Australia).

4.2. Reconciling Rankings and Diversity in Higher Education

In the past few years, several studies in the field of higher education performance assessment (Hazellkorn, 2007, Langberg & Schmidt, 2010, Rossi, 2010, Vught & Westerheijden, 2010) have drawn attention on the lack of transparency regarding global rankings methodologies and have questioned the notion of quality embedded in them. Altogether, parallel to global ranking systems like Academic Ranking of World Universities by Shanghai Jiao Tong University, the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES), World Best Universities Ranking, alternative performance evaluation systems have been developing in the past four-five years both at national level as well as at a regional or supranational one.

As it has already been mentioned, in 2009 the EU Commission took a stand in developing a pilot project designed to enhance a more comprehensive approach to rankings in higher education. Therefore, the project encompassed design and testing of a new transparency tool for higher education and research. More specifically, the focus was on a transparency tool that will enhance our understanding of the multiple performances of different higher education and research institutions across the diverse range of activities they are involved in: higher education and research institutions are multi-purpose organizations and different institutions focus on different blends of purposes and associated activities (Vught & Ziegele, 2011). As such, another emphasis has been stressed in the direction of enabling a more profound understanding of the diversity in the profiles and performances of higher education and research institutes at a national, European and global level. On the basis of an extensive stakeholder consultation process (focusing on relevance) and a thorough methodological analysis (focusing on validity, reliability and feasibility), U-Multirank (2011, p. 18) includes a range of indicators that will enable users to compare the performance of institutions across five dimensions of higher education and research activities: teaching and learning, research, knowledge transfer, international orientation, regional engagement. In order to be able to apply the principle of comparability we have integrated the existing transparency tool – the U-Map classification – into U-Multirank. It is a user-driven higher education mapping tool that allows users to select comparable institutions on the basis of “activity profiles” generated by the U-Map tool. These activity profiles reflect the diverse activities of different higher education and research organizations using a set of dimensions similar to those developed in U-Multirank. The underlying indicators differ as U-Map is concerned with understanding the mix of activities an institution is engaged in (what it does), while U-Multirank is concerned with an institution’s performance in these activities (how well it does what it does). Thus, integrating U-Map into U-Multirank enables the creation of user-selected groups of sufficiently comparable institutions that can then be compared in focused institutional or field-based rankings. U-Multirank was tested in a pilot study involving 159 higher education institutions drawn from 57 countries: 94 from within the EU; 15 from other European countries; and 50 from outside Europe. The pilot test demonstrated that multi-dimensional institutional and field level ranking is certainly possible in terms of the development of feasible and relevant indicators. It also showed the value of multi-dimensionality with many institutions and faculties performing very differently across the five dimensions and their underlying indicators. On national level, few examples in this direction can be encountered in Germany within the CHE University Ranking system (http://www.che-ranking.de) which ranks universities in a multidimensional manner; that is for a given subject, no overall value is derived from weighted individual indicators. CHE conducts regular surveys of approximately 130,000 students and 16,000 faculties, covering nearly 250 higher education institutes in Germany and the student surveys are very extensive and ask a number of questions about both student experiences and student satisfaction (Usher & Savino, 2009, p. 262). It is argued that the CHE Ranking system accounts for institutional diversity, holding individual strengths and weaknesses even within a subject (such as course offerings, tutoring and equipment). Nevertheless, there is no empirical or theoretical basis on which to give weighting to individual indicators. Moreover, it gives a picture of HEIs from different perspectives due to the fact that, in addition to facts about departments and study programmes, the views of lecturers and students are also taken into account when drawing up the ranking. Even though it is designed as a ranking system, it does not attach numerical ranking position to HEIs.
The CHE ranking of German university departments differs from traditional league tables in two notable ways. First, as noted above, it does not weight or aggregate individual indicator scores. Each department's data on each indicator is allowed to stand independently, and no attempt is made to rank departments on an ordinal scale. In doing so, the CHE approach cedes the power of defining quality to the consumers of the ranking system (2009, p. 263). In early 2010, the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Albania commissioned CHE – Centre for Higher Education Development - to develop a concept for a ranking of Albanian higher education institutions and to test it in a first pilot study in selected fields (CHE, 2011). The basic methodology of the concept for the Albanian ranking is based on the CHE ranking methodology which differs in major characteristics from most rankings yet at the same time has a high reputation internationally: the ranking will be field-based and will not compare whole universities, the ranking will be multidimensional and look on teaching, research and other dimensions without aggregating the indicators into a composite overall score, the ranking will apply a grouping approach to ranking; it will not calculate a league table.

5. Concluding remarks

The change of paradigm brought about new elements in structuring higher education realms all over the world and it included multi-level governance and shared responsibilities between state, universities and society on the one hand, and students as education purchasers on the other hand. Rankings and league tables issued by transnational organizations or newspapers offer a one-size-fits-all dimension of quality through choosing certain sets of indicators and the weights attached to them. I stress here that comparing two international ranking systems which measure the performance of universities world-wide the emphasis is on measuring scientific research outputs, like number of published articles in scientific journals, number of citation per paper, which place on the top of the list those universities which focus mainly on research activities, leaving aside teaching, learning and other education services. In the past few years, several studies in the field of higher education performance assessment have drawn attention on the lack of transparency regarding global rankings methodologies and have questioned the notion of quality embedded in them. For this record, parallel to global ranking systems alternative performance evaluation systems have been developing. They aim to combine different performance indicators measured against various criteria and to create institutional profiles in which every university can fit according to its own mission, strategies, student profiles and specific education activities. In this context, reconciling higher education performance assessment through rankings with institutional diversity is possible by using a broader set of criteria that enhance measuring performance on a variety of dimensions, including teaching and learning activities.

References


Attitude, Perception and Practices of Male and Female Youth in Regard to Corruption in Nigeria: Implication for Development

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Abstract: Corruption in Nigeria is growing deeper and deeper despite the war against corruption. This study examines the attitude, perception, and practices of youths, male and female in Nigeria in regard to corruption and its effect on development. The objectives of the study include: investigating the view of the youths about corruption in Nigeria, examining the various types of corruption, discovering the practice of the youths in regard to corruption, scrutinizing the implication of corruption on development, and determining ways of eradicating corruption in the society. Quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used; hence, questionnaire and in-depth interview (IDI) were used to collect information. The data was analyzed using statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Variables were cross tabulated in order to provide association among variables. The qualitative method was analyzed using descriptive analysis to strengthen the quantitative analysis. The finding reveals that corruption is present among the youths. It is recommended that it is only when individuals make decisions about curbing corruption at individual level that development in all ramifications can come to reality in Nigeria.

Key words: Attitude, Perception, Practice, Youth, Male, Female, Corruption

Introduction

There is no doubt corruption is not a recent phenomenon, neither is it peculiar to any nation, region and ethnic group. It cuts across every sphere of the society and institutions such as education, health, family, religion, economy and politics. The practice of corruption has been everywhere in complex societies. As pointed out by Lipset and Lenz (2000), corruption cut across faiths, religious denominations and political system. It exists in all political systems be it democratic, dictatorial politics, feudal, capitalism and socialism. History revealed that during the First Republic in Nigeria corruption was rampant yet it was kept at controllable level and the cases of corruption at the time were occasionally initiated by political squabbling. It is argued by Olufayo (2006) that the practice of corruption in Nigeria came to birth in the 1970s as a result of petroleum industry. Hence, corruption cannot be over flogged in Nigeria academic circle, in view of the fact that there is no sustainable solution to the menace of the problem; it continues to remain a social issue that needs unending effort in making sense of the corrupt practices through constant investigation to proffer a long-term solution.

Regardless of all efforts corruption continues to manifest itself in virtually every sector of Nigeria society. It is pointed out by Adefolaju (2008) that despite the natural and human resources that are abundant in Nigeria society corruption has eaten up so immensely into the foundation of Nigeria. The availability of these natural resources which have not even been explored to full capacity is an indication that Nigeria is not a poor country and that it is possible for Nigeria citizens to live above poverty line. Corruption in the oil sector has deprived millions of Nigerians from benefiting from the wealth that comes from this natural resource. The few individual that enjoys the dividends of oil revenue in Nigeria are the elites and the capitalists. Of recent, the oil subsidy was removed which almost caused a revolution in the country. The removal was spurred out of the desire of the leadership to eradicate corruption in the oil sector. In spite of the revenue that has been gotten from the natural resources in Nigeria, the nation still lag behind in terms of development be it physical or human development. Late Julius Nyerere in Yusuf (2008) defined development as “a process which enables human beings to realize their potential, build self-confidence, and lead lives of dignity and fulfillment. It is a process, which frees people from the fear of want and exploitation”. This idea of development is not possible in a country where people struggle to make ends meet through corruption.

It was opined by Agbakoba (1996) that over 20 million Nigerians have no access to potable water. This assertion was also echoed by WHO/UNICEF (2006), that Nigeria is not making a rapid progress towards meeting the MDGs 7 target
which intends to halve the proportion of people who are unable to afford safe drinking water and sanitation as 52 percent of the population of Nigerian has no access to water while 56 percent has no access to basic sanitation facilities. The questions that agitate the mind are why the persistent of corruption in Nigeria? Why is it so difficult to wrestle with this virus of corruption that has infected almost everybody in the society? What is the thinking and practice of the youths about corruption? What kinds of corruption exist in Nigeria society? What is the effect of corruption on development in Nigeria? What is the way forward? These are the issues this study wish to discover. As postulated in Nigeria Survey and Corruption Survey Study, Final Report (2003), the success of the colonists in terms of the flashing cars they used and the houses they lived was desirable by the indigenous people as a result they sought to emulate the colonists in acquiring property. However, during this period these properties were seen as colonist’s property; hence, looting, vandalizing public property was not considered a crime. The spirit to accumulate wealth, property and to vandalize still continues to live in modern Nigeria society. For instance to avoid probe of corrupt practice, a government building may inexplicably set on fire. As pointed out in Nigeria Survey and Corruption Survey Study, Final Report (2003), a few federal buildings mysteriously went on fire after investigators started probe on the finances of the officials working in the buildings.

Different scholars have identified various causes of corruption in developing countries Nigeria society inclusive. It was argued by Dike (2005) in Africa Economic analysis that political and cultural system could make people to be prone to corrupt practices. While Bryce, J. (1921) identified the following as some factor responsible for corruption in the developing nations including Nigeria. Such factors include; enormous inequality in the distribution of the nation’s wealth, prioritizing the political offices as the principal means of having fast access to wealth, the conflict that occurs between changing moral codes, the weakness of the social and governmental enforcement mechanisms and the absence of a strong sense of national community. Furthermore, Ndiulor (1999) asserted that other factors that keep on aggravating the practice of corruption in Nigeria is the quest for materialism, the urge for a shortcut to privileged circumstances and material accumulation, flamboyant living and eye-catching expenditure. The Nigeria high celebration of positions has effect on the kind of life people live in the society. Lack of honesty in the modern Nigeria society has become a thing of concern as it is affecting not only the old but also the young. As pointed out by Bowman (1991), there is lack of ethical standards in all the agencies of government in Nigeria as well as business organizations. This keeps on causing a serious setback for Nigerians. He further explained that ethic is action, the way values are practiced, a guiding principle expected to be used in making decisions. In Nigeria however, little attention is paid to ethical issues as many of the office holders in Nigeria are not always considering the moral implications of their actions most of the time because self interest and accumulation of property have over clouded their moral reasoning.

In fact people who are involved in this act are no longer disturbed by it but rather see it as being smart to outdo others in exploiting them. It is also an observable fact that political leaders are disgustingly involve in political corruption of which it is having a devastating effect on the socio-economic development of the nation and the welfare of Nigerians. It is difficult to cub the hazard of corruption in Nigeria because the family, the traditional and religious values had been thrown into the thin air as a result of accumulation of wealth that is not control by the individual and even the government through taxation of properties. As pointed out by Lotterman (2002), when there are bad rules and ineffective taxing system in any nation to check the financial activities of the citizens there is bound to be corruption in such society. The persistence of corruption, the fact that majority seems to be involved including the youths become the motivating factors for this research study.

Objectives

The general objective of the study is to investigate the attitude, perception and practice of the youths about corruption in Nigeria. The specific objectives include the following: to find out the practice of the youths in regard to corruption, to examine various types of corruption, to scrutinize the implication of corruption on development and to discover the ways for eradicating corruption in the society.

Hypothesis

Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between corruption and development.
Alternative hypothesis: There is relationship between corruption and development.
Methodology

Sample Procedure/Size

The methods of collecting data were quantitative and qualitative while the target respondents were youths in and out of school. Structured questionnaire and in-depth interview (IDI) were used to collect information. Respondents were randomly selected among the youths, male and female. The choice of these groups of people is to discover their attitude, perception and practices because of the role they will play in the society in future. Hence, knowing their thinking about corruption will help to predict if corruption in Nigeria will eventually be eradicated in the society. The total population sampled was 500 respondents, three institutions were sampled, 100 students from College of Education, 100 respondents from Polytechnic and 100 from University. The remaining 200 were from out of school youth's which were randomly selected from the communities. For the in-depth interview ten respondents were randomly selected from each institution and thirty students were selected altogether. The quantitative data was analyzed using statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Variables were cross tabulated in other to provide association among them. The qualitative method on the other hand was analyzed using descriptive analysis to strengthen the quantitative analysis. The questions asked during the in-depth interview were based on the following, age, marital status, occupation, respondents thinking about corruption in Nigeria, as individual what would be done if to have access to Nigeria wealth, identifying the type of corruption in Nigeria, the practice of Nigeria youths about corruption, what is responsible for the corrupt practices in Nigeria?

Data Presentation and Discussion

Table 1 in section (A), appendix 1, shows the socio-economic characteristics of respondents. The finding revealed that male respondents were 61% of the population while the female respondents were 38.8% of the population. Male respondents were willing to participate more at the time of the research while the female respondents were not readily available in terms of willingness to take part in the research. The age of respondents ranges from 15 – 20 years and 21 – 26 years. The respondents in the age range of 15 -20 years represent 34.4% of the population while those in the age range of 21 – 26 represent 75.6% of the population. This shows that those within this age range participated in the research study in good number. Age 31- 37 years and 37 years and above were not significant because the percentage was less than 1%. In the study, 62.4% of respondents in the population were single, 18.4% were married at the time of this research, 15.0% were divorced while (21) 4.2% were widowed. This shows that many of the youths were either in school or learning a particular trade.

As indicated in the study, the number of people who attained higher level of education increases from primary to secondary level and picked up again in tertiary level. 21.2% of respondents had primary education, 25.0% had secondary education, 4.8% had vocational training and 34.4% had tertiary education. This shows that Nigerians value education as it remains a sustainable industry that is opened to majority of Nigerian youths. Nigerians are accommodative they live comfortably and peacefully with each ethnic group. It is only of recent that the Boko Haram phenomenon is becoming a problem for Nigerians especially in the northern part of the country. In areas where this research took place, 8.6% of the respondents were Hausa, 26.8% of the respondents were Igbo, and 62.8% of the respondents were Yoruba, while 0.8% was from other ethnic group the Ibira precisely.

Religion is one of the cultural values in Nigeria, before the advent of other religions; the traditional religion was seriously practiced and the virtue of honesty was valued and respected for the fear of the gods who was believed to give judgment on offenders without delay. However, with the advent of other religion, many people have been converted to Christianity or Islamic religion in the country. It is indicated in the research study as 74.7% claimed to be Christian, 20.6% claimed to be Muslim and 4.6% practiced other religion. However, one will think that the new religions would influence the behavior of Nigeria people and reduce the level of corruption in the country nevertheless the opposite is the case. People relaxed in the practice of their religion and what it takes to be a good and honest Christians and Muslims. Religion has little effect on Nigerians involvement in corrupt practices. In this research study, students have the highest percentage when it comes to occupation as 84.3% were students and 15.3% were self employed at the time of this research.

TABLE 2: Section B in appendix 2 (Variables and Responses)
This section discusses the interpretation of respondents to the questionnaire. Majority of Nigerians are aware that there is corruption in the society as 84.3% of the population made this claim while 5.0% were of contrary opinion. This corroborates the assertion of many scholars that opined corruption in Nigeria is endemic in nature and is found in almost every sector of the society be it private or public. As pointed out by Adefolaju (2008) corruption in Nigeria has become
embedded in the consciousness of Nigerians to the extent that people do not see it as morally wrong any longer, but is seen as a way of life. Yusuf (2008), considered Nigeria as a corrupt nation in the sense that it has pervaded every sphere of human activities. In every endeavor be it economic, social, political, private and public organizations, corruption is claimed to be the determining factor in the relationship between the people involved. Respondents identified various types of corruption in Nigeria as 14.2% revealed money laundering which is common among the politicians, 34.7% of the respondents revealed misappropriation of funds, while 14.2% divulged diversion of fund meant for projects for personal use, requesting bribe before giving an applicant job was revealed as 12.0%, taking of bribe by police on high way was revealed as 13.8%, students who deceived their parents to collect additional money was revealed as 10.6% and requesting for sexual relationship from women before rendering help was less than 1%. These opinions substantiate the observation of some scholars for example; Dike (2005) asserted that corruption involves bribery, fraud, embezzlement, extortion, favoritism, and nepotism.

People’s opinion to the question about their thinking as regard corruption, 58.2% revealed that corruption was present in all sectors, 22.4% of respondents made the claim that corruption is common among leaders, while 16.2% were of the opinion that every Nigerians have inclination to corrupt practices. Corruption was traced to almost every administration in Nigeria, from Azikiwe, Gowon, Shagari, Buhari, Babangida, to Abacha. As pointed out by Kew (2006) the political sphere is controlled by the Nigeria bureaucrat who during the military had invested vast networks and today using these networks to expand their political office for their personal gain and self interest. In involvement of the youths in corruption, 12.8% revealed that the youths were not free from corruption, 22.6% said youths were involved in examination malpractices which is a form of corruption, 26.0% made it known that youths were involved in embezzlement of student’s union money, 23.0% said involvement in cultism is a form of corruption as some of the youths were members, and 15.6% said youths have inclination to corrupt practices.

To have access to Nigeria wealth is something desirable by majority of Nigerian because it is an opportunity to amass wealth for oneself. 11.0% said they would take care of themselves at the expense of others if they have access, 4.6% divulged they would embezzled some money, 20.0% claimed they would be involved in money laundry, 57.6% revealed they would embezzled first before development, while 0.8% said they would not commit fraud. This is an indication that only few youths in Nigeria are not willing to partake in corrupt practices. The above data is an indication that Nigerians see nothing wrong in corruption. It is pointed out by Yusuf, (2008) that in Nigeria, “hardly an uncorrupt person will be anything in the scheme of things in running the government. If you were not corrupt, you would be marginalized if not got rid of. And if you are corrupt, you must be prepared to follow anything without personal initiative or ideas of an alternative policy.

Respondents were also asked if corruption has relationship with development, 68.0% revealed that relationship exist while 20.8% said there is no relationship. Furthermore, the kind of association was identified as 20.4% said it has effect on every aspect of the society, 23.2% said many social institutions suffer, 9.4% said there is no progressive growth, 9.0% revealed that the economy suffers, 4.2% said it encourages poverty, while 10.8% made claim that it makes majority wish to work in places where there would be access to money and 6.0% opined that it encourages people to fight for their own interest at the expense of the society. It is pointed out by Fagbadebo, (2007) that corruption impacts negatively on economic growth and it also destabilized the country politically. Once the economy and political life of any nation is challenged negatively there would be no sustainable development. From all these different perceptions of the respondents it is clear that corruption is endemic in Nigeria among politicians, leaders, men and women, old and young, the family, private and public organizations. All these were also corroborated during the in-depth interview. As pointed out by a respondent during the in-depth interview, he said those youths that were involved in cultism used various means to exploit others for their own personal gain. For instance, he said; they threatened the life of lecturers who refused to pass them when they failed a course; youths have inclination to corrupt practices in various ways, they called it smartness.

Section C (Appendix 2)

Cross Tabulation Analysis

This section shows the Cross Tabulation between Socio-Demographic Features of Respondents and Relationship of Corruption to Development. Male respondents who believed that corruption has relationship with development was 72.1% percent while 27.1% percent had a contrary opinion, female on the other hand was 86.0% percent while 14.0% percent had a contrary opinion. Based on the hypothesis tested, the basic assumption is that corruption has effect on development. The level of significance in testing the hypothesis is 0.05, if the calculated value is equal to or less than the level of significance, then the Ho hypothesis is rejected while the Hi hypothesis is accepted. Since the level of
significance is greater than the table calculated (0.05 is greater than 0.001) this means the alternative hypothesis is accepted which says there is relationship between corruption and development.

Education was again used to explain if corruption has relationship with development, those with primary education who said yes were 89.0% whereas those who said no were 11.0% , those with vocational education who agreed by saying yes were 37.5% and those with contrary opinion who said no were 62.5%, still respondents with secondary education who said yes were 93.3% while respondents who said no were 6.7%, those who had post secondary education and said yes were 72.2% whereas those who said no were 27.8%. The level of significance in testing the hypothesis is 0.05, if the calculated value is equal to or less than the level of significance, then the Ho hypothesis is rejected while the Hi hypothesis is accepted. Since the level of significance is greater than the table calculated (0.05 is greater than 0.001) this means the alternative hypothesis is accepted which says there is relationship between corruption and development.

To corroborate this finding Yaru (2009) identified various consequences of corruption in the society as civil unrest, bad governance, incompetent rulers and bad international image and electoral violence. He further explained that poor or non implementation of public contracts, poor service delivery, loss of public revenue through tax aversion and avoidance, employment of incompetent hands as public officials and poor service delivery, desperation to acquire wealth, arm robbery, civil disorder, and decadence of rule of law. In any society where all these vices exist, development is not achievable because developmental projects will always be sub-standard and the life span of such projects cannot be enduring.

Conclusion

From the above discussion, corruption has been internalized by majority of Nigerians as if it is a way of life or a value that is culturally accepted in the society. Individual who tried not to participate in corrupt practices in Nigeria is regarded as nobody. In Tell, November (2003), it was stated that "in Nigeria, life without corruption is a disease because corruption is the right thing to do in which only fools do not indulge. It is a country where honesty is a serious crime punishable by ridicule and exclusion from public limelight". People are influenced to have inclination to corrupt practices. Corruption is thus found not only among the leaders but include men and women, old and young. The attitude, perception and practice of the youths as regard corruption are not different from those of the elders. According to Soyombo, (2008) the youths who are anticipated to be future leaders are beset to out-do their elders in corrupt practices.

Recommendations

The fight or war against corrupt practices should not be left for the leaders because nothing substantial would be achieved by living it for them to fight, but every Nigerian should have that self-determination not to be involved in corrupt activities either small or big. It is only with self-determination of the individual that the war against corruption in Nigeria can be achieved. It is not enough to take back what has been stolen through corrupt practices, but a law should be enforced in such a way that the offenders either politicians or private individuals paid more than what was gained through corruption. This in a way will check the activities of those who privatize the fund and property through corrupt practices or those intending to be involved in corrupt practice.

The traditional value of honesty, transparency, discipline and high moral standard that was appreciated in the traditional society of old in Nigeria should be brought back to life since that moral and traditional values had sneaked out from the way of life of Nigerians. Again these values should re-instituted into Nigeria school curriculum and make it a guiding principle for all Nigeria citizens. Nigeria leaders are to live by example in controlling their desire to accumulate property and embezzle the public fund. If they are able to control their self interest corruption will be a thing of the past in Nigeria. It is by controlling their self interest that corruption can gradually be controlled. It is then that whatever law that is promulgated can be effective. The attitude of the government, the law enforcement agencies needs to change coupled with the understanding of Nigeria youths in regard to corruption. Good and honest accountability among Nigerians must be encouraged.

References

Table 1 (Section A) Appendix 1
Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(305)</td>
<td>61.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(194)</td>
<td>38.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20 years</td>
<td>(122)</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-26 years</td>
<td>(378)</td>
<td>75.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-36 Years</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 years and above</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARITAL STATUS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>(312)</td>
<td>62.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>(92)</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>(74)</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>(21)</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>(210)</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>(30)</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>(24)</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>(172)</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETHNICITY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>(43)</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igbo</td>
<td>(134)</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoruba</td>
<td>(314)</td>
<td>62.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELIGION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>(373)</td>
<td>74.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>(103)</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>(23)</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCCUPATION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>(418)</td>
<td>84.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>(76)</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Survey 2 Survey 2012:012:
Table 2: (Section B) Appendix 2
Variables And Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there corruption in Nigeria</td>
<td>468 (84.3%)</td>
<td>25 (5.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes what type of corruption</td>
<td>No Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. money laundry by politicians</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. misappropriation of funds</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. diversion of project money for personal use</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Requesting bribe before giving an applicant job</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. police taken bribe</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. students deceiving their parent to collect money</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. requesting for sexual relationship from women before rendering help</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Total</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is the practice of youths as regard to corruption

| The youths are not free from corruption                                   | 64           | 12.8%       |
| Examination malpractices                                                  | 113          | 22.6%       |
| Embezzling that belong to students union                                  | 130          | 26.0%       |
| Involvement in cultism supported by elite in the society                 | 115          | 23.0%       |
| Have inclination to corruption                                            | 78           | 15.6%       |
| Total                                                                     | 500          | 100.0%      |

What will you do if you have access to Nigeria wealth?

| Take care of myself                                                      | 55           | 11.0%       |
| Embezzle some money                                                      | 23           | 4.6%        |
| Involve in money laundry                                                 | 100          | 20.0%       |
| Embezzle first before development                                        | 288          | 57.6%       |
| Will not commit fraud                                                    | 4            | 0.8%        |
| No response                                                              | 30           | 6.0%        |
| Total                                                                    | 500          | 100.0%      |

Do you think corruption has relationship with development

| Yes                                                                       | 340          | 68.0%       |
| No                                                                        | 104          | 20.8%       |
| No response                                                              | 55           | 11.0%       |
| Total                                                                    | 499          | 99.8%       |
| System                                                                   | 1            | 0.2%        |
| Total                                                                    | 500          | 100.0%      |

If yes, what kind of association

| It has effect on every aspect of the society                              | 102          | 20.4%       |
| Many social institutions suffered                                        | 116          | 23.2%       |
| No progressive growth                                                    | 47           | 9.4%        |
| The economy suffers                                                      | 45           | 9.0%        |
| It encourages poverty                                                    | 21           | 4.2%        |
| Make majority wish to work in places where that will be access to money  | 54           | 10.8%       |
| Encourage people to fight for their own interest at expense of the society| 30           | 6.0%        |
| No response                                                              | 85           | 17.0%       |
| Total                                                                    | 500          | 100.0%      |

Survey 2012:
Table 3 (Section C) Appendix 3. Cross Tabulation Analysis

This shows the Cross Tabulation between Socio-Demographic Features of Respondents and Relationship of Corruption to Development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-Demographic</th>
<th>Do you think corruption has relationship with development</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Degree of Freedom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>(199) 72.1%</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>(77) 27.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>(147) 86.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>(24) 14.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>(153) 89.0%</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>(9) 37.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>(28) 93.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary</td>
<td>(109) 72.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Survey 2012: Level of significance at 0.05
Linguistic and Cultural Integration of the Immigrants in the Mediterranean Area

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Abstract: The following abstract is the result of a bibliographic review presented at the end of the first year of PhD in “Integration Pathways and Process Identity in the Mediterranean Area” at Kore University. The argument of the research intends to do an in depth study of the linguistic learning variable, in particular that of the acquisition of the second language learning, but above all the relationship between language and identity in order to favour integration processes. The word integration means “to keep together” the different parts of society and to keep the different values and models of behaviour alive considering also the social inclusion policies of the migrants adopted by the countries. The integration phenomenon underlines the best strategies adopted for migrants respecting and maintaining their cultural and linguistic identity. The difficulties which immigrants face are many and they can be identified in the pressure by the values and systems of beliefs that are in contrast with the culture and the language of the native country with that of the host country.

If the interculture represents an attitude linked to the migratory phenomenon where the accent does lie on the fixed identity which corresponds to the culture but on its continual element, the interculturalism is presented every time that different socio-cultural groups interact in the same geo-political and relational areas. The element that brings us to the possibility of realizing this research is the presence of ethnic minorities who live in Sicily guaranteeing them an integration in the host country, but at the same time, safeguarding the language and the culture which they belong to.

Keywords: immigration, identity, second language, integration, interculture.

Introduction

The word integration means “to keep together” the different parts of society and to keep the different values and models of behaviour alive considering also the social inclusion policies of the migrants adopted by the countries. The integration phenomenon underlines the best strategies adopted for migrants respecting and maintaining their cultural and linguistic identity.

Park and Burgess (1925) define the concept of integration as “Assimilation”, so as cultural homologation and acquisition of the value systems and of the behavioural models; but this concept is also considered as “Fusion” which people acquire memories, feelings and ways of thinking different from other people sharing experience and history, favouring a melting pot in the sense of a creative process where different ethnic groups are united in a common cultural life.

The difficulties which immigrants face are many and they can be identified in the pressure by the values and systems of beliefs that are in contrast with the culture and the language of the native country with that of the host country. Among the useful integrative proposals, we take into consideration those which intend to stimulate the culture of the immigrant student, maintaining his/her own cultural identity, opening him/herself to the knowledge of different cultures, developing his/her linguistic skills through the development of cognitive processes and using the language as an active instrument in a communicative and cultural context.

Besides, if the interculture represents an attitude linked to the migratory phenomenon where the accent does lie on the fixed identity which corresponds to the culture but on its continual element, the interculturalism is presented every time that different socio-cultural group interact in the same geo-political and relational areas.

For this reason, an intercultural meeting-clash also represents a meeting-clash among different identities, in fact, a society that lives the multicultural aspect as a discomfort and not as richness has to consider the intercultural aspect as a real social problem.

Methodology

The methodologies and the best behaviours that the hosting community should have, in favour of an intercultural education, refer to:
Comparison Method: a way to educate the complexity, the pluralism and the comparison.
Deconstructive Method: deconstruction as reviewing the ideas, the prejudices, the stereotypes, cliché.
Decentralization or turnover of the point of view Method: capacity of decentralizing from the point of view, also considering the other points of views.
Action Method: action has got an important educative value for the promotion of actions, initiatives and intercultural experiences.
Narrative Method: the narrative thought allows the construction of an intercultural thought.

In order to guarantee an intercultural education, the foreign students should have a communicative and linguistic competence that allows them to act in culturally and socially shared ways, with a greater involvement of the personal history and of the foreign student’s identity and an adaptation of the informative linguistic aids, extending the intercultural study.

In second language learning, the language of the hosting country, Cummins (1986) gives us some coordinates and some knowledge to reflect on the teaching of the Italian language as a second language in the school in order to have a good integration.

He identifies two big linguistic obstacles, two big objectives that a foreigner has to reach in his scholastic path in order to have success at the end of his/her school career using the same instruments as the Italian students. The BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) are identified as the basic competences useful to interact in everyday life and they develop after two years of linguistic practice, while the CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) develop after five years.

The study of Cummins on the second language starts from the consideration that a situation of bilingualism that migrant children have could be a chance or an obstacle.

He speaks about the link between L1 and L2 using the image of the iceberg where below sea level there is a big block of ice but on the surface two or more blocks of ice emerge. The bilingual theory is based on the concepts of “multilingualism” and “bilingualism” because the different linguistic codes can be found in the same point; this is true only if the language is developed enough for the requested functions.

The “threshold” level is the developmental level joined to the bilingualism of the child, so for him/her the bilingualism represents a chance, an opportunity in linguistic and cognitive terms; the knowledge of the second language of everyday situations does not guarantee scholastic success.

Therefore, to be competent in two languages the cognitive system helps but, if one of the two languages is not developed enough, the cognitive system will not function.

Conclusion

In order to stimulate the cultural integration, there are three elements that influence language learning. Among the universal linguistic elements, the “Contrastive Analysis” underlines the way in which the difficulties of the language learning depend on the differences between L1 and L2 (1950) and the “Universal Grammar” by Chomsky who affirms that everyone has got a natural aptitude to the language acquisition (1960).

Among the specific linguistic elements, instead, the “Interlanguage” by Selinker and Corder (1972) is examined where the language is learnt through different phases. Finally, among the extra linguistic elements the “Cognitive Factors”, for a language aptitude, motivation, personality and the “Social Context Factors” defined by the macro social variables (social and psychological distance), micro social variables (formal context, as the school, or informal) and social variables (age, sex, social class, identity, ethnic group).

An observation is also placed on the relationship between the identity and the language level, in fact, there can be: monolingual identity, people who do not recognize themselves in the minor language ignoring it and living it as an error (for example, the dialect after the war); diglossen identity, people who accept the existence of another language, they use it but they consider themselves to belong to one of the two communities and the presence of the other community and of the other language is seen as an heavy historical heritage (for example, the Italian and German community in the Bolzano province); bilingual identity, people who feel a double belonging to the two communities.

In conclusion, when we talk about “bilingual education” we want to underline that education which works on the self, on the person, on the definition of identity produce effects on the self-realization of the person; while, if we consider the “bicultural education” we want to include a linguistic dimension on the social level, a culture and an interest for the diversity leaving everyone to recognize him/herself in one of the groups of the multicultural community.
References


The Influence of Global Financial Crisis on the Migratory Project of Immigrant Family. A Case Study

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Abstract: The article analyzes the influence of global financial crisis on the migratory project of immigrant family. The empirical study is actualized in Italy, in province of Siena. The study methods is the qualitative one. 32 in-depth direct interviews have been administered with Albanian migrants in this zone. The article is focused mainly on the short-term effects of the global financial crisis of immigrant family migratory project such as: reduced remittances (money transfers) from migrants to their home, reduced monthly expenses, return migration of some family members or the whole family to their homeland as a reaction to unemployment or lower earnings. The results of the analyses and discussions indicated that there exist some significant relationships between the losing of the job and the perception of the global crisis. More people think the global financial crisis have influenced their life, more they plan to come back to homeland.

Keywords: migratory project, immigrant family, global financial crisis

1. Introduction

The current global financial crisis lead to a downturn in the global economy. Is true that migrants serve as a sort of safety valve for developed economies, by providing labor in times of expansion and going away in times of recession, but on the other hand immigrants are not just economic actors, who follow income maximization motives (Castels & Miller, 2009). They are social beings, who put down roots and form relationships in new countries. This is the reason why a special attention should be given to the migratory project of immigrants.

According to a report of International Organization of Migration on 2010, there is no concrete evidence available yet on the impact of the global financial crisis on migration, but the following largely negative effects have already been observed or are likely to occur:

(a) Job losses, especially in construction, manufacturing, finance, services, retail and tourism, thus affecting migrants in these sectors.
(b) Possible reductions in wages and poorer conditions in the workplace as companies and so employers seek to make savings, as well as cuts in social services provision, impacting on migrants’ quality of life and health.
(c) The risk of discrimination and xenophobia as migrants are mistakenly perceived as taking the jobs of local workers particularly in low-skilled sectors of the labour market.
(d) The return of unemployed migrants to countries of origin where they are also likely to face inferior economic conditions (e.g. high unemployment and poverty) and could affect economic and social stability. Such returns, however, are less likely to occur from those countries (e.g. European countries) where migrants (and their families) enjoy secure residence and the safety net of a strong social welfare system.
(e) A decline in remittance flows to developing countries as migrants lose their jobs, thus increasing poverty and exacerbating development gaps. Migrants may also be more reluctant to send money through formal channels due to a lack of confidence in the stability of banking systems.
(f) Adoption of more restrictive immigration policies to protect the local labour market and in response to a demand for fewer foreign workers. A reduction in labour migration flows as potential migrants choose to stay home and see out the crisis there.
(g) An increase in irregular migration and the strengthening of the informal labour market as unemployed migrants in destination countries seek to work without authorization and as opportunities for regular labour migration decrease resulting in the emigration of more people from countries of origin more seriously affected by the crisis.
(h) The crisis is expected to impact differently on male and female migrant workers especially in affected sectors of the economy dominated by one gender (e.g. construction in which male migrant workers predominate) (IOM, 2009).

This study aims to explore the influence of global financial crisis on the migratory project of immigrant family. Immigrants are generally not isolated individuals, but part of family systems and their actions are impacted and influenced by other family members. Migrant families face many difficulties on withstanding financial crisis and their migratory project become more complex under these conditions comparing to the individual migratory project.
2. Literature review

The unprecedented crisis in global financial markets which struck the world economy in mid-2008 has led to the most severe recession since the Second World War. After many years of relatively high economic and employment growth, the global economic crisis has taken the world back to growth levels not seen for decades and has had a negative impact on the global labour markets (IOM, 2010).

In general, the employment situation of migrant workers, deteriorated more rapidly than that of natives during the economic crisis.

In Italy the impact of the the economic downturn is sizable in the labour market, where the gap between the unemployment rate for foreign and native workers grew from the second half of 2008 until mid-2009 (Figure 1). In the first half of 2009, the unemployment rate among immigrant workers overtook – for the first time in recent years – the symbolic threshold of 10 per cent. In the third quarter of 2009, however, this trend halted, as the unemployment rate for foreigners decreased more markedly than the rate for natives (a -0.4% unemployment rate for foreigners against the general trend of -0.1%) (IOM, 2010).

Figure 1: Unemployment rate for Italian nationals and foreigners in Italy, 2007-2009

According to a report of OECD on 2009, Italy has a significantly lower concentration of immigrants in low-skilled occupations, which certainly affects current variations in the increase in immigrant unemployment (OECD, 2009: 88). If concentration in low-skilled jobs is a plausible predictor of immigrants’ vulnerability to economic crisis, an even more specific indicator is the concentration of foreign-born workers aged 15–64 in sectors which are more heavily and directly suffering from the downturn, primarily the construction sector. As female foreign workers are over-represented in sectors such as education and social and health care, which are less vulnerable to the economic recession, they have been less affected by lay-offs than their male counterparts (IOM, 2010).

The economic recession might have increased inter-sector mobility among migrant workers, as they sought new employment opportunities in sectors other than those in which they are employed.

Prior to the economic crisis, migrants were less likely than nationals to be welfare recipients in many of the new migrant-receiving countries. As far as data on 2009 remittances are available, remittance outflows seem to have declined in some EU countries during the crisis (IOM, 2010).

Over the past several years, Italy has gone through a phase of demographic rebalancing of its immigrant foreign population. Such a trend has two main causes: a) a constantly expanding wave of formal family reunions (as well as unauthorized family migration, followed by the regularization of spouses under periodical amnesty schemes); and b) a substantial increase in the phenomenon of autonomous female migration (with female migrant workers as first migrants) addressed mostly to the home and health care sectors (Catanzaro-Colombo, 2010).

But, as part of a broader reform of its immigration law in July 2009, Italy introduced more restrictive housing requirements for family reunification. Furthermore, more restrictions have been imposed through the so-called “security package” issued in July 2009. It has foreseen that foreign citizens have to pay a fee (from EUR 80 to EUR 200) to obtain or renew their resident’s permit; foreigners have to sign an “integration agreement”, foreseeing the knowledge of Italian language...
and culture before applying for citizenship; each bureaucratic act or social provision will be furnished only upon presentation of a valid stay permit in order to ensure that only regular migrants receive these benefits (IOM, 2010).

According to the IOM report (2010) calls to reduce migration in destination countries tend to be based on the false perception that “migrants take jobs” or “compete for welfare benefits”, when in fact the majority of migrants create economic activity and jobs. Human mobility, as underscored in IOM’s 2008 World Migration Report, makes economies more dynamic and more efficient. Migration may also be a positive force in alleviating various aspects of the financial crisis and potentially make an important contribution towards overcoming the economic downturn. Trying to combat the financial crisis by simply cutting immigration may make the situation worse. Nevertheless, countries of origin are likely to experience some influxes of returning migrants, which may result in economic and social instability in poorer countries. Reduced labour migration flows and increases in irregular migration and trafficking in human beings are also possible outcomes. Therefore, flexible, coherent and comprehensive migration management policies are needed to maximize the benefits of migration, protect migrants and take their needs into account in measures addressing the crisis (IOM, 2010).

3. Research methodology

3.1 Participants

32 Albanian immigrants, 17 females and 15 males, who live in the province of Siena in Italy, participated in the study. The age of the respondents was from 18 to 65 years old. The participants varied greatly in terms of the length of their immigration experience and in terms of educational level. From 32 immigrants who participated in study, 25 are married and 7 single. The aim I chose more married immigrants than single ones, was that to study the tendencies of immigrant families in time of financial global crisis.

3.2 Instrument

The methodology used was qualitative one. A partially-structured questionnaire have been used as an instrument in this study. In this form of in-depth interview few questions have been asked to all interviewees, indeed, the supplementary questions have varied between different respondents. To induct the interviews, the snowball technique have been used. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes. The questionnaire have been based on three main sections of questions: (a) section of questions about general demographic data (b) section of questions about the influence of the economic crisis in the respondent life (c) section of question about the future planning. Interviews data have been recorded by a voice-recorder and then taped. During the interview conduction problems of imposition have been eluded by letting people expressing themselves in their own words.

3.3 Study Limitations

First. This part of the study was based mainly on the qualitative method, so its results show only some tendencies not the generalization of findings. Second. Looking that the immigrants have not always time to give a long interview, some interviews have been stoped and continued another day. Third. The use of snowball technique created the tendency of the interviewing a homogeneous group. So, I selected people by respecting the criteria of equal representation of gender, age, educational levels etc.

4. Findings and discussion

The information gathered from 32 Albanian immigrants in province of Siena, allowed me to have a more clear idea about the influence of the financial crisis on the family migratory project. I divided immigrants in three groups:

First group: The immigrants who think their life have been strongly influenced by the financial crisis
Second group: The immigrants who have had a kind of influence by the financial crisis
Third group: The immigrants who think their life has not been influenced by the financial crisis
First group: The immigrants whose life have been strongly influenced by the financial crisis.
This group is composed mainly by immigrants that have lost the job (themselves, or at least a member of their family), have had reduction of working hours, or have had problems with their own businesses. In terms of length of their immigration experience, the group is composed mainly by immigrants who have 5-10 years of experience in Italy. In terms of educational level, the group is heterogeneous (from 8 to 14 years of education).

From 32 respondents who participated on the study, 9 of them told their life have been strongly influenced by the financial crisis. 3 males from 6 (5 married and 1 single), who have been working at the construction sector told they have lost job and have difficulties on finding another one. 3 females (2 married and 1 single) told that themselves or their husbands have lost job and have difficulties on finding another one. The category of people who worked at entrepreneurship and family businesses, told their monthly earnings have been evidently reduced.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of respondents of the first group</th>
<th>Total number of respondents</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>Single</td>
<td>2</td>
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Let list some short term effects of financial crisis on this group of immigrants:
- Looking that their monthly incomes have been reduced, some of them have changed houses. They have rent a smaller house with a low monthly renting rate. Some others who have planned to buy a house, have changed that plan. The weakening of the labour market position of immigrant workers has immediate repercussions for all dimensions of everyday life, starting from housing conditions. From this point of view, the mid-2000s was marked by strong growth in the number of real estate purchases by foreigners in the Italian housing market. Such trend is to be interpreted, at least in part, as a consequence of a precise adaptive strategy by immigrant families, who seek to buy a house as soon as possible in order to avoid severe obstacles in the home rental market, obstacles that stem from heavy and diffuse ethnic discrimination (Ponzo, 2009).

- They have stopped sending money or have reduced the amount of remittances to their home in Albania.

"During 2004-2007, I sent to my parents 150 euros per month. Now I sent to them only 50 euros. I'm sorry for that, because I know their situation, but I really can't help them more than this. Is a very difficult situation even here in Italy. It is not a meadow with flowers..." (A.S, male 37, married)

- They are planning seriously the whole family to come back to homeland or in some cases a member of the family is planning to come back first and then to come back the other members of the family.

- They are planning to interrupt the university studies and try to restart them in Albania. Was the case of a girl 23 years old, single, who studied at Università degli studi si Siena, on political sciences, who think that, because of the financial crisis, she couldn’t find job to support the monthly expenses of living in Italy, so she have decided to come back home and restart the studies at Tirana University.

Second group: The immigrants who have had a kind of influence from the financial crisis
This group is composed mainly by immigrants that have not lost their jobs (themselves, or at least a member of their family), or only in some cases have had a reduction of working hours. In terms of length of their immigration experience, the group is composed mainly by immigrants who have 10-15 years of experience in Italy. In terms of educational level, the group is heterogeneous (from 8 to 16 years of education).

From 32 respondents who participated at the study, 17 of them told their life have had a kind of influence by the financial crisis. 10 females (9 married and 1 single) said that, independently from the global financial crisis, they were still working mainly as cleaning-house woman, as elderly caregivers, as saleswoman or entrepreneurs at family businesses. 7 males (5 married and 2 single) told that they were still working in the sector of bar-restaurant services, agriculture, entrepreneurship and family businesses, and even construction. The category of people who work at entrepreneurship and family businesses, told their monthly earnings have had a kind of reduction.
Let list some short term effects of financial crisis on this group of immigrants:
- The immigrants of this category said that, even because they have not lost their job, their standard of living have been kept down, because of the raise of the product prices and the high level of inflation.
- This category of people told they have reduced the monthly expenses because of the insecurity of general financial situation.
- They also have reduced the amount of remittances to their home in Albania.
- The interviewers of this second group are seeing the coming back to homeland as an alternative, but have not make concrete plans about it. They think it is a big dilemma “to stay or to go”, because of the insecurity they felt on this time of global crisis.

“It’s not a simply decision, but a very hard one. Is difficult to think about the future when you feel insecure for the present. In Albania at least we have our home, we don’t have to pay the house rent, but on the other hand we don’t have a job in Albania. Even there is very difficult to live. The prices are higher than in Italy…Let’s see and do” (P.G, female 53, married).

**Third group: Immigrants who think their life has not been influenced by the financial crisis**

This group is composed mainly by immigrants that have not lost their jobs (themselves, or at least a member of their family). In terms of length of their immigration experience, the group is very heterogeneous and is composed by immigrants who have 5-20 years of experience in Italy. Some of them have Italian nationality. In terms of educational level, the group is heterogeneous (from 8 to 16 years of education).

From 32 respondents who participated at the study, 8 of them said their life has not been influenced by the financial crisis. 4 females (2 married and 1 single) said that, independently from the global financial crisis, they were still working mainly as clining-house woman, as elderly caregivers, as saleswoman or entrepreneurs at family businesses. 4 males (3 married, 1 not married) told that they were still working in the sector of bar-restaurant services, agriculture, entrepreneurship and family businesses, and even construction. The category of people who work at entrepreneurship and family businesses, told their monthly earnings is the same as before the crisis.

Let list some reactions of this group of immigrants about global financial crisis:
- This category of people think that immigrants have always made a modest life, so the financial crisis can influence more Italians than the immigrants. Many of them think that financial crisis have had a psychological influence, more than a practical one.

- They have not reduced the amount of remittances, because they said they haven’t sent remittances to their homes even before.

- All immigrants of this category see their future in the host country, but for different reasons. Some of them don’t think to come back to homeland, not because they see very fruitful the experience on emigration, but because they think the situation in Albania is worst than in Italy.

“For immigrants in the host country is always crisis. We deny our selves many things, we cannot make the life as Italians do. That’s why me and my family do not feel the crisis” (M.P, male 43, married)

The others think that is better living “in crisis” in Italy that “not in crisis” in Albania. This is the category of optimistic people who see the crisis as a temporary phenomenon.

“I just finished the specialization degree at economics here in Siena. Me and my fiancee have opened a bar and have decided to skip the idea of crisis. I see myself in Italy. The crisis will pass and we do not want to make a decision in a wrong moment. We like the Italian style of living instead of the Albanian one” (D.LL, male 27, not married)

- In cases of students (2 females single), who followed the university studies, they think to finish university studies in Italy, get married and stay in Italy, instead of return back home. The main reason is that they prefer the way of Italian living.

5. Concluding remarks

The results of the analyses and discussions indicated that there exist some significant relationships between the losing or not of the job and the perception of the global crisis. More people think the global financial crisis have influenced their life, more they plan to come back to homeland. The study showed that there is not a clear relationship between the length of the immigration experience and perception of the influence of the financial global crisis and the educational level of immigrants and again the perception of the influence of the financial global.

