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The first meeting has been held on the 4th of January 2017 concerning the announcement of the 12th edition of the ICSS series by the executive members of the committee. The first call for participation for submission of abstracts and full papers in social sciences, educational studies, business studies, language studies and interdisciplinary studies, was announced to the registered users of EUSER mail database as well as through conference alerts services on 24 January 2017. The submitted abstracts and papers have been reviewed in terms of eligibility of the titles as well as their contents and the authors whose works were accepted were called to submit their final version of the papers until 30 April 2017. The reviewer team of 38 members composed of mainly former ICSS participants who did a voluntary work exchanged review notes with the authors. The final papers were accepted until 5 May 2017. The following Volume containing the proceedings is the result of these academic efforts.
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Bureaucratic Dominance in European Higher Agricultural Education

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Abstract

The present research work is a project of doctoral thesis of correlational type. The main objective was to demonstrate the relationship between the university bureaucracy of European Agricultural Education as a sociological phenomenon of the domain of domination according to Weber, particularly the Escuela Superior de Agricultura de Barcelona (ESAB) of the Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña (UPC) in Spain and its impact on organizational performance, as a reference and example for mexican agricultural education, particularly the Universidad Autónoma Chapingo (UACH). The results of the research validate the hypothesis: a better bureaucratic management in the context of the Spanish Higher Agricultural Education (SHAE), particularly the ESAB of the UPC, better organizational performance. Some research findings are that: students appreciate more characteristics of a leader related to legal domination, compared to traditional and charismatic; show a clear rejection towards the charismatic domination, when of politics and government is treated; validate more the practices of legal domination, compared to traditional or charismatic, when of choice of positions in the university is concerned; they reject more the bad practices related to the charismatic domination, than those related to the legal or traditional domination; and value respect, as a representative value of legal domination, in comparison with other values, such as loyalty and humility, related to traditional and charismatic domination respectively.

Keywords: bureaucracy, higher agricultural education, legal domination, organizational performance

Introduction

Higher Education in Mexico is bureaucratized to the extreme, and agricultural education is no exception, particularly the Chapingo Autonomous University (ChAU); Acosta Silva (2009) points out that although there are good intentions on the part of the leaders of the Public Universities, there is not always the way to do it, generating difference and discord between groups that legitimate or not, pretend to make their point of view prevail, which turns the university into a kind of roman coliseum. Some of the points that usually are in dispute : allocation and distribution of the budget, selection of officials, the way to held accountable, the way to evaluate and control academic and university management, among others. In that sense, he mentions that beyond the academic and the administrative, it is pertinent to study the relations of power and domination from a political perspective, to understand the accumulation of tensions that surround the university management environment. The rector as a leading figure in this management assumes three roles: "the prince" in a Machiavellian sense, "the bureaucrat" as described by Weber and "the manager" as a decision maker in the new government. His thesis holds that the accelerated changes in the highly complex and changing environment have modified the way public universities are managed with a focus on compliance with federal programs, where the autonomy of public order universities is subject to guidelines market or state, which implies administration type management, marked by the logic of a common business, but this doesn`t mean raising the level and quality of education, which in the end would be desirable. In general, more investment is observed, reflected in more and better facilities, access to better technology, increased educational diversity and publications, more and more teachers with doctorates and SNI affiliates, as well as quality certifications. However, many young people still do not have access to higher education and the most worrying thing is that it seems that today the mexican graduate is not the best, or the most competitive, reflected in poor salaries and high unemployment.

However, it seems necessary and relevant to offer another view of what might appear to be a better education than the Mexican one: the European one, particularly in Spain. A brother country with which Mexico has common history ties and which apparently offers a higher education in the agricultural field completely different from Mexico, in particular that of the
UACH, for that reason arises the interest of understanding the relations of power in the ESAB, to establish a point of comparison that serves as a reference in the discussion of how to govern and administer an institution as complex and important as the UACH.

The bureaucratization of education is a subject of which Spain is no stranger, since in recent years there has been talk of a change in the management of the university curriculum that transitions to the flexible, where the ideals of education are reflected in official documents to be put into practice, however, in practice it has been carried out in the form of a bureaucratic technical model that far from benefiting the educational processes and helping to achieve the proposed objectives, hampered the University Education system. For this reason autonomy has become a kind of official rhetoric, constantly questioned by an excessive bureaucratic practice particularly increased in recent years. Teaching activity is over regulated. The consequence? Deprofessionalization of teaching in exchange for homogeneity in universities. The process of change has been overly rationalistic, reducing educational reforms to a top-down linear implementation, similar to applying any procedure of company procedures. In an educational ideal, the education system must provide that education that, just as pertinent and useful to solve problems, is ad hoc with the particular needs of each student, hence the criticism of the current model (Bolivar, 2012).

The educational administration as a government practice, entered Spain in its most bureaucratic stage: it is limited to regulate and control everything related to the educational process, say materials, processes, projects, initiatives, etc. Ironically, one of the objectives of the educational reform in Spain was to return freedom and autonomy to the educational centers and the chair. The training and updating of teachers has traveled the same way. Everything is subordinated to a childish and simple scheme of incentives that is based on compliance and assistance. At the university level, the standardization and regulation processes controlled by the National Agency for Quality Assessment and Accreditation (ANECA) were initially not badly received. From the outset, autocratic, inbred and oligarchic practices were extinguished. However, now it is questioned whether this is really the way the University should follow in Spain (Chiva Gómez, 2014)

For Chiva Gómez (2014), a process of standardization similar to the one proposed by Mintzberg in Canada, which consists of organizations with specialized professionals (health, education, etc.), should take advantage of their abilities of these, through trusting without supervising both the expert work they do, especially without the structure assuming prominence. In a public university there are normally two communities: the academic and the administrative. The first are the teaching and research staff whose work is the raison d’être of the university: to train students and generate new knowledge. The second is the administrative and service staff whose job is to align the academic objectives to a bureaucratic regulation to make the best use of the resources and at the same time fulfill other objectives of an administrative nature. The process of normalization mentioned should fall mainly in the second group, administrative and to a much lesser extent, in academics.

At the moment there is an atmosphere of distrust towards the teaching staff and researcher, or at least this is perceived given the amount of paperwork in the form of reports and obligations that must comply. This influences their work performance, being overly regulated and attending to the bureaucratic environment that surrounds them, they are forced to work in forced marches and these results in the least of the cases, a simple stress or even suffer from a birth out.

The models to which higher education should emulate in Spain are those that are consistent with innovation and that are regulated in a necessary and not excessive way. Instead of spending their time attending courses on filling minutes or writing reports, teachers and researchers should spend their time productively and focus academically, where they are really good and helpful.

In view of the issues raised, the following research question was asked: What is the relationship between the bureaucratic management of the Spanish EAS as a form of legal domination according to Weber and its impact on organizational performance?

**Review of literature: from power and domination to the theory of bureaucracy**

Power and domination are social phenomena that a priori is important, relevant and necessary to study, since they cover practically the whole history of political ideas (Piñón Gaytan, 1980), are in fact the object of study of philosophy, political science, Sociology, administration, psychology and in general any discipline or area of knowledge incorporates this knowledge in its practical, in the context of modern capitalist organizations where they are exercised.
It is interesting to make a historical approach, not necessarily in chronological order, to understand how the main theoretical contributions have been given around these concepts, to somehow visualize the emergence of the theory of domination by Max Weber (1979). The main reference of this research, that is to say, what influences had and under what paradigms and notions over time is that constructs have been generated that gave answer to the questions that was raised, especially those that have to do with "govern the other".

Many theorists have incorporated the concept of power and domination in their contributions; however, it is interesting to focus on those who have been a watershed in terms of their ideological transcendence. Some Americans, most European with emphasis on the German school. It is pointed out that some might have been omitted not because of intentionality but because of the diversity and theoretical breadth of understanding these themes. On the other hand, the orientation of this synthesis is mainly philosophical and to a lesser extent sociological, since although the political theory bases its theoretical corpus on these subjects, it is considered necessary to understand them from different conjunctures, either that of those who exercise them, of whom The sufferers or of who or who explains its genesis and its consequences.

Among the important referents on these issues, Machiavelli is mentioned at first, who focuses on power in a perverse way, similar to Nietzsche who in turn defines it as a natural instinct that starts from the need to control the other. Hobbes, Locke, and Aristotle appreciate it as a political necessity to organize as a society, once differences and individualities cannot be overcome. Aristotle is perhaps the most advanced understanding of this political power, since his ideological approach is the basis of most of the models of government in the different countries of the world. Parsons on the other hand gives a more economic and administrative touch.

In a deeper philosophy and dialectic Hegel and Heidegger appreciate, a complete reflection of being based on the fear of death. Chomsky also agrees with the fear, however, the difference lies in the anti-imperialist stance of this, in that sense and with an anti-dominance approach we find several theorists; Marx, the main one of them, his economic approach is the basis; on the other, Gramsci, Bourdieu and Fromm coincide with the critical approach to domination. Gramsci does it from the cultural hegemony, Bourdieu from the social fields and the habitus. An anti-domination approach that is a must-have reference is the Frankfurt School, of which Horkheimer and Adorno were quoted; who question the use of reason in the exercise of power and Fromm does so from psychoanalysis.

Finally, Max Weber defines power as the probability of imposing will on others. This action takes place in the ordinary social dynamics of individuals and, before the imposition of some, there is resistance from others, that is, the condition of imposition carries an opposing force for resistance or "non-submission" in various types of manifestations. Probability is important, whereas, imposing will, does not guarantee that this will happen, since it will depend on the conditions and context in which it is wanted to carry out such imposition, so power is exercised in theory the most strong, the fittest, the most astute, and those who, in one way or another, surpass the others, and even though their will is something different from what is imposed upon them. The difference between power and domination lies in the legitimacy, that is, in the conscious or unconscious acceptance of those to whom the will of the dominator is imposed, versus power, where it carries a resistance, therefore the main theme in the study of power Of Weber, lies in the acceptance of this, to be a form of domination. The more acceptances has an imposition of will, the more legitimacy it will have, therefore, power becomes domination. The three types of domination that Weber describes are charismatic, legal and traditional.

Charismatic domination is based on faculties such as: magic, heroism, intellectual or speaking ability. The devotion and loyalty to charismatic leaders is related to the novel, the unusual, the never seen and their total commitment to certain causes. The purest types are the prophet, the prominent warrior, and the demagogue. The basis of this domination is the communication that is established with the followers. Whoever obeys is assimilated to an apostle and the one who.commands is assimilated to a caudillo. The caudillo is followed by his outstanding qualities and not by tradition or by any statute. Traditional domination comes from the belief of "lordly" ideology. The most representative form is the patriarchy, which issues commandments is the "lord" and who obeys are the "subjects", on the other hand, relies on the servants, who make up the government body. The values that prevail in this type of domination are loyalty and fidelity. Orders are in line with tradition. It is not possible to create an alternative and different regulation; therefore, traditional domination is "forever". For its part, legal domination, finds the bureaucracy as its purest form. The basic postulate is that the rules governing a community can be created and modified as often as necessary, as long as it adheres to the established form. The occupants of legal domination are elected or appointed, and these actors in turn define the limits in which they must govern. The methodical activities, the powers of command and the strict fulfillment of the duties are the characteristic features of the
bureaucracy, also known as magistrate. In the public sphere has developed in the political and ecclesiastical sphere mainly, in the private sector, companies are the best representation of the bureaucracy. It is based on the principle of functional hierarchy and, once it has reached its full development and potential, has a monocratic orientation. Likewise, the bureaucracy is, in essence, of a documentary type. In modern life the bureaucratic life separates from the office, from the office staff.

Theoretical approaches vary, although those rescued in this research were primarily philosophical as well as sociological. It went deeper into the approach to power and domination found in them, although some of the cited theorists describe, explain and embrace other fields of human knowledge. With the exception of Aristotle and Machiavelli, Locke and Hobbes, thinkers were approached mainly in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, emphasizing that the historical moments that determined them were those given by the industrial revolution, capitalism, technological development, as well as some misfortunes.

Given the theoretical analysis made, it was possible to infer that the forms of power and domination have changed over time and their ways of understanding them as well as they will continue to do especially in the paradigm of changes of the 21st century, where technology and modification in structures and globalization, are the extra components to continue to theorize about these concepts.

**Purpose of the study**

The object of study of research is the relations of power and domination in the EAS, and Max Weber's sociological theory and its rational-legal-bureaucratic derivation were chosen as the most pertinent to explain such relations, by the validity and applicability of Theory and by its hierarchy in the political and social sphere. Therefore, the general objective is written as follows:

To analyze the relations of power and domination in the EAS of Spain through a bureaucratic diagnosis in the ESAB of the UPC to know its impact on the organizational performance.

From the general objective the following specific objectives emerged:

To know the opinion of the students regarding the actions that should promote the maximum authority of the ESAB of the UPC: the rector.

Identify the type of domination according to Max Weber's typology, with the most identified students of the ESAB of the UPC.

**Methodology**

The research is qualitative, and the scope is correlational, which aims to know the relationship that exists in two variables: university bureaucracy and organizational performance. The methodological design, as well as the compilation of the state of knowledge, were carried out in 2014, 2015 and early 2016, empirical data were collected during a 6-month research stay (second half of 2016) conducted at the Faculty of Education of the University of Barcelona.

The first variable, university bureaucracy, was measured through an in-depth interview with a high official of the ESAB of the UPC: the head of studies and; the other, organizational performance was measured with a questionnaire of 17 items applied to 74 students of the agricultural engineering careers of the third semester and landscape engineering of ninth.

To achieve representativeness it was considered:

- Apply the questionnaire to students of at least two different grades, out of the four grades
- Apply the questionnaire to students from initial semesters and advanced semesters
- Apply the questionnaire to at least ten percent of the student population, which is equivalent to 71 students out of the 710 currently enrolled, according to data provided by ESAB boss of studies

**Results**

Regarding the variable "university bureaucracy", the interview with the boss of studies of the ESAB of the UPC lasted approximately an hour and forty minutes, was made in his office, after consultation. Asked if he cared if his name was
mentioned in the interview, he first mentioned that he did not, but later he said that he preferred to avoid it. The form of analysis was validating whether or not it meets criteria of good bureaucratic management, previously defined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canon</th>
<th>Find</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University legislation</td>
<td>The rules are not strictly followed and, instead, a bureaucratic pragmatism is practiced</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>The formal communication, only occurs in meetings or trades, towards the students is via email.</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of Labour</td>
<td>In order to hold a position of relevance and connotation in the ESAB, as a boss of studies, class hours are removed from the official, who is in principle a teacher, and also that the time load they have in class is not excessive.</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority and responsibility</td>
<td>The functions are well delimited for the position of the boss of studies, he even showed an organization chart where, according to his explanation, it is perfectly clear that each one, there is a high degree of flexibility that allows to adapt or delegate certain functions, the pay is good, but at another time was better.</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative procedures</td>
<td>There is great control and precision in administrative procedures, in addition to communication and alternatives for students, even for those who are irregular.</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources (recruitment and development)</td>
<td>For the occupation of a position of civil servant in the ESAB, it is necessary experience like academic secretary and the vocation for positions of administrative type.</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of teaching staff</td>
<td>The majority are recognized professors and researchers</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems at university</td>
<td>Lack of resources and prior mismanagement</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

G= good R= regular B= bad

Therefore, the variable university bureaucracy was positively evaluated by having the majority of criteria evaluated in a good and regular way

Regarding the variable "organizational performance", the results of the questionnaire applied to ESAB students are shown below.

- The majority of the students are in the range of 17 to 23 years, of these, the 22 year olds were the majority with 20, followed by those of 17 and 18 years old. The oldest student is 50 years old and there are 6 students in the 25 to 50 age range, the rest, that is 68, are in the range of 17 to 24 and 44 of the respondents were men, for 30 women
- 44 students are of the Agricultural Engineering degree, by 30 of the degree in landscaping.
- The majority of the students consider useful and necessary to know the university legislation, a few consider it indispensable and the less irrelevant.
- The management of the University's procedures, most of the students, think are good
- The attention that the students receive in the areas of process management, 50 of 74 think they are kind and know what they do, the rest sees some lack in attention, competence or both
- Most students think that the administrative environment works generally well, 26 thinks it is bad, although it has salvageable things and the less they see it very well or very badly.
- 39 students consider that the academic life is partially affected by the problems of the University, 29 do not know or have the perception that they do not exist and the least think that they do not affect the academic life or that they affect it totally.
- 60 of the 74 respondents usually know who to turn to when they have doubts about paperwork and processes, and they solve it quickly
- 72 out of 74 students corroborate that the information is mostly written
- 50 of the 74 students have the perception that the University workers perform their work in a comfortable and relaxed way
- Most students believe that teachers give the right amount of classes, 21 believe that the amount is too much or too little.
- 63 of 74 students have good perceptions about the performance of their teachers
- Most students consider that teachers evaluate according to regulations and have an adequate degree of flexibility
- The students show a decisive rejection to the kings of Spain and to the presidential figure, 24 of the 74 respondents answered slogans of independence in favor of Catalonia.
- Most students believe that the rector should promote that selection processes are rendered with justice
- Most students consider that to be the rector of the University, they must have been democratically elected, rather than demonstrate confidence and leadership.
- The value that students consider most important to hold a position of power in the University is respect, above loyalty and humility.