The study results showed that, independently of losing job, the biggest part of the interviewers think their lives have been influenced by the global financial crisis directly or indirectly. The category of people who think their life have not been influenced by financial crisis, is divided on them who do not have an optimistic view, but a pessimist one and them who have an optimistic view. The first ones think that “for immigrants in the host country is always crisis” and the second ones see the crisis as a temporary phenomenon and prefer living in the host country.

In terms of gender, the study showed that the crisis impacts differently male and female migrant workers especially in affected sectors of the economy dominated by one gender (e.g. construction in which male migrant workers predominate), but the situation of married males and females impacts the other family members and influences the migratory project of the whole family.

References

Peasant Movement for Land in the Prefecture of Elbasan (Albania) in the Early 20s - 30s of XX Century

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Abstract: The paper aims to present an aspect of local history of Elbasan region or neighborhood, in the '20s-30s of the twentieth century, peasant struggle for land, as one of the main directions of social conflict in this period, not only in the prefecture, but nationwide. This war not only aimed at resolving the land ownership right, but simultaneously improving the economic status of peasants, through easing the tax burden. To realize these goals in such a motion also included rural layers of Elbasan Prefecture, whose war took more the character of an economic war, given the difficult situation that characterize this layer and poor rural schools, especially the remote areas and state fiscal policy seriously. Through archival sources, in this article we try to analyze the reasons that prompted such a move, the development of its format, the connection with labor movements and their consequences in this region and beyond.

Keywords: peasant movements, social conflicts, fiscal policy, land ownership

Introduction

In the years '20 and '30 of the XX century, one of the directions of the social conflicts in Albania used to be the peasantry’s struggle for land. This struggle aimed not only a fair solution of the land ownership, but at the same time it aimed the improvement of the economic situation of the peasantry, through easing the tax burden. The Elbasan Prefecture peasantry was also involved in this movement so as to realize these goals. The difficult situation that characterized the poor and the middle class peasantry, especially those living in the remote mountainous areas, the harsh exploitation by the beys (bejlers) and qehallars, the hard fiscal policy, the numerous taxes and obligations needed to be given to the governmental and religious institutions, the speculations of the tenth (dhjetar) and pawnbrokers, all of these lead to the increase of the revolt on the part of the peasants that had little or no land at all, and gave to their war the characteristics of an economic war. Meanwhile, in the plain and hilly areas, in which the powerful land owners applied their dictatorship supported by the legislation in power of A. Zogu's government, this movement was mostly focused on solving the issue of land ownership. During this time period, even in the prefecture of Elbasan, as throughout the country, the existence of an evident inequality in land, forests, pastures and livestock ownership relations is clearly evidenced.

The powerful owners tried to justify the huge amount of the land they owned through heritage, hardwork, and skills. But the fact is that the extension and expansion of a majority of their properties came as a result of lootings, systematic abduction of middle class and poor villagers' land, by using a wide variety of tools and manners. Among the main methods used for the expropriation of peasants were: the harsh fiscal system and the numerous obligations, the fictitious sales of land, as well as the ongoing threats or even murders. The exploitation done through obligation, was one of the tools that made the peasantry to revolt in a spontaneous and unorganized manner, so as to protect their properties.

The types of the development of such a war were various, ranging from the simplest ones like sending letters and telegrams of protest, the development of anti-feudal and anti-government demonstrations, up to armed movement. In a series of documents of this time are shown cases of requests and protests by peasants coming from different regions, addressed to the center of the prefecture or even the Internal Affairs Ministry in Tirana, regarding the injustices that took place in the collection of taxes, or even regarding the peasantry’s impossibility to pay them, etc. One form of resistance was also the development of bread demonstrations in famine periods, such as that of 1937, a drought year, when many villagers came down with bags in their hands and gathered in front of the City Hall to demonstratively demand bread.

Under the governance of Iliaz Bey Vrioni’s cabinet, the large landowners who had achieved to re-obtain the land-patents that they had had before the revolution of June 1924, felt to be powerful, they increased the exploitation and the authority upon their farmers, especially in those areas that had been centers of resistance against the landowner’s violence, for example, in Darsi, in Demir Pashe Bunati’s properties and Pekishti (Dumre) in Shefqet Vërlaci’s properties. Thus, through the entrepreneur Demir Pashe Bunati, they took from the villagers 3 groshs instead of the 2 (pennies) mexhits for the irrigation of one Pend land of corn, while for the rice lands from 1/3 to 1/2 of the production even though the villagers fixed the irrigation channels themselves. In 1924, Shefqet Vërlići took from the villagers the overdue
obligations they had since 1922 and fined with 3 Napoleon golds every peasant entering his forest. Hence, the Bey area was controlled really well since all of it was put under his dictatorship.

In the mountainous area, the principal direction of the war against the peasantry was led under the slogan of "cleansing of the Democrats", focusing on collecting weapons so as to secure peace in the country, on the one hand, and giving titles and ranks to sergeants such as Xhafarr Bali to be faithful in their service to the government.

In the years 1936-1938, the violence and terror over the peasantry deepened even more, by robbing their arable lands, pastures etc., by using force, the courts decisions or by fake land patent litigations. The owners robbed lands, water lines, pastures, forests, mills, houses or other inproductive land, and from each of them the landlord raised a rent in kind or in cash. Vërlici together with his farmers organized extortion in the borderline between the villages of Bradashesh and Fikas, Dervish Bey with villagers in the meadows of Malasej in Dumre, in Sulovë, Darsi, Peqin etc. Land robbery by the elderlyhood “pleqësi” evidence was also done by the Peqin beys. They speculated not only to small and medium owners, but also to the claims of the large landowners. Thus, in the clashes about properties between Demir Pashe Bunati and Dervish bey Biçaku, in relation to some other villagers’ properties, the village elders approved one side, that of Dervish Bey, and rejected the other party. In the plain areas, the Beys owned water lines, forests, and mills and tried to exploit as much as they could by giving them to the rich peasants at random venture, for example. Vërlici gave a mill for 20 quarters of corn in Dumre and when it was not of interest to him, he gave it to someone else. As such, Bey used to give to some villagers the living tools so as these villagers could use them and in the same time to cast them into battle against the others. The villagers counterreacted in different forms to the violence exercised by the landowners, qehajais and Beys in the village. Documents of the time show that there had been organized numerous resistance movements by the peasants majority in areas around Elbasan, Krrabë in Dumre in Darsi etc, that rejected to pay the amount of obligation they had to pay. This resistance appeared in the form of opposition to fulfill the economic obligations that were not included in the contract. The biggest complaints of the field peasantry regarded the arable land, the pasture, the water turns, the water line (irrigation channel) which was always fixed free of charge by the villagers themselves whenever it didn’t function properly, etc. Organized opposition by all farmers against the landowners, can be found in the villages of Pekisht against Vërlici and in Darsi, Peqin, against Demir Pasha, while other rural measures, stored their dissatisfaction undercover and had no courage, time and opportunity to express their revolt against the Beys.

Elbasan Prefecture informed the Ministry of Interior that the landowner Ibrahim Biçaku had evicted from his manors many poor farmers’ families. The estate Bey of Cerrrik Ibrahim Biçaku using his qehallars, and after having evicted from his soils 4 farmers’ families of 40 members, whose houses he had also destroyed, was directly and indirectly attempting to evict the other farmers as well, some with intimidation and some through trial. As known from this action, - emphasized the appeal of farmers in Elbasan – it is not only the farmers that are harmed but also the state budget, because the fields are left unplanted because the farmers are kept under intimidation. Complaints of farmers in the villages Kurtej, Sallbegaj, Thanasej, directed to the Elbasan prefecture, against Demir Pashe Peqini’s representative, who did not allow them to irrigate their lands using Shkumbini river water, were not the only ones which testimonied the antihuman treatment of poor peasants by the beys and agas, on the one hand, and by the inability of local and national structures to give the right solution to the problem. "The only hope we have lies in agriculture – would they further emphasize in their complaint to this prefecture, - and if within a week we are not given the right to water, the seeds will remain without being planted and so our people living in these three villages will be in a difficult situation and will be left without bread, and in this case not only the people, but even the state budget will also not be able to benefit." Mechanisms and other actions by the Beys and Pashas directed against the poor peasants multiplied day by day and despite complaints of poor villagers directed up to local government, they often fell on deaf ears and the responses were endlessly delayed, without ever even being given a solution to their problem.

Villagers’ complaints against taxes comprised a different direction to the opposition of the villagers against not only the qehallars and Beys, but even against the local authority and the government. Resistances to paying tithing were individual or collective. In a letter of the tither Ali Bey Bunga, addressed to the Elbasan prefecture on October 7, 1930, it was proved that the villagers of Kuqan village, refused to pay tithing to him. One form of opposition to paying the tax of the tenth was the cutting or uprooting of fruit trees, especially the grape vine, for which the tax paid was greater than their own production, and as such, so as to escape the greed of the tithers, in areas such as Krbë, Mokër, Çermenikë, vineyards and fruit orchards disappeared. The conflict between Godolesh’s villagers and a number of villages around Elbasan with the olive tithers dated back since 1927. Villagers had been jailed, but again they refused to yield to pay the obligation amount charged by the entrepreneur. Similarly, even the villagers coming from Dragostunja, Muriqan, Pajova, Bradashesh, Hotolish, Garunja, Lazareni etc. showed strong resistance to tax payment.

Demir Pasha initially forced villagers of several villages in Peqin, to allow the passage of the irrigation channels needed for the mills operation on their land, without compensation and not long after that he, like all other feudals,
The peasant movement in the prefecture of Elbasan was developed alongside the labor movement. Again on the
Government to reduce this tax in 1934, up to 50%,

The prevalent of seasonal characterized jobs, but also because of
exploitation they suffered by their owners, who either

Another direction of the peasantry’s objections was that towards xhelepi (the cattle payment), an objection that
appeared with a large scale and often with severe forms. A part of the peasants, who were in great economic difficulty
tried to avoid paying it by displacing their cattle or even themselves, of by hiding in remote areas for certain periods of
time. Thus, farmers in the province of Shpati, had agreed among themselves to hide their cattle and to support each
other. Tax collectors of this region testified that there were many hidden animals, which migrated from the lowlands to
the mountainous areas and vice versa, and villagers managed to avoid the controls undertaken by the gendarmerie. In
1936, in the district of Shkodra, an operation was undertaken by the gendarmerie to force villagers to show their hidden
animals. They used numerous beatings and tortures, to such an extent that a villager died due to the beatings in the
village of Bresnik. The confrontation of the villagers directly with the state administration for rejecting xhelepi was greater
than in the case of the tithing rejection. Conflicts and opposition were great, because farming was the second important
tool for the peasantry’s life. Its result was significantly lowering the tax level, somewhat minimizing the effects of this tax
on the peasantry and putting in somehow serious trouble the financial institutions, as well as mitigation measures by the
government to reduce this tax in 1934, up to 50%.

The peasant movement in the prefecture of Elbasan was developed alongside the labor movement. Again on the
basis of these movements were the economic demands. But, the claims and controversies over the treatment of poor
peasants and workers continued to fall on deaf ears and their exploitation exceed the unhuman limits. It should be
noted here even the dissatisfaction caused by the foreign companies, which operated for a long time in this region,
treating Albanian workers as vulnerable in all directions. However, it must be said that these moves failed to provoke
revolt and strong social movements in this area, as happened in some other regions of the country. Given that most
working class was compound of artisans and poor peasants, their economic situation was difficult because of the
prevalence of seasonal characterized jobs, but also because of the exploitation they suffered by their owners, who either
did not pay the worker according to the contract worker or left them unpaid for several days and weeks.

In the years 1931-1932, a strong wave of strikes, rallies and demonstrations against the government of Ahmet Zog,
involved workers, artisans and peasants, who ran the slogan" we want bread, we want bread,". Such strikes were also
made by the construction workers in Elbasan, as well as in Durres, Shkoder and other countries.

The severe economic crisis of the years 1929-1935, was preceded by a number of other factors such as: the
intensification of the tax system in the years 1925-1928, the doubling of the tax burden on the population, the adamant
overdue tax extraction tax since 1912, thus surpassing every potential limit for generating revenue from the peasant and
urban population. Fisher, a wellknown researcher, would determine the economic situation in Albania, throughout its life
as an independent state, as it had been in a permanent crisis and in desperate straits, which seemed eternal. The
Albanian people, accustomed to misery and hardship, were stoically facing this situation, while the beginning of the
crisis and especially the crisis in 1931, tested to the maximum the patience of the population. The tax policy of the
Albanian state on the peasantry played the role of a strong blow that infuriated and further deepened the development of
a number of internal and external factors that influenced the creation of an extremely serious condition of the peasantry
and in all branches of the economy. In the years of the economic crisis, debts started to increase considerably and ususy
faced an unprecedented increase of up to 100%. Debts of the peasants only, roughly calculated, amounted to about 20
million gold francs, nearly equal to the state budget.

After years of economic crisis, in the years 1936-1938, there could be noticed a significant development of the
Albanian economy compared to previous years. The number of the enterprises and the number of the employees
increased, the light industry revived, etc. Yes, poverty was still largely present in the country, the food was insufficient and
sanitation lacked. All these were causes of the spread of infectious diseases in people and despite the government's remedial measures, the situation continued to remain heavy. Many of the laws adopted by Zogu that served to give impetus to the economic development found no effect in society. Every time these codes faced difficulties in implementation, Zogu tried to draft new laws to make them more acceptable and applicable. Such a thing could hardly build government trust through the law - concludes Duka author.

Conclusions

It should be noted that the peasantry's movements in the Prefecture of Elbasan during this period were directed against the state administration and its fiscal policy, as well as against the rich land owners. However, in terms of the prevalence of small rural property in the prefecture, this movement could not extend to a larger degree, as was the case in some other prefectures of the country. Spontaneous opposition and protests in most cases had no success.

The peasantry's movement for land in the 20's-30's of the XX century generally took place within the existing legal framework. It failed to take the features of a fierce battle with a political character. (Such efforts were only recorded in the area of Gramshi in June 1924, when the peasantry of this area gathered in the war for the liberation of its zone and then coordinated the actions with the revolutionary forces and contributed to the victory of the revolution even in the region of Elbasan). Peasant movements in the region of Elbasan, indirectly, had links with the labor movement. This is because a large number of workers, especially working in foreign companies, came from the village, and their economic incomes were in the service of their families in the village.

A considerable part of the peasantry, nationwide, were farmers and farmers çiftçinj (workers) in the state and private estates (çifçil). In 1930 çiftçinj farmers accounted 17.3 thousand families or 12.4% of the agricultural population. Most of the agricultural population was compound by the small peasantry of the hilly or mountainous areas, which had very little land. This mass of the peasantry, which possessed an average of 0,54 ha of land per family had turned into half farmers, or half laborers or semi workers. To make a living, a part of this small peasantry received rented land from the landowners, while the rest were forced to send their labor hands to work in the city, or to emigrate abroad. The peasant farmer of the state or the landowners was obligated to pay as rent for the leased land, in most cases, a third of the agricultural products and livestock, and there were cases of even half of this product. What is more these farmers were also forced to perform various drudgery tasks. There were also many small farmers who had little land (paraqendarë villagers) who received additional land from the owner, more or less under the same conditions as the servitude (çiftçi) farmer. There existed also the layer of the paraqendarë who were those farmers who lived on rent in the hacienda and practiced different professions such as smiths, masons, shoemakers, tailors, etc.

The resistance of the peasantry was important in several respects: in the political emancipation of the peasantry, in the increased cooperation to gather their efforts against the injustices that continued to be made against them, in setting some limits on state tax policy by the peasantry itself, in refraining the entrepreneurs' efforts in arbitrarily ripping off the peasantry. etc.

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The Role of the Institute of Albanian Studies in Albanological Research

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Abstract Albanological researches unlike many other countries have started relatively late, especially in institutional form. All the efforts of the Albanian intellectual elite to establish an Albanian Studies Society, finally were finalized with the establishment of the Institute of Albanian Studies on April 8, 1940, and certainly, the support of the Italian government at the foundation of this institute is considerable. This institute aimed to develop the national Albanian language, to gather the best issue of Albanian folklore, to collect data and documents on the history etc. This study will consider the issues relating to the establishment of this institute, the organization, status, and integral structures and the program of the institute. The institute did a significant work in scientific activities in the field of linguistics, literature, history, archeology, science and art by providing an exceptional contribution to Albanological Researches. This study applies even to evaluate the work of intellectuals in raising the value of the Albanian nation. Unfortunately this work so valuable was skipped for a long time by the communist regime, because a part of the members of this institute was seen as cooperator with the Quisling Government and as such were sentenced, imprisoned and killed by the communist government.

Keywords: institute, linguistic studies, history, albanological research, activities

1. Introduction

A group of foreign albanologists, that visited Albania on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the Independence Day in 1937, discussed among other issues on the possibility of foundation of an Albanian Studies Organization, with head office in Tirana. They presented their proposal to the respective Albanian authorities and decided to organize in Tirana on September 1st 1937, on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the Kingdom proclamation, a meeting with all Albanian and foreign researchers of Albanology (Përpjekja Shqiptare 13, 1938). Independently from the desire of the above mentioned researchers, they could not realize the creation of an Albanology studies center.

On April 7th 1939, the fascist Italy militarily invaded Albania. Immediately after the invasion, in the framework of directing the county toward fascism, the Italian authorities took adequate measures on the control and propaganda. It was founded the Fascist Party of Albania, as a branch of Fascist Party of Italy. A great number of organizations were founded under the Party, as the one of women, youth, and students that would work to introduce the fascist ideology (Akademia e Shkencave 2008, pg. 27). The daily newspapers of Tirana “Drita” and “Shtypi” were closed and replaced by the daily newspaper “The Fascism”, which was an official newspaper of the Fascist Party(Bernd J., Fischer 2004, pg. 81). In this framework it was founded the Albanian Studies Institute too.

2. The foundations of the Institute of Albanian Studies

The foundations of the Institute of Albanian Studies were formalized in the Albanian Studies Convention held on 9 - 13 April 1940 with the initiative of the Albanian Ministry of Culture and with the support of fascist Italy (Ma i pari Kuvendi Studimeve Shqiptare,1940, 52). The creation of this Institute in a way as an effort through which the Italian invaders tried to influence the Albanian intelligence and integrate it in the structures of the invader’s regime (Akademia e Shkencave 2008, pg.29) and this would help later in the propagation of fascism. The Albanian Studies Convention realized the first meeting of the Italian researches of Albanology and the Albanian ones ( Ma i pari Kuvendi Studimeve Shqiptare,1940, 52). The main protagonists of these convention were: Ernest Kolçi, Mati Logoreci, Carlo Tagliavini, Eqerem Çabej, Mustafa Kruja, At Zef Valentini, Dhimitër Berati, Domenico Mustilli, Franchesko Ercole, (Director of the Albanian Studies Center at the Italian Royal Academy), Sergio Bettini, Petraq Pepo Mateo Bartoli, Antonio Badacci, Paolo Emilio Pavolini, Papas Gaetano Petrotta, Mit’hat Frashëri, Karl Gurakuqi, Gennaro Maria Monti, Giuseppe Schiro, Pappa Mihali, Nikola Loruso Attoma etc.

In the Albanian Studies Convention there were discussed important issues on Albanology and the ones related to the linguistic, literary, historic and anthropologic studies, etc. Regarding the linguistic studies the Convention were (Ma i pari Kuvendi Studimeve Shqiptare,1940, 9) Prof. Carlo Tagliavini and Eqerem Çabej, meanwhile for some issues of the
Albanian there was a paper presented by Mustafa Kruja. The studies on the Italian – Albanian Studies were presented by Ernest Koliqi and Gaetano Petrotta.

On the second and third day of the convention for the researchers, the organizers prepared tourist visits in the cities and important historical and cultural sites in Shkodër, Korce, Voskopojë, Krujë, Petrelë etc.

The fourth day of the Albanian Studies Convention (12 April 1940) was the most important day of this event. In the session of this day, there were presented two academic references (Ma i pari Kuvendi i Studimeve Shqiptare, 1940, 10): the one of the Prof. Domenico Mustilli, with the title: "Albanian Archeological Studies" and the reference of Prof. Zef Valentinit with title: "Albanian Historical Studies". During the same day, it was discussed on the possibility of organization of an International Convention of Albanian Studies in Naples and it was approved the foundation of the Albanian Studies Institute.

The fifth day of the Convention on 13 April 1940 was considered the first day for the directing structures of the Albanian Studies Institute. Basing on the official documents that accompanied the foundation of the Institute of Albanian Studies, it had the mission to cultivate the national language regarding the cleanness, phraseology, lexicology, to gather and extract the Albanian folklore and try to gather information and documentation on the story and Albanian art. The Institute of Albanian Studies, would be a branch of "Skënderbeg" Foundation that was founded under the decision of the Italian King Representative in Albania n. 114 date. 8 April 1940 (AQSH,F.200,v.1940,D.10, fl. 2) and had as principal scope the fascist propaganda in the culture field. This foundation would include the "Italian – Albanian circle "Skënderbeg" which was founded to support and strengthen further the social and cultural relations between Albanians and Italians (Fletorja Zyrtares, 1940). In the letter that the first director of the institute, Mr. Mustafa Kruja, sent to the King Representative in Albania, Francisko Jacomoni, in the first day of the work of the Institute, he expressed his gratitude on the big support of the Albanian culture, and on the other hand he assured to undertake wide activities supporting the fascist spirit. (AQSH,F.200,v.1940,D.11) The Albanian intellectuals engaged in this Institute had the scope to use this opportunity to create an initiative and to undertake studies that would benefit the national culture. For this reason the foundation of this institute was welcomed from many well-known intellectuals, but nevertheless, the major part of them didn’t accept to cooperate and to be part of the Institute (Akademia e Shkencave, 2008, pg.29).

The Institute of Albanian Studies, till the beginning was organized in 2 commissions (AQSH,F.200,v.1940,D.10,fl.17) 1. The Commission of Language and Folklore and 2. The Commission of Story and Art. Every commission was made up of at least 4 internal members. The general activity of the Institute was organized and directed by the Scientific Council part of which were the chairmen, vice chairman and 4 councilors that were appointed by royal decree under the proposal of the Minister of Instruction and elected from the effective Albanian and Italian members of the Institute.

The Scientific Council of the Institute of Albanian Studies was made up of the following personalities (Fletorja Zyrtares, 1940): Chairman: Mustafa Kruja, Vice Chairman: Prof. Carlo Tagliavini and councilors: Prof. Eqerem Çabej, At Zef Valentini, Dom Lazër Shantoja, Prof. Aleksandër Xhuvani.

At the end of each academic year, the Chairman Mr. Mustafa Kruja, sent to the Italian King Representative in Albania, (Albania was part of the Kingdom after the fascist invasion) and to the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, a report on the activities undertaken by the Institute during the year.1

Regarding the progress of its activity, the Institute was engaged to realize cooperation with other cultural institutes within the country and homologue institutes abroad. In this initiative, it obtained the support and cooperation of the Italian Royal Academy and its representatives in Albania Lombardi, Daniele Rodici.

As part of its publishing activity, the Institute beside publishing the original works of the Albanian researchers, tried to underline also the problems that existed in the field of the albanological studies. On the bases of the academic program of the Institute, this institution had the scope to translate and to publish in Albanian language fundamental works written in foreign languages on Albania which were not known by the locals.

At the same time, the Institute engaged in the organization of many conferences not only in Albania, but at the same time in Italy, to make Albania more recognized by the neighbor country. The Institute would prepare publications in form of articles and studies on Albania, which would be published in well known and important European academic newspapers and magazines.

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1 After the invasion of Albania from fascist Italy, the Constitution was changed. Following the new Constitution all the executive power of the state was given to the King of Italy, who was represented in Albania by his Representative. This Representative was responsible to control the doll regime founded in Albania and was represented by the Council of Ministers. The appointment of the Council of Ministers was made by the Representative with the help of the Italian councilors appointed in each ministry.
It was the task of the Institute to publish a research study in which to present the level of albanological studies. The members of the institute thought that before it was necessary to compose a full bibliography of the albanological studies through professional files, with all necessary information of the Albanian on the Albanian and foreign researches and their works. As immediate task of the Institute, it was determined (Ma i pari Kuvend i Studimeve Shqiptare, 1940, 51-57) to present the situation of the Albanian studies, compilation of the Albanian language dictionary and collection of important historical documentation on Albania.

When Mustafa Krüja was appointed in the position of the Prime Minister, as chairman of the Institute of Albanian Institute was appointed the writer Ernest Koliqi, which was First Minister of Instruction after the invasion of Albania from Italy.

From December 1941 until end of August 1942 (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.19,fl.7), the Institute suspended its academic and cultural activity, because it was engaged not only in the preparation of the legislation to give a more clear juridical physiognomy to the institution, but also in infrastructure works of the Institute head office. The normal activity of the Institute restarted on September 21st 1942 (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.19,fl.18), with the meeting of all members resident in Tirana and this act noted the second phase of its activity.

Despite the status that the Institute of Albanian Studies obtained by the decree N. 114 date 8 April 1940 it was necessary to determine the juridical physiognomy of the Institute of Albanian Studies.

Under the proposal of the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, the General Representative of the Italian King in Albania, decided the Institute of Albanian Studies to be named "The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies" (AQSH,F.200,v.1940,D.10,fl.8). In a solemn ceremony organized on September 28th 1942, the new Chairman Ernest Koliqi swear in front of the King Representative declaring the change of the Institute name from Institute of Albanian Studies to The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies (Lek, Drini, 1942). Important changes were performed to its program and statute. In contrast with the Institute of Albanian Studies, that included in his activity general studies on the language and art, the The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies following its new program had the scope to stimulate and coordinate the Albanian intellectual movement even in other fields as human sciences, arts, curricles etc. This scope would be realized not only based on the propaganda, but also by organizing scientific conferences, stimulating and supporting publications and various academic works of the local and foreign authors. The emblem of the Institute was accepted to be the column of Apol Agiens (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.21,fl.30), which was very popular in the ancient numismatics of Illyrians predecessors of Albanians.

The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies would be made up of 4 commissions (AQSH,F.200,v.1940,D.10, fl.11):

2) The Commission of moral and historical sciences: Prof. Marcos Milone, Dhimitër Pasku, Thoma Rollogai, Hasan Dosti, Kolë Dhimitri, Prof. G. Lorenzoni
3) The Commission of natural sciences, physics, mathematics: At Mark Harapi, Nikolla Lako, Vasfi Visoku, Prof. Michele Parino, Dr. Ali Mihali, Dr. Jano Basho, Dr. Hamdi Sulçebeku, Prof. Stefanuli
4) The Commission of Arts : Odhise Paskali, At Lorenzo Tardo, Prof. Kristo Kono etj.

After passing from Italian invasion to the German invasion, following the decree of the Higher Council of Albania, The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies changed its name to the Albanian Studies and Arts Institute. This institutions following its legal program would have the scope to promote the Albanian intellectual movement in the field of sciences, curricula and arts. Chairman on this Institution was elected At Anton Harapi, which following the statute was elected by the internal members of the Institute basing on the decree of the Higher Council of Albania. The first meeting of the ASAI was organized on February 24th 1944 in Tirana under the direction of Father Anton Harapit, which following the statute was elected by the internal members resident in Tirana as (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.22,fl.198) : A. Xhuvani, A. Paluca, Dh. Berati, K. Gurakuqi, E. Vlora, L. Shantoja, Xh. Korçë, O. Paskali etc. In the first meeting was decided (Kritika,1,1944,39-40) that the Institute

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2 In September 1943, Albania passed from the Italian fascist invasion into the German Nazism invasion and immediately after the invasion special attention was dedicated to the Constitution change. A lot of constitutional changes made my the Italian authorities were suspended and it was left in power the decree of year 1928, following which Albania was proclaimed Monarchy. Starting from this fact, Germany left opened the possibility for King Zog to return in Albania and decided that Albania will be government by a High Council of Regents made of four members, one representative from each religious community. This Council formed a government, which would collaborate with the German authorities.
would be apolitical and not honorary, but it will give value to all Albanian knowledge and art works. The subject word of the Institute was “Pro cultural” (AQSH,F.200,v.1944,D.25,fl.9).

In order to change the Statue and the juridical rights of the Institute, it was elected a commission made up of (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.22,fl.199): A, Xhuvani, Xh. Korça, K. Gurakuqi, O. Paskali. Juridical experts were elected Gjergj Ashta. Following the statute of ASAI, in contract to its predecessor, the Institute was separated in three branches (AQSH,F.200,v.1944,D.25,fl.6): Literature, Arts and Sciences.

In contract with the programs of activities of the two previous periods, ASAI in his activity would not serve only to an elite but to much wider social range. On the other hand on of this engagements was to intensify the work for the intellectual development of the country. The Institute would serve as a basis for opening of the University and Academy in Albania immediately after the war. In support of this philosophy, it compiled a wide working program regarding three of its main branches: literature, sciences and art.

The working program for the literature branch (AQSH,F.200,v.1944,D.25,fl.77) included: publications, translations, manifests, opening of libraries. The publication activity of ASAI would be concentrated in periodica publication, collection, monographs, etc.

The Institute engaged in the compilation of an Albanian bibliography (AQSH,F.200,v.1944,D.25,fl.94) where would be registered all books and articed published in the Albanian language and those published in foreign language on Albania and Albanians. It was requested to the Government, the approval of a law on bibliographic indicator following which all publishers should note in their publications a progressive number that would be provided by the Press Office of the Albanian government. At the same time decisions on the copyright were taken, following the proposal of Mr. Vangjel Meksi which was published in the cultural magazine of that time "Shkëndija" (AQSH,F.200,v.1942,D.2,fl.201)

In the framework of the Albanian Studies and Arts Institute was founded the Kosovo Department with a very wide working program (Instituti Shqiptar për Studime dhe Arte,1944). This department would deal with the research, collection and organization of documents and various publication in the field of history, ethnography, economy of Kosovo and to reflect the efforts of the Albanian population of this region against assimilation and ethnical denationalization. In its program, this department included: the publication of an historical document and of an atlas – album on Kosovo. To realize these objectives, it was not sufficient only the department working program but this initiative required the collaboration of all researchers and cultural entities which would contribute together to the study of the denationalization of Albanian population of Kosovo and other regions with ethnical Albanian population in the Balkans. On the other hand, Kosovo department guaranteed its support to the individuals and entities that requested it. In order to function properly this session founded four commissions:

1) The Commission of History
2) The Commission of Ethnography
3) The Commission of Economy
4) The Commission for the creation of documentation on the denationalization politics toward the Albanian population in Kosovo and in other ethnical Albanian populations in Balkans.

The Institution progressed further in his work by undertaking promoting activities in different fields of history, language, culture, folklore, arts and music, implementing the foundations on original scientific studies in the field of albanology.

The Institute made a lot of efforts on the foundation of the scientific institutions as the building of the Albanian Museum of Natural Sciences. It will contain the zoological collection, herbarium of the Albanian flora and a collection of the minerals and fossils discovered till that time. It was created the Library of the Institute basing on the contribution of the Albanian intellectual elite itself. This library would further enrich the activity of the Institute. This Institution stopped existing immediately after the end of the war and the major part of its contributors left Albania.

3. Instead of conclusions : The Most Important Activists of the Institute

Mustafa Kruja, born in Kruja, on 15 March 1887 (Mustafa, Kruja,2007). He completed his studies in the University "Mylkije", Istanbul. He is one of the signatories of the Independence Act and has served as the Prime Secretary of Ismail Qemali government. He supported the regime of Prince Vid and in the Durres government he was appointed Minister of Post – Telegraph, ect. Under the Italian regime, he was elected senator of Italian Kingdom. In April 1940, under his initiative, it was founded the Institute of Albanian Studies, which he leaded till year 1941 (Kastriot, Dervishi,2006,pg.187). After that, he was appointed Prime Minister and Minister of Interior, in December 1941, in 1942 he directs the Ministry of Justice. He spend the major part of his life in immigration to Austria, Italy, Egypt, France, USA.

Ernest Koliqi was born in Shkoder on 20 May 1901 in a very well known patriotic family. He completed his studies in the "Jesuit College" Arici in Brescia. He received his diploma in the Padova University in the literature branch. Initially lector
of Albanian language in the University of Padova and later Professor of Albanian Language in the University of Rome (AQSH,F.200,v.1941,D.3,fl.10). He is noted in his activity as poet, prose writer, dramaturge, researcher of literature and literary translator. This activity and literary creations were exercised during his whole life. After the invasion of Albania, he comes back to Albania and is appointed Minister of Instruction in Shefqet Vërclaci Government. With the foundation of the Institute of Albanian Studies he is noted as one or most diligent activist and in December 1941, he takes over the direction of this Institution gathering the most well known culture activists and writers.

Father Anton Arapi, Franciscan, graduated in Austria in Philology – Theology branch. He was founder of the "Ora e Maleve" group, chief redactor of the magazine "Hylli i Dritës", collaborator of various publications, as "Iliria", "Arbëria", "Demokracia" etc. After the foundation of the Institute, he is elected internal member and in April 1944 he is appointed Chairman of ASAI.

Dhimtër Berati born in Korçë in 13 October 1887. He is graduated in Bucharest for political sciences and in Rome for juridical sciences (AQSH,F.200,v.1941,D.3,fl.4). He has represented Albania in the Albanian Issues in diplomatic missions in Italy, France, Bulgaria, Romania, Greece, Yugoslavia. After the decline of Rexhep Mitrovica government he left Albania forever, he lived in Italy, where he undertook multiple political activities. He died in Rome in 1970.

Father Justin Rrota. Franciscan graduated in Austria in Philology – Theology branch (AQSH, F. 200, v. 1941,D. 3, fl.16) and was one of the most known linguists of that time. He dedicated all his life to the Albanology field. He gave his contribution in the collection of many documents on Albania from the Veneditian archives. He has published many works in the literature domain.

Don Lazër Shantoja was born in Shkoder 1892. He completed his high studies for priest in Austria. He was part of the Albanian political life in 1923-1924, where he showed his capacities as orator. He was noted for his satirical works and different publications. He was an effective member of the Institute of Albanian Studies.

Father Zef Valentini is on the irreplaceable contributors in the activity of the Albanian Studies Institute. He was born in Padova, on 1 July 1900. He graduated for Philosophy in year 1924 and after that for Theology. He is presented as theologian, albanologist, bisantologist and historian. Father Valentini was an Italian Jesuit, that came to Albania for the first time in year 1922 (K.Krisafi,N.Kulla,D.Thomollari,2006,pg.10). He learned very fast the Albanian language, and anybody could tell that he was a normal Albanian cleric and he would cordially devoted himself to the Albanian quotidian life. He had good relations with all the Albanian researchers hierarchy till 1941. He worked as councilor and secretary of the The Royal Institute of Albanian Studies. He is considered well known as result of his bibliographic volumes and published books which represent a real treasure for the Albanian culture.

Unfortunately, despite the extraordinary contribution given by the above mention researchers, but also from others which are not mentioned here, they were left out of sight for a very long time. The communist regime considered them as collaborator of the Quisling Government and their contribution and work was never considered.

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Abstract: Fears are part of the human being. Many childhood fears are natural and tend to develop at specific ages. For example, many children are afraid of the dark and may need a nightlight to sleep. In most cases, they will grow out of this fear as they get older. The bases to confront a feared situation are built in the childhood. The child is not always able to find the best way to control his fear, so is the responsibility of the parents or of the other attachment persons to help them. According to the Child Anxiety Network, the imaginary things such as ghosts, monsters, the dark, sleeping alone etc are extremely common and considered normal at the children aged 3 – 4 years. Most of the parents or the attachment persons tent to stop their children watching cartoon movies with terrific characters such as ghosts, monsters etc. In general there is the thought that when children watch such movies, they feel intimidated and react aggressively to the environment and people around them. But is that true? I am of the opinion that during the watching of such movies, always in the company of parents or attachment persons, children unconsciously process their fears; in this way they give an image to their fears and learn to handle them. Certainly, the parents or other attachments persons should be near the children, when they watch such movies, so the children feel safe and protected. I have conducted a research whose hypothesis is: If the children aged 3 – 4 year watch in the presence of parents or other attachment persons movies with terrific cartoon characters, they reduce and manage their fears. The results of this research confirmed the hypothesis.

1. Introduction

Fears are part of being human. They influence consciously and unconsciously, driving us to certain behaviors. Fear is a redirection of feelings. When they aren’t processed, they may be shown through our body. Fear is associated with physical signs such as: shaking hands, sweating, gentle agitation, insomnia, night terror and urination, aggression, etc., which indicate that something is wrong. But fear itself remains invisible.

Fear is a little studied phenomenon, but it accompanies us throughout life. The bases to confront a feared situation are built in the childhood. Children aren’t always able to find the best way to control his fear, belongs to the parents or other attachment persons to help them.

2. Purpose

It’s observed that parents or other attachment persons tend to stop their children aged 3-4 to watch cartoon movies that have terrific characters. In general there is the idea that when kids watch such movies, they feel intimidated and react aggressively to the environment and people around them. But is it true? Or maybe when parents stop their children aged 3 -4 to watch films with terrific characters, they unconsciously suppress the fear of scary figures like ghosts, etc. they transfer that fear somewhere else and reflect insomnia or aggression? The purpose of this qualitative empirical study is to determine whether during the watching of such films, always in the company of parents or other attachments persons, children unconsciously process their fears, thus making possible a positiver and healthier coping with their fears. Children unconsciously feel and understand that movies with terrific cartoon do good to them, cause this way they give an image to their fears and so they learn to handle them. Certainly, parents or other attachment persons should be near the children, when they watch such films, cause this way they feel safe and protected. Hypothesis is: if children aged 3-4 years watch at the presence of parents or other attachment persons movies with terrific cartoon characters, they reduce and manage their fear for these characters.

3. Methodology

To prove the hypothesis in a scientific way, in this study were carried out two types of research: the participant, confidential and structured observation and the experiment in an unpublic kindergarten in the city of Elbasan.
1) **The population:** The theoretical population of this empirical scientific study is: the children aged 3-4 in the city of Elbasan.

2) **The sample:** A total of 32 children who attend the first groups in the kindergarten "Tomy & Jerry" Elbasan. This kindergarden was selected in a noncasual way. It was selected a non-public kindergarten, because in a nonpublic kindergarden the children have more and more often the opportunity to watch different movies, among them, also movies with terrific cartoon characters. These kindergardens are also rich in toys, as well as facilities for playing. In a nonpublic kindergardens children seldom are being punished in physical or psychological way, which affects the most reliable measurement and objective signs of aggression that children can display without fear of punishment by the educator after seeing the movie with terrific cartoon characters. The selection of the children in terms of gender, social, cultural and family background was casual, so that the data were more objective, reliable and valid.

3) **Methodological steps of the research:** The study was compiled 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 realization of the study in the kindergarten. To perform this experiment was taken permission from the Regional District of Elbasan, and permission from parents of children involved in the experiment, to whom was explained in details the goals, objectives and the modalities of the experiment within this study. Also they were insured for their children's anonymity and were asked not to speak with their children prior to the experiment, so that they are not influenced in their reactions from their parents.
   f) The data entry on the tab of structured observation and then their processing in SPSS program.
   g) The interpretation of the data.

4. **The conductions of the experiment**

To verify the hypothesis was conducted the following experiment.

I went to the kindergarten and in the presence of the educators I talked with the children about some scary figures like ghosts or bugaboo.

Then I divided the children into two groups. Always in the presence of educators, one group was left to watch a cartoon movie with bogeyman and ghost images and the other group a movie without these characters.

The group of children who saw the movie with cartoon images of ghost and bogeyman is the experimental group, while the group of children who saw the movie without these characters is the control group.

The independent variable is the cartoon movie with scary figures, which plays the role of the cause, while the dependent variable, which plays the role of effect, are the reactions or behaviors performed by the experimental group and after they saw the movie with ghost images and bogeyman.

After having seen the movie, the two groups were came together and were left to interact with each - other. Then, after about 45-60 minutes interaction, I talked again with the children of both groups together about the bugaboo and ghosts images.

The entire experiment was recorded by video, from the first moment when the children started the day in kindergarten, when they interacted with each other before talking about the bogeyman or the ghost, when we first talked about the ghost and the bogeyman, when they interacted after the talk about the bogeyman or the ghost, when the two groups saw the two types of film, when they interacted together after having watched the two films, when we talked again about the ghost and the bogeyman.

Of course, none of the children knew the fact there was conducted the experiment and that there were being recorded by video. I told them, I was their new educator and I always interacted with them in a close cooperation with their educator.

5. **The data analysis**

The data recorded by the video are interpreted.
It was interpreted the behavior of children during interaction with each other before the conversation, their emotional state. The children were relaxed; they interacted actively with each other. Then it was interpreted the reaction during the conversation about the bugaboo and ghosts figures. The management of the fear became measurable through the reaction of children such as: the limb's tremors, stammering, sweating, agitation, aggressive signs that appear when cited figures such as ghosts or bugaboo. It was observed that 33.9% of children had limb’s tremor, 26.8% stammered, 17% of them were agitated, 18.3% of children tried to avoid this conversation and 2.5% of them sweated.

1. Chart: The review of the fear's signs of the children during the first conversation about scary figures.

Their interaction after this conversation was lukewarm. They were frightened and in order to hide that, they sometimes exhibited aggressive feelings toward each other.

Then becomes the interpretation of the behavior while the two groups were watching the two kinds of films. Initially the experimental group felt fearful, crouched around the educator, but after about 15 minutes and after some hugs, smiles from the educator and I, children began to feel calmer, more selfconfident, and even began to laugh with each other. Some of them even imitate the bogeyman and ghost images, but without feeling afraid.

The control group saw a movie without scary figures and there we no changes in behavior.

It was observed that during interaction with each other, experimental group’s children, felt more confident in conversations or games with other children.

The largest difference was observed during the second conversation with children about scary figures. The experimental group's children were quiet, didn’t show many signs of anxiety, even a few of them spoke joyful about these figures. 24% of children had limb's tremor, 17% stammered, 14% of children tried to avoid this conversation. 6% were agitated and 2% of them sweated.

2. Chart: The review of the fear’s signs of the experimental group’s children during the second conversation about the bugaboo and ghosts images, after the presence of the independent variable
The control group’s children reacted quite differently. They continue to feel even more scared. It was observed that 41.3% of children had limb’s tremor, 35% stammered, 18.4% of children tried to avoid this conversation. 3.1% of them were agitated and 2.2% of them sweated.

3. Chart: The review of the fear’s signs of the control group’s children during the second conversation about scary figures.

As seen in the statistical processing of the data, the experimental group’s children responded less afraid during the second conversation about scary figures than those of the control group.

About the effect or consequence of the film’s watching were surveyed and interviewed children and parents who participated in the experiment. Parents of children who had seen the scary movie cartoon confirmed that their children were more active, more relaxed; they went to sleep without fear, even one of them claimed that her child had not urinated at night, which he did almost every night. Parents of children who hadn’t seen the movie with terrific figures claimed that their children after the interview felt a little afraid of frightening images. They were not very active and some of them were afraid to go to sleep.

6. 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, the study does not fully take into account social and family support to children who are involved in this study. Fourtly, it was not fully respected the professional ethic, especially to control group’s children.

7. Conclusions and suggestions

The data obtained by experiment, observation, surveys and interviews confirmed the link cause - consequence, so the hypothesis was confirmed. When children aged 3-4 years watch at the presence of parents or other attachment persons movies with terrific cartoon characters, they reduce and manage their fear for these characters. As result I suggest to parents and other attachments people to tend to teach their children to face their fears, always staying close to them, giving as much confidence, motivation, encouragement, understanding and strength. Coping with the scary object, a technique used in psychotherapy, otherwise known systematic desensitization in the presence of persons who give confidence and strength is a very efficient way for positive coping of fear.

References

Protective Measures Against Domestic Violence and their Implementation

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Abstract: Law on measures against violence in family relations is already about 4-years, which came into force in Albania. As a civil society initiative this law had the support of many social groups. The law came as a need of time in which domestic violence is a widespread phenomenon. Those who are most affected by this phenomenon are women and girls of all ages, regardless of socio-economic status or position in society. This is not just a phenomenon of the Albanian society, but is present in all societies, whether emancipated or not. Changing from one place to another has to do with the state's efforts to eliminate it. Violence against women constitutes a violation of the rights and freedoms of women and hinders basic or deny the enjoyment of those rights. (Preamble to the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations.) Despite the entry into force of the law on protection measures in family relations, became a step forward to prevent violence in family relationships, not lacking in daily news media with painful consequences for victims of domestic violence. This paper will address the safeguards provided for in national law, their enforcement by state authorities, as well as cases of jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights and the Albanian courts, highlighting the applicability and efficacy of this law.

Key Words: Violence in family relationships, protective measures.

Introduction

Albanian society changes are reflected in family relations, and consequently in recent years have noticed an increase of reported cases in terms of crime and violence in the family.

Statistical data from various organizations and state structures has resulted in years: 90% of women who serve their sentence in prison 313 in Tirana, because they killed their husbands, because for years have been cut physical and sexual violence. From the study data show that many of these women and girls have not been convicted of crimes committed and that, in most cases, have come from violence. 70 percent of them have experienced violence and 30 percent sexual abuse.

In a study conducted by the Independent Forum of Albanian Women in 2004, in 9 districts of Albania 1895 questionnaires were completed and 85.17 per cent of respondents confirmed the existence of domestic violence. Thus, it is estimated that one third of Albanian women experience some form of domestic violence. Statistical data of the State Police over the years show a growing and wide geographical spread of offenses relating to domestic violence. The figures show clearly the extent of domestic violence in Albania. Since the year 1996 in their report "Domestic Violence in Albania" Lawyers for Human Rights recommends that the Albanian State should care for victims of domestic violence by offering them legal and social services.

Growing phenomenon of domestic violence require specific legislative measures for its prevention. In this context the initiative of civil society in Law No. 2006 was passed. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 "On measures against domestic violence". This law was intended precisely to prevent and reduce domestic violence in all its forms by appropriate legal measures, and ensuring the protection of family members who are victims of domestic violence. The law pays special attention to children, the elderly and persons with disabilities. This end he realizes through two pathways:

1 Information taken from publication "Monitoring the press on domestic violence, 2001-2002"
2 Observations of the last ten years show that over one quarter of women report being made victims of emotional and sexual, and that rural women are more affected by physical violence (see Reflections, 1995, 1996, Bregu & Gjermeni, 2003, Gender Alliance for Development, 2006). In 2004 the Counseling Center for Women and Girls report that there were about 6670 phone calls from women and girls. According to Interior Ministry figures for domestic violence cases in 2005, according to evidence of criminal incidents resulting 102 such cases, of which 21 were homicide cases, while 25 others are threatened with murder. The 2006 study supported by UNICEF shows that 1 in 5 children have experienced dizziness, 1 in 14 children has experienced fainting and 1 in 4 has experienced bruising and bleeding due to shocks
3 Amnesty International 2006: Albania: Violence domain Against the family is not her shame.
First sanctioning authorities, who have the duty and power to t, responding to domestic violence. Secondly enables courts to issue protective orders against abusers.

1- But What we Mean about Violence?

Its definition is given by one of the most important documents for the rights of women is DVAW "On the elimination of violence against women." "Violence against women is gender based violence that brings or could bring harm or suffering due to physical, sexual or psychological nature of women, including threats of committing such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of freedom, which occur both in both public and private life ".

Albanian law makes a distinction between the general definition of violence and violence in family relationships. Violence defines it: "any act or omission of a person against another person that causes the violation of physical, moral, psychological, sexual, social and economic development."

While "Domestic violence" means any act of violence, any act or omission of a person against another person that causes harm to the physical, moral, psychological, sexual, social, economic, committed between persons who are or have been in the family relationship. Obviously this is an inclusive definition of acts of violence in all its forms, leaving open the possibility of expanding interpretation of acts of violence than those explicitly mentioned.

2. Which Are The Forms of Violence

a) Physical violence; b) sexual violence; c) Violence psychological (or emotional); d) Economic Violence.