Conclusions and discussion

With regard to the general objective

Analyze the relations of power and domination in the EAS of Spain through a bureaucratic diagnosis in the ESAB of the UPC to know the impact on the organizational performance. The analysis of the two variables measured in a correlational way is done as follows:

In relation to the variable "university bureaucracy" it can be deduced, based on the interview made to the head of studies of the ESAB of the UPC and contrasting the answers with the theory of the bureaucracy of Weber:

- It is important and is considered the experience in the occupation of the administrative positions.
- The workload for the official's work is adequate in most cases.
- There is control and precision in the indicators of university management.
- There is a good communication of the administrative area towards the students.
- The university legislation is not followed to the letter, but the praxis has adapted to the academic and administrative needs of the students.
- The formal communication is good, although it can improve because much of the administrative communication is given orally.
- Bad bureaucrats were fired and good ones continued to function
- The functions are well delimited and there is an adequate degree of flexibility that allows to make decisions for different scenarios.
- There is a problem of decentralization and division of labor at the level of UPC and other campuses
- The level of payment and satisfaction is good overall and reflected in the work.

Evaluating most of the criteria in a positive way, it is validated that the university bureaucracy in the ESAB of the UPC, is good in general.

In relation to the variable "organizational performance" it can be said, based on the applied survey and contrasting the answers with the theory of the bureaucracy of Weber:

- The majority of the students consider that the school procedures are agile, fast and simple in ESAB
- Most students believe that the management of the ESAB in the different areas is good.
- Most of the students believe that the administrative scope of ESAB is good
- Most students believe that internal problems partially affect the academic management of ESAB, some of them are not aware of such problems.
- Most students know who to turn to when in doubt about paperwork
- Information to students is given in written form
- Most of the students believe that the work of ESAB employees is relaxed and comfortable
- Most students believe that their teachers provide adequate hours of class.
- Most students believe that their teachers are experts or very good at the subjects they teach.
- Most students believe that their teachers evaluate them appropriately

When evaluating the different items positively, it can be inferred that the variable "organizational performance" is evaluated in a good way.

Therefore, the Hypothesis is Valid, Better Bureaucratic Management in the Context of the Eas of Spain, Particularly the Esab of the Upc, Better Organizational Performance.

In relation to specific objectives

Know the opinion of the students regarding the actions that should promote the maximum authority of the ESAB of the UPC: the rector, the students answered that:

- The rector must, in the main, avoid that in the positions for which a competition is held for a place in the ESAB, processes are not taken fairly; Followed by preventing anyone who does not fulfill a job profile, do so; And finally that places are given for friends and family. The first option is related to charismatic domination, the second with legal domination and the third with traditional domination. Therefore, it can be inferred that the greater rejection that the students manifest, is towards bad practices from the charismatic domination, second, it is towards the bad practices from the legal domination, and, third, it is towards the bad practices from the traditional domination.

- The students consider that, to be rector of the UPC, must have been chosen democratically in the first place; Then, show confidence and leadership; And, lastly, that he has been involved with officials in order to have experiences. These answers are related to legal, charismatic and traditional domination respectively, therefore, it can be inferred that the students consider that the way to come to power from the rectory in ESAB, is in that order.

- The students considered that the respect, linked to legal domination, is the value that the principal of the UPC should promote; Followed by loyalty, linked to traditional domination, and, finally, humility, linked to charismatic domination.

Identifying the type of domination according to Max Weber's typology, with the most identified students of the ESAB of the UPC, the students answered according to a series of desirable qualities in the official, which are related to some kind of Domination: legal, charismatic or traditional, previously identified as follows:

The sum of the qualities related to charismatic domination is 230, that of the qualities related to traditional domination are 199 and that of the qualities related to legal domination, gives 311 in the sum total, i.e., students stand out more Qualities related to legal domination compared to the other two. Faced with the questioning of which authority is most identified, the response was overwhelming; 50 students prefer some independent aspirant to the power of Spain, which is related to the charismatic domination; No student identified himself in the king and queen of Spain, who represent traditional domination; And the same case of the president of Spain, which represents legal domination. On the other hand, some answers, which certainly had no option in the questionnaire, were alluded to the total rejection of the king and queen of Spain, alluding to the independence of Catalonia and wrote it in Catalan, not in Castilian. It is important to mention that the political climate experienced in connection with the elections held in 2016 in Spain, in which there was a great climate of discontent, due to the fact that it was necessary to wait several months to choose a leader, See with the answers to the questionnaire. What evidently was reflected in the answers is the nationalist and independentist feeling of Catalonia, due to the history of control and domination that, according to some Catalans, Spain has exerted like invading nation during a long time.

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Influence of EU and International Institutions in Albanian Higher Education

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Abstract
One of the problems identified in Albanian Higher Education (at least in the last 20 years) is the bond that exists between the mission that it has and the vision that it is presented in development policies, reforms, strategies and legal framework from which derive these strategies. Is easily perceptible that proper studies on Higher Education are lacking, this fact often leads to the repetition of errors on higher education reform. On the other hand, the lack of clarity has led to the loss of many opportunities on the possibilities of internationalization of Albanian Higher Education, especially regarding the benefits of European funds from EU. The Study on the mission and vision of the Albanian higher education is part of a scientific research which will be presented at the PhD defense, however this article aim to present some of the findings and analyzes related to the vision of Albanian in Higher Education. The years that are compared are those on the Bologna agreement implementation, 2007 - 2013, which referring to the analysis results are years with a clearer vision in its Top-Down enforcement policies.

Keywords: Mission and vision of Higher Education, Bologna Agreement, internalization, European funds

Introduction
The obvious lack of studies on the role that reforms in higher education had since the liberalization of higher education has often lead to confused strategies, which had consequences for the progress and development of higher education in the Albania.

This presentation is part of a broader study of the doctoral level that is expected to be introduced in the summer of 2017 which focuses on the mission and vision in Albanian higher education, and how this vision which comes to us through strategies and reforms translates into higher education and more specifically to the institutions representing higher education such as universities in Albania.

The presentation starts from a hypothesis being investigated in different historical phases of the development of Albanian Higher Education. One of the most important is the Bologna Agreement Implementation Phase. This phase was the clearest on the vision and mission that higher education had. The focus of this paper will be on investment in higher education through the Tempus and Erasmus Plus project, data are refreshed and taken into official form by the European Commission Higher Education in Post-Totalitarian Countries

The collapse of the Soviet Union was one of the greatest revolutions in the world after the First and Second World Wars.

After the developments of 1989, 31 countries left the "protective tent" of the Soviet Union and began the creation of states no longer totalitarian and communist, but with a kind of fragile democratic structure and with a democratic election. These countries oriented their economies toward market economy.
One of the effects of the first democratic developments in these countries, was restructuring the public education system in order to ensure the necessary transformation to which the country needed, while also preparing students and professionals for the country's new leadership.

As Paola Sabloff quotes in her study and Renáta Kralikova in her doctoral thesis of the three university models in the Slovakia, Romania and Lithuania, despite the fact that these countries came out of the same totalitarian system, their journey after the collapse of the system was different.

One of the reasons for the different adjustment is closely related with the inputs, as Kralikova concludes in her study, such as law, finance, massification, etc. While Paola Sabloff, in her book "Higher Education in Post-Communist world," explains that a special role in this new diversity created after the fall of the totalitarian regime, had culture, language and the whole social dimension that these countries had (Sabloff, 1999).

Paola Sabloff presents a detailed study of how the countries that emerged from totalitarian systems adapted to the new dimension, seen from an institutional perspective. In this context she investigated not only the university models, but also the most representative public institutions in the country. This study is very valuable to "see under the microscope" what happens at the institutional level. But it goes beyond the objectives of this research. Perhaps in the future it would be appropriate to be realized in Albania such a comparative study.

In this context, our focus will remain in the Western Balkans, which unfortunately has not been the subject of systematic research. As stated by Pavel Zgaga, one of the leading experts on higher education in the region, there are two reasons:

First, because there is a lack of information and data for the region, and secondly, there is a lack of previous research in the field of higher education (Zgaga, P., and others, 2013, p. 15).

2.1 Brief historical overview and information about higher education in the Western Balkans

Over the past two decades, the Western Balkan countries have developed their higher education systems in different ways. Recent conflicts and an economic and slow institutional transition have also affected the Western Balkan countries.

In all the Western Balkan countries, regardless of the extent and opportunities they have, there is a clear trend to get opinions from outside. Politic always copies and referred as a success alternative the experience of the western countries, but often also get models that come out of continental Europe. As an example in this case is the Albanian higher education reform which is inspired from an English model of higher education.

If we make a comparison with their Western European counterparts, universities in the Western Balkans are relatively young. Higher education in this region was mainly developed after the Second World War. Exceptions here are universities of countries such as Croatia and Serbia. University of Zagreb was founded in 1874, although a previous institution dates back to 1669. On the other hand, the Belgrade University was founded in 1905, the previous institution dating back to 1808 (Šoljan, 1991).

2.2 Communist legacy and developments of the 90s

Seven Western Balkan countries have been part of a federal system until the early 1990s, in what was then called the "Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia". Since 40 years, and follows in the 50's, Yugoslavia "maneuvered" for its existence between East and West and was not part of the Warsaw Pact or NATO. Precisely this position provided favorable relationship between two sides (east and west) during the Cold War, as well as good commercial and credit relations (in particular, loans that came from the West).

Albania, on the other hand, was ruled until 1990 by a harsh communist regime of the line set by Enver Hoxha. The country was very isolated economically and politically, in the late 20th century, it was one of the poorest countries in Europe.
The end of the Cold War and the fall of the Berlin Wall, also meant the end of communism in the Western Balkans. The former Yugoslavia was marked by a series of wars in the territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia, the last of which ended in late 1995; (2) a peaceful independence of Macedonia in the early 90s; (3) an armed conflict in Kosovo between Serbian forces (army, police and paramilitary forces) and the Kosovo Liberation Army, followed by the NATO intervention and the withdrawal of Serbian forces from Kosovo in the summer of 1999, which in 2008 it culminated in the Kosovo independence declaration from Serbia; and (4) the independence referendum in Montenegro in 2006.

In most of the countries that emerged from the former Yugoslavia, the democratization process was lagging behind other Central European countries, including Slovenia. According to Freedom House democracy index, which uses four criteria to assess the democratic deficit of a country, all Western Balkan countries marked as flawed democracies or hybrid regimes. The '90s were a period without stability in Albania, both politically and economically. This included several economic crises (mostly in 1992 and the end of 1996), as well as an armed rebellion in 1997. Albania and Macedonia were also affected by the conflict in Kosovo, given that a significant number the Albanians from Kosovo found refuge there, especially in 1998 and 1999.

While Macedonia also went through a period of internal ethnic conflict in 2001, all these developments slowed and, in some cases, completely blocked the political and economic transition, as well as relations with the European Union (Freyburg & Richter, 2010; Subotid, 2010, 2011), One of the main objectives of the EU in the Western Balkan was the democratization of the countries and then the opening of negotiation process (Dolenec, 2008, p. 23).

Such a complex political, economic and social situation in the Western Balkans inevitably affected the development of policies in education

Some of the former Yugoslavia countries experiences in the ‘90s a form of international isolation (caused again by internal factors and by external factors), with very limited interaction with the international academic community and an almost non-existent relationship with European structures of higher education, thereby not having any track approach to European programs of higher education or participation in joint research. This was also the time where there was no development, especially in countries with more conflicts such as Bosnia and Herzegovina and Macedonia.

In Croatia there have been efforts to undertake reforms, though with great difficulty in terms of implementation (see Orosz, 2008). In Serbia, the regime focused mainly on reducing the role of democratization that had higher education in society and why, after a series of student protests and small academic strikes in Serbia, it was presented at the 1998 regulation, which abolish institutional autonomy and academic freedom.

In Albania, although a new law on education, which included higher education was adopted in 1994, most of the reforms had to be postponed due to the internal political instability.

In Montenegro, there have been legislative changes in 1992 and 1994, but there was no other significant development during the 90s.

Kosovo has been and continue to be in the under-review period, the higher education system is dual. By the late 90s this duality is expressed by the Serbian official system of higher education and an Albanian informal system of higher education (bearing in mind that Albanian students and professors were expelled from the Serb-controlled universities in Kosovo in the early 90s). From 1999 onwards, the duality is present again in what some would argue two be a parallel system - one in northern Kosovo, where there are still a Serb majority and the other in the rest of Kosovo.

This duality, along with changes in terms of positions on Kosovo's statehood, also affects the perception of whether institutions of higher education in Kosovo can participate in the Bologna process or not (see below).
This conflict situation in the region, implicates difficult diplomatic relations among the countries in the region, and complicates the relationships in the European Union. Regardless, this situation affects the institution relations among universities.

The picture that appeared was not very optimistic. In the '90s there was a large, mass higher education in these countries, but without an investment in infrastructure, and in academic staff. While other challenges include a "brain drain", which was not only in the early 90s, but continued for a long time, and it is present in some countries even now.

**The Bologna Agreement - the beginning of a new era**

History does not constitute an interest for the technocrats who design this great project of higher education and this because they were busy to catch the rhythm of the United States in education. However, historical and political context where this agreement was born, it is very important to understand the Bologna complexity.

There is no need to return in the 1088 in Bologna to have a clear understanding of the agreement. Nevertheless, some aspects of the historical part would be necessary to understand the whole process.

An important detail is that the university in Europe took place within the modern state, serving its needs to train the country's elite.

Until the official development of the European market in 1992, there were few developments in Europe that will make us think about a European system or less to a European system of higher education.

*Moreover, institutions were incompatible*, they had different programs and qualifications.

Yann Lebau, in his analysis of the French system of higher education, gives us a good example of French universities attempts by one side to bring master programs in English, and by the other the struggle of an elite which desperately demanded ways to balance this great influence of English language in university institutions.

Another historical important fact to emphasize is, at the end of 1980s and early 1990s, many of the countries that signed the Bologna agreement in the 2000s belonged to former bloc communist countries. Higher Education systems of these countries did not flourished during these 20 years in the democracy. On the other side those educational systems in the periphery of Europe during this decade were also under the pressure of massivisation of higher education in an extreme shortage of funds.

While the World Bank suggested Sub-Saharan African Countries to spent not less than 1,000 US per student, in order to have quality in higher education, at least four of the former communist countries, such as Bulgaria, Georgia, Macedonia Russia spent much less. Baltic countries, Estonia and Latvia, were somewhere in the margins of this amount per student. Although this might be true, it is important to underline that in this analyses is not included Turkey, because the country has a complex relationship with Europe.

Despite this difficult mission in creating the European Area of Higher Education there are also optimistic views like those expressed by Zgaga (Zgaga, 2003), that the diversity of the countries that joined Bologna will bring greater dynamism in the European higher education. However, someone can easily think that if there are a lot of dynamic it would compromise the entire foundation upon which this agreement arose.

**3.1 Periphery of Europe and their higher education**

What man of the researchers agree is that the Bologna process has been implemented as a process, which comes from the top - down and there is no center from which it derives. Moreover, it is noted already that Bologna remains a process of continuous negotiation. In the process you asked universities to be productive as if they offer a service in the market, in
this case the process puts intellectuals under a very difficult position, where academic freedom of university life is a privilege of the few.

Recalling Kant at the conflict of the faculties …. we can accept that we would be very lucky if the university would be allowed to seek their economic irresponsibility towards the search for truth and knowledge, under the pressure of a Europe of this century were more and more there is a stress in the provision of services than knowledge transmitting.

However, this is only one piece of Europe on the other part it is the Periphery of Europe as Tomusk named it in his book Creating the Higher Education Area, where there is more enthusiasm because these countries see the Bologna Process as a part of their integration in the EU.

Thus, in the last decade, higher education has emerged as a key sector in social and economic transition that developed in the Eastern Europe countries and the former Soviet Union countries.

The concern of these companies is focused in several elements:

First, societies of these countries suffered a significant loss of their intellectual resources, as a result of disintegration at the national level, political reasons, the brain drain and reconstruction of the market;

Secondly, all these countries have seen higher education as a way for recruitment young people to prepare them to enter in politic;

Thirdly, higher education is increasingly seen as a force which helps companies, which are in transition to approach powerful and richer countries.

In those countries that have gone through a difficult economic and financial situation, lack of infrastructure and low salaries in the higher education system have also neglected the development of higher education even when basic services do not seem possible.

Despite the attention that governments had since the fall of communism, these countries have experiences a failure in the reform because they have been prevented or simply ignored.