2-a. Physical violence includes pushing, hitting, pinching, biting, jumping, close to home, hitting various objects, threatening with a knife or other weapon, refusing to help the woman when she is pregnant or sick, to form serious - murder, attempted murder, wounding, etc.

2-b. Sexual violence includes: treatment of partner (partner) as a sexual object, to make strip obligation, the obligation to have sex, to touch the persistence to do whatever it wants, the obligation to have sex with someone else, committing acts sadistic sexual, compelling partner to have sex after physical abuse or as a condition to maintain their relationship, conducting extramarital sexual relations, etc.. It was observed that spouses or partners who practice this form of violence, want to demonstrate their strength and ability to dominate and to humiliate the victim.

2-c. Psychological violence includes ignoring the feelings of the wife, constant criticism, constant contradiction of views, public or private humiliation, trying to convince partner violence deserves that his actions, partner threat of adultery, jealousy signs of constant threat of getting children, keeping hidden the money, keeping at home without work, abuse of children, called derogatory names, etc.. Most of psychological abuse occurring in the context of other forms of abuse such as verbal, economic and social isolation. Psychological violence, for its nature, is very difficult to identify because no visible traces, as physical violence, but verbal attacks, humiliation, intimidation, restraint can be even more harmful than physical assault.

2-d. Economic violence has to do with the partner's control over family financial income or even ban the participation of women in decisions about spending money, even refusal of money to cover basic family needs, denial of property ownership joint, damage or destruction of property, theft of property, etc.

3. Subjects Protected By Law

Are clearly all persons recognized as members of the family "who are: a) the husband / wife or cohabitant / wife or ex-spouse/ex-wife or former partner / wife cohabiting; b) brothers, sisters, relatives in direct line including adoptive parents and adopted children, c) the husband / wife or co / lo of persons indicated in the letter "b", d) straight sex, including parents, and adoptive children of the spouse /i or cohabitating /i e) brothers and sisters of the spouse /i if living together during the last 3 months; f) Children of spouses or cohabiting partners.

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4 Article 3 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 *On measures against violence in family relations
5 Physical violence is a form of violence that victims are easier to perceive and accept the nature of its performance and visible traces it leaves on the victim
6 Article 3/3 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 *On measures against violence in family relations
As seen from a wider circle of entities law protects not only existing family but under the influence of the Family Code recognizes and protects cohabiting partners and former partners and former husband or wife. This is because the violence is shown to these categories. The respondent is the person sued for domestic violence before the competent bodies.

4. Protective Measures Against Violence in Family Relations

4.1 Protective Measures

Law has provided a very clear safeguards against domestic violence depending on the situation that is the victim of violence. The law provides protection to victims of domestic violence, can team up:  

A- Protection of physical integrity, which is made in this way;  

a) immediately ordered the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to refrain from committing or threatening to commit domestic violence against plaintiff (victim) or other family members of victims.  
b) ordering the defendant immediately / (perpetrator / en) to refrain from harming, harassing, contacting or communicating directly or indirectly with the victim or the victim's family.  
c) Immediately removing the defendant / (perpetrator / en) from the residence for a period specified by court order and not allow to enter the flat new court authorization;  
d) to immediately stop the defendant / en (perpetrator / en) to approach a certain distance beyond the victim or the victim's family members.  
e) prohibiting the defendant immediately / (perpetrator / en) to close the home, workplace, the original family house or apartment or the next couple of other people and more children's school or places frequented by the victim, unless attendance is for work purposes;  
f) immediately placing the victim / s and a minor in temporary shelters, keeping in mind the best interests, that of minor.  
g) limiting or prohibiting the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to meet the victim's child, under conditions that may be suitable  
h) prohibiting the respondent / (perpetrator / en) entry or stay in the temporary or permanent victim, or any part thereof, regardless of the rights of ownership or possession of the perpetrator;  
i) ordering the law enforcement officers to seize any weapons that the perpetrator during the inspection perform or order the perpetrator to surrender any weapons belonging to him;  

B- Defense for economic security  
a) ordering a person authorized by the courts (officer or bailiff) to accompany the victim or the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to the victim's residence and supervise the removal of personal property,  
b) ordering the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to allow the victim to own home which they use together victim and offender / wife or any part thereof;  
c) ordering the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to pay rent permanent residence or temporary residence of the victim, as well as obligations to the victim, children or other family members who have dependents;  
d) ordering the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to make a payment in favor of cohabitees, who, to effect the above measure, remain deprived of their livelihoods.  

C- Defense with a social character  
a) Transferring the victim temporary custody of children and temporarily removing parental responsibility of the respondent / (perpetrator / en),  
b) establishing and ordering the case (under the jurisdiction of the court) the intervention of social services public or private place of residence or the organizations which aim to support and shelter of persons subjected to domestic violence;  
c) victim of domestic violence in rehabilitation programs;  
d) ordering the defendant / (perpetrator / en) to participate in rehabilitation programs;

4.2 But How Would Be Possible for the Effective Realization of All These Protective Measures Provided for by Law?

The law provides two ways to implement them:

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7 Article 10 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 “On measures against violence in family relations
A- "Emergency Protection Order." 8  
B- "Protection order". 9
A- "Emergency Protection Order" means an order issued temporary court, valid until the issuance of a protection order.  
B- "Protection order is an order issued by the court, providing protection measures for victims.  

In an emergency protection issued by the court within a short time frame due to the emergency situation. In the emergency protection order may contain some safeguards to protect the physical integrity.  

Protection order issued by the court after assessing the situation of domestic violence with a duration determined by anticipating some of the safeguards provided above.  

In both cases it is the court that decides on the appointment of an immediate protection order or an order of protection, depending on the situation. Such a decision constitutes an executive title which means that it is bound to be implemented by the respondent. An order of protection issued by a court, shall be notified immediately, who was not present at the hearing and victims provided with two copies of the original, so that one of them to keep for himself and the other to make available to the police at the moment needed. Court, within 24 hours after issuing the protection order by the court sends a copy of his victim and other persons mentioned in the prosecutor has filed the petition of the social services of local units, which are permanent resident or the victim and other persons mentioned in the police department of the location where the permanent resident or the victim and other persons mentioned in the decision. In cases where there are grounds for believing that he / the accused / (perpetrator /) has committed or threatened to commit an act of domestic violence or / the accused / (perpetrator /) presents a threat direct and immediate threat to safety, health or welfare of the victim and other family members of victims, or the issuance of the emergency protection order is necessary to protect safety, health and welfare of the victim or the members other families who are protected by the protection order. court decides on the request for immediate protection within 48 hours after submitting the application by issuing an emergency protection. If the / the defendant / a (respondent / wife) is not, then, the court summon and implement the relevant provisions of the Criminal Code, in case of obstruction of execution.  

5. Responsible  
The law defines the main target for achieving the goal of creating a coordinated network of responsible. The tasks of these institutions is not only protection, support and rehabilitation of victims, but also ease the effects. A special attention is paid to prevention of domestic violence as an effective protection, as a first step in order to curb this phenomenon preventing the causes that bring it. Law "On domestic violence defines two types of authorities responsible for: administrative and judicial.  

5.1 Administrative Authority  
Chief Administrative Authority responsible for the implementation of this law is the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.10 It has a coordinating role, supporting and supervising. In the framework of this law by the Ministry are designed strategies and action plans for prevention of domestic violence.11  

Other relevant authorities of the line are:  
a) local government;12 b) Ministry of Interior;13 c) Ministry of Health; d) Ministry of Justica.14

8 Article 3/7 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 "On measures against violence in family relations 
9 Article 3/6 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 "On measures against violence in family relations 
10Article 5 of Law no. 9669, dated 18.12.2006 "On measures against violence in family relations 
11Its duties are: a) design and implementation of national strategies and programs in the field of protection and care to victims of domestic violence, b) or co-financing of projects, which aimed at protecting and strengthening the family, and care of victims of domestic violence; c) support the establishment of support structures and all necessary infrastructure, which serves to support and fulfill all the needs of persons subject to domestic violence, including assistance financial, and medical and social services, under legislation in force; d) organizing training sessions on domestic violence social service employees, who are attached to each local unit, the structures of the Order Police and the NGO workers States licensed to provide social services, d) maintaining statistical data on the level of domestic violence; f) support and supervise the creation of rehabilitation centers for victims of domestic violence; e) support and supervise the creation of rehabilitation centers for perpetrators of domestic violence; h) the licensing of various NGOs that provide social services for victims and perpetrators.  
12 a) commitment to the creation of social service structures in cases of domestic violence, b) installing a telephone line regional 24-hour, which then creates a link with local units, police, medical emergencies and NGOs, by Located in this way the coordination between
All the above mentioned bodies have a legal obligation to respond to each case, and to treat according to the specifications of each organ. Also, they have a duty to enforce judicial decisions, to record and reflect everything in the documentation and to cooperate with other structures. They have administrative and criminal liability for failure to meet these obligations.

Local government units (L G).

Although (LG) has sectors of education and social services, which have a duty to deal with domestic violence, the process of decentralization of power has led many to overlook problems. Social services offered by the reduced only financial assistance, or addressing the violence to police, an NGO, or hospital. According to annex the Department of the Ministry of Education curriculum for "school psychologists" recommended that this task to perform and people close to the psychologist's office, which has brought about reduced quality of work and the effect on children. Although kindergartens and schools in most of them are restructured, they have not provided recreational facilities for abused children from domestic violence as quiet rooms, a dining annex, art rooms, information and communication environments. Existing facilities including the library, activity rooms, gyms, made little of computers in service. The large number of students per class in some areas for concern for these children.

Ministry of Interior

The Ministry of Interior at the central one of the structures more closely related to issues of domestic violence is "Department of Juvenile Protection and Family Violence" in the General Police Directorate at the Ministry of Interior. In Police Departments in counties near the Sector Combating Serious Crimes has a specialist who follows the dynamics of criminal offenses related to domestic violence at the station level police department. But police still did not play in a professional role in preventing the phenomenon of domestic violence. There are still no satisfactory standard of police service delivery by the relevant structures. Overall, police officers are not trained specifically to treat serious and professional manner in domestic violence cases. Disciplinary measures should include negligence cases related to domestic violence. New victimization by the police is an irreparable damage.

Ministry of Health

Ministry of Health shall establish the necessary capacity to provide medical help for domestic violence in the emergency services in health centers and communes. But the traditional model of Albanian health care, doctors have no legal obligation to ask patients and patients' records indicate the cause of injuries, wounds, fractures, that he / they represent. As a result, doctors treat the "physical symptom", while the violence behind the symptoms always remain "untreated" and as a result of unaddressed. Only 13% of health providers that they record cases of violence, of which only 4% say that not only document the case and the cause of violence. So be patient registrations that relate only to the filing of the diagnosis and personal data. Due to this, but the lack of legal obligation to document cases of violence, is the lack of clear and professional skills to handle this delicate matter with the patient without endangering it (SHKPS, 2006).15

13 Ministry of Interior has the following duties: a) creation of specific sectors to prevent and fight against domestic violence at police departments, b) training of the police to handle domestic violence cases.
14 Ministry of Justice has the following duties: a) to train forensic experts in the recognition, diagnosis, evaluation and reporting of domestic violence and acts of violence against children, b) to train bailiffs in their duty to enforce protection orders immediately, to ensure their implementation, and to take all appropriate actions, c) to fund free legal assistance under this act and provide a certain number of trained lawyers who can provide such assistance.
15 The Code of Medical Deontology among General Duties of Physicians, in Article 8 stated "... if the doctor determines that the person (prison) has been ill, after the adoption of this fact by the person, the physician should inform the legal authorities." While among the duties to the sick, the same Code, Article 43 stated "When the visit determines that a child is abused, he should take necessary measures to protect the child. This he should do with caution and prudence, but if it deems fit, especially for children under 15 years old, he shall notify the competent authorities." The Code does not provide special treatment of the doctor's patients / victims of domestic violence. Even in the case of the aforementioned child abuse is not specified mistreatment by family members and moreover, remains
Ministry of Justice.\textsuperscript{16}

Ministry of Justice is responsible for harmonization of our legislation to fight and prevent domestic violence. However, Department of Legislation and Legal Aid there is still no study on the justice and law in cases of domestic violence. The Department of Juvenile Justice, which coordinates activities for the care and protection of rights and legitimate interests of minors in the field of justice, legal education and prevention of offenses by juveniles, no statistics clear, divided into age groups. This makes it difficult to develop policies for the prevention of crime in these age groups, protecting the rights of minors, etc..

5.2 Judges

Albanian judges have authority to review all criminal, civil, administrative, commercial, family and any other matters specified by law. However, although there are constitutional opportunities in Albania is not yet established a specialized court for minors. There is a limited public confidence in the activity and authority of the judiciary. There have been charges of corruption, delays in trials, non-transparency, lack of professionalism among judges. Judicial administration employees were not received special training for the reception, orientation and treatment of victims of domestic violence. There is a lack of clear, detailed or reliable from the judiciary on cases of domestic violence in general and that practice to/from children to/from the elderly and women. Also lacks a unified system of statistical reporting.

The prosecutor's office did not pay proper attention to criminal offenses such as assault or wounding, and this is due to the harsh violence as criminal offenses followed by serious until death. Proposed sentence for an offender generally turns out to be low and kind of punishment not fitting. Reporting with limited real situation, which reflects the distrust to the body.\textsuperscript{17}

The police has a complex organization and there are clear links with the judicial police and other police structures. Approval by the prosecutor for the investigative activities related to domestic violence situations to be more explicit in order to be more efficient.

Office of the execution is a more subtle level as regards implementing measures timely execution of orders, so that in case of domestic violence may have consequences for delays in the life of the victim. Associated with physical abuse of minors conclude that the CP figures are lacking specific offenses such as abuse by means of correction and discipline, abuse of children.\textsuperscript{18}

6. Conclusions

In our legislation there is no special measures which are available for the purpose of protecting children against any violence in the conflict which exposes and can seriously damage the development of their personality. Child victims should have access to specialized, such as rehabilitation, assistance in their care and support.

Are to be commended recent legal changes, which provide for the establishment of a national center for social care service for victims of domestic violence. Obtaining a protection order within 24 hours by the court at the request of police and prosecution would provide immediate protection to children who are raped. Free legal service provided by lawyers has increased the efficiency of law, was added to denounce cases of violence and firing on all tax obligations and court fees. What is most important are recent changes in the penal code adopted by parliament on domestic violence. They treat this phenomenon not as a private matter, but as an offense. Criminalisation of this phenomenon will affect the reduction of prevalence rate. Implementation of the judiciary penalizing measures remains a challenge for the future.

\textsuperscript{16} Ministry of Justice has the following duties: a) to train forensic experts in the recognition, diagnosis, evaluation and reporting of domestic violence and acts of violence against children, b) to train bailiffs in their duty to enforce protection orders immediately, to ensure their implementation. and to take all appropriate actions, c) to fund free legal assistance under this act and provide a certain number of trained lawyers who can provide such assistance.

\textsuperscript{17} The majority of offenses related to domestic violence fall into the category of those who followed the complaint by the injured accuser. For this reason, their reporting is not recorded in the prosecution and the court sent to the authority directly.

\textsuperscript{18} these are part of some legislations of other countries, article 571-572 KP Italian
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Abstract The article aims at focusing on some elements of Jack London’s life as a naturalistic writer as reflected in ‘Martin Eden’. The article, in a different way from other research work, will start with the elaboration of the background to the novel's setting as related to Jack London's own experiences and make a connection of that with Martin Eden. It was written in 1909 and mythologizes Jack London's rise from obscurity to his early death at forty, a prophesies. When London wrote Martin Eden he was at the age of 33, he had already achieved international acclaim with 'The call of the wild', 'The sea-wolf' and 'White Fang'. However, London quickly became disillusioned with his fame and set sail to write his next masterpiece. The second part of this article will make a distinction between the two modes of fiction reflected in Martin Eden, that of the novel of success as well as the novel of education. Further it will elaborate on issues as idealism, socialism and realism and Jack London's stand. The article will continue with literary criticism about how this novel was received. Finally, as developed in preceding parts of this article, it will be concluded that it is not difficult to see that Martin Eden was the victim of the two pairs of conflicts, his (Jack London’s) personal tragedy was also that of his society and his time. Hence, no individual can isolate himself from the society in which he was born and brought up, and so did Jack London.

Keywords: fiction, Jack London, idealism, writer, naturalism, determinism, Martin Eden.

Introduction

Jack London wrote pretty much about the truth and was very much willing to accept the sordid details of life. He was the author of three autobiographical novels wanting the readers to know how Jack London had lived, as a tramp, a struggling writer, and an alcoholic. His three autobiographical novels were, The road followed by Martin Eden, and finally John Barleycorn. Martin Eden was written in 1909 and mythologizes Jack London’s rise from obscurity to his early death at forty, a prophesies. When London wrote Martin Eden he was at the age of 33, he had already achieved international acclaim with 'The call of the wild', 'The sea-wolf' and 'White Fang'. However, London quickly became disillusioned with his fame and set sail to write his next masterpiece.

Background of the novel and two modes of writing in one novel

It is said that London confronted himself when he wrote Martin Eden. The novel was written during the cruise of the Snark, when the author was undergoing difficult financial times. The farther London was travelling from California, the more detached and virtual his deeds became and more and more his pending issues got complicated. Whilst writing about the life of Martin based on his own, Jack became more and more aware and critical about the American dream. Indeed the evolution of Martin Eden’s character is not a romantic journey toward an ideal understanding of the world expressed through his fascination with Spenserian unification theories, but is an existential journey as he leaves the Eden-like structure of the old world for the fragmentary nature of the modern age. On board of the Snark London's anxiety increased and he began to question his own achievements and like Martin London began to question if he had become a newspaper personality. "He drove along the path of relentless logic to the conclusion that he was nobody, nothing," London writes, “Martin Eden the famous writer was a vapor, that had risen from mob mind”. The tone of the novel conveys despair and distress. However, the author is most sincere, however harsh and severe as reality is. This is a novel where the writer accepts that something had gone wrong with his life and evolves into a prose as much about the death of artistic consciousness as about growth.

London mentions the idea of writing Martin Eden in his Post Klondike Notes, where the author emphasizes the destruction of love and art by a materialistic society as well as literary struggles. Then in his “Sociological study” he mentions an artist’s survival amid poverty and isolation. All of these notes are proof that London was gradually shaping his ideas around the struggling artist novel. In the initial draft cast of the characters of Martin Eden, London had collected his brother in Law, Higginbotham, a businessman, his sister, Mrs. Bernard Higginbotham., his other sister Marian and her husband Herman Von Schmidt, in order that Martin, himself, would suffer the animosity of his two brothers in law. Another
character which London shaped according George Sterling was named Russ Brissenden. London had always stated that Martin was a version of him, himself.

The original title of the novel was ironically “Success” however the novel involves two different writing modes, thus, the novel of success and that of education. Martin indeed succeeds according to the standards his society has imposed on him, in spite of not savoring his achievements. Jack London writes a rag-to-riches story with Ruth Morse discovering a rough diamond in Martin, wanting to polish him to be transformed into a suitable object for her upper middle class society. “He was clay in her hands immediately and she was passionately wanting to mould him into the image of her ideal man” (M.E. pg.84). Ruth continuously corrects his sentences and manners. However this is not enough as Butler’s repudiation of Martin is quite shocking for Ruth. Martin, nevertheless falls in the same situation he had scorned Butler on. He will live a wasted life with values he had tried to reject. After his first visit at the Morses, Martin is disgusted by the places, people, habits he had previously been with. It was the first time he was coming to terms with himself and “he burned with shame as he stared at the vision of his infamy”. Whilst having dinner with the Morses, Martin’s shirt “is wet with sweat from the exertion of doing to many unaccustomed things at once”. After his first encounter with disgust, he was never again ashamed of his own people, places and habits. It seems as if it were a comedy of manners when Martin leaves the Morses, he starts observing “the beautiful things that women wear when they do not have to do their own laundering”. The center of this novel is the consciousness of Martin, the consciousness of an artist. Martin has an extraordinary imagination which he uses when he writes. He has an innate artistic sensibility which with him growing develops into an artistic belief. Martin however becomes disillusioned with art as he finds himself continuously fighting between surviving and his devotion to art.

Martin Eden is also considered as a novel of the education of an artist. Martin is very interested in beauty, music, books from the very beginning. Jack London when describing these feelings uses the words “hunger” and “thirst”, rooting his sense of beauty in taste. Martin develops his artistic consciousness in an economic system where the artistry is just another service in the free market. Martin studies books of etiquette, learns English grammar as if it were a foreign language, rehearses the way he walks in order to avoid his sailor like style. Same as London, Martin loves books, and with Ruth’s assistance he becomes an expert of contemporary literature. With his education progressing, unfortunately, he becomes aware that Ruth is only trying to impress him with bourgeois values. Martin becomes that efficient that he starts defeating professors visiting the Morses. He studies the magazines, analyzes literary markets and writes anything that will bring him money. After much a long time magazines begin to buy his stories and immediately he becomes something of a value, that can sell well.

Martin Eden’s story is a dark and heavy one, as the artist will pay a heavy price for his success. Ruth offers him knowledge, and Martin loses paradise, Eden. “It’s too late, I’m a sick man-oh not my body! It is my soul, my brain. I seem to have lost all values, I care for nothing!”(M.E., p.334)

**Idealism, socialism, realism and Martin Eden (Jack London)**

There are many who consider Martin Eden as an eulogy on individualism. Indeed, Martin Eden is not a perfect individualist: he looks for consolation and closeness with the working people. Martin Eden may also considered be as aiming to approach the American Dream, however, it was not really meant to portray the American Dream. The depiction of it is left to later generations of writers, such as Theodore Dreiser, Scott Fitzgerald, John Steinbeck and Earnest Hemingway. According to Jack London Martin’s suicide is a condemnation of his being an individualist.

Jack London had intentionally written Martin Eden as an attack to individualism and Nietzsche’s superman theory. Martin Eden began to live for ideal, for belief. In his eyes, all things seemed to be beautiful, simple and pure. As for love, he felt Ruth was his angel, Ruth was a pure, beautiful, woman, different from those women who always showed up around him. He would do everything for Ruth. The belief “God’s lover will die for a kiss” can prove what Martin considered of real love, but he blindly put the kind of love into idealism. After Martin went through the broken engagement from Ruth, he became aware that his love was much weak, Ruth the kind of woman, as all the women who think of status, money, as standards of love. Realism starts to surface on Martin at this part of the novel. He lived on the ideal of love and beauty, as an artist would do, all of his efforts to become an intellectual, unlike, Butler, were based on idealism. However, Martin’s dream to find real love was broken. He fell into deep sufferings. Martin’s purpose was to write for love, for beauty, for nature. His works though were not published before his momentum neared. Because of his simple thoughts, he did not pay attention to the forms of literature during his period. He “could” not offer the readers of his time attractive works. Martin was confused and found himself divided between idealism and realism. He wrote with inspiration and all magazines snatched to publish his works after he was famous. Although Martin realized the hypocrisy of his society, he could not calm his heart. He had already lost himself wanting to be educated and he did not know what he had to do.
What's more, the so-called noble bourgeois and upper-class were superficial rather than noble. The society where the Morses lived was not as healthy and noble as he first thought, so he began to consider going back to nature, where there was his real world, without evil, without sadness. This was just because he bore lots of pressure in the upper middle class society. He also tried to give up the fortune and fame to go back to his working class, and there he could enjoy himself, but he found himself distant. He had been reading too much to be part of his crew now. "He felt a sharp gradation between himself and his shipmates and was wise enough to realize the difference that lay in potentiality rather than achievements (M.E. ch. 9)."

He was puzzled there was not a solution to resolve the kind of paradox between the two worlds, his idealist and the upper-middle class romanticism: "For the first time Ruth gazed upon the sordid face of poverty. Starving lovers had always seemed romantic to her, but she had had no idea how starving lovers lived. She had never dreamed it could be like this." (Jack London, 2001: 174). The extreme difference between these two worlds he had been sailing in made him feel pending, having a sense of no belonging:

> From too much love of living,
> From hope and fear set free
> We thank with brief thanks giving
> Whatever gods may be
> That no lives forever
> That dead men rise up never;
> That evens the weariest river
> Winds somewhere safe to sea" (Martin Eden: 380).

He chose death because that was the only way to escape conflicts. He had no more songs to sing, in his throat now. Martin Eden swayed back and forth from individualism to socialism. Due to the fact that Martin was an individualist, he seemed not to have suffered as much as Jack London. However, he could not detach himself from conflict that affected much Jack. However he showed himself an individualist, he was at some point a pro-socialist. Choosing to be an individualist, Martin had to certainly stand misunderstandings on his own, look for success without any support, as well as separate himself from the lower-class people. Now and again, Martin, was concerned about working people, his people, due to his inborn generosity and his family history. Martin preserved his natural connections with working people and was ever close to them because:

> "He had worked himself; his first memories seemed connected with work, and all his family had worked. There was Gertrude. When her hands were not hard from the endless housework, they were swollen and red like boiled beef, what of washing. And there was his sister Marian. She had worked in the cannery the preceding summer and her slim, pretty hands were all scarred with the tomato-knives. Besides, his father had worked to the last fading gasp; the horned growth on his hands must have been half an inch thick when he died." (Martin Eden: p. 397)

This connection, however, was cut off as a result of Martin’s decision to write for fame and money, more than anything, for love and beauty, his Edenic ideals. Initially, the young writer felt no immediate effect as he was involved in the joys of reading, writing and love. In his individualistic struggles, Martin was happy but alone in spite of his virtual companions Spencer, Marx and other thinkers he liked, whom could not be easily perceived by the ignorant working people. Although he belonged to the working class, he had distinguished himself from them by acquiring knowledge from a wide range of books. As a result, he thought of himself as a man different from masses, superior to them physically and mentally. Then he triumphantly set for success as an extreme individualist. During his individualistic development, he elevated himself above the working-class people while and at the same time always held deep concern for them.

Martin was undoubtedly an individualist, in spite of that, he could not wear himself out of his concern for the working people. Consequently, he found himself easily in between socialism and individualism that made him certainly feel lost and derive him towards suicide.

**Criticism on Martin Eden**

In a letter to Mary Banks Krasky, London had explained to her that he had indeed experienced Martin Eden’s occurrences, but with a difference to Martin Eden, he had not committed suicide because he had been saved by socialism. Reviewers had not been positive and appreciative of London’s Martin Eden. Martin’s advancement as Ruth shows him how to improve his attitude is the same as that of Jack London and Mabel Applegarth. In spite of that, critics made fun of the sailor being turned into a book worm. Critics missed the fact that with London this change really had taken place after he had returned to Oakland from an eight months trip. London wrote with an intense sense of purpose.
and the purpose of Martin Eden was also missed by the critics. London had written Martin Eden as much an attack against the capitalist society and the publishing industry as an autobiography.

“This is a book that missed fire with a majority of the critics. Written as an indictment of individualism, it was accepted as an indictment of socialism; written to show that man cannot live for himself alone, it was accepted as a demonstration that success made for death. Had Martin Eden been a socialist he would not have died.” On many other occasions he has reiterated such a creative motive by the textual facts Martin Eden died. However, the book’s actual effect on readers is that Martin Eden is an individualistic hero against the establishment, and the socialism seems of little consequence. As a result, critics of his times regarded it as a eulogy on individualism and superman theory. Even socialist reviewers of his times criticized that he had defended for individualism and abandoned his socialistic belief. Jack London had to admit that “one of my motifs, in this book, was an attack on individualism. I must have bungled for not a single reviewer has discovered it.” His wife, Charmian (Believe in my Husband: 1910, 24) has tried to support his declaration, “Autobiographies of a socialist, Martin Eden and The Sea Wolf both attack Nietzsche’s theory. However, even the socialists failed to perceive it.”

Conclusion

In the development of American literary history, Jack London wrote Martin Eden serving as a forerunner in depicting the disillusionment of American dream, followed by Dreiser’s American Tragedy and Fitzgerald’s The Great Gatsby (Rebuild American Dream: 1983).

Martin Eden: “lived a recluse, in each day accomplishing at least three day’s labor of ordinary men. He slept a scant five hours, and only one with a constitution of iron could have held himself sown, as he did, day after day, to nineteen consecutive hours of toil.” (Jack London, 2001: 153) As London, he, had been happier when he’d lived naturally in the world before his exposure and infatuation with the realm of intellectualism. At the end Martin accepts that Ruth and her class had destroyed him with their hating of realism which was essential to him. After too much exposure to philosophy, Martin didn’t know what to think about. “Something was wrong with his thinking-machine”.

Martin’s relentless pursuit of the truth, like London, had led him to encounter nothingness. After he embarks on a cruise to the South Pacific to retrace his lost youth like London he realizes it’s in vain to try and revitalize oneself once confronted the truth.

His Art, London’s Art, had brought him to realize their reality is meaningless. Unlike London, he prefers to die rather than live with it.

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Regional Differences Among Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors in Post-Communist Albania

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Abstract This study examines the association between cardiovascular disease (CVD) and five modifiable risk factors (physical activity, smoking, blood cholesterol, blood pressure, and diabetes) associated with CVDs in two cities in post-communist Albania, a transitional country located in southeastern Europe. The study also hypothesizes an association between the lifestyle changes instigated by the political transition and the prevalence of these risk factors and CVD. The study cohort was comprised of 200 adults over the age of 38, with 100 participants for each city. Questionnaires, measuring quantitative variables for the five risk factors, along with anthropometric measurements were used for data collection. Findings revealed that participants from the southern city of Gjirokaster measured their blood cholesterol, blood pressure, and blood sugar levels more often and more regularly than northern participants from the city of Peshkopi. Additionally, southerners also displayed a greater certainty in family history of these risk factors and a lower prevalence of family history. A possible explanation for these results could be that a disparity in healthcare access may exist between the two regional cities. Data for the other risk factors, physical activity and smoking, showed similar trends reflected in previous studies, that participants in both cities exhibited a decrease in physical activity with time consumed 2-3 packs of tobacco daily. Based on these results, the study recommends the design and implementation of educational classes in these communities focused on cardiovascular disease and its associated risk factors in order to raise awareness and promote prevention of CVDs. Additionally, research efforts should be focused on verifying the hypothesis of unequal healthcare access regionally.

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of mortality among Albanians, accounting for approximately 52% of the total number of deaths, a rate significantly higher than most western European nations (Hajdini, 2009). One of the main priorities of Albania’s reform of the health care system is research on the diagnosis and prevention of cardiovascular diseases and associated risk factors. Previous research has shown that hypertension, obesity, physical inactivity, diabetes, and smoking are risk factors strongly correlated with the prevalence of cardiovascular disease (Kannel et al.1972; Savage 1998; Manson 1990; Hjerman et al. 1981). Further evidence by the Global Burden of Disease Study (2002) also emphasized the significant role these risk factors play in CVD globally. Hypertension reportedly caused half the CVDs worldwide; one third were due to hypercholesteremia; physical inactivity, smoking, and unhealthy diet summed to a total of 20% of all CVD deaths globally.

For Albania, most of these risk factors are associated with socioeconomic and lifestyle changes instigated by the country’s political transition in 1990 from a communist regime to a democratic government. Even following drastic political and economic changes, Albania’s high life expectancy, in comparison to other eastern European nations, has not decreased. In fact, the prevalence of cardiovascular diseases has been and continues to be steadily increasing (Hajdini, 2009). Among the risk factors mentioned in the National Background Report on Health for Albania (2009), compiled by the Albanian Ministry of Health, are smoking, physical inactivity, and malnutrition linked to obesity. Of the three risk factors, smoking accounts for the greatest disease burden (about 22%). Obesity due to poor diet accounts for 10%, and physical inactivity for 5.3% of the disease burden. Seeing as they account for greater than one third of the total disease burden,
burden (37%), measurement and prevention of these risk factors remains a critical goal of the Ministry of Health in Albania.

Few comprehensive studies have been conducted on the prevalence and risk factors associated with cardiovascular disease in Albania. Pre-existing data compiled during the communist era is scarce, and what little does exist is untrustworthy due to the credibility of the communist regime (WHO 1999; Zickel 1994). In addition, the existing studies are limited in their scope of analysis of the risk factors and primarily focus on the more centralized cities, such as the capital Tirana.

Research on the prevalence of CVD was lacking for almost all northern and southern towns as no statistical data could be found in regards to regional rates of CVD prevalence. Although the highest rates of CVD and mortality were observed in urbanized central cities, such as Tirana, regionally, CVD was observed to be more prevalent in northern cities compared to southern (Gjonca et al., 1999). These differential rates could be accounted for by regional lifestyle differences, especially in daily physical activity level, nutritional diets, and tobacco usage. There were studies that acknowledge the regional differences in these CVD risk factors, but a comprehensive study assessment of all three risk factors (smoking, hypertension, and obesity), in addition to diabetes, in regards to CVD was lacking.

The purpose of this study was to gather comprehensive data on five modifiable risk factors associated with cardiovascular disease in the north and south for comparative analysis and future implementation of educational programs aimed towards reducing the growth of CVD in Albania.

**Methods**

**Study Population**

The study group comprised of 200 Albanian citizens, 100 from the northern city of Peshkopi and 100 from the southern city of Gjirokaster. In both cities, subject recruitment occurred in different wards of the community hospital, local clinics, and via door-to-door recruitment throughout neighborhoods. Participants had to be 38 years old or older in order to ensure that they were at least 18 years of age during the governmental transition in 1990. This age limit was chosen for the primary purpose of focusing on the health status of individuals from adulthood, or 18 years of age, and onward in life since the transition. Participants were informed about the study and its aims and procedures before agreeing by verbal consent to take part in the study.

**Data Collection**

In addition to a structured questionnaire, the study also measured anthropometric data. The questionnaire included socio-demographic factors, self-reported conditions, behavioral/life-style factors that are risk factors for cardiovascular disease, and self-perceptions of health status. Anthropometric data that was measured included height, weight, and blood pressure. Height was measured by a traditional tape measure in meters. Height measurements were converted into feet by a conversion factor of 3.3 feet per meter in order to calculate body mass index. Weight was measured on an electronic scale purchased in the U.S. Weight measurements were tabulated in pounds in order to calculate body mass index in lb/ft² (weight/height²). A mechanical, wrist blood pressure monitor was used to measure blood pressure. Body mass index was calculated using the official BMI calculator from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute website supported by the National Institutes of Health. The BMI categories were defined according to the following measurements: <18.5 for underweight; 18.5-24.9 for normal weight; 25-29.9 for overweight; and >30 for obese.

Family history of cardiovascular disease or of any of the five modifiable risk factors was tabulated if the subject had one or more first degree (i.e. siblings, parents) or second-degree relatives (i.e. aunts, cousins) with any of the conditions.

**Statistical Analysis**

Ninety-five percent confidence intervals (CI) and P values were calculated, with a p value of ≤0.05 to be considered statistically significant. \( \chi^2 \) test was used to establish the relationships between pairs of categorical variables. T-test analysis was also performed for certain categorical data. All statistical analyses were performed on the program STATA 10.0.
Results

I. Sample Population Demographics

Demographic characteristics of all participants are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Peshkopi (n=100)</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>Gjirokaster (n=100)</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (years, mean±SD)</td>
<td>52.0±11.26</td>
<td>49.8-54.1</td>
<td>53.7±11.63</td>
<td>50.8-55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height (ft, mean±SD)</td>
<td>5.27±0.51</td>
<td>4.81-5.12</td>
<td>5.34±0.47</td>
<td>4.91-5.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight (kg, mean±SD)</td>
<td>167.8±24.9</td>
<td>162.2-171.7</td>
<td>164.3±32.22</td>
<td>157.6-170.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body mass index (lb/ft, mean±SD)</td>
<td>29.8±6.37</td>
<td>27.8-30.1</td>
<td>28.2±5.25</td>
<td>27.0-28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body mass index ≥30</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history of CVD</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean ages of the participants were similar in both regions (mean age±SD in Peshkopi was 52.03±11.26 and in Gjirokaster 53.66±11.63). Southern participants were slightly taller and weighed less than northern participants. This resulted in a greater percentage of northern participants having a body mass index of 30 or greater, categorized as obese (45% in Peshkopi; 32% in Gjirokaster), even though the mean BMI for both cities was approximately equal. In addition to a greater obesity rate, Peshkopi also had a greater prevalence of family history of cardiovascular disease (45% in Peshkopi; 41% in Gjirokaster).

II. Smoking

Data on the measures of tobacco consumption is presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past Status:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smoker</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-smoker</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age when started:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packs/day:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Status:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Still Smoke</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.387</td>
</tr>
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<td>Comparative</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>More</td>
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<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same</td>
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<td>7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mate Status:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoker</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.869</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-smoker</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packs/day:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;6</td>
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<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of Other</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Members:</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Smoker</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td></td>
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<td>76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Packs/day:</td>
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<td>3-6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a greater percentage of smokers in the south (26%) than in the north (18%). A greater percentage of those tobacco users also started at an earlier age in the south and smoked 2-3 packs per day on average. In the north, 10 of the 18 smokers had quit smoking. Fifteen of the 27 smokers in the south reported to continue smoking. There was no regional difference in the comparative consumption of tobacco, with both groups self-reporting a decrease in smoking since when they first started. A quarter of the participants in each city reported having a mate that smoked, with the majority of these being male. The consumption of the mates (2-3 packs daily) mirrored that of the participants. Twenty-
four percent of the participants in the south reported having another household member besides their spouse smoke in comparison to 19% of northerners. The consumption of the household members was similar to the consumption of the participants and their spouses', which were 2-3 packs on a daily basis.

III. Physical Activity

Data on the measures of daily physical activity is presented in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Status:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physically Active</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days/Week:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours/Day:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Activity:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Housework; Walking; Standing</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative Activity:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Almost all participants in both regions of the country (97% in the north; 99% in the south) self-reported to be physically active seven days a week. Fifty-three percent of northerners reported to be engaging in physical activity, such as housework, walking, and standing, for more than 8 hours on a daily basis. Sixty percent of southerners reported to be physically active for greater than 8 hours daily, engaging in such activity as agricultural work and walking, predominantly. Both regions exhibited equal rates of comparative activity, with the majority reporting to engage in a decreased amount of physical activity in comparison to previous years.

IV. Blood Cholesterol

Data on the measures of blood cholesterol is presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Periodicity:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rarely, whenever feeling unwell</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Months</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Months</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yearly</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On Statins:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Hx of Hypercholesteremia:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Blood Cholesterol Levels:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>0.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sixty-two percent of southern participants reported on having regular blood cholesterol measurements, defined to be at least once a year, in comparison to 46% in northerners. Of the 62%, the majority reported on taking tri-monthly or annual measurements, while of the 46% in the north, the majority reported on taking measurements rarely, defined to be in instances when they felt unwell. Eighty percent of Gjirokaster participants and 71% of Peshkopi participants reported to not be on statins. There was found to be a 10% difference in self-reported uncertainty in family history of high blood cholesterol. A greater percentage of southern residents (52%) admitted to having no prior family history of hypercholesterolemia in comparison to 35% in northerners. In terms of self-perception of cholesterol levels, greater than half of participants in both cities perceived themselves to have normal levels. Almost half of the remaining 50% of the participants reported uncertainty in self-perceptions due to lack of knowledge of cholesterol.

V. Blood Pressure

Data on the measures of blood pressure is presented in Table 5.

V. Blood Pressure

Data on the measures of blood pressure is presented in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Periodicity:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>&lt;0.001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rarely, whenever feeling unwell</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 Months</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On Hypertensives:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>0.204</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Hx of Hypertension:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>0.042</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Blood Pressure Level:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>0.749</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A greater percentage of southerners measured their blood pressure regularly, defined to be at least once a year, compared to northerners (91% to 80%, respectively). The majority of the 80% reported to measure it either on a monthly basis or whenever they were feeling unwell. While the majority of the 91% reported to measure it rarely in instances when they felt unwell. Approximately one third of northerners were on statins compared to 40% in the south. Although more than half of northerners and southerners each had family history of high blood pressure (61% to 52%, respectively), more than half of those same participants perceived to have normal blood pressure levels (65% to 60%, respectively).
VI. Diabetes

Data on the measures of blood sugar is presented in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Periodicity:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rarely, whenever feeling unwell</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 Months</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yearly</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On Antidiabetics:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Hx of Hyperglycemia:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of Blood Sugar Level:</th>
<th>Peshkopi</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was a difference of more than 20% between northerners and southerners in blood sugar measurements, with 40% of northerners versus 67% of southerners measuring blood sugar regularly. Of those that measured blood sugar regularly, the majority of the 40% of northerners measured it only when they were feeling unwell while southerners also reported on measuring it every three to six months in addition to instances when they were feeling unwell. Seventy-nine percent of Gjirokaster participants and 87% of Peshkopi participants were not on diabetes medications. There was a vast difference in the percentage of participants that reported to not have family history of diabetes, with a greater percentage in the south (75% to 59%, respectively). A greater percentage in the north was unsure of any family history of hyperglycemia. Almost 80% of both groups perceived to have normal levels of blood sugar (81 to 79%, respectively).

Discussion

Our primary focus will be on discussing the statistically significant data, defined to be with a p value of less than or equal to 0.05. Across three of the five risk factors, cholesterol, blood pressure, and diabetes, three variables were statistically significant: 1) how often participants measured those risk factors; 2) the periodicity of the measurements; and 3) self-reporting of any prior family history of the associated risk factors.

I. Blood Cholesterol

Gjirokaster participants take regular measurements more often than those in Peshkopi (62% to 46%, respectively, p-value of 0.039). Additionally, southern participants take more frequent measurements on a monthly or tri-monthly schedule as opposed to northern participants (16% to 2%, respectively, with a p value of less than 0.001). The majority of northerners reported measuring cholesterol rarely, for example, only when they were feeling unwell. In terms of family history, a greater percentage of Gjirokaster participants have no prior family history of high cholesterol (52% to 35%, respectively, with a p value of 0.05) and a lower percentage of them were uncertain. On the contrary, a greater percentage of northern participants reported uncertainty in family history (35% to 25% respectively) and a greater percentage of having family history (30% and 23%, respectively, with p value of 0.05).
II. Blood Pressure

Similarly, southern participants had a higher rate of taking regular measurements of their blood pressure in comparison to northern participants (91% to 80%, respectively, with p value of 0.027). Although both regional groups had a high rate of taking blood pressure measurements in rare instances of poor health, there were still a greater percentage of participants that reported taking daily measurements in the south than in the north (26% to 10% respectively, with a p value of <0.001). Additionally, a greater percentage of Gjirokaster participants reported no family history of high cholesterol (43% to 26%, respectively, with a p value of 0.042) and a lower percentage of them were uncertain about their family history (5% compared to 8%, respectively). On the contrary, a greater percentage of northern participants reported uncertainty in family history and a greater percentage of having family history (66% to 52%).

III. Blood Sugar

Southern participants had a higher rate of taking regular measurements of their blood sugar in comparison to northern participants (67% to 40%, respectively, with p value of less than 0.001). Both regional groups presented with a high rate of taking blood sugar measurements in rare instances of poor health, yet we still observed an equally high percentage of participants that reported taking tri-monthly measurements in the south than in the north (22% versus 6% respectively with a p value of 0.05). This mirrors the same trend with the other two risk factors; northerners have a less frequent periodicity of measurements. Also, a greater percentage of Gjirokaster participants report no family history of high cholesterol (79% to 81% respectively with p value of 0.005) and a lower percentage of them were uncertain (3% to 15% respectively). Again, this is the same trend seen in the other two risk factors of the South have a lower degree of family history of risk factors and greater certainty in family history. On the contrary, a greater percentage of northern participants reported uncertainty in family history and a greater percentage of having family history.

III. Conclusions

The trends are similar for all three variables deemed statistically significant (measurements, periodicity, and family history) of all three risk factors (cholesterol, blood pressure, and diabetes). Southern participants reported more frequent measurements at a greater periodicity in addition to a greater certainty in and lower percentage of family history. According to the data, southerners are more knowledgeable about their health and the health history of their families due to more frequent check-ups and follow-ups with healthcare providers. This knowledge suggests regional disparities in healthcare access that may be contributing to the inequality in access.

One of the reasons for the health inequality in Albania could be due to the unequal distribution of general practitioners throughout Albania. Theodorakis et al. (2006) examined the availability of primary care medical resources and the associated distribution of general practitioners (GP) from 2000-2004. Although the four-year period saw an increase in the number of GPs within the country from 1,531 in 2000 to 1,579 in 2004, this did not translate into a more equal regional distribution of those additional GPs. In a supporting study, the same researchers showed the unequal distribution of primary care physicians specifically for the region of Gjirokaster (Theodorakis et al., 2005). Similar studies examining this trend in resources and associated GP distribution have been conducted in developed countries also, such as Sweden, Japan, US, and UK, and all have shown the same general trend of a misdistribution of GPs even with an increasing supply of physicians (Mantzavinis et al. 2003; Koayashi et al. 1992; Horev et al. 2004; Hann et al. 2004).

A huge emphasis of the Albanian healthcare reform movement has been placed on the role of primary care and increasing healthcare access across the country (Nuri et al., 2002). Clearly, the disparities among northerners and southerners in check-ups present the need for greater efforts in terms of policy changes that need to be made in ensuring a decrease in health inequality.

Family history is of significant importance as one of these risk factors since previous research has shown that family history is strongly correlated with increased likelihood of cardiovascular diseases. Roshi et al. (2005) showed a positive relationship between family history of coronary heart disease and myocardial infarction. Burazerl et al. (2007) performed a similar study on Albanian residents in the capital city of Tirana to assess the association of the same risk factors assessed in our study and their association with acute coronary syndrome, a specific type of cardiovascular disease. This study observed an even stronger association between family history of heart disease and acute coronary syndrome. More importantly, the increased likelihood of heart disease was not only due to genetics but to the adoption of new lifestyles that promoted poor health habits that instigated heart disease. This highlights the need for educational programs in order
to raise awareness and prevention of these risk factors and cardiovascular diseases in general. Through adequate education and increased health awareness, Albanians can become more involved in the status of their wellbeing.

Data collected for the other variables and risk factors did not come out to be as statistically significant. These results could be attributed to various limitations, including small sample size; a social desirability factor that could lead to falsely self-reported measures in order to fit into a preferred social category; lack of educational health knowledge by the participants; and incorrect recall memory of how often they checked their blood chemistry. Additionally, this is a cross-sectional study, which limits the establishment of a causal relationship among the risk factors and CVD. We hope to continue this data collection in establishing a longitudinal study data set to allow for a stronger significance and causal relationship among all variables and risk factors associated with cardiovascular disease.

Smoking is and always has been an important aspect of Albanian culture during and post-communism and other studies have reflected similar results observed in our study. The prevalence of tobacco use increased with the political transition (Ross et al., 2008). Consumption of tobacco from 1980 to 1999 increased from 786 cigarettes per person per year to 963 cigarettes per person per year. This increase represents a reported 22.5% increase in cigarette consumption since the communist rule until 8 years post-communism (United Nations, 2002). As the tobacco industry became more lenient, tobacco smuggling from overseas became a common practice, which also contributed to the increased smoking rates. Now, not only was Albania devoting a greater proportion of its agricultural land to tobacco, from 3.2% in 1970 to 4.8% in 1992, but additional sources of cigarettes were also available through imports. Tobacco advertising also emerged, which was previously unknown (Shapo et al., 2003).

Unfortunately, the mortality rate due to smoking, including second-hand exposure, has also seen a dramatic increase, claiming the lives of approximately 3,800 Albanians annually. Ross et al. (2008) highlights findings on smoking prevalence in Albania through data gathered by the Albanian Adult Tobacco Survey (AATS) in 2007. Results suggested that smoking is a huge problem among men and women as the rate continues to increase ever since the fall of the communist government. Prevalence of smoking among men (64%) was significantly greater than that of women (17%). Although the smoking prevalence among women is relatively low in comparison to men, it still presents itself as a significant problem as the rate among women has nearly doubled since 1990 and continues on this upward trajectory. Our data suggests that the majority of participants who identified themselves as current smokers smoke 2-3 packs on a daily basis (12% in Peshkopi and 20% in Gjirokaster). This mirrors the results observed in the AATS, where 85% of participants who were current smokers reported smoking on a daily basis and with a high intensity. Smoking is a risk factor for many diseases, thus high tobacco consumption leads to an increased risk of mortality from these smoking-related diseases in the long run. These results emphasize the need for smoking cessation programs and curbing of tobacco consumption through policy changes.