Consequently, higher education in the region still has many critics, financial restrictions, structure issues and questions related to the function and identity. On the other hand, there are always these policy makers, experts, analysts and public discussions, which are imbued with globalism, by imposing policies from outside, without a local assessment of how global solutions can be imported into the local reality.

3.2 How important is Europe to the periphery of Europe?

Higher education is not an isolated island and this is an expression that fits very well to the Western Balkan countries.

Higher education, in the six Western Balkan countries is significantly influenced by the Bologna Agreement and the Lisbon Strategy, both these initiatives are more closely linked to what is discussed today as European Area of Knowledge.

All higher education systems in the Western Balkan countries are now part of the Bologna Agreement, in particular those of Kosovo. In this context, all the Western Balkan countries have ambitions for their involvement in the EU. Some of them are already part of the European Union, such as, Croatia for example, while others are considered as potential credible member to join soon this community (Vachudova, 2009).

Despite the two agreements are very important, we need to acknowledge that each of them applies to different things. For example, the Lisbon Strategy is a nationwide process with several instruments, which are developed as is the case:

a. development of procedures for recognition of qualifications in what are called regulated professions (Beerkens, 2008);
b. or the fact that formal decisions are only recommendations (for example, as was the case with the recommendations of the Council and the Parliament on qualifications);

c. development of instruments and allocating funds for a number of joint projects, such as, lifelong learning for example, and programs related to research.

These programs, developed under the roof of the Lisbon strategy, have had a substantial value to the Western Balkan countries, compared with not very favorable economic situation that these countries experienced, where, as a result, such programs helped the university and different development projects.

From another perspective, the Bologna Process does not cover or have no administrative capacity and there is no funding for the process, which will facilitate the implementation of the declaration.

This initiative started as a voluntary initiative, which had a control group, it is the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG). The European Commission is a permanent member of this group, while other European organizations have observer status.

Given such an initiative is without center and without a budget or funding, and where its members are countries that have voluntarily signed to be part, the Bologna Process is an initiative, which sets its own objectives. By nature, this process is more detailed in relation to the Lisbon Strategy, as it touches disciplines in particular by defining the structure, credits and duration.

Both processes are "target in motion," according to Gomitzka and Kehm, and this precisely because the policy contents and instruments vary, also stakeholders at European level can often vary (both individually and collectively). Moreover, the status of the Western Balkan countries in relation to the EU is not fixed, since some countries are at the candidate stage and others such as Croatia are already full-fledged member.

Precisely such situations and these changes make each country to the a different position in relation to the Bologna process.

To provide a summary the Western Balkan countries, because of their official position with respect to integration, have very little influence at European level. This powerlessness is also identified in other parts of higher education. In such conditions, having no direct and clear guidelines, each state was free to interpret part of the process as they understood it.

**The role of the Bologna Agreement in Albania**

As mentioned above, the Bologna Agreement was an agreement that was built as a union of free wills of countries that have signed it. Each of the states was free to interpret parts of the process.

Despite the fact that the agreement was implemented partially in some of the programs, it was the academic year 2005-2006 and later with the emergence of the new law no. 9741, year 2007, that all universitites implemented the application of the system of credits that would make more easy the student mobility as well as reform all the university curriculum.

All these elements made it possible for the structural adjustment of university curricula to set a benchmark so the recognition policy and credits transfer system would be more easy.

In recent years, Albania benefited and continued to the present in the European Higher Education projects such as Tempus and Erasmus Mundus and Erasmus Plus.

The table below shows data after the Bologna Agreement implement up to 2013 on the projects that Western Balkan countries participated or was a coordinator.

<table>
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<th>Table no.</th>
<th>Information about European Projects in the Wester Balkan Countries</th>
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<td>Years</td>
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<td>2008-2013</td>
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As noted in 2008, Albania seems to be in disadvantaged position in relation to projects compared with other Western Balkan countries, but ongoing commitment of Albania in these projects has not experienced an increase as may be the case in other countries of the Western Balkans.

Today in relation to Western Balkan Countries, Serbia seems to to be involved in more projects simultaneously and at the same time be a coordinator and a partner.

Conclusions

If there is an increase in higher education policy, is expected to have an increased clarity in the perception of the university mission." In this context, if there is more clarity is expected to have more projects developed in higher education.

As noted in the context of the table no. 1 it is noticeable a significant decrease in the project participation Tempus Albania compared with the neighbor countries like Bosnia and Serbia. During the years 2008-2013 Albania was working on a new higher education reform that targeted financing strategy on higher education. This reform never took place and brought to higher education a confusion on the direction that higher education would follow, by decreasing even more the participation of Albanian Higher Education in international projects.

References


The Social Policy of the Second Polish Republic Towards Disabled People

Paweł Grata

Abstract

Problems of disable people were a very important social issue in the Second Republic of Poland. Social policy towards them was not unitary. It dealt with issues of war invalids (veterans and civilians), casualties of work accidents (who were insured) and poor disabled people (uninsured). A legal basis for these activities of the state and local governments was different and the support for the particular groups of disabled people was also various. The war invalids received more support than others. The help involved e.g. pensions, health care, prostheses and a chance to get a job. The casualties of work accidents received pensions and health care but their benefits were fewer than benefits for war invalids. Poor disabled people were in the worst position. The state, local governments, charity organisations tried to help them but their possibilities were too small in relation to the needs. Poor disabled people received neither benefits nor health care, they could not expect the help in retraining and finding a job and only few of them could count on a place in care facility (the number of these places was too small).

Keywords: The Social Policy of the Second Polish Republic Towards Disabled People

Key words: disabled people, social policy, The Second Republic of Poland, war invalids, pensions, social care

Introduction

The problem of disability has always been one of the most important issues for the social policy. After the period of the Partition of Poland, there were hundreds of thousands disabled people in the re-emerging country and this group was, to a large extent, internally diversified. Although we cannot say that the state policy towards this category of citizens was uniform, the way in which it attempted to solve the issues related to that social problem is worth examining. The most significant areas of such analysis are the legal bases and the types of support they guaranteed as well as the organizational and financial forms of support, the size of the population of the disabled and the extent to which the support was provided.

Legal conditions

In the interwar Poland, the activities which aimed at supporting the disabled were not uniform and they were based on a broad set of legal acts. The most fundamental were: the regulations concerning war-disabled persons, legislation on work accident insurance and the legal bases for the functioning of social welfare. The most diversified were the solutions related to the provision of financial means to the disabled in respect of an accident at work. In the area of the former Prussian Partition, the regulations of the German insurance ordinance of 19th July 1911 were binding and, in the area of the former Galicia, the regulations of the act on work accident insurance of 28th December 1887. Initially, work accident insurance didn’t cover the area of the Russian Partition. The situation changed only on 30th January 1924 with the introduction of the act which made the Austrian regulations binding in this Partition (Journal… 1924: 16/148; Chylak 2014: 72-74).

The unification of the rules concerning insurance happened in 1933 when the act on social insurance of 28th March 1933 was introduced. It covered all people in employment, expect several groups subject to separate regulations. According to the act, the benefits included: full or partial pensions in respect of an accident at work (dependant on the degree of an inability to work as well as on the level of income), orphan’s pension, medical support and benefits-in-kind as well as the provision of a place in facilities for the disabled (in return, the entire or a part of pension was deducted) (Journal… 1933: 51/396; Piątkowski 1983: 30-33).
What turned out to be of particular importance in the interwar period was finding the solution to the problem of providing support to war-disabled persons. The demand for the provision of financial means to the heroes of the struggle of independence was satisfied on 18th March 1921 with an adequate act introduced by the Legislative Sejm. The act guaranteed the provision of pension benefits, pensions paid to widows and orphans, medical services, the provision of orthopaedic products, access to vocational retraining, social support and activities in favour of professional mobilization (Journal… 1921: 32/195; Grata 2011: 108).

The third element of the legal guarantees related to the support of the disabled were the regulations specifying the functioning of social welfare. The 1st article of the act of 16th August 1923 guaranteed that the basic needs of people who, permanently or temporarily, did not have any financial means or were unable to work, would be satisfied with the public funds. Such understood support was provided to “invalids, the disabled, the terminally ill, the mentally disabled” and other people unable to work. The majority of supportive activities were undertaken by self-governments and private support institutions (Journal… 1923: 92/726).

The number of disabled people

It is difficult to estimate the exact number of the disabled in the Second Polish Republic. The only relatively accurate data provide information on the number of registered war-disabled persons and military invalids as well as the disabled who received insurance benefits in respect of an accident at work. The number of the remaining disabled is much more difficult to estimate. Apart from the number of people staying in support facilities and mental hospitals, we can only submit the approximate estimate.

On the brink of independence, the number of war-disabled persons in Poland was estimated at about 200 000. Later, due to the registration process, it turned out that there were about 150 000 of them. As the result of the introduction of the act on disability of 17th March 1932, this category also included military invalids and, therefore, in the mid-30s, the total number raised to 166 000 (about 145 000 - 150 000 people were permanently incapable to work). Among this group, the most frequent reason for disability were limb injuries (over half of the disabled), the second most frequent reason were head and spine injuries. About one fourth of invalids suffered a relatively minor damage to health, 60% of the population suffered moderate damage to health and 1.3% of war-disabled persons suffered serious damage to health (loss of 85% of the capacity to work) (Journal… 1932: 26/423; Statistical… 1931: 118; 1939: 293).

The number of the disabled in respect of an accident at work or occupational disease was considerably less stable. It increased proportionally to the occurrence of this type of events. In 1925, the number of the disabled in this category amounted to 45 700 and, in later years, it was increasing by a few or a dozen or so thousand a year. In 1934, there were 87 500 of them and at the end of 1937 – 97 500. Adding to this number a several thousand of the disabled receiving retirement insurance benefits, it can be assumed that the total number exceeded the level of 100 000 before the war (Statistical… 1936: 215; 1939: 307; Ubezpieczenia… 1935: 24).

It is extremely difficult to estimate the number of the disabled falling into the above mentioned category. According to the limited data collected during the census of 30th September 1921, there were 76 100 invalids in Poland, out of whom 59 500 were people above 19 years old. In the mid-20s, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare assumed that the number of the disabled above 18 years old amounted to about 100 000. The estimate number of disabled children was on the level of about 25 000. Therefore, the total number of the disabled in Poland was on the level of about 125 000. We should also add to this calculation the number of the mentally ill, however in this case, the accurate data are even more difficult to obtain. At the beginning of the 20s, the Ministry of Public Health estimated that there were 38 000 mentally ill people who required on-site treatment in Poland but the estimate, based on the comparison with other countries, indicated that there could be about 45 000-60 000 people with this type of disability in the country (Ministerstwo… 1926: 122-124; Luniewski 1934: 452-453; Pierswszy… 1927: 58-59).
In the mid-20s, the number of the disabled who were covered by neither work accident insurance nor the legislation on disability was estimated at 160 000-180 000. Though it seems that it is still an underestimate. The document, prepared for the Ministry of Social Welfare in 1933, estimated that there were about 200 000 disabled people (MSW: 530/22-25) who were not covered by the insurance or benefit support. This number needs to be increased by further 25 000 of people with reduced mobility. Therefore, the total number of the disabled can be estimated at 500 000, although in this case, it can also be an underestimate.

**Money benefits for the disabled**

Money benefits were the common form of support provided to the disabled. They were only available to those who were covered by the regulations on disability benefits, social insurance and the pension benefits of public servants. Therefore, in the discussed period, the permanent financial support included pensions for war-disabled persons, military invalids and disabled civilians as well as those incapable to work as the result of an accident at work and the family members of a deceased claimant (pensions paid to widows and orphans). Therefore, this collectivity was considerably bigger than the number of the disabled alone covered by the adequate legal regulations.

War-disabled persons constituted the highest number of beneficiaries. In accordance with the act of 1921, work disability benefits were paid to those whose degree of inability to work was estimated at the level of at least 15%. At the end of the 20s, there were about 109 000 people entitled to receive work disability benefits and, in later years, the number increased to 133 000. Because some invalids chose to stay in employment, in 1932, benefits were paid to 112 400 of the disabled. This number was topped up by 65 700 of widows, 62 500 of orphans and 15 400 of parents of the deceased disabled. Therefore, the total number of people receiving work disability benefits amounted to 256 000. This number was, however, reduced by the legal changes introduced between 1932-1933. The result was the reduction of the number of invalids who received benefits to 77 800, i.e. by over one third. Later, the rules concerning the benefit provision were relaxed again and, in 1938, the number of beneficiaries increased to 97 900 and the number of all paid benefits exceeded the level of 200 000 (Statistical… 1930: 355; 1933: 125; 1939: 294).

The number of benefits paid to the disabled in respect of an accident at work or their family members was looking differently. The highest level was achieved just before the outbreak of the war when the number of the disabled entitled to receive benefits equalled the number of war-disabled persons receiving benefits. In 1925, 45 700 people received benefits in respect of an accident at work and, in 1937, this number increased to 97 500. Pensions in respect of an accident at work were also paid to the family members of the deceased claimant. In 1937, the number of such benefits reached the level of 27 000. Therefore, the total number of pensions in respect of an accident at work was on the level of 125 000 (Statistical… 1939: 307; Ubezpieczenia…: 24).

The rules concerning the provision of benefits were very diversified. They mainly depended on the degree of disability. The level of benefits received by war-disabled persons was regulated by the legislator, whereas the level of benefits paid in respect of an accident at work depended on the previous income of the disabled. The level of benefits paid to war-disabled persons was relatively high and the level of benefits paid to those more seriously injured needs to be evaluated in a positive way. The situation was different in the case of benefits paid in respect of an accident at work. Their level could only reach the maximum of two third of the lost income, which means it was low. In the 30s, the most seriously injured received benefits which, on average, were three times lower than the benefits paid to war-disabled persons with the same degree of disability (Sobocinski 1934: 52-58; Modlinski 1932: 107-109; Piatkowski 1983: 33).

In the case of both systems, the rules and the level of benefits paid to the family members of the deceased claimant were also quite different. Pensions paid to widows were on the level of 30% of a regular pension of the late husband and pensions paid to orphans on the level of 20%. In the case of work accident insurance, the situation was slightly different. Pensions paid to widows were on the level of 20% of the income of the late husband (pensions paid to orphans were on the similar level), which meant that they constituted nearly one third of the maximum benefit the deceased claimant was entitled to.
receive. In 1933, the level of pensions paid to widows was raised to 30% of the average income of the late husband which, in the case of the less injured, meant that they were on the level comparable (or even higher) to the pensions received by the disabled injured in an accident (Journal… 1932: 26/238; 1933: 51/396; Modlinski 1932: 107-108).

The institutional support provided to the disabled

Formally, in the Second Polish Republic, the set of available tools of support was very extensive. The problem was the subjective scope of the support provided to the disabled. As in the case of money benefits, war-disabled persons as well as the disabled entitled to receive work accident insurance were more privileged than the rest of the disabled for whom the provided support was generally facultative and the number of beneficiaries had nothing to do with the scope of the problem.

The most extensive support was offered to war-disabled persons and military invalids. It included outpatient and inpatient treatment, the right to benefit from sanatoriums and health resorts, social care and the provision of prosthesis. As in the case of war-disabled persons, the right to medical services and the prosthesis implementation was guaranteed to the disabled receiving benefits in respect of an accident at work. However, in this case, the allocated means were considerably lower than in the case of the treatment of war-disabled persons financed from the state budget (Leczenie… 1930: 1-3).

The institutional support offered to war-disabled persons was complemented by the activities of the institutions which offered vocational retraining or provided care in the case of complete incapability to an independent existence. In the 20s, a several hundred disabled people took part in various trainings financed from the state budget every year. War-disabled persons, who were completely unable to work and were not taken care of, could benefit from, so called, houses for the disabled where they received free accommodation (with all additional costs covered) and medical care. The houses were located in Plock, Lviv and Vilnius (Sprawozdanie… 1924: 280-281).

The support provided to disabled citizens looked different than in the case of war-disabled persons and military invalids as well as the disabled in respect of an accident at work. Considering their high number indicated above as well as their considerable needs, it is difficult to draw any positive conclusions. In the mid-20s, there were only eight specialized facilities for the disabled over 18 years old and twenty-four for children. However, with time, the situation improved and the number of the facilities increased by several dozen. Yet still, in the 30s, there were not enough beds in the specialized facilities for the majority of the disabled in need (Ministerstwo… 1926: 122-124; Rudzinska 1938a: 224; Rudzinska 1938b: 86).

The organization of inpatient care provided to the mentally ill was a separate issue. The number of beds in specialized treatment facilities was permanently insufficient. In the mid-20s, there were 11 000 beds available for patients in mental hospitals but further 11 000 were needed. The coming years brought a significant increase in the number of beds in hospitals and, in 1934, there were already 14 500 of them. Despite this improvement, the needs were still greater as it was estimated that further 20 000 beds were required (Statistical… 1935: 189; Luniewski 1934: 453-454).