The prevalence of physical inactivity is also more widespread in transitional Albania with the emergence of new lifestyles. The increasing rate of sedentary lifestyles reached levels of 49% in men and 58% in women in 2001. This increase contributed to the increase in body mass index, which was found to be associated with a greater chance of coronary disease in the Burazeri et al. (2007) study performed the study on a cohort of citizens in Tirana. The odds ratio for men and women for BMI greater than 25, which is considered overweight, was 1.23 and 2.74; for BMI of greater than 30, which is considered obese, the odds ratios were 1.57 and 4.48, respectively. Obesity is seen as a major health problem in the coming future as it continues to sharply rise. Almost all participants in both regional cities reported to be physically active for at least eight hours a day. The predominant activity most were engaged in was minimally physically exertive housework or walking/standing. More importantly, almost half of participants in each city (47% in Peshkopi and 50% in Gjirokaster) admitted to being engaged in less physical activity compared to previous years.

The poor health habits and conventional risk factors specified in this study are important indicators of heart disease. More importantly, they are modifiable. Oei et al. (2005) performed an observational study, consisting of three trials spanning of 5-7 years to estimate what effect, if any, a decrease in smoking, blood pressure, and blood cholesterol would have on a specific type of CVD, coronary heart disease (CHD), risk. Their findings indicated a greater decrease in CHD risk with decreased smoking and cholesterol levels in comparison to taking medicinal therapy and continuing to engage in unhealthy behaviors. A 48% decreased risk of CHD was observed in men and a 42% decrease in women. Studies such as this one reinforce the immediate need for implementation of health programs directed at lowering cardiovascular disease risk factors by educating the public and raising awareness. The effectiveness of such disease management programs has been empirically shown to be efficacious in lowering CVD risk factors and improving outcomes (Gravely et al., 2012).

In conclusion, our findings highlight the prevalence of cardiovascular disease risk factors in two regions of the former communist country of Albania. The trends of these risk factors (smoking, physical activity, cholesterol, blood pressure, and diabetes) supports previous research findings on these same risk factors in Albania. Our study further showed that
these two regions engaged in similar health behaviors but exhibited geographic variation in the receiving of healthcare. Further research is required to: 1) expand the study population size 2) design and implement regionally appropriate educational programs to raise awareness and prevention of CVDs and associated risk factors and 3) to investigate potential regional differences in healthcare access.

References

The Motive of Intrusion in Eugene O’Neill’s “Desire Under the Elms”

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Abstract: An incredible interest is noticed during the last century, in modern drama, in the use of intrusion. Many modern playwrights have used intrusion and the motive that initiates it as an element to present powerful family issues and significant triangular conflicts that frustrate modern society and its individuals. The object of this paper is to explore how intrusion is used by Eugene O’Neill in his “Desire Under the Elms” to account for and more profoundly explain the actions and behaviors of the intruder and intruded characters in this astonishing play. The desire to possess is what turns these characters into victimizers and victims of their own faults and actions, thus at the same time suffering the consequences of their intrusion in the other characters’ lives. Furthermore, this study is an attempt to determine the nature, function, extent, and meaning of intrusion as it is found in this modern Nobel writer.

Keywords: motive of intrusion, intruder, intruded, modern drama

1. Introduction

Modern drama has made an extensive use of the element of intrusion and it is favored by modern playwrights because it is a convenient and powerful tool in their hands to present conflicts and concerns, as well as the reasons that cause certain behaviors and dramatic action in different modern plays which have made a break from the traditional ones.

Eugene O’Neill is considered by many as the father of modern American drama and he himself has made a notable and significant use of such element in some of his plays. However, this paper’s concern is to focus and analyze the why and how intrusion serves as an instiller of dramatic action. Because intrusion works as a system wherein the intruder and the characters intruded confront and come into conflict with each other, at the moment one individual intrudes upon another, a relationship is established. In such a relationship, characters are brought together and are established, at the same time, as individuals of dramatic and social significance. Thus, the meaning of the existence of the intruder and the intruded is absolutely a matter of their relation to each other. The intruder is one who appears from an external situation and stumbles into the life of someone else. The intruder is usually alienated, isolated, estranged and frustrated. He or she is an outsider, a lonely soul, a defeated, harmed or victimized individual or an outcast, a wandered, who longs for company, communication, love and identification, and struggles desperately to fit into a situation where he or she does not belong or has been rejected. In most cases, the intruder’s arrival is unexpected and, therefore, it creates immediate dramatic tension and brings the characters who are involved in the event of intrusion into direct conflicts. Nevertheless, the intruder can be, in the beginning, an expected visitor or also a family member can intrude upon the other members. What matters structurally is not whether such people structurally belong to the family, but whether their coming to and remaining in the family leads to conflicts, collision, and the readjustment of personal relationship.

On the other hand, the character intruded on may be an individual or a group of characters, existing in a comparatively peaceful, stable or stagnant situation; therefore, they are by nature inactive and passive. They tend to take cold and menacing reality for granted, because their personal needs and desires are subdued or numbed.

In terms of the consequences of the intrusion, there are no fixed patterns. Either the intruder or the character intruded on can be the victim or the victimizer. Victimization is prevalent in intrusion, since the majority of the characters intruded on are victimized and in Desire Under the Elms, Ephraim Cabot is perhaps the most tragic. At the end of the play, he is mercilessly deprived of his most important spiritual supporters: his patriarchal authority and vanity of possession.” He is left as “the victim of wrongdoing…. injured and affronted” to bear his own lonesomeness (Orr 185). The conclusion of the play is also the most ironical. He is a victim of his own design.

Eben is fatally involved in the affair with his intruder, his stepmother Abbie. The seemingly fruitful union between him and the intruder becomes the cause of their own destruction. Although the patriarch is not triumphant at all Eben, because of his desire, cannot escape the father’s domination and the punishment for his guilt which causes his eventual downfall. What has happened to the intruders and the intruded on indicates the disintegration of the modern family. The intrusion is important to the changes the family experiences, for it enables us to view the family as a point of the confrontation between hope and disappointment.
Martin Esslin, in his remarks on the dramatic concern with family relations, pays special attention to the troubled parent-child relationship:

American dramatic writing seemed to be mainly concerned with family relations: the parents suffering bitter disappointment at their children turning out differently from what they had expected; or conversely the sons’ and daughters’ cruel disenchantment with their parents when they revealed themselves to be less wonderful than they had made their children believe; the parents’ inability to let go of their children; the children’s difficulties in freeing themselves of that bond; or the tragedy of lack of communication between parents and children with the younger generation realizing that they had never really talked to their parents. (23)

The second type of frustration is the difficulty to hold the family together as a complete social unit, as in Desire Under the Elms where two wives have been worked to death, the family is rendered extremely fragile and subjected as victim to the intrusion by the third wife, who is herself victimized in the structurally broken and mentally afflicted Cabot family.

In Desire Under the Elms, the intruder, Abbie Putnam, brings about an absolutely chaotic and tragic conclusion. In this play, the intruder and the intruded are destroyed dreamers. There is no more idealistic celebration of what Frederic Carpenter calls “the beauty and impossibility of the romantic dream” (Romantic Tragedy 251). Instead, O'Neill focused on the exploration of the frustrating elements of reality, and dramatized the intruder and the intruded as “finders” who search for identity in themselves and their interrelationships. According to Falk, the intruder, Abbie, and the intruded on, Eben, “find their integration in sacrifice,” and reality has found through the lovers “its paradoxical destructive-affirmative expression; in their death they have found life” (99). It is a tough life and the search for it costs highly.

The motive of intrusion in Desire Under the Elms is handled with admirable coherence and stability, and consistently develops toward a tragic collision that crushes the lovers but, at the same time, “transfixes, ennobles, and saves them” (Floyd 284). The victimization of the intruder and the intruded on is shocking, but the human qualities the play chooses to praise makes life worthy of the struggle for both Abbie and Eben.

2. The motive

O'Neill’s Desire Under the Elms is his successful attempt at a play which deals with the tragic fate of both the intruder and the intruded. Intrusion occurs within a family where as William states “the isolated persons clash and destroy each other, not simply because their particular relationships are wrong, but because life as such is inevitably against them” (William 116).

The first part of the play focuses upon the preparation of the background for the intrusion. The first act of the play successfully creates the dramatic tension in a family which is hopelessly disintegrating both spiritually and structurally. It is a house of males where the absence of a mother figure leaves a crucial blank and makes the family especially vulnerable when it is subject to an intrusion. Although the father, Ephraim Cabot, and his three sons Simeon, Peter and Eben are linked by family ties, they are more strangers or enemies who are hostile to each other than members of the same family. It is one of the best beginnings in modern drama in terms of direct and swift establishment of dramatic tension. With rapid development, the play successfully increases dramatic tension by focusing upon a family which is fragile and broken, since it has no common spiritual principle. Old Ephraim, the patriarch of the family desires to “escape from his tragic sense of aloneness” by possessing the farm he has made out of impossible land, since human love fails him from each of his wives and his sons. Eben, the youngest son, remains in a struggle for the possession of what he thinks was his mother’s. He renounces the patrimony of his father, a tough rival, who is old but obstinate and unyielding. Each of the family members is threatened by “the feeling of instability or insecurity” (Downer 471), yet they continue to struggle to realize their desire to possess because they, as human beings, have no control of the desire but, on the contrary, are swayed by it.

Seeing no hope in their struggle for property at home, tired of the hard labor and torturous domestic conflicts, and hating to be “slaves t’ stone walls”, the older brothers run away to try their fortune in California with the money Eben stole from Ephraim to pay his brothers their share of the farm, hoping that they can find gold and freedom. At the end of Part One, the characters of the play are cleanly simplified. Only the father, Ephraim Cabot, and the youngest son, Eben, remain at the center of the arena. Thus the play obtains an unusually concentrated focus on the Ephraim-Eben opposition.

It is in such a circumstance that O'Neill's female intruder, Abbie Putnam, is involved. The newly wedded young wife of Ephraim is realistic instead of supernatural and mystical. Second, she is a victimizer and a victim instead of a savior or redeemer. Finally, she is punished for her sin by her destruction, but meanwhile the lustful lover is transmuted into a passionate fighter for human dignity through her own efforts instead of a third force.

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Abbie is a realistic creation—plain, practical, and close to earth. She is from a realistically identifiable background, her credibility as a realistic character is unquestionable. Judging by her frustrated family background, her desire for property is not greed, but part of her self-righteous struggle to improve her economic situation.

In order to better understand her motive for intrusion we should note what she tells Eben, at the beginning of her intrusion upon the Cabots, and in the plainest language, about her exploitation and frustration:

My Maw died afore I’d growed. I don’t remember her none. I’m not the wust in the world—an’ yew an’ me’ve got a lot in common. I kin tell that by lookin’ at ye. Waal—I’ve had a hard life, too—oceans o’trouble an’ nothin’ but wuk fur reward. I was a orphan early an’ had t’ wuk for others in other folks’ hums. Then I married an’ he turned out a drunken spreer an’ so he had to wuk for others an’ me too agen in other folks’ hums, an’ the baby died, an’ my husband got sick an’ died too…. (21-22)

She relates her struggle for identification to practical and realistic petty, material achievements. To have a home of her own means personal dignity as well as security and stability: “an’ I was glad sayin’ no I’m free fur once, on’y I diskivered right away all I was free fur was t’ wuk agen in other folks’ hums, doin’ other folks’ wuk till I’d most give up hope o’ever doin’ my own wuk in my own hum…” (22). It is justifiable for her to desire the basic comforts of a home.

Her marriage to an old man like Ephraim Cabot is because “a woman’s got to hev a hum” (18). When, for the first time, she confronts Eben, who challenges her triumph in having a home of her own, she argues most candidly: “Waal—what if I did need a hum? What else’d I marry an old man like him fur?” (22).

Abbie’s practical considerations in her struggle for the basic necessities of survival cannot be denounced as animal desires. What she seeks is what Winfield Parks calls “serenity and order”, and the “sense of belonging in a mysteriously alien universe” (104). In other words, when she intrudes upon the Cabots as an outsider, she is not a destructive intruder but a plain country woman who is fighting for survival.

Nevertheless, the tragedy of Abbie lies in the fact that has no fixed value by which she can avoid the overwhelming force of destruction, a combination of her most basic human desires – “greed, ambition, power and carnal love.” In Sophus Keith Winter’s words, she “never finds a principle by which she can reconcile her practice with a fixed standard of conduct” (329). As the result of the absence of a principle, Abbie is transformed by the situation into a blind victimizer, preying upon everyone in the family as part of the game of her desire. At the same time, she is also a victim to her own blind impetus.

As in many O’Neill’s dramas, the plot involves a triangular relationship. Each of the three characters can claim to be the major character in a sense, and the focus is shifting all the time from the study of one character to another. On the contrary, in Desire Under the Elms, the intruder, Abbie, remains all the time right at the center of the triangle, and at the same time both of the two characters intruded on, Ephraim and Eben, are closely related to her in their entangled struggle. Therefore, all the characters, the intruder and the intruded, who are caught, to use Winfield Park’s term, by the “web of circumstances” (106) are closely examined under the well-directed focus of the interrelationship between them. Ironically, each of them feels triumphant in fighting against the external odds at certain moments, but eventually turns out to be a victim.

3. Intruder and intruded characters

Ephraim Cabot, who initiates Abbie’s intrusion by marrying her, is the first to be victimized. He is ‘hard, and lonesome and old,’’ and is a “self-centered, loveless man who has projected his own personality into that of his God, a tyrannic, ascetix, restrictive embodiment of Puritanism” (Falk 94-95). Before Abbie’s intrusion starts the undermining of his patriarchal position, he has been himself the victimizer of two wives. The second wife, Eben’s mother, gentle, sensitive, over-worked, and love-starved, is a more fully presented pathetic victim, who loses both her land and her life. Ironically, Ephraim Cabot is now turned into a victim himself, and partially by his own hand. If the victimization of the first two wives was presented as part of the dramatic activities, Ephraim Cabot could not have aroused the least bit of sympathy when the young wife and his son join forces with each other to usurp him.

The relationship between Abbie and Eben is perhaps the most passionate and the most shocking relationship in modern drama between an intruder and a character intruded on. It is the core of the element of intrusion in the play and remains directly in focus throughout the play.

Like a haunted animal, Eben, has been suspicious of Abbie’s motive of love. He is aware of his status at home and his disadvantage in fighting his father, the tough rival, whose position has been recently reinforced by marrying a young woman who is full of productive vigor and desire for property. He hates her, scorns her, and calls her a whore. However, he drops his defense at the moment when he is possessed by Abbie’s assumed maternal love and his mother’s spirit of vengeance. After the parlor love scene, he feels he has completed a conquest so that his mother can go back to her
grave and sleep in satisfaction. Obviously their souls are struggling separately for different reasons, even though their bodies unite.

Abbie is tormented by the difficulty of finding a way to transcend her purely physical relationship with Eben so that they can both be identified as true lovers. But she is caught in circumstances so complicated and compelling that there can be no way to communicate with Eben without misunderstanding. On the other hand, Eben cannot free himself from the complex of “lust, greed, and the desire for revenge” (Falk 96). What frustrates the intruder and the intruded is the lack of communication, which, as George Lukacs describes in his article “The Sociology of Modern Drama,” means that “men become simply incapable of expressing the truly essential in them and that truly directs their actions; even should they in rare moments find words to fit the inexpressible, these words will at any rate go unheard past the spirits of others, or reach them with meaning transformed” (163). In Abbie’s attempt to communicate, “what is said becomes ever more peripheral to what is not expressible” (Lukacs 163). The murder of the baby is her desperate last resort; she hopes that the killing will then convey to Eben her sincere, physical, psychological, sexual, and emotional love for him, in a voice louder and more convincing than her own verbal explanation.

When Eben returns to Abbie for her forgiveness and to surrender himself to the sheriff, “walking hand in hand with Abbie at the gate,” modern drama is provided with the best illustration of O’Neill’s statement that “In all my plays sin is punished and redemption takes place” (qtd. in Floyd 285). When both Abbie and Eben are brought away for the punishment of their sin, Ephraim seems to have become a “mythical, immortal giant” who arouses sympathy. It is cruel not to save him, but in refusing to save him with cheap redemption, O’Neill lets us see his particular stress on the personal weakness of those who strive for wealth and desire and the consequence of such a strife.

In contrast to Abbie and Eben who eventually gain the vision of their integration and the impossibility of them to win it without their own destruction, Ephraim is the only one to live on, but “within the eternal illusion which is living death – the illusion represented by the farm, the mask of his fatal pride” (Falk 99). Here lies the irony of the conclusion of the play: the “finders” of truth have to be victimized, while those who fail to gain the vision survive the destructive reality.

The ending of the play focuses on the transformation of the intruder, Abbie, and the character intruded on, Eben, symbolized by the door. After Eben and Abbie have kissed each other to reassure their mutual love, “they go out the door in the rear” which is symbolic of the threshold. Across this threshold, there are two worlds. Both the intruder and the intruded are to leave behind their haunted past in the old world and step into a new world where they are transformed, ennobled, and redeemed so that they are able to find their identity. The price is high, yet the vision they have gained is not what a happy ending can provide.

4. Conclusion

Eugene O’Neill’s *Desire Under the Elms* (1924), with its use of intrusion and its motive to account for its dramatic action, made a monumental contribution to American modern drama. By finding a motive, he was able to instill and at the same time explain the struggle of the hero and the heroine for the realization of their desires and liberation from their frustrations. Throughout the play he is able to stress the characters’ spiritual sickness in pursuit of material satisfaction and that their tragic fates are decided by their internal causes and not by supernatural elements.

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Prof. Eqerem Ĉabej’s and Prof. Gjovalin Shkurtaj’s Aid in the Treatment of Speech Ethnography’s Problematics: Soothes, Euphemisms, and Students’ Jargon

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Abstract: The studies performed up to date in the ethno linguistic field are a reference point of importance not only for sociolinguistics, but as well for cultural anthropology, whose methods discover the role of language in society’s life. Starting from this point of view, this article aims at revealing the actual flux and the evaluations about the work of the following linguists: Prof.Eqerem Ĉabej, and Prof.Gjovalin Shkurtaj in the field of speech ethnography and its problematics. Throughout a conceptual analysis of the linguistic treatments, the article will be a supplement of those scientific linguistic materials given by these famous researchers.

“Agli accademici piace dare conclusioni ma non prendere decisioni”
Noel Annam

Tali sono anche i nostri accademici: il prof. Eqerem Ĉabej, il precursore e l’ideatore dei trattamenti dei discorsi delle donne o come lo chiamava lui "il parlare delle donne" e il partecipante e successivo, prof. Gjovalin Shkurtaj, i libri, gli articoli e gli studi di cui sono già diventati la base principale per guidare ulteriori revisioni di studi sui fenomeni della lingua parlata, in particolare l’eufemismo, come l’avanguardia del gruppo dei discorsi delle donne. Questa tematica o campo di studio e proprio il rapporto della discussione con il genere o il sesso come una variabile (variabile) sociolinguistica, è stato citato e trattato in un articolo non recente il del ricercatore, prof.Čabej, sarebbe ripresa e sarebbe diventata l’asse di un trattamento molto importante, proprio da Shkurtaj, nel suo studio "Gli eufemismi dell'albanese secondo le idee di Eqerem Ĉabej ", creando un binomio significativo di due nomi: dell’insegnante e ideatore di quella tematica sociolinguistica, quanto interessante e importante e del suo studente e collega, di un età più giovane e con differente background teorico, ma con la stessa dedizione come il grande maestro, e che ci dà il modello più bello su come andare avanti, assomigliando all’insegnante, ma anche onorandolo, stimandolo e esclamandoli i valori di sempre. In realtà va detto, rendendo proprio studio come "valore aggiunto" delle idee e dei solchi iniziali del prof. Ĉabej, gli studi anche nel libro di Sociolinguistika di Shkurtaj: "Lo scopo di questi studi è già chiaro e collegato all'asse di cui ci è permesso proclamare: avanziamo nel solco con le mani e i piedi iniziato inizialmente da Eqerem Ĉabej, che era il primo tra i linguisti albanesi dell’DoPoGuerra della Seconda Guerra Mondiale che ha citato "il parlato delle donne" e ha scritto le prime righe, i eufemismi dedicati all'albanese, e ci ha portato così in quella zona così fertile della etnolinguistica, che noi avremmo chiamato " unità di avanguardia " della etnografia del parlare delle donne". E poi segue: "... metterò in luce alcuni dei" punti "che, nel solco del nostro grande Maestro, ci sembra che chiedevano (e chiedono ulteriormente) apertamente recensioni sociolinguistici e riassumendo sto per elencargli perifrassando l’ideazione che ho fatto su alcuni temi di ricerca per il "Master" di laurea e il "PhD".

Le recensioni etnolinguistiche di oggi e quelle sociolinguistiche, sia per quanto riguarda le relazioni lingua - di genere (sesso), anche per i collegamenti di lingua - mentalità (mentalità) possono ancora essere molto produttive per studiare gli aspetti della ergologia e della cultura spirituale del popolo, in particolare quella di un popolo che ha mantenuto più di chiunque altro in Europa, fenomeni antichi, anzi vecchissimi che appaiono anche nella sua lingua. Gli eufemismi, come gli ha concepiti nel suo periodo il prof. Ĉabej e come ho cercato di puntualizzare ulteriormente i miei studi, possono essere considerati come "l'unità di avanguardia" e la testimonianza del linguaggio delle donne ". Permettetemi che nel nostro discorso modo, io ponga delle direzioni nuove che sono state individuate dal prof. Ĉabej e che divennero il "buon seme" dei trattamenti e dei valori importanti nei trattamenti dei suoi ex - studenti e, in particolare per quanto riguarda la sociolinguistica, dal prof. Gj. Shkurtaj. Non c'è dubbio che E. Ĉabej fu una "meteora" che per fortuna scintillò in terra arbëresh per brillare con il suo valore eccezionale, ma anche per lasciare dietro di sé la sequela di studi di autorevoli studiosi dedicati, che estendendo l'aumento del flusso nelle linee o valori di riferimento da lui iniziata, lentamente, sarebbero...
diventati anche loro preziosi e onorati come il loro Maestro, e possiamo affermare che io e la generazione di giovani studiosi, abbiamo avuto occasione fortunata di lavorare in settori quali: la sociolinguistica e i temi ideati da lui. Basti dire che ora, per la progettazione e in quelle direzioni delineate da Shkurtaj si sono realizzati tanti temi di master e argomenti di dottorato, come, ad esempio "Il parlato delle donne nella città di Korca" dal dr. Elona Biba "Gli eufemismi dei dialetti albanesi in Macedonia" di dr. Izmit Dyrmishi ecc. Da segnalare, inoltre, gli studi sociolinguistici del Prof. Lamaj Arthur, il quale, basandosi sulle indicazioni di idee del parlato delle donne come importante variabile sociolinguistica, fornisce un efficace flusso del discorso delle regioni meridionali, in particolare la zona di Gjirokastra e Tepelena, ecc. In questo articolo ci soffermeremo qui solo in un particolare campo di conoscenza della etnografia del discorso, un campo che collega i nostri due scienziati illustri, dato che: il primo l’ideazione e l'individuazione dell’area, naturalmente anche la metodologia e l’autoprimeria del trattamento comparativo, mentre il secondo. Io devozione e la dedizione ad avanzare i “punti” del predecessore, pur rimanendo come un suo saggio e modesto studente e che in tutti i suoi scritti, non dimentica mai di nominare e apprezzare il grande maestro. Il professore Çabej, laureato in Austria, proprio nel periodo della scuola "la parola e oggetti", a favore di cui era anche N. Jokli, userà i suoi metodi nelle sue opere, soprattutto in quelle di carattere etnolinguistico.

Le opere "Alcuni eufemismi dell’albanese", "Alcune figure delle credenze popolari albanesi", "Abitudini e costumi degli albanesi", ma anche in un gran numero di discorsi e di altre opere troveremo trattamenti dei fenomeni, degli elementi che portano all’analisi o nel riflettere dei fenomeni vari della lingua albanese: ad esempio la ripartizione della denominazione di una parola sulla sua origine, l’approccio alle lingue stranieri, in particolare dei Balcani o l’evoluzione culturale in vari stadi di sviluppo della sua denominazione, "Alcuni eufemismi dell’albanese" lo studioso avrebbe susscitato e avrebbe dato importanza a uno dei valori della cultura popolare albanese, quella dei tabù, che fa parte delle altre culture, in particolare nelle lingue dei Balcani. Poiché gli eufemismi fanno parte del linguaggio figurativo (Çabej E., "Alcuni eufemismi per lingua albanese ", Corsi di lingua, 17), sono anche parte ricca del linguaggio popolare. Il valore del ricercatore Çabej, come etnolinguista, è esattamente quello che abbiamo sottolineato in precedenza: il trattamento dello sviluppo albanese culturale popolare nel corso dei tempi, nei periodi di evoluzione della società albanese. Studiando gli eufemismi in termini di etnografia del parlato e la loro relazione con costumi, credenze popolari, ecc., inoltre egli spiega anche che servono come un ponte che conduce dalla lingua al folklore, raccogliendo gli elementi comuni alle lingue dei Balcani. I fattori della nascita degli eufemizmit in una lingua consistono proprio in elementi che hanno a che fare con i sentimenti umani, i buoni costumi della società, quindi, tutto collegato con il bene, i lati positivi.


Quello che sottolineato è che nel documento sono stati anche trattati eufemismi del campo della demonologia primitiva e della mitologia. Egli dice che, anche qui, i popoli, le immagini delle loro credenze attribuendo loro una esistenza reale, da rivel.crere e timore che hanno, hanno l’abitudine di indossargli nomi eufemistici. Es. shtoizovallet-un abito di devozione e la dedizione ad avanzare i "punti" del predecessore, pur rimanendo come un suo saggio e modesto studente e che in tutti i suoi scritti, non dimentica mai di nominare e apprezzare il grande maestro. Il professore Çabej, laureato in Austria, proprio nel periodo della scuola "la parola e oggetti", a favore di cui era anche N. Jokli, userà i suoi metodi nelle sue opere, soprattutto in quelle di carattere etnolinguistico.

eufemismo, come nei casi: spegni la candela, grazia la luce, è stata graziata la luce, abbassa il fuoco. Perché una cosa simile? Il fuoco che brucia in ogni celebrativo, anche durante le giornate celebrative estive e anche la notte di quella festa sulla camera dove il fuoco brucia 40 giorni consecutivi dopo la nascita, se si spegne, si reputa come un cattivo presagio. (Shkurtaj, É., Cabej, E., figura luminosa e idolo dei posteri, studi albanologici, I, Lingue, 50) In tali casi, si sostituisce la parola spegnere dato che invoca presagio: si spegne il camino della casa ecc. Anche nell’articolo “Alcuni aspetti della cultura popolare albanese nella panoramica linguistica”, prof. Cabej dispone di affrontare la cultura popolare, per quanto riguarda la dimora, cibo e vestiti, la loro forma da un lato, in considerazione dei nomi rilevanti in albanese. Una parte di loro appartengono ai prestiti dalle lingue degli altri popoli, dove hanno avuto il primo contatto.

Ma un numero significativo di queste parole sono:

- Le parole del luogo come: Arbën / Arbër, Mollas, Prenjas
- Etichettatura dei prodotti alimentari: il latticello, cagliata, siero di latte

Abbiamo analizzato solo una frazione dell’opera gigantesca del grande scienziato, così anche come etnografo, l’analisi non si conclude con queste righe sopra citate. E 1 un orgoglio, uno onore e merito poter parlare di queste figure. Come ha rilevato il prof. Shkurtaj:

"Un adorazione feconda e positiva, tuttavia, tale che aumenti, non solo la persona, ma per prima la radice o il campo da cui sono state ricavate, nel caso del nostro maestro: la linguistica albanese e l’albanologia in generale" (Shkurtaj, Gj., 2004).


E così inizierà il suo prezioso lavoro il professore Gjovalin nella sua scia. Tra tutti gli studi, prof. Shkurtaj, è noto come dialettologo e autore di numerose monografie sui dialetti di Kastrati, Hoti, ecc.

Autore di una serie di testi scientifici: "La Sociolinguistica", "onomastica e etnolinguaistica", "Cultura e lingua sul palco e sullo schermo", "Il tempo e la presenza della cultura e della lingua albanese", ecc. Co-autore del "Alltante dialettale della lingua albanese", e anche i libri "La lingua albanese per gli stranieri e gli albanesi all'estero", "Kadare e laparola albanese", "Etnografia del parlato dell'albanese", la raccolta di nuovi studi dal campo etnolinguaistiche, come si esprimerà anche lo scienziato stesso: "... Aveva solo le lezioni di un universitario, ma mira anche a aiutare, in particolare per approfondire le recensioni tecniche e di supporto come" bestimare "per un ulteriore trattamento di tali fenomeni o simili in rapporto ai dialetti di oggi in una lingua standard, per le considerazioni sociolinguistiche ed etnolinguaistiche delle trasformazioni semantiche delle parole da motivi fuorilinguistici, come ad esempio le forme accarezzanti oppure le forme accarezzanti dei nomi impersonali, delle frasi con suffissi accarezzanti e di alcune parole composti con valore sostenibile etnolinguaistica..." ecc. (Shkurtaj, É., conclusioni sociolinguistici incoraggianti nella sociolinguistica albanese, Etnografia del parlato dell'albanese, Tirana: 2004, 7). Con il coraggio di un vero scienziato, con una cultura contemporanea, essendo un uomo tenace e con uno spirito irrequieto, così come i suoi successori, porterà nella linguistica albanese novità scientifiche.

La sua attività linguistica anche come docente presso la Facoltà di Storia e Filologia dell’Università di Tirana, insieme alla dialettologia, ha assunto la progettazione e la programazione di un soggetto nuovo, quello della sociolinguistica quando una parte di essa si completa di aspetti etnolinguistici e con “l’etnografia del parlato”. Con questo il professore Gjovalin attraverso le deliberazioni dell'etnografia del parlato rimpierà quella parte ancora inesplorata, sconosciuta nella linguistica albanese in teoria, ma che avrebbe dato i frutti e i suoi valori. In un certo senso questo campo colma il gap tra ciò che viene di solito descritto nelle grammatiche e ciò che è descritto in etnografia. L'etnografia della parlato si occupa di situazioni ed i loro usi, i modelli e le funzioni del parlato, come di un'attività separata. (Shkurtaj, É., Etnografia del parlato dell'albanese, Tirana: 2004: 29) Una delle parti di questo studio importante che ha a che fare con i problemi della vita sociale, nel modo di comunicare in qualche modo per evitare la noia, o il peso psicologico che ci pesa nella vita quotidiana, quindi ha a che fare con gli elementi e fenomeni dell'onomastica degli albanesi che si
collegano a fenomeni associati con le caratteristiche o la vita spirituale della mentalità albanese. Tale è uno degli elementi importanti etnolinguistici, l’accarezzamento o il vezzeggiare. Siamo testimoni di quelle situazioni o circostanze fastidiose, dopo una giornata faticosa, abbiamo bisogno di una piccola carezza, anche se siamo sconvolti, ma anche noi stessi non siamo in grado di ottenere qualcosa di meglio. Poi cosa succede? In tali circostanze etnolinguistici si verifica il vezzeggiare, l’accarezzamento. Ma in ogni caso l’accarezzare è eseguita e supportato da numerose circostanze che derivano dalla strategia del discorso. (Shkurtaj, É., L’accarezzamento etnolinguistico come un elemento importante, Etnografia del parlato Albanese, Tirana: 2004, 161). Comunque il ricercatore ha anche indagato, prestando attenzione alla densità di collegamento con accarezzamenti di provenienza etnica e regionale dei parlanti. Es. la seconda forma di - Accarezzamenti con il suffisso –

- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso - kë: Meli - Melkë, Bon - Bonkë, Mira - Mirkë, Sotiraq - Sotir - Tirkë; (sul lato est di Korca, Pogradec).
- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso - (a): Pavlin - Pavël, Polina - Paula, Tonin - Tone (Anton), Gjovalin - Gjoval (in alcune parti del nord Albania, Scutari).
- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso – ac: Rrokac – Rrok: Mirac – Mira
- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso – oc: Prekoc – Prek;
- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso – oqe: Prenoqe – Preen (Prenda, appartengono alla provincia Malesi e Madhe, parte cattolica).
- Accarezzamenti con il suffisso – ush (të) - ush (e) i nomi comuni; mamush, babush; mamushe, babushe, e anche nei nomi di persone, Keti - Ketush, Andush, Bletush, Bledush, Detush, ecc.

Non possiamo lasciare senza menzionare, come speciali gli accarezzamenti dal periodo dell'infanzia: Moxha (Moza), Lili (Ilir), Jamo (Ramiz), Burna (Bruna), Xhim (Gezim), ma anche i nick sono parte degli accarezzamenti . Come sottolinea anche il ricercatore: "... Spesso una metafora deriva da un confronto di un tratto benigna della persona (ad esempio amadio - una ragazza grassa, puntatore - un professore che è alto come un puntatore)." (Shkurtaj, Gj., "I Soprannomi" Etnografia del parlato dell'albanese, Tirana: 2004: 164)

Di solito i soprannomi fanno parte della creazione dei momenti delle circostanze in cui parliamo, quindi sorgono al momento della discussione, ma ricevono un aumento di richiamo di realtà, oppure dall'informazione creato con i co-relatori. Quindi, i motivi sono diversi. Espressione di accarezzamento o vezzeggiamento è anche il rendere maschile dei nomi delle ragazze per motivo appunto di vezzeggiamento, esempio Rudi – Rudina, Beti – Babela, Besi – Besiana. In queste fanno parte anche le espressioni di imprecazioni benevoli quali: speriamo che tu moia, speriamo non ti veda l’occhio invidioso ecc. Tra l’altro, il prof. Gjovalini ha dato una particolare attenzione agli eufemismi in "Anthroponomia eufemistica". Problemi o questioni in materia di etnolinguistica, in relazione ad essi, sembra come cadere nella ripetizione di ciò che ha trattato il prof. Cabej. Ma non è vero. Come discendenti della strada e l’attività del suo maestro e studioso, Shkurtaj vedrà un nuovo approccio, portando ad ulteriori afflussi la scienza in questo settore, e che ha a che fare in gran parte con l’analisi e la spiegazione dei problemi nei piani interdisciplinari. Prendiamo in esempio un solo caso di utilizzo di nomi eufemistici. Per rimuovere il male in varie regioni d’Albania e anche avere una vita lunga fortunata è usuale mettere il nome del nonno o della nonna o del nipote o della nipote, che, naturalmente, quando sono ancora vivi, ma anche generalmente causa cambiamento del nome del nipote o nipote attraverso le forme di vezzeggiamento, come il nonno Sotir, nipote Tirkë o Tirka, il nonno Nikolin, mentre il nipote Lind (Shkurtaj, É., Antroponimia eufemistica, Etnografia del parlato dell'albanese, Tirana: 2004, 168). La raccolta del materiale e la sua ricerca in due aree principali della linguistica albanese, guideranno il linguista anche il lavoro del professore Gjovalin. Le grandi trasformazioni in tutti i settori della società albanese porterebbero cambiamenti nello stile di vita o di mentalità. La ricchezza bibliografica usata con precisione dall'academicchi mostra più chiaramente l'uomo desideroso per il lavoro di studiare senza frontiere albanesi e la letteratura straniera. La conoscenza di diverse lingue: francese, italiano, tedesco e inglese, ecc, lo avrebbero aiutato nella navigazione delle pubblicazioni di riviste scientifiche europee e balcaniche dell'era moderna e non solo europea e balcanica. Attingendosi sulla sociolinguistica europea, sarà dedicata anche una serie di articoli scientifici, gli studi dedicati al gergo degli studenti. In relazione a questo problema, lo studioso dice che troviamo le note di questi studi che già nel 1895 con F. Kluge la "Deutsche Studentssprache" Strasburg e M.Kohenit (Cohen) "Le language de l'Ecole Polytechnique". Negli anni ’30 del secolo. XX si risveglia un interesse per il
cosiddetto trade jargon (gergo commerciale), la differenza tra le lingue Pidgin e la creola. Esiste anche un centro di studi presso l'Università: "L'Argologica Centre". Dato che nella linguistica albanese, non è stata esplorata questo campo dell'etnolinguistica e essendo in contatto quotidiano con gli studenti, il professore non ha esistito a fornire alcune osservazioni sulla didattica degli studenti, con alcuni aspetti generali di questo "codice di discorso." (Li, sulle orme del "gergo" studentesco, 212). Gli esempi portati per l'analisi di questo tipo, considerando i dettagli specifici relativi alle diverse opere, il prof. Shkurtaj classifica tra di esse gli elementi o particolarità appartenenti. Ecco alcune di esse:

- le metafore e le perifrasi figurative per i professori: per esempio Profi e i sopranomi su di essi; espressioni di ironia per le loro rispettive materie; cinquechili (professore fragile fisicamente). Oggi tra gli studenti sono noti sopranomi come, Babushi (professore vecchio di età); burmalia (professore con bucci nelle guance), ecc. O espressioni: questo povero uomo si è inffredolito (il suo cervello se ne è andato via).

- Allo stesso modo per le materie diverse si usano dagli studenti vezzeggiamenti ironici, ad esempio: psiko (per la psicolinguistica), mentre per le facoltà: juripalla (giuridica) talpa (ingegneria e geologia) o che il tralala (studente di arti), ecc.

- Per le materie che si esprimono in modo figurativo (nella stagione degli esami): speriamo di avere la base (sufficciente), sette mesi gangster e tre mesi barbone (per gli studenti che non studiano, ma che durante gli esami diventano saggi). Espressione utilizzata per umorismo e ironia per l’unico senza capelli).

- - l’altro come: vai piano perché ti stanno cadendo i denti (per qualcuno che ride molto), è arrivato il riccio (ironia per qualcuno senza capelli).

- Distintivi nel discorso degli studenti, ma anche al liceo, come sostiene il ricercatore, sono le distorsioni di parole o la loro inversione: cioba - bacio, era tenera - era tenero, ecc. Un altro caso di uso della lingua albanese è la comunicazione con le parole che portano le estensioni di inglese, aggiungendo il suffisso: - ejshën (angl - ation), non solo a parole con un carattere internazionale, come: - varius, bjerus. Gli studenti in ambienti diversi usano le parole composte, che contengono le parole straniere, in caso di saluti, per i pasti del giorno, come: Tung! (Ciao); Pranzo! (Buono pranzo); Notte! (Buona notte), ecc. Un altro caso di uso della lingua albanese è la comunicazione con le parole che portano le estensioni di inglese, aggiungendo il suffisso: - ejshën (angl - ation), non solo a parole con un carattere internazionale, come diskutejshën, komunikejshën ecc, ma trova impiego anche in vocaboli popolari quali: kopiejsjhen, dialogejshën, ecc. (Prof. GJ., Shkurtaj cita dati da temi degli studenti negli ultimi anni dal 1999 al 2004).

- Con la stessa funzione (la funzione di umorismo), nel discorso si usano anche i suffissi latini -us, nelle parole albanesi, come: - varius, bjerus. Gli studenti in ambienti diversi usano le parole composte, che contengono le parole straniere, in particolare italiano e inglese, sempre in senso dell’umorismo. Usato tantissimo è thenkju molto! (Angl.Thank You!) quanto sei stronzo! (Come siete stupid!) oppure nei casi per intonare il parlato di più nella lingua straniera rilevante: immengo e non esco piu!’ (Francese. Je t'aime!) dal turco: dollap kallkan - frigorifero, ecc. Anche nel capmo delle parole lunghe in caso di saluti, per i pasti del giorno, come: Tung! (Ciao); Pranzo! (Buono pranzo); Notte! (Buona notte), ecc. Un altro caso di uso della lingua albanese è la comunicazione con le parole che portano le estensioni di inglese, aggiungendo il suffisso: - ejshën (angl - ation), non solo a parole con un carattere internazionale, come diskutejshën, komunikejshën ecc, ma trova impiego anche in vocaboli popolari quali: kopiejsjhen, dialogejshën, ecc. (Prof. GJ., Shkurtaj cita dati da temi degli studenti negli ultimi anni dal 1999 al 2004).

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From Adult Education to Continuous Training: The Origins of Transformation

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Abstract Permanent education is not a chronological point of arrival in a process, as it may seem at first sight, but a permanent and original instance which draws its own reason of being, from the social needs and privacy of each individual, from the more and more sophisticated and new techniques of the productive system and from the existential discomfort of man in the contemporary society at the same time. Exactly at the moment when Adult Education assumes the character of a utilitarian and instrumental intervention prompted by the need for technological upgrading of the manufacturing world and serious signs of crisis in all areas of employment, it must also preserve another function, that of the activities which respond to the most intimate needs, of a more intense freedom and spirituality of the person. The initial education dispensed in schools and universities or in the form of professional training through which people considered adults by the society to which they belong, develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and evolve their attitudes or their behavior, in the dual perspective of an integral human growth and a participation in a socio-economical and cultural development which is balanced and independent.

Key words: education, cultural, adult, society;

1. Introduzione

Se si pensa al significato del termine “educazione”, allora saremo certamente d’accordo con il Genovesi nell’affermare che il termine permanente “è già insito nell’idea stessa di educazione”: in effetti, scrive, il Genovesi, “l’aggettivo permanente ha solo la funzione di rafforzare compendiando, certe caratteristiche essenziali, quali l’universalità, la continuità e la totalità del concetto stesso di educazione come si è venuto maturando e precisando alla luce della riflessione pedagogica contemporanea e sotto la spinta delle esigenze tipiche di una società complessa e ad alto tasso di mobilità. Con il concetto quindi di educazione permanente si tende a sottolineare i modi con cui la comunità o, addirittura, tutta una società, nella tensione ideale verso la comunità educante e la società educante, nelle sue varie articolazioni pluralistiche e globalmente, risponde in maniera organica alle esigenze di sviluppo proprie e degli individui che la compongono”. (Genovesi 1998)

Alla luce di questa riflessione preliminare, possiamo quindi affermare che ancora oggi, all’inizio del Terzo Millennio e nel tempo pieno della tecnologia informatica e nella compiuta realizzazione del villaggio globale, insomma nell’area della conoscenza diffusa, l’Educazione degli Adulti, sia come disciplina scientifica, sia come attività istituzionalizzata, conserva il duplice significato essenziale ed originario, da una parte, di riflessione/intervento per aiutare l’adulto a recuperare un deficit di alfabetizzazione causato dalla crescente complessità tecnologica e conoscitiva del mondo contemporaneo, e, dall’altra, di sollecitudine per le esigenze di auto-educazione, di crescita culturale e spirituale di ogni uomo in tutto il corso della sua vita. (Alberici 1999)

Perciò, possiamo anche dire che l’educazione permanente non è tanto il punto di arrivo cronologico di un processo, come a prima vista farebbe pensare, ma piuttosto una istanza originaria e permanente che trae la sua ragion d’essere, contemporaneamente, dalle esigenze sociali e dall’intimità di ciascun individuo, dalle tecniche sempre più nuove e più sofisticate dei sistemi produttivi e dal disagio esistenziale dell’uomo nella società contemporanea.

Proprio nel momento in cui l’Educazione degli Adulti assume sempre più il carattere di un intervento di tipo utilitaristico, strumentale, richiesto dalle esigenze di aggiornamento tecnologico del mondo della produzione e dai gravi segni di crisi occupazionali in tutti i settori, essa deve conservare anche l’altra funzione, quella di attività rispondente ai bisogni più intimi, di più intensa libertà e spiritualità della persona.

2. L’evoluzione storica dell’Educazione degli Adulti

Mi sembra indispensabile, dedicare uno spazio alla ricostruzione storica di alcuni momenti dell’Educazione degli Adulti che ancora oggi risultano più notevoli, non certo per rispondere a semplici esigenze di erudizione storica, ma per un motivo sostanziale: perché sono convinto che, in una discussione sul tipo di funzioni e di compiti da assegnare, oggi,
all’Educazione degli Adulti, è proprio dalla riflessione storica che può venire l’indicazione più autorevole, fino a fondare ed giustificare con ragioni veramente scientifiche un modello di attività educativa in età adulta che non risponda soltanto ad astratte teorie sociologiche o psicologiche, ma sia radicato in una lettura dei bisogni concreti dell’uomo contemporaneo.

“In genere, l’origine dell’Educazione degli Adulti, come attività istituzionalizzata attraverso strutture apposite, con programmi specifici e tecniche didattiche appropriate, si fa risalire al movimento creato in Danimarca da N.Grundtvig e C.Kold; questo movimento, verso la metà dell’Ottocento, promosse la creazione delle prime scuole popolari superiori (Folkehøjskole): è da sottolineare che il Grundtvig si batteva per i contadini, i quali lasciavano la scuola dopo aver assolto l’obbligo scolastico, in modo che fosse tenuta viva la cultura popolare danese e fosse rinsaldato, attraverso la cultura, il sentimento nazionale. (Lorenzetto 1976)

Quindi, il motto ispiratore in questo modello di istituzioni educative per gli adulti era di tipo politico e culturale, rispondeva ad una esigenza di continuità educativa e di aggiornamento culturale e non tanto ad un recupero di mancata alfabetizzazione, come avverrà invece in altre realtà sociali e storiche.

La storia dell’Educazione degli Adulti è in tal modo anche la storia delle battaglie combattute dagli adulti nella società, nella quale, come allievi e come maestri, sempre più incisivamente venivano ad assumere un ruolo di protagonisti ed una valenza politica.

“In Svezia con l’Università popolare di Brunswick e poi in Inghilterra con la fondazione, nel 1903, della WEA (Workers Education Association), l’Educazione degli Adulti, che era nata e si era sviluppata soprattutto nell’ambiente rurale, si collega con i sindacati, con le università. “Finché concepiamo l’educazione come destinata allo sviluppo e alla utilità dell’individuo, anziché come qualche cosa che egli debba conservare e impiegare, in qualità di fiduciario, per il maggior vantaggio della società, noi incitiamo il singolo a isolarsi dai suoi doveri sociali” lasciò scritto il fondatore della WEA, Alberto Mansbridge”. (Russo 1998)

Al rigore etico - sociale della WEA, indipendente dai partiti e dagli stessi sindacati nel portare avanti attraverso un proprio discorso di Educazione degli Adulti, la formazione di una coscienza operaia, fa riscontro la sensibilità per i temi culturali che caratterizzò le università popolari tedesche, in particolare quelle di Lipsia e di Weimar.

“Parallelo a questo movimento, anzi con origini più antiche che risalgono alla Rivoluzione francese, si andò via via sviluppando e consolidando tutto il movimento di cultura popolare in Francia. Già in testi come il rapporto presentato dal Codorcet su l’Organisation Générale de l’Instruction Publique all’Assamblea Legislativa il 20 ed 21 aprile 1792, leggiamo questa affermazione: “L’istruzione deve essere universale e ciò è solo estesa a tutti i cittadini. Deve, nei suoi diversi livelli, abbracciare l’intero sistema delle conoscenze umane e assicurare agli uomini in tutte le età della vita la facoltà di conservare le loro conoscenze e di acquisirne delle nuove”.

Nel 1866 si costituiva in Francia la Ligue de l’enseignement e nel 1892 la Ligue pour les droits de l’homme. Sempre in questo anno si aprirono le prime Università popolari che ebbero notevole sviluppo in tutti questi Paesi fino alla prima guerra mondiale. Negli anni tra la prima e la seconda guerra mondiale le associazioni di Educazione degli Adulti in alcuni Paesi cominciarono a denunciare elementi di crisi e di stasi, rispetto allo slancio del primo ventennio del secolo; in altri, come in Italia e in Germania, furono soppresse dai regimi antidemocratici.

3. Dall’Educazione degli Adulti all’educazione permanente

“Il concetto di educazione permanente, come evoluzione, trasformazione e arricchimento della semplice Educazione degli Adulti (spesso intesa come pura alfabetizzazione strumentale), compare dopo la seconda guerra mondiale e si afferma pienamente negli anni ‘60”.

Come osserva Mario Mencarelli, la prospettiva dell’educazione permanente si è affermata, più che attraverso la riflessione teorica dei pedagogisti, nella concreta azione degli educatori dagli adulti, i quali, operando tra le rovine spirituali e culturali disperse dal conflitto mondiale, si resero conto che l’analfabeta adulto non ha bisogno soltanto degli strumenti che servono per leggere e scrivere, ma ha soprattutto bisogno di recuperare le radici del proprio identità e libertà, di avere la piena consapevolezza della sua dignità di essere umano. Fu, questa, un’intuizione di enorme importanza, poiché non solo contribuì a far modificare profondamente i metodi per l’alfabetizzazione, ma, soprattutto, fece nascere una fiducia nuova, una rinnovata speranza nell’educazione, una vera e propria nuova filosofia dell’educazione: quella della emancipazione continua dell’uomo nella prospettiva dell’autenticità. (Mencarelli 1973)

La scoperta di questa dimensione nuova dell’educazione, cioè della sua potenzialità formativa nel campo dei diritti politici dell’uomo e per il recupero delle sue capacità auto – propulsive, determinò l’interesse dei grandi organismi internazionali, primo fra tutti l’ONU, che attraverso UNESCO assegnò all’educazione permanente la funzione strategica di perseguire il trionfo effettivo delle virtù democratiche in tutto il mondo, diffondere l’etica dei diritti umani, promuovere lo sviluppo economico dei Paesi sottosviluppati e dei gruppi che vivevano, pur in paesi ricchi, in condizioni di marginalità.
Il concetto, più che l'espressione, nacque a Montreal: fu durante i lavori della conferenza che emerse un'idea che a
Elsinor era appena balenata: l'educazione è un processo che dura la vita intera. Ciò occorre rilevare anche se, come è
già stato constatato, si considerò labile la filosofia espressa da questa affermazione, equivalente di un vero e proprio
“compromesso filosofico” che non teneva conto delle tendenze operanti nella storia passata e recente. (Hely 1966)
L'idea di educazione permanente ebbe modo di affermarsi diventando un principio pedagogico fondamentale in tutti i
Paesi del mondo: per l'educazione scolastica e per l'educazione extra-scolastica.
E' difficile stabilire quanto, in questo processo di chiarificazione, abbia avuto di influenza – proprio per la ricordata
dimensione politica dell'educazione permanente – l'spirazione ideologica: è certo tuttavia che più di una volta, per non
dire ricorrentemente, è accaduto che “l'educazione permanente non può essere neutra”. Presa di posizione più che
legittima, se non altro perché contesta alla radice la convinzione secondo la quale l'opera educativa deve essere
indifferente nei riguardi dei valori o davanti alle grandi urgenze che muovono le persone e i nuclei sociali. Solo che non
basta affermare che “l'educazione permanente non deve essere neutra”; occorre infatti che si dichiari da quale parte si
schiere. Dalla parte dell'uomo? Dalla parte della società? Dalla parte del lavoro che muta i suoi criteri di produzione
esigendo una sempre nuova preparazione? Dalla parte dello sviluppo tecnologico?”
Gli interrogativi non costituiscono un elenco completo: la loro formulazione giova a tener vivo il problema e forse a
invitare ad una spiegazione più complessa, non riduttiva, del concetto di educazione permanente.
Una risposta significativa è offerta da Paul Lengrand, fra l’altro collaboratore assiduo dell’UNESCO: questa risposta
presta attenzione alla necessità di saldare i due periodi nei quali l’individuo ha da lungo tempo visto divisa la sua
esistenza: il periodo della età evolutiva destinato all’istruzione e quello dell’età adulta da destinare alla responsabilità
(lavoro, famiglia, ruoli sociali, ecc.). C’è in questa tesi il riscontro di una filosofia assai diffusa nel nostro tempo, e perciò
eccentrica: la filosofia che crede alla produttività del continuum dell’esperienza, dall’uomo che genera il patrimonio di
conoscenze, di competenze, di valori, di disposizioni davanti alla vita. Al di là dell’eclettismo come la tesi si esprime,
c’è da mettere in evidenza che, per questa via, la stessa espressione educazione permanente diviene una filosofia, cioè
un modo di pensare: il soggetto ha bisogno di essere educato fin dall’infanzia, fin dalla scuola di base, anche per evitare
la forza traumatizzante che esprimono le responsabilità della vita nel momento in cui si manifestano.
E’ indubbio che l’educazione permanente, non può che fondarsi su una mentalità laica critica, basata sulla dinamica
attività della regione. Ma non si può attendere che tutto questo possa essere ottenuto per germinazione spontanea: la
società non può non pianificare con cura quanto occorre perché l’educazione permanente possa operare il miracolo che
le si chiede. A questo razionalismo, del quale sono equivalenti nitide geometrie, è ispirato il già ricordato progetto
Education permanente, che condensa il significato di visite a esperienze d’avanguardia compiute in tutta Europa (nelle
scuola e fuori della scuola; con i bambini, con i giovani e con gli adulti; con le persone e con le comunità) al fine di
configurare un sistema ideale, per quanto circoscritto, di educazione permanente.
Va anche considerata la risposta data al problema dal personalismo pedagogico, che assume la persona come
principio di una pedagogia dell’educazione permanente, perché la persona contiene dentro di sé il principio del suo
essere e del suo esistere, e quindi le ragioni legittimanti dei suoi diritti.
“L’identificazione dell’educazione permanente con il principio dell’auto – educazione permette di considerare tutto il
movimento per la Educazione degli Adulti come un momento peculiare del più vasto movimento della pedagogia
contemporanea, cioè della pedagogia dell’attivismo.
4. Le ultime osservazioni
Ogni segmento di discorso ha posto in evidenza difficoltà di varia natura: si va dalla disponibilità delle strutture alle
competenze necessarie, per non parlare della scarsa motivazione che persone e nuclei sociali rivelano talvolta per le
iniziative di educazione permanente. Il problema più cospicuo, dopo aver preso atto che l’educazione permanente è una
“cultura emergente”, è quello dell’avvio che possa mettere in moto tutti i processi che rendono vivo un sistema di
di educazione permanente. A questo proposito l’intervento legislativo, a livello centrale e a livello regionale o dipartimentale,
è importante: per aprire spazi, per fornire risorse, per suscitare motivazioni.
Lo studio comparato della situazione dei singoli Paesi dimostra purtroppo che su questo piano le realizzazioni sono
piuttosto modeste. In realtà c’è forse da guadagnare un convincimento preciso: educatori, proprio sul piano dell’educazione permanente, sono scrittori e giornalisti, registi cinematografici e televisivi, uomini politici e legislatori, partiti politici e associazioni professionali. In poche parole: si può far credito all’educazione scolastica e all’educazione
extra-scolastica, ma tutto può trarre vita da una società educante, cioè da una società che intenda donare umanità all’uomo, più di quanto intenda sottrargliene con un lavoro alienante, con le discriminazioni, con le strumentalizzazioni o
anche soltanto con le omissioni.
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Revisiting Conflict and its Impact in Social Cohesion

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Abstract: This article discusses the role of conflict in society and the associated human relations. Through this article is aimed to give a reflection of sociological and political theories on conflict. A competitive society can be based only in a well-educated population, undressing it from all types of prejudices and discriminatory features and problems. To analyze existential and vital elements such as ethnicity, security, stability, stereotypes etc. for the society and the possible reasons why these represent causes of relationships under conflict, research of theoretical and factual data that influence these relationships need to be done. The main purpose of the study is the confrontation of sociological and political theoretical approaches as two different viewpoints of the same issue, which brings innovation in the crosscut and changes of these relationships in conflict. Democratic rights, economic strength – and how it is distributed – social cohesion, Environmental balance and well educated people cannot be separated in today's world. We need more than ever to deal with our common future in a holistic way. The only way democracy will prove itself is through a living relationship between peoples and their governments based on trust, accountability and the determination to deliver practical results. Therefore, the presentation of different theoretical views through the paper will diversify it and will make the picture much more comprehensible.

Key words: conflict, theoretical view, social groups, social transformations

What Conflict and Social Cohesion represent

Nature of Conflict

Individuals and groups struggle to maximize their benefits, inevitably contributing to social changes such as innovations in politics and outright revolutions. People tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories, such as religious affiliation, gender, ethnic groups, organizational membership and age cohort etc. Conflict this state of coming to collision or disagreement, fight, struggle and many times wars, is a process; part of it are many actors that may be individuals, social groups, parties or states. They are in threat to their needs, interests or concerns or ideas. Social cohesion represents the bonds that bring people together in society, particularly in the context of cultural diversity. In other words it means sharing values, reducing disparities in wealth and income and enabling people to have a sense that they are engaged in a common enterprise, facing shared challenges and that they are members of the same community. So, a cohesive community is one where there is a common vision and a sense of belonging for all communities; the diversity of people’s backgrounds and circumstances are appreciated and positively valued; those from different backgrounds have similar life opportunities; relationships are being developed between people from different backgrounds in the workplace, in schools and within neighborhoods. If we analyze conflict in different levels between individuals, groups within a society individuals and state we come to the conclusion, which usually it derives from lack of material goods, lack of fortune or lack of interests.

The society is always in a continual struggle among all different aspects of a particular society. The need of maximizing its benefits the group sometimes uses physical violence and there are times where no violence is involved. Incompatibilities, which can prompt conflict, include power or value differences, or differences in needs-satisfaction. Apart sharing sources, maximizing their benefits conflict between groups encourages negative stereotyping of the opposing group and reshaping society the way they see it or in the best way to fulfill their interests. Individuals tend to attribute positive personal characteristics to in group members and excuse their negative behavior. These biases lead people to attribute negative characteristics to out-group members. Conflicts are given birth by different causes like class, gender, race and ethnicity, regions and religion.

There are many ways of expressing conflicts or divergences like wars, revolutions, strikes1 as a method in the modern society, competition and dominations. Sometimes conflict is considered as a process of no co-operation between individuals and groups within a society. Conflicts may be caused by or result in the breakdown of law and order, or a

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1 Tactics in Non-Violent conflicts
collapse of state institutions. For example, there are also cases where conflicts are caused as a result of the prohibition of freedom of expression that implies infringement of a number of rights that are considered universally as fundamental.

According to Simmel, conflict makes possible social evolution. Evolution, change and conflict are inevitable. Conflict is a form of socialization and it shows a kind of social relationship. In the basement of these relationships are psychological elements or individual ones such as need, hate, envy, will etc. Conflict is reflected also in the relations and dynamic behaviors between individuals.

Marx recognized that the situation of laborers is determined by the objective organization and formulas of the productive system, independent of the will and power of individual persons the personal embitterment incident to the struggle in general, and to local conflicts exemplifying the general conflict, necessarily diminishes.

The trend in global conflict since the end of the cold war at the beginning of the 1990s— that most of the serious violence in the world is seen in settings of social conflict in struggles that are internal to the borders of the states which make up the world system—continues.

Theoretical approaches on Conflict

Theory and research on aggression and violence include the position that aggression is instinctive, deeply rooted in human nature and psyche, as well as argument that it is a secondary motive deriving from general response to frustration or from social reinforcement.

K. Lorenz "ethological approach" tried to "extrapolate war from human instinct". Such approach justifies war itself, in part by diminishing our own human responsibility to behave more peaceful. Neither the less, in his book "On aggression" he stressed some certain species-preserving aspects of aggressions applied to human beings as well: providing an opportunity for competition within a species, after which the most fit, will emerge to produce the next generation. Achieving spacing and population control, to minimize the disadvantages of overpopulation establishing a means whereby the pair bond can be strengthened, as by shared aggression of a mated pair against competitors.

Some scientists have even argued that men, because they have Y-chromosomes, are by nature violent, that violence is inherent to the male species, stemming from high levels of testosterone in the male.2

Other theories suggest that aggression is the results of hostility brought about by frustration. According to this approach human beings are goal- oriented and as long as they make progress toward achieving their goals they don't become frustrated and consequently violent. Frustration builds up to a point where it gets released in aggressive behavior. Freud emphasized that violence is deeply rooted in human nature and the ways to deal with these aggressive drives is to channel them constructively and learn nonviolent ways of expressing them.

Other theories concerning individual aggression and violence emphasizes the role of social conditioning in aggressive behavior. According to this approach, human beings acquire violent behaviors by observing friends, family members, images in the culture, and significant others. Since human beings learn violent ways to express their aggressive tendencies, they will practice violence if they get rewarded for it.

There are many factors that can bring individuals to violent behavior or actions such as:

- Collective power of group, state or nation can be used to wage war, when people identify with these collective bodies and want to defend their group interests when they are threatened.
- Aggressive actions of individual leaders play an important role in building public sentiment to support warlike actions.
- Displaced aggression, where a frustrated person may not be able to express his or her frustrations at the cause of ill feelings, so he/she places them on some other source, such as the "commies", or other groups which are said to cause evil in the world.
- Promoting militarism, when people desensitized to violence when they are constantly exposed to violent images.

There is a strong correlation between these two terms and processes: ‘identity’ and ‘conflict’. Identity salience can be defined as the most important identity for individual and it can be influenced by such factors as permeable/impermeable group boundaries, positive or negative intergroup comparisons, identity distinctiveness issues and socialization

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Persons with strong ethnic identity salience have strong feeling of their group memberships, evaluate their group positively, prefer or are comfortable with their group membership, are interested in group, its culture and history. Ethnic identity salience may have both stable and situational characteristic. Ting-Toomey notes, that "for some individuals, ethnic identity only becomes salient when they are forced to confront interpersonal issues of being different" like stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination. This problem is one of the questions in reconciling two dominant approaches for understanding of identity: instrumentalism and primordialism. Instrumentalists suggest that ethnicity does not emerge naturally, but is a result of socialization under elite and communal pressures and orientations into the life ways of one’s dominant community, and implicitly suggest the dominant role of the elite’s manipulation of cultural difference as a causal factor in interethnic conflict.

On the other hand primordialists suggest the ubiquity of ethnocentrism and insist that ethnic similarity leads to interethnic conflict. The concept of ethnocentrism closely parallels these ideas in its explanation of ethnic and other group conflict.

Salience of different group identities may derive from different factors such as differentiation between individuals, in abilities and material goods. In context of intergroup relations people perceive other group in terms of out-group. In this case, judgments of out-group members tend to be made on the basis of intergroup comparisons whereas judgments of in-group members can also be made on the basis of intragroup comparison. The out-group homogeneity effect leads to perception of out-group as more homogenous than in-groups. Social identity tends to be more salient in situation of intergroup relation than in situation of interpersonal relation. Strongly identification with group became a powerful source of identity, and putting down other groups may increase self-esteem and provide the group solidarity, these behaviors may also lead to exaggerations of group differences and conflict between groups. This creates a kind of division between ‘us’ and ‘they’.

Conflict as a process or state as we mentioned above of disagreement, fight, struggle and many times wars is a process, part of it are many actors that may be individuals, social groups, parties or states. The most meaningful definition of “state fragility” is one that highlights a state’s vulnerability to conflict. In situations of weak states, unequal distribution of resources, unstable social relations, a history of violence, and the existence of continually excluded subordinate groups, the emergence of mobilized resistance or ‘political entrepreneurs’ who organize for violent conflict is more likely to occur. The consequences may be political breakdown, civil war, intergroup riots, acts of violence, mass protests against the state, and in the worst instances crimes against humanity. (Large, J. & Sisk D.T, 2006)

Peace versus conflict

Usually conflict passes these general stages:

- general recognition
- escalating intensity
- fluctuation at a high level of antagonism
- going through a transition that leads to significant de-escalation
- explicit or implicit bargaining sometimes leading to an agreed-upon outcome
- consequences that affect the next set of conflicts.

Most common types of conflicts are:

- regional conflicts between local rivals, or between arising power and established major power.
- resource war sparked by conflicts between states or groups over the control or possession of vital water, energy, or mineral supplies.
- separatist and nationalist conflicts, involving attempts by subordinated ethno-nationalist groups to establish their own nation-state
- irredentist conflicts, involving efforts by a particular ethno-nationalist group or expand the boundaries of its current state to encompass neighboring areas inhabited by members of the same group.
- ethnic, religious, and tribal power struggles, entailing conflicts within states over the distribution of land, jobs, aid funds and other national resources.

• revolutionary and fundamentalist struggles, involving efforts by ideologically motivated movements (including religious fundamentalists) to impose a particular type of social system on a country through the use of force.
• prodemocracy and anticolonial struggles, entailing efforts by unrepresented or colonized peoples to achieve freedom and democracy.

Above we pointed out what conflict and social cohesion represent and what are some of the demonstrations of conflict. If conflict actions were accompanied by violence, peace is a state characterized by lack of violent conflict or absence of hostility. What reigns in these conditions is harmony between individuals, social groups or states.

One of the strategies of peace is what is called as ‘peace through strength’, which meaning requires massive armaments coming from Roman proverb “if you desire peace, prepare for war” and it’s often discussed in terms of balance of power. Another strategy is pacifism as total absence of war making and the use of violence in daily affairs. Peace with justice implies that peace can be attained by eliminating social oppression and economic exploitation and concerned with poverty, disease, starvation, human misery and violation of human rights.

Institution building strategy tries to avoid war by creating legal and political alternatives for resolving international conflicts; it is called "peace through politics".

And in the end peace education attempts to teach people about peaceful conditions and the process of creating them and hopes not only to inform people about the various aspects of human conflict but also to teach skills of conflict resolution.

Peace education attempts to teach people about peaceful conditions and the process of creating them and hopes not only to inform people about the various aspects of human conflict but also to teach skills of conflict resolution.

Peace is a movement toward war expressed in three different ways: like eliminating war, stop particular aspects of war and stop particular war.

Approaches to peace building as a difficult and delicate process including three steps or processes:

i. Peacemaking means helping to bring parties in conflict to a negotiated agreement and refers to efforts to resolve ode-escalated conflict that has erupted and persisted.
ii. Peacekeeping involves keeping hostile parties from fighting or otherwise doing damage to each other, refers to efforts to sustain a cease-fire that has been agreed to by the belligerents, usually by providing a small buffering force between them.
iii. Peace building includes such methods as human rights education, economic development and development aid and the restoration of intergroup harmony in a post conflict phase and refers to efforts to heal the wounds of war in such a way to discourage future outbreaks of fighting.

Conflict resolution practice has expanded into five major new domains in recent years:
- International governmental organization efforts. International governmental organization has established centers that employ conflict resolution procedures. For example, Conflict Prevention Center in Vienna (CPC).
- Nongovernmental organization efforts. Nongovernmental organizations facilitate international conflict resolution and are based in academic research centers, religious bodies and independent institutes. Their activities can include providing training for negotiators, developing policy recommendations, participation in mediation effort.
- Institutionalization. Institutionalization means, that conflict resolution practices have become institutionalized within and among many organizations. For example, community disputes resolution centers or using of negotiation before issuing a regulation.
- Training. Training in negotiation and conflict resolution is increasingly being given in professional schools, including those in law, management, and public administration.
- Stages of conflict. Conflict resolution being applied to many stages of conflict in addition to the stage of de-escalation negotiation: developing strategy to bring adversaries to the negotiation table, to prevent a dispute from escalating into a major destructive conflict, reconciliation, strengthening the relationship during post-settlement stage and so on.
Conclusions

By increasing and reducing disparities we build an impact on bonds of society that define ‘social cohesion’. These disparities can go beyond cultural and social context and feed into a very fragile milieu by instigating aggressive actions between individuals, groups and state. On the first hand we may have disparities rooted in economic factors and/or distribution of material goods, social stereotypes, regional differences and identities. On the other hand, a fragile milieu would represent instability of circumstances and factors that affect our social construction.

Here the question answered is not whether conflict affects social cohesion. This is by all means evident and easily identifiable. The answer becomes complex when we try to measure scale of impact a conflict has in society by increasing its disparities. By achieving this, defining indicators and consequences, we are able to build effective responses in our efforts to reduce such disparities, and in turn enable a more cohesive society.

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Education and Economic Development: Case of Bosnia and Herzegovina

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Abstract
Analysis of the interdependence of education and economic development is a subject of interest of researchers for many decades. A large number of published studies, papers and books on the impact of education on the process of economic development has given us the necessary foundation of a multidisciplinary approach in research process of link between education and development. Objectives were as follows: elaborate educational system of Bosnia and Herzegovina and its institutional framework; present the benefits and costs of education and define the challenges and obstacles in the field of educational policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Assessment of the educational system and educational policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as an overview of the educational system are given based on the findings of primary research and data from secondary sources. Secondary data used in research was obtained from reports and publications of domestic governmental and nongovernmental institutions, international organizations and others, while the primary data and analysis were obtained as a result of structured group and individual interviews. The study results suggest that education is an important factor of economic development and as such should be part of the economic policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Education should also be used as a factor of competitiveness, human development, integration and transition processes. This paper also presents recommendations for education policy in Bosnia and Herzegovina in which applicative contribution of the paper is reflected.

Key words: education, development, theory, policy, Bosnia and Herzegovina

1. Introduction

Process of economic development of each national economy depends fundamentally on the quality of its human resources and human capital. Education in this process plays a key role in terms of creation and development of absorptive capacity for creation of new knowledge and its transfer process. Including education in national development strategies and promotion of knowledge-based economy has become one of the most important trends in today’s global world.

The aim of this paper is to analyze the situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina in this process through presentation of current situation in educational system and economic development of the country in order to give adequate recommendations for further improvement. Starting from the theoretical bases, research topic, previous research findings and established aims, the following research questions were formulated:
- How does the education effects development process in Bosnia and Herzegovina?
- Which are the most important challenges facing educational system in Bosnia and Herzegovina?
- Is there any specific educational level that could give bigger contribution to development process in Bosnia and Herzegovina?

For the purpose of research, relevant literature from disciplines such as economic development, economics of education, new development paradigm and others was used. Research findings are based on secondary data available in databases of World Bank (WB), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), World Economic Forum (WEF), EUROSTAT as well as entity and state statistical agencies of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Focus groups were used to collect primary data from representatives of educational institutions, private sector and entity and state educational institutions. Most important findings from focus groups were identification of two important educational levels ie. secondary vocational education and...
adult education, answering to our third research question. These two were pointed out as segments that could lead to elimination of gap between education and real economy, lowering unemployment and improving economic development. Findings from focus groups have led to individual interviews with representatives of educational and entity institutions.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: section two gives a brief and concise overview of literature analyzing interdependence of education and economic development, section three presents state of education in Bosnia and Herzegovina, while section four analyzes education and economic development in B&H. Finally, the concluding remarks and recommendations for educational policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina are given in section five.

2. Literature review

Achieving high levels of development through improvement of living standards, education and health services, fighting poverty and inequality are most important common goals of all of today's leaders. Human resources or human capital are understood as inputs in this process, leading to increased productivity, and income. Increased income will also increase savings and further investments in production inputs, i.e., human capital. Today's conception of economic development gives to education a central role and believes that long-term and continuous investment in human capital has positive effects on economic and social development. Two ways of the economic contribution of education have been identified: directly through the improvement of current knowledge and the creation of new knowledge and skills leading to more efficient and effective transfer of knowledge from the educational system to the real economy and society as a whole and indirectly by reducing financial allocations for health, judiciary, social protection, etc. Education through direct contribution to economic development fulfills its economic function while through indirect contribution fulfills its social function.

Literature research has shown as that there are three most common approaches when analyzing education and its role in development process. The following table shows summary of all three with most important characteristics and key authors and/or institutions for each approach.

Table 1: Theoretical approaches in studying economic development and education with basic characteristics and key authors/institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Basic characteristics</th>
<th>Key authors/organizations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Human capital                   | - Importance of education, on the job training, health and adult education for productivity.  
                                | - Focus on individual decision for further investment in education. Individual decision depends on future income and current cost of education.  
                                |                                                                                        | Acemoglu (2009)                                                             |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Becker (1962;1990;1992)                             |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Mincer (1974)                                      |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Danison (1962)                                    |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Lucas (1988)                                      |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Nelson&P Phelps (1966)                            |
|                                 |                                                                                        | Romer (1990)                                      |
| Human development               | - People are considered as real wealth of nations.  
                                | - Enlarging people's choices and enhancing human capabilities and freedoms.  
                                | - Creating an environment in which individual can develop its potential, creativity, interests and needs. | Sen (1995;1998;1999)        |
|                                |                                                                                        | United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) publishes annually Human Development Reports (HDRs) with Human Development Indicators whose methodology for calculation is based on Amartya Sen's approach. First report was published in 1990. |
| Return on investment in education | - Based on measurement of the returns on investments and increased revenues and earnings.  
                                | - Investment in education as any other investments has its costs and benefits.            | Psacharopoulos (1973;1981)                        |
|                                |                                                                                        | Mincer (1973)                                    |
|                                |                                                                                        | McMahon (2002)                                   |
was considered as acquisition of wisdom, then later as the process of acquiring knowledge, while a dominant view today is that it is a process that has as an end result only the acquisition of diplomas. Precisely because of this thinking, the holders of these diplomas do not have the knowledge and skills that these diplomas imply. Another significant change is reflected in the core of the educational system. The dominant systems in developing countries is a learning system based on facts or facts learning system. This system does not allow the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies that are needed and required in the labor market. In contrast to this system, education in developed countries based learning methods to solve problems (problem solving approach) which enables learning through solving various problems, cases, simulations, etc. Finally, another important change in education is the introduction of the concept of lifelong learning through formal, nonformal and informal trends.

Today, education is measured by OECD's specially developed tests\(^1\) which are conducted on regular basis and therefore are comparative for countries were they are conducted. Besides OECD, UNESCO is another institution which plays and important role in promotion and measuring education through ISCED classification.

We can see from the above classification of theoretical approaches to role of education in economic development and from the understanding of education that it has changed in last decades, involving some very important international organisations and demanding in most of the cases an interdisciplinary approach. Analyzing domestic and regional literature we were not able to find and integrated approach used to analyze education and development in Bosnia and Herzegovina, making it an important motive for this research.

3. Educational policy and system of Bosnia and Herzegovina

The institutional structure of educational system in Bosnia and Herzegovina reflects the constitutional system of the country where the Ministry of civil affairs is in charge of educational policy at the state level. In essence, the duties of this ministry are very limited, and are concentrated in the institutions at the entity level, or the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (FB&H) at the cantonal level, while in the Republika Srpska (RS) to the level of the Ministry of education and culture. Education department in Brčko District is educational institution in this part of B&H. The other two separate institutions are: Agency for standards and evaluation of FB&H and RS and the Agency for Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Education.

In order to have educational policy as a function of economic policy, existence of long-term commitment to the cooperation of economy and education system is essential in this process. It is necessary to make projections, planning and continuous analysis of necessary personnel for achieving long-term economic development and prosperity. In development planning process all interest groups should be included. Unified, coordinated and harmonized education policy in Bosnia and Herzegovina is of economic importance for the country. Such policy should have in focus quality of knowledge instead of the current importance of formal education. The objectives of the educational policy of Bosnia and Herzegovina should be:

- improvement of curriculums by introducing modern methods of knowledge transfer, practical training, use of technology etc.,
- orientation of the education system to the real economy in order to coordinate supply and demand on the labour market, monitoring needs of the economy, defined development and strategic country goals and
- promotion of scientific research through the identification of sectors where it is necessary to stimulate and support research and development.

The modified policy would create preconditions for establishing a system that not only would transmit knowledge to students but create new knowledge leading to increased quality of knowledge. Further development and strengthening relations between economic policy and the education system should go in the direction of strengthening the four axes, namely:

- National development strategy,
- Roles of chambers of commerce and employers in the education system,
- Employment agencies and bureaus and
- Educational institutions.

\(^1\) PISA, AHELO, IEA and TIMSS are well-known international student's assessment tests. While all neighbouring countries have participated at least once in PISA test, B&H's participation in such tests is limited to TIMSS in 2007, making any comparative and critical analysis impossible.
When it comes to presenting results of such educational system, for the purpose of this research, overview of the system of Bosnia and Herzegovina is given using the defined objectives of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), achieved goals, then the current situation with the latest data available and the Millennium Development Goals for B&H. This data is given in following table.

Table 2: State of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage of education</th>
<th>Targets as in PRSP (2007)</th>
<th>Data achieved (2007)</th>
<th>2009 or latest available data</th>
<th>Targets as in MDGs</th>
<th>Progress towards 2015 targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary school net enrolment rate</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>98.4% (data from 2005/6)</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>Potentially/Likely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school enrolment rate</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>79.3% (data from 2005/6)</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>Potentially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education enrolment rate</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>34% (data from 2008)</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>Likely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP (2010)

Each of educational levels mentioned in table above faces certain challenges and problems making fulfillment of targets in 2015 and improvement in general hard to reach. These include the need to increase enrolment rates at all levels of education and stimulate cooperation between educational institutions and industry in the process of curriculum creation and enrollment policies which will suit the needs of local and/or regional economy (within Bosnia and Herzegovina). Representatives of educational institutions in the focus groups have stressed the need to simplify the institutional structure of education that would enable more efficient and effective funding pointing at the same time lack of awareness for training and applications to programs, projects and funds of the European Union that are currently available for Bosnia and Herzegovina. Another problem identified by the participants is disproportion between labour market and education. Taking into account that the highest unemployment rate is among the population with secondary vocational school certificate, participants have suggested the following: creation of of professional orientation system in primary educational institutions, stimulation of cooperation between secondary vocational schools and local business community as well as further development and harmonization of legislation related to adult education system in entire Bosnia and Herzegovina. Other problems that might possibly limit progress are issues concerned with the fact that secondary education is still not compulsory according to law, ongoing reforms in higher education, accreditation of higher education institutions etc.

The institutional framework of the educational system of Bosnia and Herzegovina is not completed. Institutions that are currently working due to limited resources and inefficient use of available financial and other resources are not guided by the principles of efficiency and effectiveness in its work. Role of education in development process in Bosnia and Herzegovina is not understood as strategic one.

Despite the legal and financial obstacles, some schools in B&H were able to achieve remarkable results in the process of cooperation with local employers, namely: Srednja turisticko-ugostiteljska škola Mostar; which has for its practical classes opened a restaurant and plans to open its own travel agency; Saobraćajna i elektro škola Doboj, which has participated with Republika Srpska railways in education of its workers; Mjesovita srednja škola Tesanj has so far cooperated with numerous domestic and international companies such as MANN HUMMEL BA dd and Ekonomska škola Bijeljina, which has been working with companies such as Bobar Bank and Spectar drink in the process of creating new curricula.
4. Economic development and education in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Effects and relations between economic development and education in Bosnia and Herzegovina have been analyzed through selected elements of competitiveness, human development and human capital. Human capital was analyzed using percentage of budget and GDP spent for education having in mind already proven higher returns on investments in human then in physical capital. Human development has been illustrated using Human Development Index (HDI), Education Index (EI), Income Index (II) and Life Expectancy Index (LEI), while competitiveness was anaalyzed using Global Competitiveness Index (GCI), innovations, higher education and training and brain drain. Competitiveness is understood as being able to exist and fight with competition on international (globalized) market and that is only possible if there is high degree of innovations and creation of new value which is at the end possible if there is high degree of investment in research and development and education in general.

Table 3 gives rankings of Slovenia, Montenegro, Croatia, FYR Macedonia, Albania, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina in three segments explained above.

Table 3: Economic development and education in selected countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Human capital investment % GDP</th>
<th>Human development HDI Rank</th>
<th>Human development EI Rank</th>
<th>Human development II Rank</th>
<th>Human development LEI Rank</th>
<th>Competitiveness GCI Rank</th>
<th>Competitiveness Inovations Rank</th>
<th>Competitiveness Higher education and training Rank</th>
<th>Competitiveness Brain drain Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FYR Macedonia</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;H</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Investment in education, World bank database, data from 2002-2008; Human development, UNDP database, data from 2010; WEF database, data from 2010

Based on ten different rankings from Table 3 Bosnia and Herzegovina is in six categories ranked at the last position. B&H has invested in education 4,3% GDP and 10,9% of total budget in 2004 according to last available data from the World Bank. However, having in mind that B&H's GDP is one of the lowest in the region, investments in this sector and not high enough.

HDI value for Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2010 amounts to 0.710, which positions the country at 68 place out of 169 countries. According to this value, Bosnia and Herzegovina is located below the regional, but above the world average value of HDI in Human Development Report. However, if we analyze percentage change in HDI rankings of selected countries during last five years, Bosnia and Herzegovina has improved its position by four places. Situation in competitiveness aspect is the worst amongst the group of selected countries, ranking Bosnia and Herzegovina at the last position in segment of brain drain, higher education and training and GCI while in segment of inovations Albania is at the last position.
If GDP pc or in our analysis Income index rose there would be improvement in human development, living standards and health services, which would lead to an increase in life expectancy, represented by Life expectancy index in Table 3. Increase in worker’s productivity caused by improvements in educational quality and quantity\(^3\) is only factor which would influence income per capita. Bosnia and Herzegovina should seriously approach to process of decision – making in education considering high economic importance of this sector. Regardless the level of GDP pc loss of human development can occur due to inappropriate policies and/or economic policy, inefficient use and allocation of available resources. This has been pointed out in section were institutional structure and educational system of Bosnia and Herzegovina has been elaborated.

Bosnia and Herzegovina is currently in the efficiency-driven stage of competitiveness where the most important role is played by higher education, namely: quantity and quality of education and on the job training. Of these three elements, only in the segment of quantity of education, Bosnia and Herzegovina does not have the lowest rank in the group of neighboring countries. According to the WEF, quality of education and training is the limiting factor of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s competitiveness. Innovations that are closely associated with the educational system on one hand and the economy on the other hand, are poorly rated by the WEF. The real economy is not able to respond to market needs since the creation of new knowledge does not occur or it is very limited. At the other side, it is hard to talk about innovations in case where higher or tertiary education has only 10.8% of the population\(^4\), which is below the average of new EU member states, two times less than the percentage in the EU15 and approximately 19% less than new EU\(^5\) member states (ETF, 2007). Number of patent applications by residents in the period from 2004 - 2008 was the largest in Serbia and the lowest in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Number of patents applications can be considered as the most important outcome of the educational system of the country and the one that directly affects real economy. Incompetence and inability to innovate and create new knowledge is what leads to errors in the market system in the context that there is no increase in demand for exports abroad and production in general, leading to increase in unemployment. Export incapacity or the structure of exports is an indicator of lack of knowledge, skills, competencies as a result of insufficient quality of the education system, slows the development of the country. This is especially valid in case of Bosnia and Herzegovina since its exports are mostly based on raw materials and materials used in further production. Market failures in education can be solved by additional investment in adult education and lifelong learning, because in this way at least partially the problem of disparity between supply and demand for labor would be solved.

5. Conclusion

It is hard to view educational system in Bosnia and Herzegovina outside the political context and as a result of this situation, education system pays the price of the current constitutional order of the country. The complex structure of institutions and authority, lack of coordination of activities, lack of strong state structures, a high degree of decentralization are some of the most important shortcomings of the educational system of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Theoretical background of the research was presented using three important approaches: human capital, human development approach and the theoretical analysis of investment in education through the costs, benefits and returns on investment. In the theoretical part we have identified human capital as one of the basic and most important inputs into the development process, which if is invested in a proper manner leads to productivity growth and higher levels of development. Primary research was conducted through group and individual structured interviews while secondary research relates to the use of secondary data sources including databases of the, UNDP, World Bank, WEF and other relevant database. Besides the interview method the following methods were used: method of analysis, synthesis, comparison, induction and deduction.

Linking secondary vocational schools and local employers is a good example of cooperation in the economic development function. Through our research we have identified adult education and secondary vocational education as segments that could contribute more to economic development in the future. Improving relations between economic policy and education should have in focus: national development strategy; roles of chambers of commerce and employers in the education system; employment agencies and bureaus and educational institutions. Quality of education,

---

\(^3\) According to Mincer, income per capita can increase by 5% with each additional year of schooling.

\(^4\) In 1997 around 11.9% of population in Croatia had degree in higher education.

\(^5\) Ten countries from 2004 enlargement are in this case considered as new member states.
lack of mechanisms for control and quality management makes education difficult to measure and evaluate. The modified policy would create preconditions for establishing a system that would not only transmit knowledge to students but create new knowledge leading to increased quality of knowledge.

6. Recommendations for education policy

Based on the conducted research we suggest the following specific recommendations for policy makers:

1. Continue the reform process at all levels of education, especially in secondary vocational education due to the large percentage of unemployed with secondary education. Also, secondary education should be compulsory.

2. Entire educational system should be more flexible and able to adjust to labour market. In that context: (1) partnership between education institutions and private sector should be stimulated at all levels. This would be very useful in process of curriculum creation; (2) keep a coherent labor market policy and education which would enable greater coherence and coordination of labour supply and demand.

3. Strengthening the educational structure at the state level that would be responsible to the Council of Ministers of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This is especially true for higher education with regard to the importance of this level of education which still requires the strengthening of institutions for quality control, certification and monitoring performance.

4. Increase investments in education because current investment in education are not sufficient to reach the development level of countries of the region.

5. Strengthening the institutional and legal framework for lifelong learning as a function of economic development and integration into the European educational space.

The education system as such is a "set of different systems" in context that the economic and social development of the country bears the cost of knowledge that does not suit the needs of the labor market and cost of young educated people leaving the country. It is necessary to have single education policy which will be adjusted to the needs of economic policy ie. strategic development needs taking into account that countries, especially at higher levels of development are competing with knowledge and human capital.

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**Interviews**

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Retaining the Next Generation in Northwest Ohio

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Abstract This study analyzes the trends and issues related to the retention of young adults in Northwest Ohio. Researchers sampled over 340 young adults (25-34 years of age) from 8 counties in Northwest Ohio. Results highlight rural community perceptions of young adults as well as those factors that impact the decision to remain in Rural Northwest Ohio. Respondents report generally favorable impressions of the area with emphasis on the quality of schools, community safety, and affordability of the area. Overall lower ratings were revealed on components related to cultural, entertainment, and employment opportunities in the area. Respondents with higher incomes and those with stronger Northwest Ohio roots, i.e., who were themselves raised in Northwest Ohio along with their parents, were more likely to feel positively about Northwest Ohio’s economic outlook and the community’s strength. In addition, the higher the respondent’s education, the more likely they were to react positively regarding the community’s strength/safety.

Theoretical Base

The out-migration of youth from rural areas is an issue predominantly driven by economic factors. Rural adolescents, more frequently than their urban or suburban counterparts, are more likely to experience the conflict of choice between the desire to live close to family and the necessity of moving away to achieve success. Youth who choose to place a predominant weight on the desire to remain close to home in their future career choice are more likely to feel limited and are more likely to have lower career aspirations (Hektner, 1995). A study of Pennsylvania youth found that youth who planned to stay were motivated to do so because of family and the culture in the rural area, the connection to family being very strong in these young people. Those planning to leave their home-based rural setting were deciding to leave based on better employment opportunities (Ferry, 2003a). A study of youth in a rural California community found that educational systems (schools, organizations, community organizations) tend to encourage the best and brightest to pursue opportunities outside of their home community, leading to a “brain drain” (Sherman, J. & Sage, R, 2011).
A study analyzing the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth round that rural youth aspiring to professional and managerial occupations are more likely to be rural out-migrants at age 35 than are youth aspiring to blue collar occupations (Brooks, et. al, 2010). Those individuals who are not as rooted in their rural community (first generation residents) are less likely to remain in rural locations. Individuals who have longer residency tend to make stronger ties and attachments to these rural areas resulting in a higher likelihood of remaining or returning to their rural community (Wilson, et. al, 2010). Analyzing US Census data, about three-quarters of young, single, and college-educated adults reported moving between 1995 and 2000 (Wilson, et. al, 2010). There is a tendency, particularly in rural areas, for large number of youth to seek educational opportunities outside of their home community, particularly those with weaker family and community ties.

This long-term tendency of young people leaving rural areas seeking the educational, occupational, and social aspects of the more urban areas has led to population problem in some rural areas. Rural areas, for many years, were able to replace the high levels of young adults out-migrating because of their comparably higher birth rate. Now families in rural areas are smaller, with an increasing number of areas recognizing a net decline in population (Johnson, 2006). This protracted outflow of young adults from so many rural counties diminishes the available human capital of the area, draining the prospects for future economic development and reducing the resources available to staff the many social and civic organizations that form the social foundation of many rural communities (Johnson, et. al, 2005).

Although there is a well-known challenge in finding suitable employment opportunities in rural areas, it isn't a one-variable decision. The residency choice is impacted by marriage and family status as individuals returning to rural small communities reporting that they accept career sacrifices to raise their children in a familiar small town close to relatives and friends (von Reichert, C, Cromartie, J & Arthur, R., 2011).

Career development and occupational choice are important decisions for older youth. Of all of its potential determinants in out-migration, no set of factors appear to be more important than those associated with career formation (Franklin, 2003). Not only do occupations provide a means to support individuals and families, but they also provide meaning and purpose in life for many. The employment decision plays a major factor in the residency choice of young people. The context of the school and community culture has a significant impact on youth occupational choice (Ferry, 2003a). A study of Pennsylvania graduating high school youth found that parents and family members had the biggest influence on youth occupation choice. Closely following parents in terms of influence was the young person's evaluation of their own personal skills, aptitudes, and academic efficacy. Other influences included part-time or volunteer work experience, teachers and school projects (Ferry, 2003b). It is also suggested by Ferry (2003b) that the key to changing youth perceptions about potential careers will be to provide parents, schools, and communities the tools to communicate positive opportunities about local employment.

A study of Rural West Virginia High School Students (Chenowith and Galliher, 2004) found that family and peer influence are significantly strong predictors of college aspirations for male youth, while individual academic preparation and external barriers (such as economic issues) having stronger influence on female decisions to seek post-secondary education. This same study found that youth whose parents either had a college education themselves or whose parents worked in professional fields were more likely to plan to attend college and see it as an available opportunity for them. Providing youth to a variety of careers in a realistic manner will be essential to broadening options and opportunities for youth. Adolescents commonly select career options from those they readily understand and can see. The diversity of career options presented to rural youth can be particularly limited in some areas.

Students in a Pennsylvania study of high school graduates reported “money” or financial means to attend school or training” as the number one barrier to achieving their occupational goal (Ferry, 2003b). Rural youth tended to have lower educational and career aspirations than their urban counterparts. Major contributors include lower socio-economic status of rural families and the limited scope of available opportunities presented to rural youth (Haller and Virkler, 1993). A research projected by the Center for Rural Entrepreneurism surveyed over 6,000 young adults in 39 counties of Nebraska, Missouri, and Kansas. Respondents indicated that youth are rarely sought out for their feedback on their rural communities, with 72% indicating that they were never asked their views about making their rural communities more attractive for young people (Dabson, Schroeder & Markley, 2010). These researchers also found that family ties and the feeling that these rural communities were good places to raise a family were strong influencers on the desire of young people to remain or return to rural locales. A study conducted in Northwest Ohio of 875 young adults from 16 schools found similar results with youth finding their rural communities to be “Safe Place to Live” and “Good Area to Raise a Family” (Homan, Hedrick & Dick, 2010). The influence of extended family ties in the rural location was found to be a strong predictor of rural retention in this same study with young adults whose parents were originally from these rural communities more likely to return or remain there themselves.
Population projections provided by the Ohio Department of Development indicate a long-term overall population growth in the State of Ohio (from 1990 to 2030) with anticipated overall growth rate of 13.6%. With eight sample counties in this study, only two of the selected counties were projected to have overall population growth rates above the state average: Auglaize County (16.8%) and Mercer County (16.5%). Four of the sample counties were projected to have modest growth rates including: Putnam (6.6%), Hardin (5.5%), Williams (4.2%), and Henry (3.4%). Two of the sample counties were projected to lose a measurable amount of their population, Paulding (-7.8%) and Van Wert (-7.5%).

Table 1. Population Change 1990-2030 (Projected)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auglaize</td>
<td>44,585</td>
<td>45,949</td>
<td>52,060</td>
<td>+16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardin</td>
<td>31,111</td>
<td>32,058</td>
<td>32,830</td>
<td>+5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry</td>
<td>29,108</td>
<td>28,215</td>
<td>30,110</td>
<td>+3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercer</td>
<td>39,443</td>
<td>40,814</td>
<td>45,960</td>
<td>+16.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paulding</td>
<td>20,488</td>
<td>19,614</td>
<td>18,880</td>
<td>-7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putnam</td>
<td>33,819</td>
<td>34,499</td>
<td>36,060</td>
<td>+6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Wert</td>
<td>30,464</td>
<td>28,744</td>
<td>28,190</td>
<td>-7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams</td>
<td>36,956</td>
<td>37,642</td>
<td>38,490</td>
<td>+4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State-Wide</td>
<td>10,847,115</td>
<td>11,536,504</td>
<td>12,317,610</td>
<td>+13.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ohio Department of Development

The objectives of this research study were to analyze the overall community perceptions held by young adults (25-34) in rural Northwest Ohio as well as impacts on their decision to return to or remain in these rural communities.

Specific components included:
- How do young people (25-34 years of age) feel about their home community as it relates to their workforce and personal lifestyle needs?
- How do parents impact the decision to retain or return to rural communities in Northwest Ohio?
- What factors influence overall impression of their rural community and likelihood to remain in that location?

Methods

This descriptive and correlation study was conducted in spring of 2011 to assess community satisfaction and impacts on the decision to remain or return to Northwestern Ohio. Eight counties were selected: Auglaize, Hardin, Henry, Mercer, Paulding, Putnam, Van Wert, and Williams. Complete lists of registered voters (25-34) were secured from each County Board of Election. After receiving approval from Ohio State University Human Subjects Review, a random sample of 3,800 registered voters within our sample age range were selected. Invitations were mailed to those selected amongst our mailing list asking for their participation on a web-based survey. Complete usable surveys were submitted by 343 participants. Anonymity and confidentiality of participants and their individual responses were maintained throughout the project.

Results

All respondents are between the ages of 25 and 34 years. For the most part, the number of respondents for each year are consistent, except for 25 years old (6.7 percent) and 28 and 33 years old (12.6 and 12.0 percent, respectively). 48.2 percent of respondents are under 30 years old and 52.8 percent are 30 or older.

A larger percentage of respondents were female, with 59.2% (n=197) being female and 40.8% (n=136) male. 71.6% (n=245) of respondents were married, 24% (n=82) were never married, and 4.4% (n=15) were either divorced or separated.

Respondents were asked about the number of children under the age of 18 living with them in the home. 34.3% (n=116) of respondents have no children, and another 47% (n=159) have one or two children. The remaining 18.7% (n=63) have more than two children living with them.
Table 2 indicates greater variation among the responses by county of residence. Auglaize County, which has the largest population of this group (45,949 in 2010), attracted one of the smallest number of responses. Paulding, the smallest county (19,614), attracted about the same number of responses as Auglaize County did.

Table 2. Respondent by County of Residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auglaize</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardin</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercer</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paulding</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putnam</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Wert</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vast majority of respondents were not only raised in their county of residence (88.4%), most of their mothers (74.9%) and fathers (80.6%) were as well (Table 3). Residents in these rural Northwest Ohio counties tend to remain rooted for generations.

Table 3. Self and Family Reared in Northwest Ohio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Mother</th>
<th>Father</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>88.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of Education

A large proportion of this respondent group is well-educated; nearly 50 percent of the respondents had a Bachelor’s Degree or higher (Table 4). This is not surprising, given that respondents had to use a computer to complete the survey, and higher-educated people are more likely to have access to a computer.

Table 4. Educational Level of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Education Level</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did Not Complete High School</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School/GED</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associates Degree/2-year Degree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree (Masters, Ph.D. Etc.)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This average household income of this sample is very similar to the United State average. According to the US Census, the median household income in 2009 was $49,777. The median earnings for our respondents is between $50,000 and $59,000 (Table 5).
Table 5. Household Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household Income</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$0-$19,999</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000-$39,999</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,000-$59,999</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60,000-$79,999</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$80,000-$99,999</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100,000 or more</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>325</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Job Satisfaction

More than half (61.4 percent) of the respondents were very or extremely satisfied with their jobs. Nearly another third (32.4 percent) are in the middle tier of satisfaction (Table 6). Only 6.1 percent are not satisfied with their jobs.