Conclusions

In the Polish social policy towards the disabled, certain groups were clearly more privileged than others. They benefited from the system of money benefits, medical support and even the extensive forms of professional mobilization. The remaining disabled citizens were the second point of interest for the state authorities. Despite the fact that their number was equally significant, they were not entitled to receive money benefits and they could only benefit from the institutional support to a limited extent. This type of support was generally insufficient (in comparison to their needs) and its provision was limited only to the poorest and the most disabled. Therefore, within the existing system, the majority of them could not count on any type of support and they continued to remain outside the sphere of interest of the social policy implemented by the state and self-governments.

To sum up, in the interwar period, the Polish social policy towards the disabled was half way towards modernity. An example of the modernization activities was, undoubtedly, the way of dealing with the problems and the needs of war-disabled
persons. Also, the direction of changes taking place in the area of work accident insurance had a similar dimension. The attitude towards the remaining categories of the disabled was still traditional. This, however, didn’t result from the unwillingness towards more active policy but from the lack of the actual possibility to adequately satisfy the existing needs.

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The Impact of Self-Esteem on the Attitudes Towards Homosexuality

Prof. As. Dr. Fatbardha Osmanaga


Abstract

Diversity is part of our everyday lives. It is present everywhere, so it is present in health care settings also. The medical staff serves all the patients, regardless their gender, their race, their religion, regardless their economic status, sexual orientation, political beliefs, etc. It is very important for the medical staff to accept and respect the diversity. In this way, the quality of offered services will be the same for all the people. Having good attitudes towards homosexual individuals is one of the ways of accepting and respecting human diversity. One of the sources of good attitudes towards homosexuality is the having good self-esteem. The paper aims to analyze the impact of self-esteem on the attitudes toward homosexuality of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences. It is used the technique of questionnaire. The measuring instruments are: a) Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), b) Attitudes Toward Sexual Orientation: An Adaption of Herek’s ATLG Survey (the adaption is made by Benjamin J. Stefonik). The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed by means of the SPSS program, variant 20. In the study, we had the participation of 77 heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, 40 students frequent the first academic course and 37 students are at the second academic course. The paper concluded that there is positive correlation between heterosexual students’ self-esteem and their attitudes towards homosexuality (Sig. = 0.083). Their self-esteem is not too positive and their attitudes towards homosexuality are not good. The students prejudice the homosexual individuals. It is very important the improvement of self-esteem and the improvement of the attitudes toward homosexuality of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences. The improvement of their self-esteem and their attitudes toward homosexuality will influence the quality of their work. There are defined the main strategies in order to improve students’ self-esteem and their attitudes toward homosexuality.

Keywords: Self-esteem, attitudes, homosexuality.

Introduction

Nursing philosophy is based on humans and caring. Humans are unique and have a need to be understood. Nursing is described as a ‘helping discipline’, with a focus on interaction between the nurse and the patient, and relies on communication, participation and the nurse understanding both herself/himself and others (Bentling 1995; McCabe 2004). Working as a nurse builds on the nurse having a positive attitude to all patients and understanding the patient’s needs as well as understanding that her/his own values influence her/his actions and behavior (Röndahl, G. 2005).

Attitudes of health professionals can influence the willingness to provide help to homosexual patients (Yen et al. 2007) and consequently the quality of health care and treatment. Furthermore, medical students’ attitudes towards homosexuals are of great importance as the young are more prone to change and could be better promoters of anti-stigma programs. In addition, anti-stigma programs could help in spreading non-homophobic attitudes towards clients and patients, as well as in raising the awareness on how the attitudes of physicians and medical staff lead to negative social, ethical, and

Weinberg’s theory states that individuals who are able to overcome their homophobia would have improved feelings about themselves (as cited in Wells, 1991). Morin (1974) also found that the students who had more positive self-concepts had significantly less homophobia (as cited in Wells, 1991) (cited by Miller S.N.)

Investigators such as D’Augelli and Rose (1990), Engstrom and Sedlacek (1997), Hensley (1995), Kite (1984), Nelson and Krieger (1997), Reinhardt (1997), Rey and Gibson (1997), Simoni (1996), Waldo (1998), and Whitney (2002) have linked a variety of personal traits to feelings of homophobia. Gender-roles and gender, self-esteem, education level, race/ethnicity, religiosity, geographical area of residence, political preference, income level, and exposure to homosexuals can influence people’s feelings about homosexuals. Overall, women are more accepting of homosexuality than men, as are people who have high self-esteem; a higher level of education; higher income; more exposure to homosexuals; who are less active in organized religion; who identify as being politically moderate or liberal; who are not of an ethnic minority; and who live in less conservative areas of the country and/or in more urban settings (Smith M.S., 2004).

Methodology of the paper

As it was mentioned above, people’s self-esteem impacts their attitudes towards homosexuality. It is considered necessary the measurement of nurses’ attitudes towards homosexuality, because they serve homosexual people at their work. It is, also, necessary knowing their level of self-esteem, in order to create an idea about one of the sources of their attitudes towards homosexuality. A great part of the nurses of the city of Shkoder are students at Professional Master study programme. So, it was designed this research. There are conducted a lot of similar studies at the world. For example:

Gerd Röndahl made a similar study on 2005 at one infectious disease clinic in central Sweden. 48 nurses, 37 assistant nurses, 113 nursing students, 165 assistant nursing students participated in the study. In general, the participating nursing staff and students expressed positive attitudes, though some subjects reported very negative attitudes towards gay people (Röndahl, G.2005).

The study made by Samantha J. Boch at Ohio State University, College of Nursing on 2011, at a college of nursing in a large Midwestern university. The sample consisted of 369 participants: 36 faculty members and 333 nursing students. Overall, the results show that homophobia exists in this Midwestern college of nursing (Boch S.J., 2011).

The results of the study (in 2009) made with the participation of the students at the School of Medicine, University of Belgrade, and the physicians employed at the Clinical Center of Serbia, were that male participants showed a lower level of knowledge about homosexuality and a higher tendency to stigmatize homosexually oriented individuals (Dunjić –Kostić B., Pantović M., Vuković V., Randjelović D., Totić-Poznanović S., Damjanović A., Jašović-Gašić M., Ivković M., 2012).

Aims and objectives of the paper. The main aim of the paper is analyzing the impact of self-esteem of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences, on their attitudes toward homosexuality.

The objectives of the paper are:

Measuring self-esteem of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences.

Measuring attitudes toward homosexuality of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences.

The research question is: What is the relationship between self-esteem of heterosexual students of Professional Master in Nursing and their attitudes towards homosexuality?
**Sampling.** In the study, we had the participation of 77 students of students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences. The students claimed that are heterosexual. 5 questionnaires were considered as invalid, because there it was not given the sexual orientation of the students that fulfilled these questionnaires. 40 students (51,9% of students participating in the study) frequent the first academic course and 37 students (48,1%) are at the second academic course. 74 students (96,1% of students participating in the study) are female, 3 students (3,9%) are male. In the study we had the participation of students of different ages. Their age varies from 21 years aged (1 student) to 39 years aged (1 student). The mean is 25,05 years. 54 students (70,1% of students participating in the study) work as nurse, whereas 23 students (29,9% of students participating in the study) don't work as nurse. 18 students (23,4% of students participating in the study) recognize homosexual individuals, 58 students (75,3%) do not recognize any homosexual individual, whereas 1 student (1,3% of students participating in the study) has not given any answer.

**Apparatus/Materials.** It is used the technique of questionnaire. The measuring instruments are: a) "Self-Esteem Scale" (Rosenberg, 1965) to measure students' self-esteem.

The scale is a ten item Likert scale with items answered on a four point scale - from strongly agree to strongly disagree (cited by the link: [http://www.yorku.ca/rokada/psycetest/rosenbrg.pdf](http://www.yorku.ca/rokada/psycetest/rosenbrg.pdf)).


b) "Attitudes Toward Sexual Orientation: An Adaption of Herek’s ATLG Survey" (the adaption is made by Benjamin J. Stefonik). The questionnaire consists of 20-items and is presented in Likert format with a 5-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” (Herek, 1984). The range of possible aggregate scores is 20 points (least prejudice attitudes toward homosexuals) to 100 points (most prejudice attitudes toward homosexuals) (cited by the link: [http://www.foothill.edu/attach/1474/10_PaperExemplar.pdf](http://www.foothill.edu/attach/1474/10_PaperExemplar.pdf)).

The questionnaires have been filled out by the students themselves. The administration of the questionnaires and the interviews (distribution and collection) was conducted during November-December 2016.

**Method of analysis.** The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed by means of the SPSS program, variant 20. It is estimated the reliability of the questionnaire. The internal reliability, Alpha Cronbach coefficient=0,89.