Table 6. Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>308</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likert-Based Ranking (1=Extremely Dissatisfied, 6=Extremely Satisfied)

Parental Influence on Living in Northwest Ohio

More than 75 percent of the respondents answered that their parents have a strong or moderate amount of influence in keeping them in Northwest Ohio (Table 7).

Table 7. Influence of Parents to Remain in Northwest Ohio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence Level (1-6)</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong Influence (5-6)</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>44.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Influence (3-4)</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little Influence (1-2)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>344</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When separated by gender, we found that women feel significantly more obligated to remain in the same area as their parents (mean for women = 4.06; mean for men = 3.65). (Table 8).

Table 8. Influence of Parents based on Gender to Remain in Northwest Ohio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean Influence Rating (1-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were given the opportunity to provide additional comments after asked about their parents’ influence. Some of the comments indicate that family and work are intertwined:

- “I work on my father’s farm”
- “Now operating third generation family business.”
- “I work with my parents.”
• “My parents own and farm the land I work on.”
• “(My husband) has a good job. If not, we would move.”

Others admit that they wanted to remain close to family members and friends:

• “My friends and family were a big part”
• “They supported our decision to live anywhere, but we wanted to be close.”
• “Most of my family has lived here; I love it here.”
• “If my family was not located in NW Ohio, I do not think I would have chosen to live here.”
• “Spouse would prefer to move outside of the area. However, both she and I work near this area as well as most of our family resides in the area so for now we have chosen to stay.”
• “My father-in-law is getting older, so moving away from him would be hard for my husband. But he would not keep us here if we wanted to go.”

Others mentioned different reasons for remaining in Northwest Ohio:

• “Born and raised here…guess I don’t know any different.”
• “I like the small community I live in. Did not want to move to a city.”
• “Moved away for several years, but moved back because of job position, not because of family.”
• “I’m only living with my parents here because I got laid off from my job in Philadelphia.”
• “(My husband) has no desire to leave the area. He loves not having too many neighbors, the cost of living, and he likes living where he grew up. I can’t wait to get to a real city, with real attractions again.”

Respondents with children are even more likely to say that their parents are highly influential in their decision to stay in Northwest Ohio. In fact, respondents with children are significantly more likely to cite parents as a strong influence. Some respondents wrote:

• “Wanted to stay close to home while raising our kids.”
• “I enjoyed my upbringing and wanted to provide my children with the same type of environment.”
• “They don’t pressure us into staying in the area…We want our children to know their grandparents.”

The researchers asked respondents to rate their rural community based on a number of variables assessing quality of life factors ranging from safety to educational and social activities (Table 9). Those variables receiving the highest ratings included: “Safe Place to Live”, “Good Place to Raise a Family”, and “Affordable Cost of Living.” Those variables receiving the lowest ratings were: “Good Income Potential”, “Enough Employment Opportunities”, “Interesting and Fun Activities” and “Enough Cultural Activities.”

Table 9. Perceptions of Northwest Ohio Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Safe Place to Live</td>
<td>5.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Place to Raise a Family</td>
<td>4.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable Cost of Living</td>
<td>4.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Schools</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People Share my Beliefs and Values</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Good Place to Further my Education</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is Positive Growth in my Area</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough Recreational Activities</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Income Potential</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting and Fun Activities</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough Employment Opportunities</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough Cultural Activities</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likert-Based Scale (1=Strongly Disagree and 6=Strongly Agree)
The researchers ran a comparison of the individual community perception variables to explore county-by-county differences (Table 10). On most rating questions, those counties that are projected to have the most positive population growth are the counties whose mean ratings were highest. According to Ohio Department of Development population analysis (1990-2030), Auglaize and Mercer County were projected to each see at least 16.5% growth. These counties had the overall highest ratings on 6 of the 12 individual components evaluated. Respondents rated these counties highest in the perceived “Income potential in the area”, “Fun activities in the area”, “Shared Values”, “Positive Growth”, “Employment Opportunity” and “Recreation Activities.” Two sample counties (Van Wert and Paulding) are projected to have long-term population losses between 1990 and 2030 of 7.5% and 7.8% respectively. These two counties had the overall lowest ratings on 4 of the 12 rating variables including: “Income potential in the area”, “Fun activities in the area”, “Positive Growth”, and “Opportunity to further my education in the area.” The three counties with the lowest unemployment rate (Ohio Department of Jobs & Family Services) were also the counties that reported the highest community perception ratings by the young adults sampled.

Table 10. Individual Ratings by County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Auglaize</th>
<th>Mercer</th>
<th>Putnam</th>
<th>Hardin</th>
<th>Williams</th>
<th>Henry</th>
<th>Van Wert</th>
<th>Paulding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income Potential</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable Cost of Living</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun Activities</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good for Family</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe to Live</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Schools</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Activities</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared Values</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Growth</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Opportunity</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation Activities</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Education Options</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population 1990-2030</td>
<td>+16.8%</td>
<td>+16.5%</td>
<td>+6.6%</td>
<td>+5.5%</td>
<td>+4.2%</td>
<td>+3.5%</td>
<td>-7.5%</td>
<td>-7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Dec 2011</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likert-Based Scale (1=Strongly Disagree and 6=Strongly Agree)

Conclusions

Northwest Ohio, similar to other rural areas in the United States continues to deal with retaining youth in their communities. Northwest Ohio Counties, as a region, are not competing as favorably as other more metropolitan areas of the state.

When analyzing the impressions that young adults (25-34) have regarding Northwest Ohio, the results indicate an overall positive evaluation. Young adults report Northwest Ohio as a “safe place to live”, “a good place to raise a family”, that there is an “affordable cost of living” and that there are “quality schools.” However, it seems this is not the catalyst for keeping younger generations planted in our rural areas. Young adults did reveal that there were challenges in living in rural Northwest Ohio. Among the greatest challenges were the perceptions of limited “income potential and employment opportunities”, as well as a lack of “entertainment and cultural activities.”

Generally, young adults indicate encouragement from their parents to remain in Northwest Ohio. Those students whose parents were originally from Northwest Ohio reported a higher level of interest in living in the area and indicated more positive evaluations of their home community. The families that are located in Northwest Ohio tend to be deeply rooted with a strong desire reported by these young people to want to stay here if the employment opportunities are available for them.

Northwest Ohio has a strong foundation of stable families, strong communities, quality schools, and a reputation as a great place to live and raise a family. However, population trends reveal some challenges regarding the inability of the area to retain youth. A number of recommendations should be considered to further position Northwest Ohio to retain the next generation of working young people. Central to the issue of retaining youth in Northwest Ohio is employment opportunity for the next generation and the preparation for this group to match the future job needs of the area. The researchers suggest an analysis of the advising and preparation of high school students as they make choices in their
future educational and career goals. These youth need to be aware of what future employment opportunities might look like. Career exploration, mentoring, young professional speakers, etc. can strengthen the link between community employers and their potential workforce. Internships, job shadowing, tours, and other methods of showcasing a realistic view of local employment opportunities will enable youth to make an educated knowledgeable decision on career goals.

To encourage talented youth to remain in Northwest Ohio, they have to be able to see viable professional career options from a realistic perspective.

Community partnerships with post-secondary schools linking students with working professionals should continue beyond the high school setting as youth pursue college training. Some organizations and communities have been successful building linkages with students in the form of internships, coops, and work study arrangements. As organizations consider their financial support of students traditionally given in the form of scholarship grants, they may want to consider formalizing the relationship in terms of a paid part-time or summer position, or asking for a return of investment with a certain amount of community service hours in the home community. A number of medical organizations in the Northwest Ohio area have been proactive in this arena providing paid internship experiences to talented college students to build a relationship and encourage their eventual employment in the area.

It is also evident that young people continue to voice frustration with limited entertainment and cultural activities in the area. Community planning should continue to listen to these voices as they plan future development to not only meet current residents, but also strive to retain and attract the next generation.

References


Sexual Crime Among Married Couples in Yoruba Ethnic Group of Nigeria

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Abstract This study investigates the extent and trend of sexual crime among married couples in Yoruba ethnic group of Nigeria. Descriptive research descriptive research design was used. The population consist all married couples in the South West geopolitical zone of Nigeria, the domain of the Yoruba ethnic group. A sample of 500 married couples was drawn using multistage sampling technique. Data were collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The research instrument for the quantitative data was a questionnaire and both FGD and IDI were used for the qualitative data. Frequency distribution and chi-square were employed in the analysis of the quantitative data while the quantitative data were analyzed using content analysis and ethnographic summaries. The findings of the study reveal that sexual crime perpetrated by a partner is common but not punishable under Nigeria law, for reasons alluded to in the study. It is therefore recommended that victims of sexual crimes need be educated on bodily and human right.

Introduction

Man, having chosen his sphere and centered his interests, remains comparatively indifferent to woman's dilemma. The co-ordination, therefore, between woman and her life activities must be made by the woman herself [Scott and Nellie Nearing, 1914]

Sexual acts which are prohibited by laws in a jurisdiction are also called sex crimes. In general the law prescribes acts which are considered either sexual abuse or behavior that societies consider to be inappropriate and against the social norms. In addition, certain categories of activity may be considered as criminal even if freely consented to, sexual laws vary from place to place, while some sexual behaviors are accepted as normative in some societies, the same may be criminalized in others. Sexual violations are therefore, forms of human sexual behavior that are crimes. Someone who commits grievous sexual offence is said to be a sex offender, some sex crimes are violent, and others are violation of social taboos, such as incest, sodomy, indecent exposure or exhibitions. There is much variations among creatures as to what is considered a crime or not, and in what ways or to what extent crimes are punished. Western cultures are often far more tolerant of acts, such as oral sex. In sub Saharan Africa the act is seen as amoral, condemned and abhorred.

The list of common sex crimes include, rape, lust, murder and spousal rape, obscenity, frotteurism (sexual arousal through rubbing oneself against a non consenting stranger in public), exhibitionism and voyeurism, if deliberate and non consensual is called “indecent exposure “peeping tom,” incest between close relatives, telephone scatologia (making obscene telephone calls for the purpose of sexual arousal), sex with animal (sodomy), sexual harassment, prostitution, sexual fetishes etc. are all some of the forms of sexual crimes that we have in Nigeria like any other human society.

A variety of laws exists to protect against rape or marital rape among married couples in modern society. Marital rape is also known as spousal rape; it is a non-consensual sex in which the perpetrator is victim’s spouse. As such, it is a form of domestic violence or sexual abuse. Once widely condoned or ignored by law, spousal rape is now being repudiated by international conventions and increasingly criminalized. Still, in many countries such as Nigeria, spousal rape either remains legal, or illegal but widely tolerated and accepted as husband’s prerogative.

In 2006, it was estimated that marital rape could be prosecuted in at least 104 countries (in four of these countries, marital rape could be prosecuted only when the spouses are judicially separated) and since 2006 several other countries have outlawed spousal rape. In many countries, it is not clear if marital rape may or may not be prosecuted under ordinary rape laws. Several countries in Eastern Europe and Scandinavia made spousal rape illegal before 1970, but
other countries in Western Europe and the English speaking world outlawed it much later mostly in the 1980s and 1990s. Most developing countries outlawed it in the 1990s and 2000s.

Research literature, particularly in the areas of incidence and effect of sexual crimes may extend the use of the term spousal/marital rape to include divorced or illegally separated ex-spouses or unmarried cohabiting partners, current state law, however, often treat rape by ex-spouses or intimate partners as different.

This can be seen in the common law in force in North America and the British Commonwealth where the very concept of marital rape was treated as near impossibility. This was illustrated most vividly by Sir Matthew Hale, in his 1736 legal treatise. Historia plactorum coronal or History of the pleas of the crown, where he wrote that such a rape could not be recognized since the wife “hath given up herself in this land into her husband, whom she cannot react”. Hale’s statement in history of the pleas of the crown was not supported by an Judicial authority but was believed to be a logical consequence of the law of marriage and rape as understood at the time.

Marriage gave conjugal rights to a spouse, and marriage could not be revoked except by private Act of parliament. It therefore seemed to follow that a spouse could not legally revoke consent to sexual intercourse, and if there was consent there was no rape.

The principle was repeated in east’s treatise of the crown in 1803 and in Arbold’s pleading and evidence in criminal cases in 1822, but it was not until RU Clarence (1888) 22 QBD 23 that the question of the exemption first arose in English courtroom. Clarence was determined on a different point and there was no clear agreement between the nine judges regarding the status of the rule.

From the beginnings of the 19th century women’s movement activist challenged the presumed right of men to engage in forced sex with their wives. In the United States, “the nineteenth- century women’s rights movement fought against a husband’s right to control marital intercourse in a campaign that was remarkably developed, prolific, and insistent, given nineteen-century taboos against the public mention of sex or sexuality.

Suffragists including Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucy Stone “singly out a woman’s right to control marital intercourse as the core component of equality. Nineteenth century feminist demands centered on the right of women to control their bodies and fertility, positioned consent in marital sexual relations as an alternative to contraception and abortion (which many opposed), and also embraced eugenic concerns about recessive procreation. British liberal feminists John Stuart Mill and Starriet Taylor attacked marital rape as a gross double standard in law and as central to the subordination of women.

Advocates of free love include early and arch-feminists such as Volatairine de Olegre and Emma Goldman, as well as Victoria Woodhul Thomas low Nicholas and Marys. Gove Nicholas, joined a critique of marital rape and advocacy for women autonomy, and sexual pleasure. Moses Aarman, a Kansas-based publisher and advocate for women right, was jailed twice under the construct laws for publishing articles by a woman who was victimized and a doctor who treated marital rape. De-Cleyre defended Herman in a well-known article “sexual slavery”. She refused to draw any distinction between rape outside of, and within marriage; and it is rape where a man forces himself sexually upon a woman whether he is allowed by the marriage law or not. Marital rape is criminalized only if the couple is legally separated otherwise it is known not to be criminalized.

As the concept of human rights has developed, the belief of a marital right to sexual intercourse has become less widely held. Feminist worked systematically since the 1960s to overrun the marital rape exemption and criminalized marital rape. Increasing criminalization of spousal rape is part of a world wide reclassification of sexual crimes “from offenses against morality, the family, good customs, honor or chastity...to offenses against liberty, self-determination or physical integrity. In December 1992, the United Nation High Commissioner for human right published the declaration on the elimination of violence against women. Despite these trends and international move, criminalization has not occurred in all member states in 1997. UNICEF reported that just 17 states criminalized marital rape. In 2003 UNIFEN reported that more than 50 states did so. In 2006 the UN Secretary General found out that marital rape may be prosecuted in at least 104 states, of these, 52 have made marital rape illegal from general rape provisions. Four states criminalized marital rape only when the spouses are judicially separated. Countries which were early to criminalize marital rape include the Soviet Union (1922/1960), Poland (1932) Czechoslovakia (1950), Denmark (1960), Sweden (1963), Norway (1971) and some other members of the communist bloc. The Israel Supreme Court affirmed marital rape as crime in a 1980 based on the Talmud (book of Jewish law).

Experiences of forced sexual relations, often perpetrated by an intimate partner, have been increasingly documented over the last decade. An analysis of over fifty population - based surveys revealed, for example that between 10 and 50 percent adult women globally reported having been physically assaulted by an intimate male partner, including husbands, at some points in their lives, sexual abuse are also experienced (Heise, 1999).

The World Report on Violence and Health has defined sexual violence as any act or attempt to obtain a sexual act,
unwanted sexual comments or advances or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed against a person’s sexuality using coercion by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim (King et al. 2002). Others have defined coerced sex to include “more contested that require young women to marry and sexually service men not of their choosing (Heise et al., 2002), clearly any sexual act which the woman herself is unwilling and which she cannot refuse without suffering adverse social and physical consequences is coercive, even if the perpetrator is the victim’s husband.

The perpetration of forced sex against women by their husbands or intimate partners is reinforced by unbalanced gender norms that associate masculinity with toughness and dominance, and femininity with submissiveness. Evidence suggests that traditional gender norms are indeed deeply entrenched and offer married women little room to express their sexual right. At the same time, norms that expect women not to display interest in sex and even resist “wanted sexual advances offer husbands a justification for ignoring their wives preferences. Even when a woman says no to sex a man may believe the woman is playing hard to get. A woman who says no to sex may mean she actually wants sex.”

Lack of Social and Legal Support

The social and economic dependence of married women, especially young married women on men and lack of alternative support system that may compromise their ability to regulate sex, prevent forced sex or take recourse in such situation could prevent women from refusal of forced sex. Young women are told prior to marriage that it is only if they comply and provide sex whenever a man wants will they have adequate care, protection and security. In the absence of any other alternative support systems, women will passively accept or acquiesce to nonconsensual or unwanted sexual relations as a means of survival.

The absence of perceived alternative may inhibit women from even reporting forced sexual experience. Access to legal support is also denied to women suffering forced sex in marriage. Great diversity exists across developing countries in terms of the socio-cultural context and legal frame work within which marriage partnership occur, which may influence the risk of non-consensual sex among husband and wife. In different ways in many social settings women have fewer rights than men, and even within marriage they may have limited rights either as a meter of law or practice. For example, not all countries have legislation that gives women the right to refuse a forced marriage, recognize and penalize marital rape. In some countries marital rapes are not recognized as an offence if the woman is over 15 years of age and generally if penile penetration has not occurred. Unequal gender norms condoned the perpetration; young women are socialized to believe that it is their moral duty and obligation to accept the sexual advances of their husbands, even when they are forced Basile (2002). Inability to negotiate with sexual invaders and the lack of skills to negotiate are obvious risk factors on non-consensual sex. Boys cited inability to approach girls as reasons for committing rape while men may belief the woman is playing hard to get. A woman who says no to sex may mean she actually wants sex.”

Statement of the problem

Sexual crime among intimate partners varies by regions and can reach as high as 25% of the women been subjected to forced sex. In Nigeria, forced sex or marital rape, often occurs with other forms of domestic violence, particularly physical abuse. Sexual crimes are sexual acts or forms of sexual behavior which are prohibited by laws in a jurisdiction. A recent study by Akanle (2008) among the Yoruba ethnic groups reported that sexual violence in the South West among intimate partners amount to between 12-45.5%. Despite the fact that violence against women has become a daily occurrence both in the public and private spheres, violence against women in intimate relationship have received very little attention. With the silence engulfing it’s been used as a weapon in further perpetrating the act attempt is been made by government, non-government organizations to address the powerful cultural traditional and religious forces that have hitherto hindered the elimination of sexual crime. However, these programs may be hampered if the incidence, extent and the trend of sexual crime is not known and if the offence remained un-reprimanded under the law. To be able to really understand the issues surrounding sexual crime there is a need to investigate in to the people’s opinion concerning sexual crime. To be able to do justice to this study, the following general questions are raised.

1.) What is the extent, trend and prevalence of sexual crime among married couples?
2.) Is sexual crime a punishable offence in Nigeria or is marital rape criminalized in Nigeria?
3.) Are there policies in Nigeria against sexual crime?
4.) Do people report cases of sexual crime and how often do they do it?
5.) What are the sexual crimes in the community?

Methodology

Descriptive research design was used for the study. The population consists of all married couples in the south west geopolitical zone of Nigeria. The Yoruba people are about 20-25 million people who reside in Lagos, Ondo, Ogun, Oyo, Ekiti, Osun states of the south west zone.

A sample of 500 married couples was drawn using a multi stage sampling technique. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to gather the data. The research instrument for the qualitative data was questionnaire while Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and In-depth interview (IDI) was conducted for the qualitative data. In order to find out issues with sexual crime the respondents were asked whether they know of sexual crime, how often they hear of sexual crime in the society, if they have personally experienced sexual crime, whether sex without consent should be punished, if there are policies in Nigeria against sexual crime, whether people report cases of sexual crimes in their society and how often, if they report, to whom do they report to? In addition they were asked if they believe sexual violence should be reported to the police and what are some of the sexual crimes in their community?

Frequency distribution and chi-square were employed in the analysis of quantitative data while the qualitative data were analyzed using content analysis and ethnographic summaries.

Result

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Background of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY (500)</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>AGE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 years</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-35 years</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 years above</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SEX</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious education</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-primary</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INCOME</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below N20,000</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N21,000-N35,000</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N36,000-N50,000</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N51,000 above</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MARITAL STATUS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic variables of the respondents, people who are age 24-35 (75.4%) are more in
number than the rest this indicate the level of maturity of the respondents and the expected capability to answer questions on sexual crimes based on their marital experiences over the years. Even though equal number of male and female respondents were targeted but the female respondents are a little more than half of the total number of respondents, this might be due to the refusal of men to get involved in what some of them called mundane and petty things in the focus group discussion [FGD] organized with them. Majority of the respondents [76%] are educated but 47.5% have religious and primary education, while 38.5% have secondary and tertiary education respectively. It is then not unlikely that their perception of sexual crime among married couples in their society will be greatly affected by their level of education, the more educated the people are the greater the level of their awareness about sexual crime as shown in the table 2.

Table 2: Cross Tabulation of Education and Perception of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception About women right</th>
<th>Educational Attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It should be rejected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>21(30.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>14(20.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>14(20.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21(30.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54(81.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21(38.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(17.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>143(28.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Religious education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45(28.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>85(56.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21(38.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(17.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14(20.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9(13.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>143(28.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39(20.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70(45.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(18.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(35.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>108(21.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16(29.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20(32.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21(38.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(10.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>118(23.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(35.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(35.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(17.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(10.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(35.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>118(23.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 131(26.2%)

X²= 20.12                                                                                     Df=12      p-value = 0.00

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Nearly three quarter of the respondents earn less than twenty thousand a month; this placed them in a vulnerable position particularly the females who often depend on their husbands for sustenance among the Yoruba ethnic group of Nigeria.

Table 3: Cross tabulation of income and vulnerability to subordination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INCOME</th>
<th>Subordinate/livelihood</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below N20,000</td>
<td>High (36.0%)</td>
<td>116(36.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate (25.3%)</td>
<td>81(25.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>58(18.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>66(20.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N21,000-N35,000</td>
<td>High (33.6%)</td>
<td>47(33.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate (27.9%)</td>
<td>39(27.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>36(25.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>18(12.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N36,000-N50,000</td>
<td>High (33.3%)</td>
<td>11(33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate (30.3%)</td>
<td>10(30.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>10(30.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>0(0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N51,000 above</td>
<td>High (40.0%)</td>
<td>4(40.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate (40.0%)</td>
<td>4(40.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>2(20.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No response</td>
<td>0(0.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X²= 13.12                                                                                     Df= 9      p-value = 0.00

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Questions were answered by respondents using the frequency counts and percentages of responses their experiences, extent and trend of sexual crime in their community were measured as reflected in table 4.

Table 4: Frequency and percentages of the Experience and Knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>QUESTION</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do you know what sexual crime is?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes I know</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>How often do you hear of the crime</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not regular</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have never heard of it</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Do people around you talk about sexual crime</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Have you experienced the problem of sexual crime before</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011
Table 4 shows the percentage of responses to the extent, trend, prevalence and the experience of sexual crime among the women of Yoruba ethnic group in Nigeria. Fifty two percent [52%] know about sexual crimes 18% heard about it regularly while 88% was of the view that people talk about it in their communities. Sexual crime is prevalent among the Yoruba ethnic group of Nigeria because about 46% have experienced it among the respondents. The respondents were also asked whether sexual crime is a punishable offence in their country. Answer to this question was generated through the criminal code Cap.77 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 1990 subsection 357-360. The criminal code sees rape as a felony “any person who attempts to commit the offence of rape is guilty of a felony, and is liable to imprisonment for fourteen years without option. Any person who unlawfully and indecently assaults a woman or girl is guilty of misdemeanor, and is liable to imprisonment for two years. About 68% of the respondents believe that Nigerian policies and laws do not support sexual crime, particularly spousal rape. The above criminal code is silent about spousal rape and does not specify whether marital rape or sexual crime committed among intimate partners is a crime or not.

Table 5: Frequency Counts and Percentages of Responses on Sexual Crime.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>QUESTION</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do people report cases of sexual crime</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes they do</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>How often do people report cases of sexual crime</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not regular</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If they report it, to whom did they report to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Police man</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lawyer</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you think sexual crime should be reported to the police</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 5 shows that 52% reported that people report cases of sexual crime and that the frequency of reporting is about 64% when reported regularly. 74% report to police the report while 26% reports to the Lawyer. Seventy two percent [72%] believes that sexual crime should be reported to the police while 28% do not think sexual crime should be reported to the police.

Table 6: Respondents frequency counts and percentages of types of sexual crimes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of sexual crime</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 6 shows that 28% of the sexual crime is battering, 26% assault, 22% rape, while 18% is sexual harassment.

Discussion

This study investigated sexual crime among married couples in Yoruba ethnic group of Nigeria. The findings of this study show that 46% of the respondents have experienced one form of sexual crime or the other and confirmed that sexual crime is prevalent in Nigeria. This findings agree with Akanle (2008) who reported that sexual crime among intimate partners in the Southwest Nigeria the domain of the Yoruba ethnic group amount to between12-45.5%. Sexual crime is prevalent and high among the ethnic group because of the socio-cultural factors such as the social norms, belief and values about sexuality and patriarchal nature of sexuality norms in Yoruba land. In most cases sexual crime is overlooked and excused even when it leads to psychological or emotional frustration or disturbance among women. The social norms and the type of sexual activities in a society regulate and play a major role in determining the type of forced sex that are
allowed or condoned within that particular culture.

Many traditional norms in Africa and especially in Nigeria condone coercion of the female. Sexual abuse committed by men is to a large extent rooted in the ideology of patriarchy and male sexual entitlement. These belief systems, grant women extremely few legitimate options to refuse sexual advances. Most women in Africa particularly in Nigeria do not define their experiences of forced sex in marriage as rape. Some believe that only stranger rape is “real rape;” and other women see sex in marriage as an obligation and define forced sex as a “wifely duty,” not rape (Bergen, 1996). Basile (2002) found that 61% of women who had unwanted sex with their partners did so out of a sense of obligation. If they do not define their experiences as rape, women are unlikely to report the violence or seek outside assistance. Many men also cannot imagine a wife refusal of sexual advances particularly the wife they have paid dowry on, they simply exclude that possibility.

The finding of this study shows that rape is a punishable offence in the criminal code, but that of marital rape is not. Nigeria is listed among countries that have not made spousal rape a criminal offence. In many developing countries it is believed - by both men and women - that the husband is entitled to sex anytime he demands it and that if the wife refuses him, he has the right to use force. In most cases most women depend on their husbands for life sustenance. Some of these women are either illiterate or very poor. This situation leaves, women with very little sexual autonomy. Often when asked by their husbands for sex, they are not in a position to refuse, they have to choose between unwanted sex and being subjected to violence: or unwanted sex and being abandoned by their husbands and ending up living in abject poverty and squalor. Marital rape is not criminalized in Nigeria therefore one cannot say it is illegal or legal, what is known is that spousal rape is tolerated and accepted as the husband prerogative in Yoruba ethnic group. These may be due to the silence of the law on the issue as it is perceived that the wife has given up herself to her husband at marriage. In the FGD conducted a woman retorted in Yoruba Oko lolori aya - the husband is the head to the wife – another said whatever my husband wants I do, he is the driver of the vehicle. These are belief systems that have strong roots in the culture of the Yoruba ethnic group which have been passed down from generations.

The study shows that 52% of the respondents were of the view that people should report cases of sexual crime to the police and 64% says the reporting should be regular. Seventy four percent [74%] report the cases of sexual crime to policemen while 28% do not think sexual crime should be reported to the police probably because of the shame and stigma associated with it in Nigerian society. This finding supports some of the well-documented view of Koss & Cook (1998) in the study of violence against women that rape is a largely underreported crime.

The finding of this study does not support that of Bergen (1996), Browne (1987) and Russell, 1990 which reported that many women do not report sexual violence to the police because they are ashamed to do so or because they fear being blamed. Even though some women in some ethnic groups would not disclose sexual violence the Yoruba group seems to be willing to do so. This shows there is a significant difference across cultures in the willingness to disclose sexual violence to researchers. Furthermore the Yoruba ethnic group is highly educated in Nigeria, Therefore disclosing sexual violence to the police might have been influenced by the level of education of the people and the knowledge or information they have got concerning the issue of sexual right and the determination of people to eliminate sexual violence among intimate partners. Many NGO’s in the Western part of Nigeria have been campaigning that people should disclose issues of marital violence to the public so that offenders are punished and therefore serve as deterrent to would be offenders.

Conclusion

Even when sexual crime among intimate partners is prevalent in Nigeria, it has not been criminalized. Nigerian women find the continuous lip service on women’s rights as unacceptable.

The constitution and other laws which supposedly guarantee human rights still discriminate against women in several areas, the criminal code; rules of court procedures as well as rule of evidence undermine women humanship. Customary laws and practices and gender perceptions all merge to increase the exclusion and abuses of the rights of women in Nigerian society.

Recommendation

Based on the findings the following were recommended.

a.) People should be educated on bodily rights
b.) There should be a review of the 1999 constitution, the review process should protect women’s right and should ensure that sexual crime among intimate partners is criminalized.
References


Basile, K. C. (2002). Prevalence of wife rape and other intimate partner sexual coercion in a nationally


Koss, M. P., & Cook, S.L. (1998). Facing the facts: Date and acquaintance rape are significant problems


Exploring Workforce Skills of Northwest Ohio High School Graduates

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Abstract This study analyzes workforce competencies at the conclusion of high school graduation. Researchers sampled over 875 graduating seniors from 16 high schools within six counties throughout Northwestern Ohio. Results highlight future career and educational goals of these young people and a self-report of skills based on the SCANS competencies and basic foundation skills. When evaluating Foundation Skills of Personal Qualities, Basic Skills, and Thinking Skills, they indicated highest ratings in Personal Qualities and overall lowest ratings in Basic Skills. A series of five Workforce Competencies were also evaluated, including Using Resources, Using Information, Using Technology, Interpersonal Skills, and Working in Systems. Highest ratings for Competencies were reported in Interpersonal Skills and lowest in Using Resources.

Theoretical Base

There are dramatic forces of change effecting the type of employment, employment-related skills, and necessary training needed for successful employment (Levy & Murnane, 2006; Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2003; Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills [SCANS], 1991). As we have transitioned from an agricultural and industrial economy to a knowledge economy and now the emerging digital economy, employers are expecting higher level skills from youth (National Collaborative on Workforce and Disability for Youth, 2002, Pearson, 2001).

The forces shaping the future of the United States workforce (Karoly & Panis, 2004) include a gradual decrease in the labor force growth rate as the Baby Boomers retire, acceleration of technological change, increase of economic globalization, increase in the rate of transition to decentralized business models, and the demand for more flexible and knowledge-based employees. Demographic changes will have significant impacts on the labor market. Baby boomers decision to continue employment or seek retirement will affect not only the demand for labor, but the leadership and experience-set employers are looking for. Job skill requirements have been changing in all sectors of employment. Technological advances have progressed to the point that more routine labor functions are now being replaced by machines. The increased use of computers to generate data has increased the demand for skill sets in problem solving.
and data analysis (Karoly & Panis, 2004). According to the Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce (2006), many well-paying and routine middle-class jobs are rapidly being automated.

Flatter organizational structures focused on decentralized decision-making and team-focused work will require enhanced communication skills, leadership, and teambuilding skills. Technology will further expand the prevalence of non-traditional work arrangements (telecommuting, working from home, etc.). Employers everywhere have access to a worldwide workforce composed of people that do not have to be physically present to participate in work teams or to contribute to an organization (Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce, 2006). Outsourcing is a current tool used as organizations evaluate steps in the production or service chain to determine most effective methods. There are opportunities for other people or organizations to deliver tailored services to meet specific components of a production chain or service sector. For example, Indian engineers may make $7,500 compared to $45,000 for a comparable American engineer (National Assoc for Education and the Economy, 2006). The demand for a more adaptable and flexible staff will increase the percentage of workers in non-traditional work arrangements such as contract or consultant work or short-term employment assignments (Karoly & Panis, 2004). Today’s employers demand a more skilled employee. In the U.S., less than 20% of the workforce is in jobs classified as unskilled (Lynch, 2000).

Skills Gap

A study conducted by the National Association of Manufacturers and Deloitte Consulting (2005) found that today’s skill shortages are broad-based and deep, impacting more than 80% of companies surveyed. The deficiency of available skilled labor has impacted production and productivity and the ability of these manufacturers to meet customer demands. 90% of manufacturing companies indicated a moderate to severe shortage of qualified skilled production employees (front-line workers, machinists, technicians, etc.). Engineers and scientists are also needed with 65% of manufacturers indicating a lack of supply of these educated and skilled employees. Not only are the expected high levels of retirements of skilled baby boomer employees going to impact skilled labor availability but the upcoming availability of skilled trained employees is not anticipated to meet demand. Manufacturing employers cite dissatisfaction with K-12 education systems in terms of their ability to effectively train future employees. When asked whether K-12 schools are doing a good job preparing students for the workplace, 84% of the respondents indicated “no” (NAM & Deloitte, 2005). They also are frustrated by the decline in the number of people seeking advanced training and post-secondary degrees in science and engineering. NAM and Deloitte (2005) found that 74% of manufacturing industry respondents in their study indicated that having a “high performance workforce” will be key to their business success. Not only are manufacturers concerned about technical skills in the labor market, but they also identify ability to work in teams, computer skills, literacy, and supervisory and management skills as essential to future success. Toepfer (1997) suggests that educational systems will need to adapt to new employment realities. The jobs that youth are preparing for today may not be created, the technological advancement has been so rapid that entire career fields are being created and/or eliminated. Workers will be required to learn the skills that evolving opportunities will require and the educational system must adapt to meet changing needs of students (Toepfer, 1997). Involvement of all components of the community are necessary to develop school and community programs to deal with the development of work-related competencies and skills needed in the communities, particularly those in rural areas.

Manufacturing companies not only are concerned about the impending impact of a shortage in skilled labor, many are implementing processes to try to minimize its impact on productivity and business success. 73% of manufacturers in the NAM and Deloitte study conducted in 2005 were implementing training for their employees due to business necessity. Innovative and competitive recruitment strategies, implementing more employee-friendly work environments (flexible schedules, tuition reimbursements, etc.), and utilizing more temporary employment are methods used to expand the available skill base for employers.

Ferry (2003) conducted a study of employment related needs in rural central Pennsylvania. Major employers reported that employees lacked basic communication, problem solving, and team working skills to perform effectively in their worksites. In addition, these employers indicated that computer skills as essential to future success in their business operations. Similar to western Ohio, rural Central Pennsylvania employers reported that they are challenged to be competitive within a global marketplace. Rural central Pennsylvania’s economy is transitioning from being agriculture and manufacturing-based to a service-based economy (Ferry, 2003). Technology is a major factor changing rural jobs in the area and is creating new skill set demands for rural employers. Employers in this study indicated that they were having difficulty with turnover in entry-level, low-skilled positions that tend to have low pay. There is significant impact on individuals, communities, and entire regions when employers are not able to secure employees with the right skills to meet their needs (ASTD, 2006; Levy & Murnane, 2006). Employment opportunities in the traditional, high paying
manufacturing industries, such as automotive manufacturing, are disappearing (Levy & Murnane, 2006). Future job growth is expected to be concentrated in higher-skilled occupations, which will result in economic discrepancies between those with higher-level skills and those without (Levy and Murnane, 2006).

The tremendous increase in technological change, higher skill levels required by employers, reallocation of labor globally with manufacturing moving abroad, underemployment, downsizing, and other considerable employment changes have resulted in an uncertain labor market for 16-24 year-old young people (Sum, Fogg, & Magnum, 2000). School-based preparation can provide the experiences and education to prepare young people to make effective decisions about postsecondary education and prepare them to transition from school to employment. A young person is “work ready” when they can effectively make educational and vocational decisions and perform expectations from schools and employers (Sarkees-Wircenski & Scott, 1995). According to the Career Institute for Education and Workforce Development (2002), there is a dramatic disconnect between student courses of study or job pursuits and existing job openings and business needs.

Educational systems and communities also can assist youth in their process of establishing an occupational pathway. Young people traditionally determine their pathway, or “job fit” through meaningful work-based learning experiences and an evaluation of their individual goals, values and strengths (Zeldin & Charner, 1996). Youth then rely on mentors, teachers, family members, peers, educational institutions and others to help them evaluate their career options and the steps and skills necessary to reach their occupational goals (Bailey, et al., 2004; Clausen, 1991; Csiksentmihalyi & Schneider, 2000; Hamilton & Hamilton, 1997). Career development, for most people, is a lifelong process of learning through a step-wise process of involvement in the world of work (Ferry, 2006). Ferry (2006), evaluated rural youth in Pennsylvania and reported the significant role family and community play in the educational and career choices of youth. Each individual undertaking the process is influenced by many factors, including the context in which they live, their personal aptitudes, and educational attainment (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001). The social support and guidance of mentors and adult supervisors has been found to be significantly correlated to a young person’s future work-orientation and motivation towards building skills and seeking advanced education to achieve occupational goals (Bennett, 2007).

More than half of our young people leave school without the knowledge or foundation required to find and hold a good job (SCANS 1991, p. xv). According to the US Department of Labor Secretary’s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS Report, 1990), the demands for the current workforce require adaptability and the ability to learn and work in teams.

According to Casner-Lotto, J., & Barrington, L. (2006), young people are inadequately prepared to be successful in the workplace. After completing high school, over one-half of those directly entering the world of work are deficient in the most important skills: Oral and Written Communication, Professionalism/Work Ethic, and Critical Thinking/Problem Solving.

College graduates are better prepared, with lower levels of deficiency in the most important skills, but most are not mastering these skills. Only about one-quarter of four-year college graduates are perceived to be excellent in many of the most important skills (Casner-Lotto, J., & Barrington, L., 2006).

The SCANS report focused on three conclusions addressing what work requires of schools: 1) All American high school students must develop a new set of competencies and foundation skills if they are to enjoy a productive, full, and satisfying life; 2) The qualities of high performance that today characterize our most competitive companies must become the standard for the vast majority of our companies, large and small, local, and global; 3) The nation’s schools must be transformed into high-performance organizations in their own right.

The SCANS report (1990) identified five competencies and a three-part foundation of skills and personal qualities that are needed for solid job performance. Competencies included: Resources, Interpersonal Skills, Information, Systems, and Technology. Resources were defined as allocating time, money, materials, space and staff. Components of interpersonal skills included working on teams, teaching others, serving customers, leading, negotiating, and working well with people from culturally diverse backgrounds. “Information Know-How” would encompass acquiring and evaluating data, organizing and maintaining files, interpreting and communicating, and using computers to process information. Understanding social, organizational, and technological systems, monitoring and correcting performance, and designing or improving systems are components of systems competency. Technological competency would describe workers who can effectively select equipment and tools, apply technology to specific tasks, and maintain and troubleshoot technologies.

Three foundation competencies were also identified by the SCANS report (1990) including Basic Skills, Thinking Skills, and Personal Qualities. Competence in basic skills would include reading, writing, arithmetic and mathematics, speaking and listening. Thinking skills would comprise thinking creatively, making decisions, solving problems, seeing
things in the mind’s eye, knowing how to learn, and reasoning. Individual responsibility, self-esteem, sociability, self management, and integrity defined Personal Qualities in the SCANS report.

According to SCANS (1990), these competencies differ from a person’s technical knowledge. The report suggests that classroom instruction must help students apply what they are learning to real-world situations. Students need an opportunity to recognize and solve problems (SCAN Report, 1990). SCANS also developed a “level of competence” to describe the varying proficiency levels ranging from “Preparatory” to “Specialist.” (SCANS, 1990).

Cotton (2007) groups employability traits into basic skills, higher-order thinking skills, and affective skills and traits. Basic skills are comprised of oral communication, reading and following directions, basic arithmetic, and writing. Problem solving, learning skills, creative thinking, and decision-making skills comprised higher-order thinking skills. Affective skills and traits focus on attributes such as responsibility, positive attitude, cooperation, honesty, self-discipline, flexibility, and self-confidence.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this research study were to analyze the workforce skills of high school graduates in Northwest Ohio, based on SCANS (Secretary of US Department of Labor Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 1990). Specific components included:

- How do youth evaluate their 3 Foundation Skills
  - Personal Qualities (Integrity/Honesty, Self-Esteem, Sociability, Responsibility, and Self Management)
  - Basic Skills (Listening, Reading, Writing, and Math)
  - Thinking Skills (Problem-Solving, Decision-Making, and Reasoning)

- How do youth evaluate their Workforce Competencies
  - Using Resources (Time, Materials, Human Resources, Money)
  - Using Information (Computers, Organizational, Interpreting Information, and Reasoning)
  - Technology (Selects, Applies, Maintain, and Troubleshoot)
  - Interpersonal Skills (Team-Work, Teaching, Customer Service, Negotiation, and Working with Diverse Audiences)

- How do youth evaluate the impact of formal educational coursework, volunteering, paid employment, and extracurricular activity involvement as contributing factors to foundation and competency workforce skill development?

Methods

This descriptive and correlation study was conducted in spring of 2008 to assess workforce competencies of graduating high school youth in Northwestern Ohio. Sixteen high schools were identified in six study counties (Mercer, Van Wert, Williams, Henry, Putnam, and Paulding). After receiving approval from Wright State University Human Subjects Review and Ohio State University Human Subjects Review, a written survey instrument was administered in 16 cooperating Northwestern Ohio High Schools with 875 high school seniors providing usable instruments for this research project. Anonymity and confidentiality of participants and their individual responses were maintained throughout the project.

Data analysis using SPSS was utilized to evaluate multiple components of the research. Descriptive statistics analyzed overall youth ratings of workforce skill developments and contributing factors to skill development. Cronbachs alpha of .90 indicates a high level of confidence in instrument validity.

Results

Demographic Data

This sample of students from 16 cooperating school districts in six Northwestern Ohio Counties (Williams, Henry, Paulding, Putnam, Van Wert, and Mercer) is comprised of 875 high school seniors (as of May 2008). Approximately 52%
of the sample was female. A large number of their parents were employed in the management/professional, manufacturing, and skilled trades as professions. A relatively low percentage of the parents of these high school seniors had completed Bachelors or Graduate Degrees (approximately 22% of mothers and 17.5% of fathers).

The majority of respondents indicated that their parents were originally from Northwest Ohio with over 80% of both parents being from the area. The vast majority of these Northwest Ohio High School Seniors were employed at-least part-time. Over 59% of these seniors indicated that they were working 11 hours or more per week. At the end of their high school programs, most reported that they were not allocating a large amount of time studying per week. Over 84% of high school seniors indicated that they were allocating two or less hours per week studying. More than half of the respondents indicated that they were actively engaged in volunteer work on a weekly basis. A sizable number (9.4%) were volunteering more than five hours per week.

High School Seniors reported relative success in their academic work (when analyzing High School Grade Point Average).

To assess SCANS (1991) “Foundation Skills”, a series of Likert-Based Questions were asked evaluating youth perceptions of their skills on a series of subcomponents. The instrument was anchored with 1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree. Self-reporting by youth generally reported strong skills. Groups of questions or sub-skills assessed each of the three major Foundation Skills. In table 1, the three “Foundation Skills” are identified as Person Qualities, Thinking Skills, and Basic Skills. The first “Foundation Skill”; Personal Qualities, had the highest overall mean (4.26) when compared to the other two skill sets. High school seniors tended to have more self reported competency in this area. Of some concern, high school seniors indicated the lowest competency in the area of Basic Skills. These Basic Skills include reading, writing and mathematics, speaking and listening.

Table 1. Overall Foundation Skill Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foundation Skills</th>
<th>Average Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Qualities</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking Skills</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Skills</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the three Foundation Skills can be further analyzed by the respective sub-competencies or components. “Personal Qualities” was evaluated using the following identified components: “Integrity”, “Sociability”, “Responsibility”, “Self Management,” and “Self Esteem.” Students self reported their competency in each of these components. Generally high school students tended to rate the component of “Integrity” the highest of all competencies among high school seniors with a mean of 4.40 (table 2).

Table 2. Foundation Skills: Personal Qualities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Management</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Esteem</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In evaluating “Basic Skills”, five components were evaluated including: “Listening”, “Reading”, “Speaking”, “Writing”, and “Mathematics.” Table 3 shows High School seniors self-reported low levels of competency in these components compared with the others measured. Of all the competencies within all the Foundation Skills, “Mathematics” was identified as having the lowest mean (3.77). “Writing” (3.88) was also a component that high school seniors indicated was not a strong competency for them.

Table 3 Foundation Skill: Basic Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In evaluating “Thinking Skills”, six components were evaluated including: “Creative Thinking”, “Seeing things in the Minds Eye”, “Problem Solving”, “Decision Making”, “How to Learn”, and “Reasoning.” As indicated in table 4, High school seniors indicated the highest level of competency in “Creative Thinking” with a mean of 4.05. The weakest area within this set of components is “Reasoning” with a mean of 3.90.

Table 4. Foundation Skill: Thinking Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creative Thinking</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeing in Mind’s Eye</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to Learn</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Workforce Competencies

To assess “Workforce Competencies”, a series of Likert-Based Questions were asked evaluating youth perceptions of their skills on a series of subcomponents. The instrument was anchored with 1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strongly Agree. Self-reporting by youth generally reported strong skills. The research analyzed youth workforce competencies of: Managing/Using Resources, Managing/Using Information, Managing/Using Technology, Managing and Using Systems, and Interpersonal Skills. Groups of questions or sub-skills assessed each of the five Major Workforce Competencies. Youth reported highest overall skills in “Interpersonal Skills” at 4.10 (Table 5.). Lowest workforce competency ratings were reported in their ability to “Manage and Use Technology”, with a mean of 3.61 (table 5).

Table 5 Workforce Competency Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Skills</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing/Using Resources</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing/Using Systems</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing/Using Information</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing/Use Technology</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the five Workforce Competencies can be further analyzed by the respective sub-competencies or components. “Managing and Using Resources” was evaluated using the following identified components: “Managing Time”, “Managing Materials”, “Allocating Human Resources”, and “Managing Money.” As reported in Table 6, youth report strong overall skills in “Managing and Using Resources.” They feel strongest about their skills in “Managing Money”, with a mean of 4.12. They report weakest skills in “Managing Money” with a mean of 3.69.

Table 6 Workforce Competency: Managing/Using Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manage Time</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Materials</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocate Human Resources</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Money</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In evaluating “Managing and Using Information”, four components were evaluated including: “Computer Processes”, “Organize Information”, “Interpret Information, and “Research Information.” Highest mean responses for these four components were reported in “Computer Processes (4.01), with lowest ratings from “Research Information (3.71), (Table 7).
The third competency evaluated was “Managing and Using Technology.” This competency included the areas that youth reported their overall lowest skills and abilities. Three components including “Selecting Technology”, “Applying Technology”, and “Maintaining Technology” were included. The mean response on “Selecting Technology” was 3.73, with a score of 3.66 for “Applying Technology” and 3.45 for “Maintaining Technology” (table 8).

Table 8 Workforce Competency: Managing/Using Technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Select Technology</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply Technology</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintain Technology</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Participating on Teams”, “Cultural Diversity”, “Teaching Others”, “Serving Customers”, “Exercising Leadership”, and “Negotiating Decisions” are the six components of “Interpersonal Skills.” Overall ratings for this skill set were high (Table 9), with highest mean ratings for “Participate on Teams” (4.27) and lowest for “Negotiate Decisions” (3.91).

Table 9 Workforce Competency: Interpersonal Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participate on Teams</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Diversity</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach Others</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serve Customers</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise Leadership</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiate Decisions</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The skill of “Managing and Using Systems” was evaluated with three components of “Monitoring Performance”, “Understanding Systems”, and “Improving Systems.” The mean rating for “Monitor Performance” was 3.95, “Understanding Systems” was rated at 3.83, and “Improving Systems” was the lowest component in this category with a mean of 3.72 (Table 10).

Table 10. Workforce Competency: Managing/Using Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monitor Performance</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand Systems</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve Systems</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researchers asked youth to report the overall contribution or influence that formal education, employment, volunteering, and youth activities had upon the development of workforce skills and competencies. Each respective component was rated with Likert-based Scale of 1-5, with 1= “Very Low Influence” and 5= “Very Strong Influence.” Youth who were not involved in the respective activity did not rate that component (i.e. Honor Society). The highest influence on workforce skill and competency development, as reported by graduating high school students, was “Job Influence” at 4.28 (Table 11). The other sources evaluated included “Honor Society”, “Course Influence”, “4-H”, “Service Clubs”, “Volunteer Influence”, and “Student Government Involvement.”
Table 11. Source Competencies and Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GPA Mean</th>
<th>Job Influence</th>
<th>Honor Society</th>
<th>Course Influence</th>
<th>4-H</th>
<th>Service Clubs</th>
<th>Volunteer Influence</th>
<th>Student Government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPA Mean</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions

The research results revealed interesting and disconcerting trends about the workforce competencies our high school graduating youth self report. A point of interest when analyzing these trends is to note that girls consistently outscored boys in all levels of the SCANS competencies and foundations with the exception of Technology Skills. Also of interest, as GPA rises, so does the skill level of the competencies and foundations. In other words, the higher the GPA the better prepared they are to enter the work force. High school students tended to rate themselves much higher in personal qualities than they did in many of the other workforce competency areas. It appears that they are more confident in their levels of integrity, sociability and responsibility.

One trend that caused some concern was how low high school graduates rated their ability in basic skills such as speaking, writing and mathematics. It was as surprise to see the lack of confidence the students had in these skills especially since K-12 school curriculum places emphasis on these primary learning subjects. Furthermore, students self reported a low competency in managing money. The combination of low math skills and low money management skills can prove to be a disastrous combination personally and on the job. School curriculum focused on financial literacy needs to be emphasized to both help a student’s proficiency in this area and also help foster this skill to be applied on the job.

Another area of concern was how low students self reported their competency in using technology and maintaining technology. Beyond the use of social media platforms (texting, Facebook, MySpace, Twitter and so on), there appears to be a major deficiency in technology application. Given the most recent research indicating a dramatic shift to the increasing use of technology in the workplace, youth need to develop a stronger competency in this area.

Youth are reporting that they have a number of influencers on the development of job-related skills. The school curriculum is one source of development of skill sets related to entry into the workforce. Extra-curricular activities, part-time employment, and volunteer work are all influencers on the development of skills preparing young people for employment. A diverse array of extra-curricular activities and practical experiences gained through hands-on paid and volunteer work are necessary for youth to be prepared to enter work-roles in the future.

The lack of a youthful skilled workforce is an emerging issue that calls for partnerships between key service providers (colleges, high schools, local employers, and local government officials) to develop strategies to address these changing workforce needs and identify ways to narrow the gap between the skill sets our students have when they enter the workforce or post secondary institutions and what employers actually need from them. To accomplish this, these findings can be used as a conduit to lead a series of focus groups within a region to begin discussions with community leaders. The results of these guided discussions can provide a road map for colleges and high schools to uniformly implement strategies that narrow the disconnect between local employment needs and how our educational systems prepare youth for work.

Community organizations and employers can play an important role in training young people to enter the workforce. Assuming that preparing young people for the jobs of tomorrow is solely the responsibility of school system, limits the ability of youth to truly be prepared to be valuable employees tomorrow. The private sector and community organizations can play a vital role contributing to school curriculum as resource people, as an avenue for applied projects incorporated into curriculum, and welcoming students in challenging internship experiences. Employers and community leaders need to take an active role working within the school structure and outside to provide perspective to young people that encourages their understanding of the job skills that they will need in the future as well as developing methods to enable youth to develop skills preparing them for tomorrow.
References

Abstract Few studies have evaluated the heritability on sexually matured time (SMT) in comparison with that on height and weight. Body height and weight measurements and self-reported data of STM were obtained from Shkodra University students and their parents. The age at first menstrual period or menarche (AM) and at the first ejaculation or andrarche (AA) were used as indexes of SMT. Female students and their mothers AM resulted 13.44 and 14.12 years old, respectively. The difference was statistically highly significant, demonstrating a decrease trend of SMT. Male students and their fathers AA were 14.14 and 15.63 years old, respectively. This difference also resulted highly significant. These findings showed that the acceleration of SMT is present in Albania for both sexes. Parent-daughter correlation coefficient for SMT was 0.4, parent-son correlation one was 0.41, while the SMT estimated heritability was 0.48, indicating that SMT is highly heritable trait in both sexes. It was notable that mother-daughter correlation (0.54) was much higher than father-daughter one (0.12). The body height of male students and their fathers was 172.8 cm and 171.5 cm, respectively, showing no significant difference. The body height of female students and their mothers were 164 cm and 162.2 cm, respectively. This difference resulted significant, indicating an increase trend of body height in females. The estimated heritability of body height resulted 0.76. Meanwhile the body weight one resulted 0.38, considerably lower than that of height. These preliminary heritability values, estimated for the first time in Albanian population, resulted compatible with other reports.

Key words: sexually matured time, body height, body weight, heritability, Albanian population

1. Introduction

The widespread use of anthropometry remains significant in the field of medicine and biosocial sciences about describing and understanding the variation of growth, health pattern, nutritional status and well-being for entire population.

Human growth assessment is an essential part of auxology and in general it has been characterized by continuous outcomes like traditional measures of height and weight and discrete outcomes like Tanner stages of pubertal development, age at menarche (time of first menstrual period) and age at andrarche (time of first ejaculation), markers of infant development, visual acuity, etc., using them as anthropometric parameters. These outcomes are influenced by the interaction of many factors including hereditary factors, internal secretion of hormones, nutrition and psychological environment (Ramirez et al., 1991; Grilo & Pogue-Geile, 1991; Allison et al., 1996; Fabsitz et al., 1994; Biro et al. 1995; Reed & Price, 1998; Pietilainen et al., 1999; Luke et al., 2001). That is the reason why growth curves from investigations of height and weight distribution have a complex pattern and several models have been proposed to describe it. Several family studies, especially among twins, have revealed greater genetic control for height but greater environmental conditions for weight. Some studies have found evidence for maternal inheritance of female height (Boldsen & Taylor, 1990).

Age at menarche (AM) and age at andrarche (AA) are important developmental milestones in females and males, respectively. These human discrete outcomes for most of the authors have been considered a secure evidence of the sexual maturity achievement. As a part of the growth, development and maturity processes, the occurrence of menarche and andrarche has resulted to be under the combined influence of the genetic and environmental factors (Tanner, 1962; Kurdzielewicz, 2001; Anderson et al., 2007; Semiz et al., 2009). Because these two biological traits have important cultural, social, and epidemiological implications, increasing attention has been recently payed by scientists to understand the causes of age variations in the timing of AM and AA. Although results are not always consistent, several factors have been shown to significantly influence age at menarche, such as: genetic parameters (Danker-Hopfe & Delibalti, 1990; Kaprio et al. 1995), socio-economic conditions (Belmaker, 1982; Padez, 2003), general health and life-style (Brown et al., 1996), nutritional status (Tanner, 1962; Osteria, 1983; Gueresi, 1997; Kopliku & Bajrami, 2005), physical activity (Malina, 1983; Malina & Bouchard, 1991; Baker, 1985), and
Positive secular trends in height and weight increase and sexually matured time decrease have been documented among many of world’s populations. In many countries the trends are associated with: continuing economic development, social and health improvement, increase of food quality and security, declining prices for energy dense foods, progressive mechanization of the majority of labour-intensive jobs, sedentization of work replacing labour-intensive production jobs, mechanization of transport, sedentization of leisure time, increase of immunization status, mostly in childhood, psychological stress increase, etc., (Tanner, 1962; Ramirez et al., 1991; Grilo & Pogue-Geile, 1991; Rotimi & Cooper, 1995; Herskind et al., 1996; Kim & Smith, 1999; Bagga & Kulkarm; 2000; Cole, 2000; Ellis et al., 2000; Hulanicka et al., 2001; Freedman, 2002; Padez, 2003; Kobzova et al., 2004; Anderson & Must, 2005). Most of these factors are conditioned historically, culturally and politically by poverty and socio-economic status of different countries.

Heritability is an important statistical concept in quantitative genetics and it is determined by estimating the relative contributions of genetic and environmental factors to the observed phenotypic variation of traits in a population. The percentage heritability, which is the proportion of phenotypic expression, due to genetic factors, varies for different traits and in different species even for the same trait.

There are few data available concerning the evaluation of heritability on height and weight in comparison with that on sexually matured time (Kaprio et al., 1995). The present investigation was performed to identify for the first time the secular trend and to estimate the heritability on height and weight in comparison with that on sexually matured time by studying parent-offspring differences of these anthropometric parameters in a sample of the Albanian population.

2. Material and methods

In a cross-sectional and retrospective study, possible secular trend and the heritability of body height and weight and sexually matured time as AM in females and AA in males were evaluated on data collected by measurements and questionnaire, involving 250 students (females 155 and males 95, born from 1986 to 1989) of Shkodra University (Albania) and their parents (mothers and fathers born from 1960 to 1970 and from 1953 to 1964, respectively). All students came from 12 districts of North Albania (Fig. 1), 134 of them living in rural area and 116 in urban centers.

The students and parents age was calculated from the date when questionnaire was done and respective birth dates. The age at menarche (AM) in females and the age at andrarche (AA) in males were used as indicators of sexually matured time of subject. The students and parents AM and AA were calculated by differences between the occurrence of first menstrual cycle in female and ejaculation in male and respective birth dates. The differences were expressed in decimal system (1 month=0.083 years). Concerning body height and weight measurements of parents, the data were based on the past information (when they were the offspring age).

Fig. 1 Map of 12 Albanian districts involved in the questionnaire (red points)
Body height, weight, AM and AA mean values of offspring and the parents were calculated and compared in father-son and daughter, mother-son and daughter and mid-parent-son and daughter relations, using statistical Student’s t test and 0.01 as level of significance. Mean values of mid-parents were calculated as average of parents mean values for each anthropometric parameter. The comparison of mean values was used to identify the trend of body height, weight, AM and AA between parents and their offspring.

The analyses of body height, weight, AM and AA parameters in father-son and daughter, mother-son and daughter and mid-parent-son and daughter correlations were done using linear regression method.

Heritability ($h^2$) was estimated by comparing parent and offspring traits based in analyzed correlations. The coefficient of regression line ($r$) approximates the heritability of the traits taken in account when female or male offspring values are regressed against the average values in the parents (mid-parent values):

$$h^2 = r$$

If only one parent's value or both female and male offspring values are used, then heritability is twice the coefficient of regression:

$$h^2 = 2r$$

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Trend identification

Body height and weight, AM and AA data were collected from measurements and questionnaires. The proportion of censoring was 15.9%.

#### 3.1.1 Body height

The results taken from analyzing data of body height measurement of the sample are shown in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Body height (in cm)</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X ± SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female students</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>164 ± 5.1</td>
<td>152-175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>162.2 ± 4.7</td>
<td>151-173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>175.4 ± 5.1</td>
<td>168-188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male students</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>172.8 ± 6</td>
<td>162-185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>163.8 ± 3.4</td>
<td>153-168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>171.5 ± 4.1</td>
<td>160-180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average body heights of female students and their mothers were 164 and 162.2 cm, respectively. The difference 1.8 cm resulted significant in females ($t_s = 5.81$ and $\alpha = 0.01$). Meanwhile the average body heights of male students and their fathers were 172.8 and 171.5 cm respectively, showing no significant difference in males ($1.3$ cm, $t_s = 1.73$ and $\alpha = 0.01$). The results identified a positive trend of body height increase in females born between 1960-1970 and 1986-1989, but not in males, maybe because of smaller size of male subject. However, the values range in both sexes has shown compatibility with the above mentioned trend of body height (Tab 1).

#### 3.1.2 Body weight

The results taken from analyzing data of body height measurement of the sample are shown in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Body weight (in kg)</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X ± SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female students</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>57.7 ± 5.7</td>
<td>47-78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>99.3 ± 6.6</td>
<td>45-75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The average body weights of female students and their mothers were 57.7 and 59.3 kg, respectively. The difference 1.6 kg resulted not significant in females (t_s = 2.3 and α = 0.01). Meanwhile the average body weights of male students and their fathers were 83 and 85 kg, respectively, showing non significant difference in males (2 kg, t_s = 2.06 and α = 0.01). The results did not identify a positive trend of body weight increase between both females and males offspring and parents.

### 3.1.3 Sexually matured time

The results obtained from analyzing data of body height measurement of the sample are shown in table 3.

#### Tab. 3 Overview of statistical data in sexually matured time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Sexually matured time (years)</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X ± SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female students</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>13.44 ± 1.05</td>
<td>10.08-15.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>14.12 ± 1.12</td>
<td>12.58-17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>15.22 ± 1.01</td>
<td>13.17-17.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male students</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>14.14 ± 0.92</td>
<td>12.91-16.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>14.31 ± 0.97</td>
<td>13-17.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathers</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>15.63 ± 1.03</td>
<td>13.33-17.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average AM of female students and their mothers were 13.44 (13 years and 5 months) and 14.12 years old (14 years and 1 month), respectively. The difference 0.68 years (8 months) resulted highly significant (t_s = 5.44 and α = 0.01). Meanwhile the average AA of male students and their fathers was 14.14 (14 years and 2 months) and 15.63 years old (15 years and 8 months), respectively, showing highly significant difference in males (1.49 or 1 year and 6 months, t_s = 9.3 and α = 0.01). The results identified a strong positive trend of sexually matured time decrease between both females and males offspring and parents, notably in males. The values range of SMT was consistent with the above mentioned trend (Tab 3).

#### 3.2 Heritability estimation

The analysis of body height and weight, AM and AA values of father-son and daughter, mother-son and daughter and mid-parent-son and daughter correlations were done by using linear regression method (p<0.01). An overview of regression coefficient in analysed correlations was shown in table 4. The results for body weight indicated highest positive correlation in mother-daughter (r=0.48), mid-parent-daughter (r=0.354) and father-son (r=0.32). Meanwhile, body height analysis showed highest coefficient of regression in father-son (r=0.62), mid-parent-son (r=0.518), mother-daughter (r=0.4), mid-parent-daughter (r=0.388) and mid-parent-offspring (r=0.38) correlations. It is to be noted that father-son correlation was much higher than mother-son one. Concerning sexually matured time, highest correlation were observed in mother-daughter (r=0.537), mid-parent-daughter (r=0.45) and mid-parent-son (r=0.41). Mother-daughter correlation was also much higher than father-daughter one (r=0.12). In general, mother-son and father-daughter correlations have the lowest regression coefficients for all parameters.

The comparison of all analysed correlations has indicated that body height was the strongest parent-offspring correlated parameter.

Heritability was estimated by comparing parent and offspring traits based in regression coefficient of analyzed correlations (Tab. 4 and h²=2r). The heritability value of investigated traits resulted: 0.34 for body weight, 0.76 for body height and 0.48 for sexually matured time, being compatible with other reports (Kaur & Singh, 1981; Allison et al., 1996; Fabris et al., 1994; Doughty & Rodgers, 2000; Rowe, 2000; Luke et al., 2001; Morris et al., 2011). Based on daughter-parent and son-parent correlations (h²=r), the respective heritability values of body height were 0.388 and 0.518, respectively, while for sexually matured time 0.45 and 0.41, and for body weight 0.357 and 0.237, respectively. The
lowest heritability values of body weight indicated that the observed variation of this parameter was the more influenced by environmental factors than the ones of body height and sexually matured time.

Tab. 4 Overview of regression coefficient in analysed correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Coefficient of regression r</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Coefficient of regression r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Body weight</td>
<td>Body height</td>
<td>Sexually matured time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daughter-mother</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daughter-father</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daughter-mid-parent</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son-mother</td>
<td>-0.175</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son-father</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>0.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son-mid-parent</td>
<td>-0.237</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offspring-midparent</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.380</td>
<td>0.240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the present study it was investigated and determined for the first time the age at andrarche in males and the heritability of body height, weight, and sexually matured time in a sample of the Albanian population, while there are few studies which have evaluated the age at menarche in females and its correlation with body height and weight of subject (Kopliku and Bajrami, 2004; 2005; 2009). Mean ages at menarche and at andrarche vary substantially between females and males across different countries and across different ethnic groups (Belitz, 1977; Hunt & Newcomer, 1984; Danker-Hopfe, 1986; Ulijaszek et al., 1991; Morabia & Costanza, 1998; Thomas et al., 2001; Freedman, 2002; Padez, 2003). Reasons behind this international variability remain poorly understood, mainly because few comparative analyses have been conducted on such a large scale (Morabia & Costanza, 1998). Most investigations of the relationships between ages at menarche and andrarche and their causes have been studied on a small scale by social scientists, anthropologists, or public health epidemiologists. However, the variables affecting the timing of these events within populations do not necessarily explain differences between populations.

Concerning body height and weight, there are some specific details of international differences that are important. It does seem that nowadays the average body height of American whites has stopped increasing. Meanwhile Northern Europeans keep getting taller (there are some discussions whether high levels of milk consumption are responsible for Dutch body height). (Steckel, 1994; Cole, 2000; Fredrics, 2000). Environmental input may have reached the time of diminishing returns on height in the developed world (Luke et al. 2001). The reason that the heritability of body height is lower in poorer nations or developing countries than in wealthy nations is that in the former there are still environmental factors which cause some variance in height. In general, people in less developed nations don’t get enough and qualitative food to realize their full genetic potential. Naturally the same speculation can be done for body weight. In many developed countries, the positive body weight trend is associated with the emergence of overweight and obesity, an extreme pathological outcome of human biological plasticity. Increasing relative body weight and fatness has taken place among populations of North America, Western Europe, Australia and Japan. However, there are still strong class and region-based differences in body weight even in USA, while those for height have mostly disappeared.

4. Conclusions

1. The present study brought first and preliminary findings about andrarche in males and estimated heritability of body height and weight and sexually matured time (menarche and andrarche) in Albanian population.
2. The study revealed that the observed variation of body weight is more influenced by environmental factors than the ones of body height, age at menarche in females and age at andrarche in males.
3. As the growth processes are complex and influenced by different endogenous and exogenous factors, further, deeper and longitudinal research is necessary to be performed in Albanian population, with the objective to identify phenotypic variability in grown patterns, characterized by amplitude and frequency differences in the timing and amout of growth events.
References


Psychology of Juvenile Delinquency in Albania: Psychosocial Factors that Influence the Involvement in Delinquent Behavior

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Abstract: Several theoretical models emphasize the relationship between social and psychological factors and delinquency. This relationship has been proposed by various hypothetical and theoretical approaches in the literature. Indeed, this relationship is a mainstay of most theories of delinquency, either explicitly or implicitly. This study examines the latter aspects of this presumed relationship using juvenile males in detention placement Institution of Juvenile of Kavaja (Albania). The purposes of the analysis: in order to find the causes of changing and the cause-effect relations, referred in the statistical analysis, it is needed to set which variables, whether psychological or social, are involved in how the individuals are influenced or included in delinquent behaviour. Results: The results of this study will blend together with conclusions and will be used as key points to the future orientations, so to whom this analysis serves, why it is important to consider, how and what changes might be done, if such are needed. Conclusions: Why it is important to consider, and what changes can be made, if such are needed. There is an urgent need to better understand delinquent behavior, which are closely based on social, psychological factors or on other coexistent variables, need which this study tries to cover.

Introduction

This article is an effort to draw a general picture of the situation regarding juvenile delinquency, while putting emphasis psychosocial factors that influence the involvement in delinquent behavior. In this context, it is necessary to clarify the age limit of individuals who are the actual object of the study. According to the text of the Criminal Policy “for individuals under the age of 18, Albanian legislation uses the term “juvenile”, the term “child” is also used in a number of other dispositions of the Code. Under article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, “a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier.” Albanian legislation states that one needs to be under the age of 18 to be a juvenile.

In the Albanian culture, child and juvenile are terms which often do not correspond to the specific age mentioned here above. Therefore, are generally considered and treated as children individuals of age 16 and under, and individuals of age 16 to 18 – 20 are considered juveniles. Involvement of juveniles and young people in criminal activities has turned into a distress for Albanians, especially in the last decade. Statistics from central and local institutions working in the field show that the concerns of the public are in general justified. The curve of child and juvenile crime is indeed constant, and remains almost unchanged.

Involvement of juveniles in criminal activity is associated with individual and external factors which create an environment for criminal behavior. Under these conditions, any study of the role of individual factors, like physical and psychological properties, should be analyzed in association with external factors such as family, social environment, community environment, quality education, and governance and law compliance experiences.

Juvenile crime has two components closely related: juveniles as offenders and juveniles as victims. The fact that juveniles are responsible for serious offences such as murder, theft, extortion, rape etc. should raise concerns to all the policy makers. Also is a fact that a numbers of criminal offences by juveniles are many times higher than of that thought by their peers.

1. Profile of juveniles in conflict with the law in Albania

Research on juvenile delinquency reveals that juveniles involved in criminal activities develop specific social characteristics with a psychological profile of their own.

a) Age and criminal behavior

Based on information gathered during visits in confinement and detention centers, the large majority of detained juveniles are 14 to 18 years old. Even if some have a history of antisocial behavior, most of them are confined and detained for the first time.

b) Level of education

Most convicted juveniles have a low education level. This should not serve as prejudice, even if it appears that the lower
the education is, the graver the criminal act tends to be. Referring to minors in all four sectors, it is estimated that 25% are recidivists and 75% found in a penitentiary institution for the first time. Regarding their educational level, we can say that a relatively small percentage, only 22% have completed 9 years education, while another 22% have not completed even primary education. 78% of minors within the institution attend 9 year compulsory primary education.

c) Economic situation
There is no doubt that this remains one of the main factor influencing one’s personality and behavior and explaining how and why a juvenile gets in conflict with the law. Most of them have indeed important economic problems. They come from poor families, or have no chance for employment and ensuring their financial needs, or the person in charge of them simply cannot provide basic needs. All above cases reported so far had a strong economic component even if other factors were mainly dealt with.

d) Place of residence
When considering the place of residence of detained juveniles, it seems that most of them come either from rural areas, former industrial or new residential areas from the transition period. These are characterized by limited employment possibilities as well as a lack of resources such as land, and property. No economic activities mean a shortage of opportunities and sources to make a living. From the data collected is estimated that 40% of juveniles living in an area not their birthplace, in an area where their family has migrated, the rest 64% live in their birthplace.

e) Anti-social behavior. It is a characteristic of juveniles in conflict with the law to model certain antisocial behaviors. They are known for not-tolerant discussions, limited communication skills and have problems controlling themselves in some situations.

f) Family and its environment are generally considered as having a major influence on the child and its personality which is determinant when becoming adult. A number of juveniles involved in criminal activities come from problematic families. Growing delinquency in young ages during the last decade is directly associated with the crisis that the Albanian family has suffered over the years of political transition. Dominant part of these juveniles and their families live in rural and suburban areas. From the personal data obtained by the process of interviewing, it is noted that most of the juveniles interviewed belong to families in relatively large numbers (parents and 3 or more children, grandparents, etc.). However there are cases when the minors do not live near their families, living with a parent and a stepparent, etc. A portion of the juveniles are convicted of theft or are in custody for committing this offense, but there are those who are convicted of various offenses, from murder, rape, drug trafficking and illegal possession of arms.

g) Minority and anti-social behavior
Another characteristic of juveniles in conflict with the law and their anti-social behavior is their ethnic origin. Among apprehended juveniles, many of them are of Roma or Egyptian origin. This suggests that ethnic origin and social exclusion of some minorities may play an important factor regarding criminal behavior since it is a further cause of stress, tension and problems.

2. Personality characteristics of delinquents

Psychological studies of delinquents have traditionally been concerned with how delinquents differ from no delinquents in intellectual structure, physiological constitution, and personality characteristics. They have been concerned with defining the particular personality traits which lead people to become delinquents. They have shown that many delinquents are emotionally disturbed, but equally important, that certain types of emotional disorder are negatively correlated with delinquency. Quay has decided that there are particular types of delinquents who differ from each other and have distinctive personality characteristics (Quay, 1965). To understand fully the psychological aspects of delinquency, then, it is necessary to examine each of these various types.

Types of delinquency
With some precision and a degree of practical utility, juvenile delinquents can be categorized into three general classes: the socialized delinquent, the neurotic delinquent, and the psychopathic delinquent. Each of these types exhibits certain traits that distinguish it from the other types and from no delinquents. Since the background and treatment of each variety of delinquent differs, an understanding of youthful crime should commence with an examination of these differences.

- Socialized delinquency
The socialized delinquent does not suffer from any particular psychological disorders, other than those which characterize the typical adolescent. His crimes are not motivated by deep-seated anxieties or unresolved conflicts, but rather by a simple desire to conform to the norms of his gang (Reiss, 1952; Hewitt & Jenkins, 1947). Typically, such a boy comes from a transitional urban area where a gang subculture has become entrenched. In his immediate social environment,
delinquency has evolved into an accepted, even honored, pattern of life, a legitimate way of achieving prestige in the juvenile community. Often, in early childhood the socialized delinquent joins a gang and imbibes the values and habits of a delinquent subculture.

One should not conceptualize the process of becoming a socialized delinquent, however, as just a matter of chance learning. Only certain children seem to be drawn toward a gang culture. Specifically, as many pieces of research have demonstrated, the socialized delinquent seems to be produced by a frustrating and inconsistent familial background. Compared with noncriminal children, the socialized delinquent has most often been raised in a family characterized by parental conflict, rejection, or neglect (Glueck & Glueck, 1950). In such a family, the child finds that his elemental needs for self-esteem, security, and emotional warmth are frustrated. Not unnaturally, he searches for alternative ways of fulfilling his basic needs, and, if he lives in a delinquent neighborhood, the gang offers him a very “live” option. Typically, too, the socialized delinquent has been reared in a home characterized by a lack of supervision and erratic discipline. In consequence, he has not internalized the usual middle-class standards that could immunize him from delinquent influences in his broader social environment.

Such a child adopts the ethic and customs of the gang as a means of ensuring himself the sense of importance and security denied him in other ways. The gang can offer him acceptance and guidance. By adulthood, the socialized delinquent typically leaves his original home and neighborhood; he undertakes new responsibilities as a father, husband, and wage-earner. Thus, he escapes the influences that led him to delinquency and adopts new social roles that are inconsistent with membership in a juvenile gang.

- **Neurotic delinquency**
  The neurotic delinquent suffers from deep anxiety, intense insecurity, and, often, pervasive guilt. For such a boy, criminal behavior is a way of expressing an unresolved conflict and offers a release from anxiety. His behavior stems from deeply imbedded psychological causes rather than from a simple acceptance of a gang culture as a means of winning prestige. Unlike the socialized delinquent, the neurotic child often commits his crimes alone and usually commits only a single type of crime. His behavior exhibits a compulsive quality that is often absent in socialized delinquents. The juvenile arsonist, sexual offender, or narcotics addict usually comes from the ranks of neurotic delinquents. The motives behind the neurotic’s crimes are varied and difficult to comprehend. The arsonist, for example, may set fires because of exhibitionistic desires; the neurotic burglar may commit his offenses because the act of burglary offers him sexual release (Abrahamsen, 1960).

  Although their specific characteristics and backgrounds differ markedly, neurotic delinquents generally emerge from a more middle-class, conventional environment than do socialized delinquents. Their family’s exhibit severe emotional strain and their parents are usually neurotic or psychotic. Some studies have described the neurotic delinquent as possessing a “relatively weak ego” and as tending to isolate himself from other people, particularly other children (Hewitt & Jenkins 1947). Because their reformation depends upon a profound reorientation in character, neurotic delinquents more often continue their criminal behavior into adulthood than do the typical gang delinquents.

- **Psychopathic delinquency**
  The psychopathic delinquent is relatively rare but, from societies point of view, perhaps the most dangerous of young criminals. The psychopath’s distinguishing traits are (1) his inability to form a lasting emotional relationship with other human beings and (2) his almost total lack of guilt, remorse, or inhibition. Unlike the neurotic delinquent, the psychopath does not suffer from internal conflict or anxiety. Unlike the socialized delinquent, the psychopath does not find emotional satisfaction in gang membership. The psychopathic delinquent commits a wide gamut of crimes and has a remarkably high rate of recidivism. Almost all investigations of psychopaths’ environments indicate that they have been raised in homes characterized by extreme parental brutality, neglect, discord, and intensely severe discipline. Many have come from foster homes or orphanages. They have seldom, if ever, experienced a warm, loving relationship with other human beings, and they seem to lack the capacity for affection. Quite often, the psychopath suffers from a neurological disorder, perhaps of a type that decreases his ability to inhibit impulses (McCord & McCord, 1964).

3. Psychosocial features among minors who commit delinquent behavior (criminal)

Number of minors is variable due to the dynamic process, short sentences, and frequent releases and new entries into custody. Referring to minors in all four sectors, it is estimated that 25% are recidivists and 75% found in a penitentiary institution for the first time. Regarding their educational level, we can say that a relatively small percentage, only 22% have completed 9 years education, while another 22% have not completed even primary education. 78% of minors within the institution attend 9 year compulsory primary education. Fledgling period which corresponds to a large part of it with
adolescence as well (but the latter may continue longer), is a delicate stage in the life of a person, full of anxiety, putting to
the test subject in its interpersonal and social relations and can generate dynamic actions, in many cases can be even
delinquent. Such behavior to the adolescent age group may also be merely transitory youth episodes and are not
repeated after the person matures. However stigmatization as "criminal, thief, murderer, vagabond, vagrant etc", is often
detrimental and leaves consequences in the person's life. One way to avoid such labeling is the understanding of the
causes that promote delinquent behavior. In a large part of cases the minors who commit delinquent behavior have
emotional problems and come from problematic families. So often it is noted that minors who commit deviant behavior
prefer to leave and abandon their families, after considering it an obstructive environment, disturbing and not positive.
The studies concluded that this group of teenagers with deviant behavior is dominated by the lack of well-education,
shown in the form of a deep disinterest to the child from their parents, or the lack of paternal authority and an attitude too
"soft", letting the child to decide on everything, or an inadequate education, very tough and strict, not to say in some
cases tending toward violence. According of psychological characteristics and conditions of isolation in which these
minors suffer the sentence given by the courts or are awaiting trial process, it is easier to understand their ways of
communication in these specific circumstances. There are several reasons identified for the dysfunction of a constructive
communication between minors at this institution.

Changes in socio-cultural level of education among minors. Incompatibility with each other because of differences
ineducational level and consequently the level of understanding.

Impacts of family environment where they are grown. Communication patterns that have been in the past in the family
and peer groups who attended in many cases have been different for these minors. Another factor that affects an
unsuccessful communication between minors is sub cultural background. Often children who do not fit in with the ways of
communicating to each other and that are likely to have a potential chance for conflict among minors coming from
different areas of Albania. Of course in many cases minors overpass this difficulty and find common ground among them
despite the subcultures they come from, however occasionally there is a tendency toward conflict because of this
background.

Personal characteristics: There are those juveniles who want to prove themselves superior, to have an impact on the
sector, they are more impetuous, aggressive, are unable to manage frustration, anger. Everyone wants to be in the
spotlight, to be the "leader", to be heard, in some cases and this leads to disputes, fights or grudge-bearing, which build
barriers to effective communication between them.

Situational stress accumulated from being locked up, family situations (death of a parent, while the minor is in an
institution), the unstable psycho-emotional and in some cases it takes a little to interrupt the verbal and nonverbal
communication between them convenient.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

- The majority of juveniles who have committed deviant behavior and that are in conflict with the law have an unhealthy
self-esteem. Therefore work must be done to increase the sense of self-worth which would help improve communication
between them, would lead to containment and the escalation of conflicts. People in general and teenagers with a healthy
self esteem are less likely to have prejudices toward others. Also, people who have a healthy sense of self-worth are less
likely to react harshly to others. By having a positive view of yourself, minors will be better able to cope constructively with
the problems they face, especially in conditions of isolation, but also after they serve the sentence and become free.

- Efficient involvement of educational staff, the police and other social agents who cooperate with the institution feeding to
minors the sense of equality. Feeling equal stops the building of the hierarchy among juveniles within the same group,
improves communication among them and serves as a value that will serve to minors even after serving the sentence.

- Create more possibilities to be involved with artistic and sports activities. Painting, but also the learning of musical
instruments, the promotion of literary creations by juveniles, and involvement in sports activities will help juveniles
canalized accumulated frustrations and stress in conditions of isolation and be more constructive in relationships with
others.

- Creating a sense of trust and cooperation to counter feelings of suspicion and competition that often created in the
conditions of isolation. This requires that all actors operating in this institution to work in coherence and to be cooperative.
References

An Exploration of Children’s Independent Mobility in Post-socialist Urban Environment, 
The Case of Riga, Latvia

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Abstract: Independent mobility beyond home provides children with an opportunity to acquire valuable spatial experience. Autonomous movements within public space enhance locomotor capability and promote development of spatial cognition for younger children as well as allow to improve social skills and construct identities for teenagers. However, nowadays this type of interaction with environment and the gain from it is endangered by manifestations of late modernity, based on increased use of cars in the everyday transport of children and parents’ enforced concerns on child’s safety. The aim of this paper is to explore the level of independent mobility of children aged 12 to 17 in Riga, the capital city of Latvia and to examine a wide range of background variables (such as gender, distance, ethnicity, age, place of residence, etc.) previously shown to have an influence on children’s trips to school, friends and leisure activities. In this study the quantitative data was used to explain children’s independent mobility within urban spatial domain. The data was derived by a questionnaire survey from children aged 12 to 17 in eight randomly sampled urban schools in Riga. The findings of this study reveal that age, gender and distance from home to school as well as parents’ travel behavior are crucial factors which can prohibit or encourage children’s independent mobility.

Keywords: independent mobility, children, Riga, travel behavior

Introduction

Researchers have claimed that efforts to improve the living conditions of children in Western countries as well as changes of family travel behavior to a car oriented transportation mode due to shortage of time stimulated by complexity of modern urban life lead to reduction of freedom of children’s mobility and autonomy (Fotel & Thomsen, 2004; Mackett, 2002; Rissotto & Tonucci, 2002).

The improvements of living conditions implemented mainly by adults from their perspective obviously was lead to gradual institutionalization of children’s lives through participation in organized out-of-school activities after school. Changes in children’s leisure time patterns are based on concerns of parents considering young people as potential victims exposed to abduction, attacks of gangs or traffic accidents as well as offenders and trouble makers stimulating to squeeze them out of public space (Valentine, 1996). Several researchers have conceptualized this phenomena as ‘spatial bubble’ (Matthews & Limb, 1999) or ‘glasshouse childhood’ (Kytta, 2003) emphasizing that children and young teenagers are only observers, not actors. Reduction of independent mobility is not apparent as decline in territorial range or ‘home range’ (van Vliet, 1983; Matthews, 1987) where children may freely move, but in opportunities granted by parents and environmental setting to move independently to school or other certain places and explore the urban environment without presence of adults (O’Brien et al., 2000; Prezza et al., 2001; Wooley et al., 1999).

Although keeping children and young people indoor leads to their spatial isolation from society and making invisible in public space, previously mentioned changes of travel behavior for trips to everyday activity sites making children more dependent on adults are more worrying. The evidences from Western Europe and North America cities show that car use by children for daily mobility in the last 10-15 years has dramatically increased than in the rest of population (Mackett, 2002). For example, private car usage for school trips in Great Britain among children between the age 11 to 16 has grown from 15% in 1976 to 39% in 2001 (Pooley et al., 2005). The similar trend was observed in the United States of America where from 1969 to 2001 walking and cycling to school among children between the age 5 to 18 had declined from 41% to 12% and usage of car increased from 17% to 55% for school trips (McDonald, 2007). The increase of car use for reaching most of everyday activity sites has changed not only the way how children move through external environment, but also the way how they interact with this environment. Various studies from different countries indicate that regular car use mostly for school trips restrict the opportunity to increase children’s daily physical activity level leading to health problems such as obesity (Armstrong, 1993; Cooper et al., 2003), hinder motor development (Huttenmoser, 1995), affect cognitive, social and spatial development as well as construction of identity (Orsini & O’Brien, 2006; Rissotto & Tonucci, 2002; Wooley et al., 1999).
Previous studies discussing decline in children’s and young people's independent mobility through increase of parents chauffeuring identified several significant factors. First, growth of distance, considered as ‘consequences of spatial development of modern society’ (Mattson, 2002), between home and school or other activity sites mainly due to suburbanization is a crucial factor for young people to choose an active (independent) or passive (dependent) transportation mode (Fyhri & Hjorthol, 2009; McDonald, 2008).

Second, many researchers show that parents restricting independent mobility of their children chauffeuring them to school or other organized activity sites strive to protect young people from bad influence of external environment (Fyhri & Hjorthol, 2009; Hillman & Adams, 1992; Hume et al., 2009; McDonald & Aalborg, 2009). Valentine (1997) suggests that such restrictions are primarily constructed on children’s age and gender, and based on parents’ irrational concerns about safety of their siblings assuming that they are innocent, vulnerable and incompetent to cope with dangers encountered in public space despite the fact that children are often actually more competent than presumed by parents. The stereotypical parents’ view assuming that girls are more vulnerable than boys determines more restrictions for younger girls constraining their freedom of movement within urban public space (Matthews, 1987; Valentine and McKendrick, 1997). The independent mobility differences between boys and girls gradually disappear at the age of 14 (O’Brien et al., 2000). Independent mobility rate of children and passive or active travel depend on household income, the number of cars owned by family and family driving habits associated with convenience of parents (McDonald, 2008b).

Although auto and public transport usage due to soviet urban planning guidelines among children for school trips are less in Riga than in Western cities (Burgmanis, in press), a rapid increase of car ownership, residential deconcentration, transformations of public transport system and formation of monofunctional structure of city raise doubts about opportunities for children to move freely within Riga as well as independently explore the urban environment.

These concerns also propose two important tasks for this study. First, to represent the factors affecting the level of children’s independent mobility to most important activity sites within the city. Second, to reveal the effectiveness of previously described factors on children’s independent mobility level.

The contribution of this study is also an exploration of older children’s autonomy in commuting than in previous researches. The majority of previous studies primarily focused on younger children (under 13 years) rather than young people and common trends of their travel behavior as well as measuring their independent mobility.

Case study area

According to data from CSB (Central Statistical Bureau) in 2010 in total area 307 km² of Riga there lived 709 140 inhabitants. The majority of inhabitants live in new neighborhoods where the dominant type of building is multistory houses which were built in Soviet times. Development of spatial structure in Riga has history more than 800 years and the city has concentric patterns which expanded with historical growth of the city adding new residential and industrial areas starting from the historical center and stretching towards the periphery (Grava, 1993). Significant transformations of the city occurred in the Soviet period when intensified construction of new neighborhoods which began to grow outside the city’s railway ring on both sides of the river Daugava was initiated. Each of new-built neighborhood was adopted from the Western neighborhood concept (Grava, 1993) and planned as a residential area with easy accessibility to most indispensable services such as children daycare center, school, local shop, health center, public-utility service, recreation centers, green areas and public areas for recreation.
Riga had undergone a period of political, social and economic changes after the collapse of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s. Under the conditions of the market principles and newly established real estate market, the ability of commercial uses to outbid all other activities from the central zone pushed residential functions to more peripheral locations (Stanilov, 2007). The patterns of public transport also approve that Riga has a monocentric structure because most of the public transport routes intersect the city center or use it as a terminal shaping center-based system (Grava, 2007).

**Methodology**

The data for this study was obtained from a survey called “The Study of Children’s Activities and Perception of Urban Environment” conducted in February 2010. Questionnaires were distributed to students from grades 6 to 11 in eight Riga schools. The selection of schools for surveying was made considering their location and language of tuition. Hence eight both Latvian and non-Latvian speaking schools were chosen from five residential neighborhoods. 2489 students were surveyed in total, of which 72 were out of the defined study sample age group 12 - 17 years and 116 respondents had filled the questionnaires inaccurately. The highest margin (17 years) of the study sample age group was chosen due to the fact that young people can receive a driving license having reached 18 years. The questionnaires (188 in total) not corresponding to conditions of the sample were eliminated from a further analysis. Further, in data analysis for the statistical analysis 2301 (92% from total survey sample) correctly filled questionnaires were used.

The survey consisted of several parts. The first part elicited general socio-demographic information about the respondent and his/her household characteristics. The second part of the questionnaire examined young people’s travel behavior to school. The last set of questions dealt with family driving habits. For estimating the travel distance from home to school the Google maps were used.

In this study, to reveal and explain the factors affecting independent mobility of children a multiple linear regression model with statistical data processing software SataMP 10 was created and used. For this purpose the respondent’s self-reported most frequently chosen travel mode to four destinations was considered (to school, formal out-of-school activities, friend and city center). Based on these four variables using similar technique as Fyhri & Hjorthol (2009) an additive mobility index was constructed which further in data analysis was employed as a dependent variable. Walking
and cycling were each given three points, using public transport two points and car one point, so that maximum score for each of four variables was three points. These points were summarized, thus giving an index ranging from 4 (lowest independent mobility level) to 12 (highest independent mobility level) (for more detailed explanation of this technique see Fyhri & Hjorthol, 2009). 437 respondents (19%) who did not participate in out-of school activities were excluded from final data analysis so that any child could potentially obtain maximum score on the index.

In this study the original approach of constructing an additive index of independent mobility was slightly changed. Transportation mode to the city center was measured, because the previous researches (Burgmanis, 2011) referring on monofunctional spatial structure of Riga suggest that the city center is a very significant spatial domain in children's lives.

Table 1. Description of independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categorical variable</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Continuous variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age (years) 14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>Distance to school (km) 4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic groups</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present education level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of residence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital city (Riga)</td>
<td>87.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republican and other cities</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipalities of Riga</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zolitude</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kengarags</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrs</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teika</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purvciems</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ car use frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 3 times a week</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of dwelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private house</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Explanatory variables widely discussed in previous researches from Western countries adding only few factors which are characteristic for Riga and other East and Central Europe cities were included in the multiple linear regression model (see independent variables in Table 1.).

Results and discussion

The results of multiple linear regression model (Table 2.) show that, when all variables are considered together, the age of child and gender explain all positive gradual growth of independent mobility index. The increase in age by one year leads to approximately 10% growth of independent mobility index. Similar findings showed Clifton (2003) indicating that older teenagers gain independence in their daily travels more regularly than their younger counterparts. The results of this study also confirm findings from previous studies (McMillan, 2006; McDonald, 2011) that boys move more freely to various activity sites than girls. These differences equalize at the age of 14 (O’Brien et al., 2000). Although the multiple linear regression is appropriate for statistical analysis of children's independent mobility in this study, limited opportunities to predict the margin at which age differences in mobility patterns equalize draw attention on the weakness of such a tool. Another significant explanatory variable of independent mobility level is ethnicity. Probability to use passive transportation modes to activity sites is higher for non-Latvians. However, this finding has no well-grounded explanation in case of Riga as a post-socialist city and should be researched more detailed in future studies.
In the model there were included dummy variables which allowed to compare the effect of school locations where the survey on children’s independent mobility level took place. The results showed that children who attend school situated in the furthest neighborhood (Kengarags) from the city center are more regularly encouraged to use passive transportation modes to reach school, formal activity sites and friends.

### Table 2. Results of Multiple linear regression model. Factors influencing the degree of children’s independent mobility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (ref: girls)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>0.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity (ref: Latvians)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Other ethnic groups</td>
<td>-0.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present education level</td>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>0.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of residence</td>
<td></td>
<td>Capital city (Riga)</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of school</td>
<td></td>
<td>Municipalities of Riga agglomeration</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kengarags</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.420</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrs</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teika</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purvciems</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.056</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents' car use frequency (ref: &lt;3 times a week)</td>
<td></td>
<td>More than 3 times a week</td>
<td>-0.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance to school</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.225</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of dwelling (ref: apartment)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Private house</td>
<td>-0.356</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The finding that frequent car use among parents reduces the score of independent mobility index is not surprising and is consistent with several previous studies (Fyhri & Hjorthol, 2009). Hence it is obvious that parents’ travel behavior and driving habits shape children’s travel behavior. Previous researches from various fields also show that although chauffeuring of children to school and other activity sites is comfortable for parents and enable to dissipate concerns about safety of siblings (McDonald & Aalborg, 2009), for children regular and frequent car use can reduce the activity level provoking health problems (Cooper et al., 2003), opportunities for socializing and face various social situations (Prezza et al., 2001) as well as promote unsustainable travel mode choice in the future (Line et al., 2010).

Regression model also shows that the increase of distance by 1 km between home and school leads to a 22.5% decrease in a respondent’s independent mobility index. This finding is not surprising and also consistent with the majority of previous researches about children’s mobility patterns in Western countries.

The strong negative effects on independent mobility show the type of respondent’s dwelling. The mobility of children living in a detached house is more dependent on parents’ chauffeuring than those who live in apartment houses. The results from some previous studies (Burgmanis, in press) considering children’s travel behavior in Riga showed that the existing relationship between dwelling type and transportation mode choice partially explained this finding by differences
in families’ income level. Although this phenomenon has not previously been widely supported by empirical studies from post-socialist cities, logically it is clear that families with higher income level can choose to live in more desirable conditions, afford a private car and use it more regularly than families with less income level. Another explanation is associated with technical details of study data sample formation where there were included both, children living in Riga and in Riga agglomeration. Considering that the dominant type of dwelling in Riga agglomeration is a private house and the distance from places of residence located within outskirts of the city is larger, it is obvious that children living in a private house are more mobility restricted than their counterparts living in the city and forced to use passive transportation modes due to limited accessibility of activity sites.

Conclusions

It is clear that in late modernity the daily lives of children are more institutionalized or using terms of Zeiher (2003) can be characterized by ‘insularization’ and are extremely dependent on parents. Dramatic changes of parents’ travel behavior lead to similar changes in children’s mobility patterns to most important activity sites. Children’s opportunities to reach the school, formal leisure activities and friends are also influenced by the distances, parents’ travel patterns and concerns about safety. These trends decrease autonomy for children to move freely and use active transportation modes. Similar patterns of children’s mobility are also observable in post-socialist cities.

Although most of previous researches were conducted in Western countries with children younger than 13 years, this study considering Riga as a case study and 12 to 17 years old children as test persons also shows variations in independent mobility level compeering wide range of explanatory variables. The main transportation modes to four significant activity sites in children’s daily lives were used to measure the independent mobility level.

A multiple linear regression model shows that older children and boys travel more independently than younger children and girls in Riga. The acquired results also suggest that the distance to school and parents’ travel behavior prohibit children’s active commuting. The increase of distance from home to school and car usage by parents both lead to more dependent transportation by children. It is more obvious in the case of children who commute from suburbs to the city because the distances are significantly longer than for those who live in Riga. The negative effect of distance on walking in Riga should be also considered as a logical fact that most people are not willing to walk long distances.

This study performed in a post-socialist city demonstrates that the significant effect on children’s independent mobility have the factors which previously was not supported and discussed by the studies from Western Europe and North America such as ethnicity and type of dwelling.

Finally, this study overlooks the effect of urban form on children’s independent mobility level which has been discussed in previous studies. The relationship between variations of mobility or autonomous commuting level and urban form and design should be explored more detailed in further studies.

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References


Education and Gender Issues in Albania: Kukes Region Case

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Abstract: This research was conducted to investigate the realities and mentalities on the education of girls and women in Albania, focusing on the case of the Kukes Region, by gathering quantitative and qualitative data. Education is one of the most important factors that contribute directly on empowering girls and women. If girls and women do not take an education and a profession, they will be unable to get involved to the waves of rapid changes of the modern society. As a result they will remain focused on their gender roles, trapped in their home duties. In this research 400 people were invited to participate in the questionnaires, 25 people in the opened interviews. The findings revealed that education for girls and women in Albania and in Kukes Region particularly, is very difficult especially because of the impact of the patriarchal society, old mentality, and gender roles.

Key words: education; gender issues; Kukes Region; school drop out; patriarchal society; old mentality;

1. Education in Albania and gender issues

With the fall of the communist regime in Albania, there have been a lot of changes in the social, economical and political lives of the Albanian people. For more than 20-years Albania has been struggling with different challenges in her difficult way towards the development and progress; in her difficult way to meet the European standards for integration. Gender equality is one of the conditions for this integration and in my opinion it is one of the most delicate issues to be handled.

For many decades in a row, to deal with gender issues a wide range of national and international approaches have been undertaken. Some of the main important approaches we can mention here: CEDAW, The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Gender Discrimination, ratified in 1993 from the Albanian Government; The Declaration of Vienna and the Action Program, ratified in 1993; The Declaration of Beijing and the Action Platform of 1995, supported by many states and Albania; The Millennium Declaration, ratified on September 2000 on the High Level Meeting of OKB, etc. In the third objective of Millennium Development Goals is emphasized: the promotion of gender equality and empower girls and women, with the target of eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and in all levels of education by 2015.

In all of these approaches is emphasized the important role of gender equality and the empowerment of girls and women, by emphasizing the importance of prevention of discrimination of girls and women in education, politics, employment, professional growth, economical independence, decision making, etc. By ratifying these important approaches the Albanian government is engaged to work for following the direction to deal with gender inequality.

Education is very important for individuals in particular and society in general. In a society as ours, when girls and women are under the dependence and constant surveillance of their fathers, husbands and families, in general the role of education is existential. "...education is essential to secure access to the labor market and serves to legitimate the financial incomes; education is important for other strategies also to improve the life conditions, including the protection of personal rights and the possibility of participating in community institutions" (INSTAT, 2004: 14).

But the system of education itself can bring gender inequalities. According to the well-known researcher Kamla Bhasin, education does not necessarily bring gender equality: “Often even education is patriarchal; it justifies, perpetuates or does not take in account the inequalities between men and wives. Anyalyze of school books and literature for children has shown that there are gender differences in them, in favor of men. This prejudice continues in almost any academic area…” (UNDP, 2005:4).

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1 Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education, 2005, p. 1
The Albanian society has changed within the years but we still find patriarchal elements in its organization, where conducting the proper gender roles is very important. Even when it comes to the system of education we find elements of gender stereotypes.

During the communist regime education was of special importance in state politics, by stressing the importance of education of individuals, men and women. Institutions of education were built even in the remote villages of every city. Although most individuals could not choose the area of study because state structures decided for this, as men also women graduated in different areas of higher education. Anyway, “The socialist state never encouraged to become aware of their inner freedom, or put into question the power of men in the home” (INSTAT, 2004: 24). But with the fall of the regime, many institutions of education came out of function, by letting many children and youth without a place where to get an education. Also, the quality of education offered was falling down because many teachers quit teaching to get involved in other more profitable activities like trade or they got involved in the wave of inside and outside emigration.

Also the role of the state became weak with the fall of the communist regime, in the first year of democracy which was accompanied with the growth of a lot of disturbing phenomena, which weakened particularly the position of girls and women. The Albanian society with patriarchal elements used these events to deny to girls and women their right of education. The danger that could harm girls and women like violence, deceit, human trafficking, robbing, were used as reasons to convince girls and women that they should stay at home for their own sake. The events of 1997 further worsened the situation. The waves of these changes made girls and women to have fears and concerns for their future.

In the chaotic circumstances that were created after the fall of the communist regime, and especially after the events of 1997, a wide range of stories began to spread, which served to the patriarchal mentality to reinforce the conviction that the place of girls and women is at their home, and this not because men want it that way, but simply for their own good and safety.

During these years of strong challenges for the Albanian society, education seemed to have lost its importance, men were emigrating and girls and women were staying at their homes. Many girls interrupted their studies within the elementary system, the lucky ones at their secondary school which made even worse their situation regarding unemployment of girls and women.

Besides the above circumstances, the attitude of youth and other group ages toward education was affected by some other elements as below:

- The lack of job opportunities as the result of the destruction of the state sectors after the fall of the communist regime;
- Having a university diploma didn’t imply that you could have a secure job place anymore;
- The incomes from work at the state sector were not enough to handle the needs of everyday life;
- The involvement in the private sector not necessarily needed the possession of a university diploma because of two reasons: first- the areas of the private sector developed were mostly construction, transportation, sewing or carpentry, etc. second- the rates of the development of this sector were low;
- The immediate economic incomes required to face the everyday needs for living;

All these elements weakened the importance and the role that education used to have. The youth and other group ages of society were focused in solving the most immediate needs in front of them, by not thinking of the benefits that education would bring in the future. The people living in Albania were suffering high levels of unemployment and lack of economical incomes, so they had to focus in finding ways of solving quickly this problem, education was not one of them. Men considered emigration as a means to gain economical incomes, for their family and them. As emigration was bringing more incomes than being employed in the Albanian job market, this served as one more reason especially for men to leave the attendance of school at different levels of education.

The attitude of males toward education was affected especially from the needs of economical incomes different from that of females, whom staying at home and abandoning school was sort of imposed to them. I think that both of these attitudes were affected from the patriarchal mentality of gender roles, the circumstances and the events of the ‘90s served as a stimulant to put, once again, men and girls and women in the position dictated by gender roles. Men had to provide incomes to support the family, as their gender role requested; girls and women had to fulfill the domestic duties, as their gender role dictated. I think that the situation and the circumstances created after the fall of the communist regime and the events of 1997 served as means that the patriarchal society used to reinforce its power.
The end of the 20th century and the beginning of the new millennium brought a new attitude toward education; many young people participated in the competitions to pursue a higher education degree. Nowadays a growing number of youth are pursuing a degree in a public or private university. Based on the data taken from INSTAT\(^2\), in the academic year 2009-2010, 95449 students are attending higher education, 54030 of them are females. As we can notice, the number of female students is higher (data taken from INSTAT 2010).

Although, the percentage of youth that pursue higher education is lower compared with the attendance of other levels of education. According to the data, for the 2008, in elementary education are included 97% of the children, in secondary school 73% and in higher school only 30% of the youth (data taken from INSTAT 2008).

Related to the number of young people that pursue Higher Education in Albania we have the table below referring to the academic year 2009 – 2010. From the table we can see that the number of girls and women that attend university is higher than that of men in those areas that historically were dominated by them and vice versa.

Table 1. Number of students and Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>116292</td>
<td>64130</td>
<td>52162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Total, Public Universities</td>
<td>95449</td>
<td>54030</td>
<td>41419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Tirana University</td>
<td>32884</td>
<td>22473</td>
<td>10411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>University of Politechnic</td>
<td>9812</td>
<td>2743</td>
<td>7069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Institute of Gymnastics</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Arts Academy</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Durrës University</td>
<td>4506</td>
<td>2524</td>
<td>1982</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even if the number of girls and women graduated in higher education is higher than that of men, the number of girls and women in leading positions is still low. This is an indicator of the patriarchal system, where the lower you get in the administration hierarchy the more girls and women you find in the positions, and vice versa. You can notice this by just opening the data published from INSTAT on the number of employed girls and women in different sectors of the economy. So, if we take as an example the Statistics published from INSTAT on the education system, the higher education we have the results as below:

Table 2. Effective academic body in higher education\(^3\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Professors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assistant Professors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers/Lectures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>649</td>
<td>685</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see from the table above, the number of male professors is much higher than that of women professors. As the sociologist Zyhdì Dervishi states: "...in general, the more important are considered the decision making positions in private and public structures, the lower is the representation of girls and women we find in them" (Dervishi, 2001: 99)

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\(^2\) Institute of Statistics, Albania.

\(^3\) Professors, lecturers and assistants (p.24, Female – Male 2006).
2. Education in the region of Kukes and gender issues

The Kukes region lies in the northeastern part of Albania and includes three districts: Kukes, Has and Tropoja, with a population of 111,393 inhabitants (data taken from the Kukes Regional Council). It consists of three municipalities, 21 communes, 187 villages (89 villages in the Kukes District, 30 in Has District and 68 in Tropoja).

A wide range of socio-economic issues disturbs the life of the inhabitants in this region, such as: poverty, unemployment, lack of investments, quality of educational system, and quality of medical services offered in an underdeveloped infrastructure.

2.1 Why Kukes Region?

There are some important reasons that made me choose Kukes Region as a case for this study:

- Education is very important in general for Albanian society but, for Kukes Region education is crucial for its development because 54% of the inhabitants that live there are 25 years old (in average) (SZHQK, 2004: 38);
- Economical difficulties: The region suffers a wide range of socio-economic issues that make the life of the inhabitants very difficult to handle (poverty, unemployment, lack of investments, quality of educational system, quality of medical services offered, underdeveloped infrastructure);
- All these socio-economic problems were accompanied with another phenomenon, the migration of the population in other cities or abroad, especially young generations. From 1989 to 2001, 25% of the population moved from the Kukes Region (SZHQK, 2004: 36).
- The Secondary school enrollment is lower comparing to other levels of education; From the statistical data, the participation of boys and girls in the secondary school is at disproportion, something that it is not noticed at the elementary school.
- The number of Secondary schools is very low to handle the number of children that finish elementary system, especially in the villages (92 elementary schools and 20 secondary schools); These schools are mainly situated in the cities, especially the villages lack opportunities to offer secondary education for the young people that live there.
- The number of children and youth that abandon school is higher than the average in all the country;
- Mostly girls are the ones that abandon secondary school; In Secondary School, 23% of the students that attend are females, 75% are males. This is a very serious concern for the region, as this impedes girls to have the right to go further in their education. Secondary school is the trampoline for students to high school and it seems that in Kukes region, girls are the ones that abandon secondary school most; as a result their possibilities to follow higher education are stopped here.
- The lack of infrastructure and geographical distances: The problem is much more disturbing in the villages because the higher percentages of girls that abandon secondary school are from the villages. The long geographical distance between the cities and the villages in the Kukes Region is seen by the inhabitants as the reason for the lack of development, investments and opportunities in this region. The roads are dangerous and even more dangerous during the winter months. This lacking of infrastructure affected the possibilities of youth, especially of girls to pursue education.

2.2 Methodology

**Instruments:** The instruments used in this study are: first, data gathered from the local institutions like Regional Education Directory, Kukes Prefecture; secondly, 400 questionnaires and 25 interviews are administered; thirdly, direct observations, a method facilitated by the fact of being an inhabitant of one of the districts of the Kukes Region.

**Participants:** In this study participated 400 people from the Kukes region, 200 of them females and 200 males. The age of the respondents included in the research was from 18 years old and above. Also, 25 respondents participated in the open interviews.

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4 For more information, refer to The Development Strategy of the Kukes Region.

5 For more information, refer to The Development Strategy of the Kukes Region.
2.3 Secondary school, the trampoline to high school enrollments

As we mentioned before, dropping out of the school in one of the main problems in Kukes Region, not only from elementary education but mostly from secondary education. This is a very disturbing issue as only the ones that attend the secondary school have the right to be eligible to apply for higher education. Data for the attendance of girls in secondary school are in their disfavor, especially for the girls in the villages. In the villages the secondary schools are fewer, they usually are very far from their houses, with the mountainous landscape, lack of infrastructure, it is very difficult to attend regularly the lessons in winter time. “The decreasing number of girls that attend secondary education is a serious concern for the region and its development in the future” (SZHQK, 2004: 50).

2.3.1 Why do boys drop out of the secondary school enrollment?

The respondents think that the reasons why boys drop out of secondary school are as below:

- Boys are not fond of studies, they mostly are ‘obliged’ from their parents to study (45% of the respondents agree); One of the respondents, 50 years old, stated that “Parents pay more attention to the boys education because they are less concentrated than girls and do not read as much as girls do”, girls do not need to be encouraged, by nature they study more than boys.
- Education does not bring employment and the job opportunities are few, as a result boys find it useless to spend all those years in education institutions just to be ‘unemployed with a degree’ as the respondents say (37%);
- If you want to open a private business you can do it even if you do not have a degree, all you need to have are the material means (43%);
- Working at state institutions does not provide enough incomes for living, as the respondents state: ‘ state wages are girls and women wages’ (57%);
- Emigration is seen as an important way for incomes (54%); Relating to the results, was noticed that the young male respondents still consider emigration as one of the most important options for their future, sometimes much better than education. Even nowadays you can hear teenage boys say that they plan to go abroad to work for some years to guarantee a better future for themselves. Because these incomes were higher than the ones they could gain from the job market in the region of Kukes, or anywhere in Albania, this served as one more reason to alienate youth, especially boys, from attending all the levels of the education system. But even for the ones that are pursuing higher education, emigration is still considered as an option for their future. The student respondents state that maybe they can go and work abroad for some years after graduating, collect some incomes, and then return and why not to work in the profession they have graduated.

Below some statements from the respondents:

“I am studying economics because I think that it is important to have a profession so I can have a job in the future. But, after finishing my studies I think that I will consider emigration as an option. A man needs to have some incomes before starting a family, and job opportunities in Albania offer nothing, the salaries here are not enough to have coffee with friends all month. So, I think that I will go abroad, work for some years, save some money and then I can return and work in my profession.” (a student, 20)

“I have returned in Albania (Kukes) three years ago. I worked abroad for 13 years, and I do not see where is the importance of higher education in offering you a better future? I have learned a profession while abroad that gives me incomes to have better life than my teacher friend does. You know, I have a friend of mine that works as a teacher, well I can say that I would never enter all that trouble, to study 4 years in Tirana, live as students do, to depend all my life on a job that has a ridiculous salary.” (a man, 40)

2.4 The situation of girls related to education

“Generally girls see education as the main way towards their self-assertion, especially in these difficult years of transition full of all kinds of difficulties and challenges” (Dervishi, 2004: 15). But, how girls and woman react toward work (and education) is product of special circumstances, opportunities, constrains and choices they make in respect thereof or in response to them (Marks and Huston, 2002: 523).

The dropping out of school by girls is more problematic because none of the reasons regard their case. Here lays the most difficult problem, school buildings could be built and could be well equipped with the necessary means, this requires
only financial means and good will. Whereas the problem of abandoning of school for girls is more difficult to solve and the problems this brings to society their noneducation have an effect on all the members of the society and on the general development of the society itself.

From the results of the research, the respondents agree that education is very important for girls and women (63%). “I do not see another option for the girl from Kukes Region than education, to secure them a better future. Education is the only option girls have to challenge old mentalities and to have other activities than domestic ones. I am lucky to have a diploma, because I have a job that allows me to leave home and domestic worries aside for some hours everyday. And the most important thing, I have a salary, maybe is not much, but I do not have to ask for money all the time.” (a woman, 27). As the respondents say, education is the only opportunity especially for girls and women ‘to make it in life’ One of the respondents (20 years old), a student in Faculty of Law states: ‘the future of society depends from education and the development of girls and women; she is the head of society’. On the other hand, even the male respondents are positive regarding to this issue. One of the respondent, 52 years old- graduate states: ‘the education of girls and women is very important because it brings development to the society and pushes the life forward. An educated girl and woman educate better her children’. You can notice the tendency to relate girls and women with their gender roles, taking care of children.

2.4.1 Which are the impediments that stop girls to get an education and make them move away from the school desks to become “professionals” of house duties?

We mentioned above the important disturbing fact that girls are the ones that drop out of school, especially secondary school. This shows that the case of girls abandonment of school is a critical issue that needs to be treated. Respondents are asked two different questions regarding this issue: 1. Which are the factors that influence the decrease the value of higher education for girls? 2. Which are the reasons that affect the growth of secondary school drop out of girls? The answers given are different, but both of them are examples of the delicacy with which this problem needs to be handled.

According to the respondents, regarding to the factors that influence the decrease the value of higher education for girls the results are as below:

- The respondents think that girls and women in Kukes Region are paid less than man, so it is not worth to spend all those years in school when they can use their time in a more useful and productive way at home; The male respondents say that “girls and women’s salary its not so important”, she has to stay at home with her family, this has to be the priority for girls and women (46%);
- Girls and women in decision making position in Kukes Region are a few, the ones that are, are prejudiced and rumored by others; According to the data taken, in the Region of Kukes 71 women are in decision making positions, that is only 5% of the total number of employed girls and women. If we refer to the education system in the region, although the number of female employees is higher than that of man (66% are female), only 17 of them are in decision making positions6. This serves as discouragement for girls and women to pursue higher education as a means for progression and career development.
- If girls and women want to pursue education they have to sacrifice, to choose between profession and family; to be married or to get an education; both are very difficult for girls and women in Kukes Region (48% totally agree, 28% are male);
- Education does not guarantee an occupation (27%). Kukes region is characterized by a high level of unemployment, especially for girls and women; State job opportunities are a few, and as regards to the private sector, the areas developed in Kukes region do not offer many opportunities for girls and women. Private sector in Kukes region includes the building sector, trade and transportation, etc. (Regional Council, 2006: 48-49). These areas are male dominated areas that offer little for the employment of girls and women.

The problem of abandonment of secondary school for girls is more problematic as the opportunities offered are a few in this region. If you do not pursue secondary schools and then higher education it seems that the only option left is to get married. In Kukes Region you can find courses like nursery, hairdresser, dressmaker, which can serve as a way of getting a profession and by exercising it they will have the opportunity to earn incomes and why not be economically

6 Për më shumë informacion referoju Raporti të Progresit të Strategjisë së Kukësit, Shtator 2006, faq 34.
independent from their families or husbands. But these opportunities given to them are traditional female areas that usually are underpaid; they do not help girls and women to achieve a better status or to progress in their professional and social career. On the other hand the reality has shown that it is very difficult to put this knowledge in practice because the girls and women that have taken these courses lacked opportunities of employment. Also, another problem related to abandoning secondary schools is that this makes the possibilities for employment very difficult, and leave girls and women within domestic activities.

2.4.2 What are the reasons that affect the growth of secondary school drop out of girls?

The old patriarchal mentality is very strong in Kukes Region, and still continues to affect the life of inhabitants in this region. You can notice that by a simple look at the bars and roads around, mainly male clients and passers by. The situation in the villages is even worse, ‘girls and women do not go in the bars or walk alone in the streets, it is a shame for them and the families that allow it. They have to be accompanied by a brother, father or husband’ stated one respondent (40 years old). You can not dare to pass twice in the same road if you do not want to be rumored about by the male spectators. As long as the patriarchal system will dominate the situation of girls and women will not change, the domestic sphere will be still their duty, and the breadwinner man’s duty (Grint, 2005). ‘The women are judged by fanatic and unemployed people, who do not have anything else to do all day long’ (woman, 43). ‘men prejudge women, they judge every step a woman makes, they do not miss any occasion to make fun with their friend when hanging around bars all day long’ (woman, 35). 53% of the respondents agree that old patriarchal mentality is one of the main factors that affect the growth of secondary school drop out of girls, 34% of them are female.

Girls and women that pursue the higher education, which work or are in leading positions are attacked by the old social opinion. The more successful the girls and women are the more they are attacked. Old mentality does not ascribe her success to her skills but they always want to find what is after this success.

Gender roles and marriage in young age: Domestic duties historically have been considered attached to girls and women. The debate of how and why these roles are attached to girls and women continues even nowadays. The importance of this debate lays in the fact that these gender roles are the ones that impede girls and women to succeed in other areas (Dervishi, 2004), where girls and women can make an important contribution, like politics, economy, law, education and so on. It looks like the role of the housewife has become equal with the terms girls and women. In the patriarchal society of Kukes region these roles are clearly divided, you can find out by a simple quick look in the roads of these region, filled with men, or just nock on the doors of the houses to find these girls and women , cleaning, washing, cooking, taking care pf children and so on. And as long as gender roles will not change it will be very difficult to change the position of girls and women (England and Farkas, 1986).

From the results we found out that the respondents agree with the statement that: ‘for girls and women, caring about children and family comes first’. Almost 67% of the respondents agree with the statement (37% of them were male and 30% female). We can notice that not only male respondents agree but also the percentage of female respondents is considerable. It looks like girls and women have accepted their gender roles, and seem naturally to sacrifice professional and public career if they are needed at home, and they always are.

Marrying at young age is considered as an obstacle for the education of girls, especially in the villages (46% of the respondents consider marriage as an obstacle for education, 24% are female). At the first years after the fall of the communist regime, marrying at young age became normal and getting married was seen as a priority for girls. It was usual to hear peopoe say that “if girls do not marry till their twenties, they will stay single forever”. Even today continues this trend, girls get married at young age, and usually they have age differences with their hunband, who are much older than them. This trend coused girls to commit themselves to the new family obligations by giving up pursuing further education.

Below some statements from the respondents:

‘Why do you have to invest all that energy and money for at least five years to educate girls, when the job that she will do will be badly paid. It is not worth to go through all that stress by reading and taking exams. Besides this, us parents, except for the expenses, why do we have to go through all that stress by worrying if something happens at her, if she can be robbed or violated, if she has an accident, etc. Do you think it is worth all these troubles when the result is the same. Better for her to stay at home, then marry and create her own family.” (a woman, 52)
“I do not see another option for the girls from Kukes Region than education, to secure them a better future. Education is the only option girls have to challenge old mentalities and to have other activities than domestic ones. I am lucky to have a diploma, because I have a job that allows me to leave home and domestic worries aside for some hours everyday. And the most important thing, I have a salary, maybe is not much, but I do not have to ask for money all the time.” (a woman, 37)

“I can not use the words people say for girls at universities...I do not understand these people, how can they say those things, they may have their relatives at school in the future....”(a woman, 28)

2.4.2 A branch of the Economic University is available in the city of Kukes- an opportunity to be taken

In the Academic Year 2007 – 2008, a branch of the Faculty of Economics, University of Tirana, opened in the Kukes region. This gave the opportunity to attend the higher education to many young people including girls and women, which for various reasons couldn’t attend the University in Tirana or in other cities in Albania.

From the data taken from this faculty it results that the Academic Year 2009-2010, 390 students were enrolled, from which 239 were females and 151 were males. From the data taken from the interviews among the reasons for this high attendance of girls and women are fewer economic expenses, the vicinity to their homes, the physical security of girls, etc. An interviewee states: “girls are safer here, they can come home in the evening, there are fewer riks here than in Tirana.”

The people interviewed were asked if this high attendance of girls and women was an indicator of an attenuation in the mentality and prejudice for girls and women. From the data we noticed it was mostly man (60%) who thought so rather than women (20%). The data shows that girls and women don’t think the mentality and prejudice has become easier. Anyway they see it as an chance to be taken in order to fulfill their desire or their need to get an education degree.

Another respondent interviewed states: “The attenuation of mentality? I don’t think this is the reason for the attendance of the faculty here by females. They are allowed because they can be surveilled. They make sure the girls come straight home from school, the father, the brother or the husband chaperons them from the house to the faculty and vice-versa”.

2.5 In Conclusions

The reasons for dropping out the school by boys and girls stated by the respondents are different, but the consequences of school abandonment are harsher on girls than boys. The reality has shown that although boys abandon school they have managed to find other ways or activities to organize their life and for providing incomes, on the other hand, for girls this has resulted very difficult, like an imprisonment at home, in the domestic sphere. But if we want to place girls and women in their positions in the areas above and to prevent discrimination, girls and women need to have a profession and the proper education. I think that the main factor in girls and women empowerment is education, especially the higher education attendance. The modern and developed society needs educated people, graduated professionals that are able to offer qualitative services, to produce and invent new ones. If girls and women do not take a profession they will be unable to get involved in the waves of rapid changes of the modern society. As a result they will remain focused on their gender roles, trapped in their home duties.

Education gives the girls and women in the Kukes region a peaceful weapon to fight against gender inequalities. With it girls and women have one more chance to climb the steps of a professional and social career. But for girls and women various step backs come across in her way to see her back in attending the different levels of education. The girls and women from Kukes face these step backs and independently from those many girls and women have studied and continue studying up to the highest levels of education.

One of the step backs for the “setting free” of girls and women will be those girls and women who have been deeply impregnated with the prejudices and mentalities of the society regarding their role and place, rather than the difficulty to step back from these roles and express a different opinion.

Looks like the mentality, the customs and the tradition have played their part, the inculcation of the roles for females and males in that degree that the men need not continually emphasize them or as much as before because are the girls and women themselves that contribute to this process. School buildings can be put up, but the problem of dropping out of school by girls and women is deeply instilled in the mentalities of people with emphasized patriarchal elements, the clear division of gender roles, prejudices and despicable opinions about them.
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Affixed Words With Derogatory Meaning in English-Albanian and Albanian-English Dictionaries

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Abstract: Albanian has a lexicographic tradition of 400 years old and a valuable fund of over 500 dictionaries. Regarding bilingual dictionaries, it can be compared with countries, whose lexicography is really developed. English lexicographic tradition dates back to 1680s. Dictionaries are not only evaluated by the volume of words they reflect, but also by the lexico-pragmatic groups, relating to definite conceptual fields that are reflected by maintaining the proportions and scales that are set among these groups. The words in bilingual dictionary can be reviewed even by the emotional connotation criterion. The words are divided into two big groups. In neutral words that do not have in their semantic structure emotional semas and words with emotional connotation. Words with emotional connotation are not only an inseparable part of speech among people, but they are also found in bilingual English-Albanian and Albanian-English dictionaries. The more words, the dictionary's macrostructure has, the more words with emotional connotation it will have. In this paper we treat the pragmatic subgroup of affixed words with emotional derogatory meaning in English and Albanian, and Albanian-English dictionaries, focusing on similarities, differences and the lexico-semantic relativization phenomenon between them. This contrastive analysis emphasizes the fact, that they belong to two different language families and these languages differ in important ways from one another.

Keywords: lexicography, monolingual, bilingual, dictionaries, English, Albanian

1. Introduction

The history of Albanian lexicography and linguistics in general. begins with a bilingual dictionary, the Dictionarjum Latino-Epiroticum (Kostallari A.1970).

Since that time, to the middle of our century about 100 dictionaries have been compiled, but almost half of them were never published, so from the historical point of view there exists an Albanian lexicography in manuscripts, which preserves its value up to our days. All these dictionaries are bilingual, some of them are also multilingual (Lloshi XH. 2011).


For, the English Dictionary, like the English Constitution, is the creation of no one man, and of no one age; it is a growth that has slowly developed itself adown the ages. Its beginnings lie far back in times almost prehistoric. And these beginnings themselves, although the English Dictionary of to-day is linearly developed from them, were neither Dictionaries, nor even English. As to their language, they were in the first place and principally Latin: as to their substance, they consisted, in large part at least, of glosses. Latin was in Western Europe the only language of books, the learning of Latin the portal to all learning. (Murray J.1900).

"The first author who named his Latin compilation Dictionarius was apparently John of Garland (c.1195-c.1272). The large and popular Latin dictionaries from the Middle Ages have titles such as Elementarium (i.e. for beginners), Derivationes (i.e. assembling word-families), Catholicon (i.e. a comprehensive collection), Medulla (i.e. the quintessence), etc. The term 'dictionary' came to be used more frequently in the course of the seventeenth century," Later Johannes Balbus of Genoa was "the first lexicographer to achieve complete alphabetization. A dictionary in every language is
compiled to give information whether a monolingual or a bilingual dictionary. The type and purpose of using this information, the structure of the presentation and access, life expectancy and opportunities of updating, its width, etc. determine the type of vocabulary. Dictionaries are not assessed solely by their volume (or number of units they reflect), but also by the paradigmatic lexical groups (relating to certain conceptual domains). Words in a bilingual dictionary can also be seen by the criterion of emotional coloring. Because words emotional coloration are not only an integral part of colloquialism among the people, but they are all found in bilingual dictionaries English - Albanian and Albanian English. We have presented and analyzed examples of the paradigmatic subgroup of words with deteriorating emotional meaning, formed by means of negative affixes, as in English and Albanian, dictionary compiled by Pavli Qesku in 2002. Albanian – English dictionary compiled by Pavli Qesku, [Tiranë 1986, 442 pp.] and English-Albanian- Dictionary by Pavli Qesku Tiranë 1999, Oxford English Albanian Dictionary - 2000, approximately 70,000 units), compiled by Leonard Newmark, in terms of comparison between these two languages.

2. Beginnings of English and Albanian lexicography

The history of dictionary making for the English language goes as far back as the Old English period. The earliest dictionaries in the English language were glossaries of French, Italian or Latin words along with definitions of the foreign words in English. It should be noted that the word “dictionary” was firstly used in a manuscript of Latin words by John Garland in 1225. An early non-alphabetical list of 8000 English words was the Elementarie created by Richard Mulcaster in 1592. (A Brief History of English Lexicography, Peter Erdmann and See-Young Cho, Technische Universität Berlin, 1999.)

Based on Robert Cawdrey’s A Table Alphabeticall first published in London in 1604, as well as a very useful introductory essay on the lexicographer’s life and work, we understand that it is regarded as the first fully developed representative of the monolingual dictionary in English. Nathaniel Bailey was famous for his “Universal Etymological English Dictionary, published in 1721. Later two of the greatest names in lexicography are Samuel Johnson (1709-1784) and Noah Webster (1758-1843). Johnson, the English writer, poet, biographer, and critic, produced his great Dictionary of the English Language in 1755. Although it was not the first English dictionary, it was certainly the best and the most complete up to that time. Webster’s two-volume 1828-th dictionary, “An American Dictionary of the English Language”, was by far the largest and most impressive dictionary in America up to that time.

In Albanian the western tradition of dictionary-making began with the Greeks when changes in the language made many words in the literature unintelligible to readers. According to Kostallari 1970, the history of Albanian lexicography begins with the, the Dictionarjum Latino-Epiroticum, published in 1635 with about 5000 words in Latin and 2500 in Albanian. From then, to the middle of the 19th-th century about 100 dictionaries have been compiled, but many were never published. All these dictionaries are bilingual, some of them are also multilingual. For a long period of time dictionaries served as one of the ways of defending and cultivating the Albanian language. Together with a few religious translations and several poetic creations, they constituted the Albanian literature and even the study of Albanian(Xhevat Lloshi). The bilingual dictionaries testified to the fact that the Albanians had become conscious of the threats to their culture and were trying to protect and promote it. Later C. Christophorides, compiled a specific type of Albanian dictionary, which at the same time served as bilingual dictionary([Kostallari 1968. Lloshi 1977). This specific type was later followed by the Dictionary of the “Bashkimi Society” (1908) and that compiled by Hondro (Lloshi 1982).

3. The classification of dictionaries

The classification of dictionaries is a very important aspect of lexicography "bearing a direct practical significance" (Shcherba in Srivastaba 1968) to the preparation of dictionaries) [http://www.cil-ebooks.net/html/lexico/link5.htm]. The entire work of dictionary making from the planning stage to the preparation of press copy, at its different stages, collection of materials, selection and setting of entries and arrangement of entries and their meanings is largely governed on the basis of which the dictionary is classified. Dictionaries can be classified into different types on the basis of several criteria, varying from the nature of the lexical entry to the prospective user of the dictionary. Their relationship to foreign language learning, and the typology of bilingual dictionaries. Starting from Scherba’s typology focusing on the active-passive dichotomy, the four major functions generally assigned to bilingual dictionaries are discussed: reception in TL; + production in SL; production in TL; reception in SL + production in TL.
3.1 The main criteria for the classification of dictionaries

- Density of entries:
- The number of languages involved:
- The nature of entries: whether lexical only or also encyclopedic
- Axis of time: whether diachronic (dynamic) or synchronic (static)
- Arrangement of entries: alphabetical or semantic or causal.
- Purpose: whether normative or referential.
- The prospective user: whether meant for the general reader to find out general linguistic information or for special users to know some special aspects of the lexical unit say etymology etc.? Is it meant for the general language or only for the language of literature, the language of some author, or the language of some of his works?

Although a typological classification is essential, it is impossible to delimit the types into a strict water-tight framework. When we analyse any entry we usually find that many characteristics of different types of dictionaries have been included in it. There is a large amount of overlapping in different types of dictionaries. Although there is no clear cut division between the scope and the coverage of the dictionaries, there are dictionaries with definite focus on some aspects of the language.

3.2 The main types of dictionaries

- semasiological and onomasiological perspectives
- monolingual, bilingual and multilingual dictionaries
- concordances,
- terminology dictionaries
- lexica
- thesauri
- encyclopaedias
- lexical databases

3.3 The main parts of dictionaries

According to Dafydd Gibbon, the architecture of a dictionary consists in:

-Megastructure: It is the overall structure of the whole dictionary, consisting of the front matter (title, introduction, metadata on publishing house, publisher, date of publication, etc.) abbreviations and basic explanations, for example a mini-grammar, the actual body of the dictionary with its semasiological or onomasiological information and the back matter.

-Macrostructure: It is the organization of the lexical entries in either lists (semasiological dictionaries), tree structures (onomasiological dictionaries) or networks (electronic or online dictionaries). A semasiological dictionary can also be called a reader's dictionary, as it explains the meaning of words, and decodes them. It consists of a list of a definitions of words, mostly also contextual explanations are given. The macrostructure of a dictionary is, first and foremost, the ordered list of its entries.

-Mesostructure: It is the set of relations between lexical entries and other entities such as other parts of a dictionary or a text corpus. It links all the individual entries together within the microstructure and it also links the entries to other parts of the dictionary such as or a text corpus.

-Microstructure: It is the consistent organization of lexical information in the dictionary. The structure of each individual lexical entry, the information on the structure of the word, the organization of the lexical information content, pragmatics, semantics
4. The nature of bilingual dictionaries

Of all specialized dictionaries, the bilingual group is the most serviceable and frequently used. With the rise of vernacular languages during the Renaissance, translating to and from Latin had great importance. The entire work of a bilingual dictionary involves providing equivalents to the lexical units of one language by the lexical units of another language i.e. "coordinating with lexical units of one language those lexical units of another language which are equivalent in their lexical meaning" (Zgusta L. 1971). Before starting work on a bilingual dictionary, a detailed planning is respect of its purpose, coverage, and audience should be done by the lexicographer. The purpose of the dictionary should be clearly defined. It's aim should equally serve the purpose of the speakers of both the source and target language. It should be designed to serve the speakers of the source language only, or the speakers of the target language only. It should aim to help in comprehension or in production and for who, the source language speaker or the target language speaker.

A primary problem in the composition of a bilingual dictionary is to decide whether the work is intended primarily for the speakers in our case of Albanian language or the speakers of English language. It is clearly impossible to pay equal attention to both English speakers and Albanian speakers in one and the same work. Equally revealing is the remark by (Haas 1967), "Thinking they are preparing a dictionary for the speakers of both languages, they may easily end up producing a dictionary which is not useful as it should be to the speakers of either language".

Another point to be noted about the purpose of the dictionary is whether it is prepared for the use of scholars or for student or for layman. Generally speaking a dictionary which pursues exclusively one of the possible intentions is a rare phenomenon. "It is possible only in a language with abundant lexicographic resources or in situations which do not allow another solution. The dictionary is planned as to be helpful in more than one respect." (Zgusta L. 1971).

Another point related to the dictionary designed with the speakers of the source and target language in view is the language of direction in the introductory part as also with each individual entry. If the dictionary is meant for the speaker of the source language, the introduction and direction should be in the source language, but if it is meant for the target language speaker, it should be in the target language.

For example, in an English Albanian dictionary meant for an English speaker the direction should be in English. Similarly in Albanian English Dictionary meant for an English speaker the direction should be in English. But if the same dictionaries are meant for the speakers of the source language the direction will be in the source language. The dictionary for the comprehension of the texts aims at the understanding of the foreign language text. It may be called the general bilingual dictionary. Such dictionaries have large word list which includes not only words of general nature but also argotisms, archaisms, in some measure the necessary special terms and neologisms. Each word is given with all its possible meanings. The description of the entry is very short, its sole purpose is to give the meanings of the source language words. Collocations and illustrative examples are not given. Only literal equivalents in the target language are given. their relationship to foreign language learning, and the typology of bilingual dictionaries.

An entry from Oxford-English dictionary would make it clear:
Unad′visableness (f. prec. + -ness.) The quality of being unadvisable: a.a Of persons.

1771 Wesley Wks. (1872) V. 476 As he grows in pride, so he must grow in unadvisableness and in stubbornness also.
b.b Of things. In recent use (1891–) also unadvisability (for earlier inadvisability).

1833 Gen. P. Thompson Exerc. II. 374 In proof of the unadvisableness of permitting the extension of manufacturing
industry. 1841 Craik in Pict. Hist. Eng. ix. vii. IV. 853/1 The impossibility or unadvisableness of carrying it [the Licensing Act] rigorously into execution. 1877 M. Arnold Last Ess. on Church 217 The unadvisableness of using the occasion of burial for passing sentence of condemnation…against the particular person dead.

The dictionary for production, on the other hand, although it might contain a comparatively smaller word list, provides a detailed description of the entries. The user is furnished with more details of usages and collocations. It contains more details of morphological and syntactical features.

An entry from English-Albanian Dictionary (Pavli qësku) would make it clear:
Disarm{dis′a;m}I kal dhe fig Çarmatos. (1) .To disarm oneself vetë çarmatosem.To disarm s.o. of his rifle ja heq pushkën dikujt. To disarm,s.o with a smile fig e bej per vete dike me nje buzeqeshje.II jokal Çarmatosem. Disarmed mb i çarmatosur.Disarming I mb. Çarmatoses;qe ti prët krahet;fig qe te ben per vete. She had a disarming manner ajo te bente per vete me sjelljen e saj. Il em Çarmatosisje;çarmatim.-ly ndajfi. He was disarmingly frank ai te çarmatos me çhlersine e tij. Disarmament{d′a:mɔmənt} em Çamatim.. General disarmament çarmatim i pergjithshem. the presentation of meaning in bilingual dictionaries.

Starting from the late (John Sinclair′s 2004) motto that meaning is the only thing that is ultimately worth bothering about in language, Arleta Adamska-Salaciak shows how recent advances in corpus linguistics and in cognitive linguistics have impacted the field of bilingual lexicography. The relation between the source language item and the target language item. Levels and degrees of equivalence are discussed, as well as the status of glosses, which are useful when a target language item is less well-known in the target-language culture than the corresponding source-language item in the source-language culture. The author very convincingly demonstrates that automatically generating an L2-L1 dictionary on the basis of an L1-L2 dictionary which one reverses without any human editorial work will produce disastrous results. Even if this is something which lexicographers are usually well aware of, Salaciak′s demonstration is worth reading and is illustrated with real examples. Her inevitable and our conclusion is that full symmetry of the two dictionary sides is neither possible nor desirable (Arleta Adamska-Salaciak 2006).

5. Problems of Bilingual dictionaries

As (L P Stupin 2004) outlines 3 problems of bilingual lexicography, are:
1) word-list 2)word choice 3) alphabetic arrangement of material.
1.(One of the famous and most available bilingual dictionary is English Albanian dictionary with approximately 120000 words and 600000 examples and idioms
2) The problem of word choice arises inevitably while compiling any dictionary for no dictionary can register all the words of a given languages. It includes only some groups of lexis leaving aside another ones.
3) While making bilingual dictionary the three problems appears dealing with arrangement of words according to their external forms being arranged strictly in alphabetical order. It is not an ideal one for words that being not correlated are put together or words that being semantically related are dispersed in different parts of dictionary, that′s why you can′t follow properly the structure of the language lexical system. As a result one can′t find words signifying one notion or some relative notions in alphabetically arranged dictionary. (L.V.Malakhovsky in Lexicography, lectures 2004) stressed out some more disadvantages of bilingual dictionaries: a)such as alphabetic reference books are only translating ones for they explain word′s meaning only through equivalents of another language. However due to peculiar historical development of every language and conditions of its development, the system of meanings of one language doesn′t coincide with the system of meaning of analogous word in another language. It is clear that simple enumeration of translating equivalents of a word doesn′t produce distinct idea of its whole volume of meanings, b) bilingual, translating dictionaries show extremely rare words′ distribution, i.e. that typical verbal surrounding, that syntactical model in which the given meaning of the word only may realize. All these demerits of bilingual dictionaries are related with one of the central problems of any national lexicography, i.e. the problem of the norm.
The norm, is linguistic reality that exists objectively in the given language.

Compiling a dictionary to start with any lexicographer should solve one or another problem of language and norm. Thus solution depends upon both as coverage of registered words in the dictionary and some devices of its processing which
in its turn forms total scientific value of any lexicographic work. This problem of norm is rather complicated in many aspects. L. P. Stupin outlines some questions to be solved:

- objectivity of norm existence
- adequate reflection of language reality in a dictionary
- objectivity and inevitability of language changes
- a role of lexicographer while he/she registers facts of language and speech
- lexicographer’s attitude to idea of language perfection and improvement
- maximum of units number and coverage
- material processing devices included in any dictionary.

Actually any reference book may be considered to be reliable when it truly reflects, treats and interprets facts of language in the given language group at the given moment of life.

6. Affixed words with derogatory meaning in Albanian-English and English - Albanian dictionaries

Compiling a dictionary is a scientific task, so it is very difficult for his compiler to obtain excellent results. According to Samuel Johnson, the most famous dictionary compiler of the 18-th century "Every other author expects to be praised, whereas the dictionary compiler can expect just not to be offended, but even this is achieved by a few".

A dictionary of every kind is compiled to provide information. Type and purpose of using this information, structure of the presentation and access, life and opportunities of its updating, at the most, determine the type of a dictionary. Dictionaries are not assessed only by their volume (or the number of units that it reflects), but also by the paradigmatic lexical groups (associated with certain conceptual areas) that are reflected by maintaining the proportions and scales that are placed between these groups. A good knowledge of word-formational principles of any foreign language is essential because it can compensate the absence of some entries that is impossible in the native-to-foreign dictionary and besides supplementary material with data on word formation can be very helpful.

Words in a bilingual dictionary can also be seen by the criterion of emotional coloring. Words are divided into two major groups, the neutral words (that do not have emotional semas in their semantic structure) and words with emotional connotation. Since words with emotional coloration that not only are an integral part of discourse between people, but they are found in all bilingual dictionaries English - Albanian and Albanian English. Whereas their number in one or another dictionary depends on the type of dictionary. The more words its macrostructure has the more words with emotional coloring it will have. In the compilation of bilingual dictionaries by Pavli Qesku and also Oxford Albanian-English Dictionary by Leonard Newmark as well as monolingual dictionaries as oxford English dictionary and Albanian-Albanian dictionary 2006 we have analyzed affixed words with derogatory meaning, their similarities and differences in form and meaning respectively as well as lexico-semantic relativity phenomenon between this equivalent derogatory words and these two languages in the mean time. In bilingual dictionaries it has been done a systematic comparison of these two languages, because by this way can be determined, the elements that draw the two compared systems nearer, and on the other hand on this basis, are scientifically compared even those elements that make them distinct and eventually represent special difficulty during translation. Different languages have different lexicons (vocabularies), but the important point here is that the lexicons of different languages may classify things in different ways.

Theoretically in the biggest English- Albanian and Albanian-English dictionaries bilingual dictionaries for every negative English word the compiler has tried to find a corresponding Albanian one and vice versa. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Albanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asymmetrical-asimetrik, jasimetrik</td>
<td>Asimetrik-Asymmetrical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antiallergic-antialergjik, kundëralergjik</td>
<td>Antialergjik-antiallergenic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decentralize-decentralizoj, shpërqedëndroj</td>
<td>Decentralizoj- to decentralise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decalced- i zbatthur, kembezbathur,</td>
<td>Zbatthur- barefoot,(child) Unshod(horse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liberal-mendjengushtë, zemërgushtë, shpitvogël, i paşkolluar, i paedukuar, i pagthendur, kurnac, dorërrudhur,</td>
<td>No-exact negatively prefixed equivalent form of dictionary definition from Albanian into English if we star from the examples presented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irrational- i paşryeshem, i joracional, ndaj, pa</td>
<td>I paşryeshem,- unreasonable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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arsye
Inacapable – i pandreqshëm, i pameshirshëm, i paafët, i pazotë, i paafët-in
I paafët-incapable, unable, insolvent, unfit.

maltrat-kegtrash, nëpërrikëmb, prish, dëmtoj
Kegtrash-ill-treat, ill-use, maltrat

Misunderstand, mistake-keqkuptoj, kuptoj gëmb, marr mbrapsht (një fjälë)
Kegkuptjo-to misunderstand

Non-fulfilment-mosplotësim, moszbatim, moskryere
Mosplotësim-Non-fulfilment

Pseudoclassical-pseudoklasik, joklasik
No equivalent exampled with words negatively prefixes with pseudo- or jo-

Undigested-(ushqim etj) i patretur; i pabluar, fig(njohuri) e papisemmuar, e paasimiliar, i çregullt.
I patretur- unmelted (butter, wax, snow), Undigested(food), undissolved, unconsumed (body)

Underestimate - nënvlefojto zvogjlo vlerën
Nënvlefojto-underestimate, undervalue, underrate, underplay

Doughtless, padyshim, sigurisht, I paddedshime-indubitable, doughless, undoubted

Childish-foshnjarake, miturake,
Foshnjarake-childish, baybish

Coward-burracak, firkacac,
Burrac-coward, poltroon, weakling

Fig. 2 shows a word with a negative affix in English and its equivalent in Albanian and vice-versa. We have presented one example for every negative affix, translated and compared those words in terms of formation and meaning.

As it can be noticed there are cases in which the dictionary compilers have found the exact equivalents in terms of formation and meaning. Moreover they have translated with a borrowed term, that is starting with exact negative preposition. In a few cases we have not found the same negatively affixed equivalents, since the two languages represent two distinct realities and here can not be fully exact translations and full symmetry of the two dictionary sides. The authors have used all the methods and strategies of translation required for a very good dictionary of this size, which is very useful for researchers, lecturers, and students of English Language in Albanian and why not to Englishmen enhancing their Albanian studies.

7. The linguistic relativity between English and Albanian

The principle of linguistic relativity holds that the structure of a language affects the ways in which its speakers are able to conceptualize their world. Popularly known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, this principle is generally understood as having two different versions: (a) the strong version that language determines thought and that linguistic categories limit and determine cognitive categories and (b) the weak version that linguistic categories and usage influence thought and certain kinds of non-linguistic behavior (Hoijer 1954).

The principle of linguistic relativity and the relation between language and thought has also received attention in varying academic fields and it has also inspired the invention of constructed languages. English speakers think about the world in different ways from Albanians. Albanian is spoken by a small population and its lexicon is smaller than the English, and for this reason during the translation process lexical or semantic equivalents are often unavailable. English has many words, idioms and a Phraseological riches that Albanian does not have, because English life is different from the Albanian one. English is an analytical-synthetic language, whereas the Albanian parenthetic-analytic. Based on these criteria we arrive on the conclusion that there is incompatibility during translation. This is the reason why we face linguistic relativity. English has many terms which are borrowed in Albanian. English is international, Albanian is a national language. The linguistic relativity notion is a phenomenon of distinction between English and Albanian that results from differences in language, culture, history, way of thinking etc.

Fundamental differences between these two languages exist, since the language spoken by a person has an active influence of that person’s world view. The two languages belong to different language families, so they represent two distinct realities. Countless difficulties in translation derive from this diversity due to the differences noticed in grammar, syntax, and lexicon.

English and Albanian differ significantly in their interpretations of experience - both in the means of expression they select for the representation of this experience as well as how they arrange these means. These interpretations of experience influence thought so English think differently from the Albanians. Even if both languages share many
underlying, abstract linguistic universals, there are often large differences in their syntactic structures and in their lexicons. The theory of linguistic relativity is universal and can be used in the comparative analysis of two different languages, not only English and Albanian. (Shahini M. Memisha V. 2011) A lexicographer faces linguistic relativity and this holds true even for the English-Albanian Dictionary and Albanian-English dictionary by Pavli Qesku and oxford dictionaries. The examples presented form these this dictionaries, including individual words, collocations and sentences, especially words with derogatory meaning, show that the theory of linguistic relativity is universal.

8. Conclusions

Since no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which such symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences, it stands to reason that there can be no absolute correspondence between languages. Hence there can be no fully exact translations.

The total impact of a translation may be reasonably close to the original, but there can be no identity in detail. One must not imagine that the process of translation can avoid a certain degree of interpretation by the translator. We can say that "A translation remains a direct form of comment.

Language is always changing, evolving, and adapting to the needs of its users. This isn't a bad thing; if English hadn't changed since, 1950, we wouldn't have words to refer to modems, fax machines, or cable TV. As long as the needs of language users continue to change, so will the language. The change is so slow that from year to year we hardly notice it. Our inevitable conclusion is that full symmetry of the two dictionary sides is neither possible nor desirable.

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