**Piloting stage.** It is realized the piloting phase for both the questionnaires at previous studies made by the author. The internal reliability of the Self-esteem Scale was =0,797 (Osmanaga F., 2014). The internal reliability of the questionnaire “Attitudes Toward Sexual Orientation: An Adaption of Herek’s ATLG Survey” Alpha Cronbach = 0,92 (Osmanaga F., 2015). It is calculated Alpha Cronbach now and it is concluded that Alpha Cronbach for the Self-esteem Scale is 0,83 and Alpha Cronbach of the questionnaire “Attitudes Toward Sexual Orientation: An Adaption of Herek’s ATLG Survey” is 0,88.

**Findings of the study:**

**General data concerning students’ self-esteem**

Table 1. Data about students ‘self-esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>19,89</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3,37</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The mean is 19.89, the median is 19 and the mode is 18. The maximum score obtained is 28 (obtained from 1 student or 1.3% of students), the minimum score obtained is 14 (obtained from 2 students or 2.6% of students). It is given the corresponding histogram (the graph 1).

Graph 1. Data about students' self-esteem

A considerable fraction of the values obtained is ranked in the range of values from 14 to 20 (45 students or 58.44%). In the range of values from 21 to 25 is ranked another portion of the results (27 students or 35.06%). A small fraction of the values obtained is ranked in the range of values from 26 to 28 (5 students or 6.49%). So, we can say that students' self-esteem is not too positive.

General data concerning students' attitudes toward homosexuality

Table 2. Data about students' attitudes toward homosexuality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>59.64</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean is 59.64, the median is 59 and the mode is 58. The maximum score obtained is 84 (obtained from 1 student or 1.3% of students), the minimum score obtained is 38 (obtained from 1 student or 1.3% of students). It is given the corresponding histogram (the graph 2).
Graph 2. Data about students’ attitudes towards homosexuality

A small fraction of the values obtained is ranked in the range of values from 38 to 50 (10 students or 12.99%). The most of the results obtained is ranked in the range of values from 51 to 60 (32 students or 41.56%). A considerable fraction of the values obtained is ranked in the range of values from 61-70 (26 students or 33.77% of the students participating in the study). A small fraction of the values obtained is, also, ranked in the range of values from 71 to 82 (9 students or 11.68%). So, we can say that there exist prejudice attitudes toward homosexuality.

The relationship between heterosexual students’ self-esteem and their attitudes towards homosexuality

There is positive correlation (but no strong relation) between heterosexual students’ self-esteem and their attitudes towards homosexuality (Sig.= 0.083). Their self-esteem is not too positive and their attitudes towards homosexuality are not good. The students prejudice the homosexual individuals.

Conclusions

There is positive correlation between heterosexual students’ self-esteem and their attitudes towards homosexuality. Their self-esteem is not too positive and their attitudes towards homosexuality are not good.

Recommendations
It is very important the improvement of self-esteem of students of Professional Master in Nursing, branch of the Faculty of Natural Sciences. It is very important, also, that the students have good attitudes toward homosexuality. So, it is very important the improvement of their attitudes toward homosexuality. The improvement of their self-esteem will influence the quality of their work. So, improving students’ self-esteem will result in improving the quality of services for people. Other studies should be made in order to detect the causes of their low self-esteem.

According to the social contact theory, exposure to information about homosexuality or actually meeting a homosexual individual can positively affect an individual’s attitude toward homosexuals (Lance, 1994). Direct contact with a homosexual is believed to dispel myths, reduce fear, promote mutual understanding and reduce prejudice toward homosexual individuals (cited by: http://www.foothill.edu/attach/1474/10_PaperExemplar.pdf, pg.4).

An effective strategy for improving students attitudes toward homosexuality will be the organization of different meetings with homosexual individuals or the organization of various meetings with the representatives of their organizations. The Faculty should try to organize such meetings, for example, workshops, open lectures with the focus about sexual orientation.

It is very important the involvement in different academic subjects of a lot of topics that address homosexuality. So, the students will have more knowledge about homosexuality and this will improve their attitudes towards homosexuality.

There are needed further studies in order to find out other sources of prejudices toward homosexual individuals.

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EFL Student Teachers' Reflections on Their Initial Teaching Practice

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate student teachers' reflections on their pre-service teaching practice. The research question is: What are student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in initial teaching practice? The participants in this study were 53 student teachers of English language and literature at a Croatian university. A questionnaire was administered to the student teachers upon the accomplishment of their school-based teaching practice. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items accompanied by a five-point Likert scale. Six items in the questionnaire referred to the student teachers' perception of their cognitive involvement when observing their mentors teach, six items referred to the student teachers' perceptions of their verbal and non-verbal behaviour when teaching their own lessons, and six items addressed student teachers' attitude towards the assignments they had during their teaching practice. Findings indicate high cognitive involvement of the student teachers during their observations of mentors' lessons. The majority of the student teachers reported they had made an effort to understand the teaching process in terms of the principles and decisions that lay behind the procedures used by the teacher and the selection of a particular teaching strategy. The results show very high student teachers' involvement in some behavioural aspects of teaching, such as paying attention to learners' participation, and student teachers' most enjoyment in teaching their own lessons.

Keywords: pre-service teaching practice, student teachers of English language and literature, reflections

1 Introduction

Teaching practice or the practicum is an important part of initial teacher education (ITE) programmes (e.g. Farrell, 2008: 226; Gebhard, 2009: 250). Richards and Crookes (1988: 9) state that the practicum provides "the major opportunity for the student teacher to acquire practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective language teacher". The practicum usually involves "experience with systematic observation" (Gebhard, 2009: 251) and "practical experience in classroom teaching" (Richards and Crookes; 1988: 11).

Classroom observation may be defined as "nonjudgmental description of classroom events that can be analyzed and given interpretation" (Gebhard, 1999: 35). One of the purposes of classroom observation in the practicum is to learn to teach (Gebhard, 1999: 37). Thus, observation in ITE may be considered as "a learning tool" (Wajnryb, 1992: 1). Student teachers can learn a lot from observing experienced teachers (Gebhard, 1999: 37). Observing experienced teachers helps student teachers understand what goes on in the foreign language classroom (Day, 1990: 54; Gebhard, 1999: 36), it helps them interpret classroom interaction (Gebhard, 1999: 36), and understand the role of the teacher (Day, 1990: 54). An observation process usually includes a post-observation session where a student teacher explores with the observed experienced teacher the decisions that guided the teacher in his or her teaching (Richards, 1990: 15). Thus, observing experienced teachers enables student teachers discover and interpret "the working rules that effective teachers use" (Richards; 1990: 15). Student teachers can also learn by observing fellow student teachers. When student teachers observe their peers teach they see their "own teaching differently" (Fansellow, 1990: 183) and "construct, reconstruct, and revise" (Fansellow, 1990: 184) their own teaching.

To be effective observation should be guided (Day, 1990: 43), systematic (Day, 1990: 43; Gebhard, 2009: 250), and focused (Day, 1990: 43; Watson Todd, 1997: 122). During the observation process student teachers collect, analyze and interpret
data on classroom interaction. Data on classroom interaction can be collected in a number of ways. One way of collecting classroom data is to provide a written description of what was going on in the classroom. Such a description of classroom events should be objective, nonjudgmental and nonevaluative (Day, 1990:45). This technique is considered to help student teachers raise awareness of the complexity of foreign language classrooms (Day, 1990: 44). Another technique of collecting data is through observation tasks. An observation task is “a focussed activity to work on while observing a lesson in progress” (Wajnryb, 1992: 8). It provides a means of collecting data on one or two aspects of teaching, such as questioning, giving instructions, or attending to the learner. This technique provides student teachers with focus and clarity, with an increased skill in understanding and interpreting data, and with better understanding of the relationship between theory and practice (Wajnryb, 1992: 8).

Classroom teaching is an experiential practice in ITE (Ellis, 1990: 29). It involves student teachers in “real” teaching. This practice, also called “practice teaching” (Richards, 1990: 15), refers to “participating in a variety of practice teaching experiences that are closely supervised by a skilled teacher” (Ibid.). Classroom teaching is usually considered to be the most important learning experience in ITE. It enables “conscious understanding of the principles underlying second language teaching (Ellis, 1990: 27) and it provides student teachers with the opportunities to “use their accumulated knowledge to make instructional decisions” (Gebhard, Gaitan and Oprandy, 1990: 17). Gebhard (2009: 252) claims that classroom teaching is the most important classroom experience because it “not only provides direct experience of interacting with students, but it also provides the contexts and content for other activities, such as self-observation, peer observations and discussions”.

This study attempts to contribute to research on initial teaching practice (ITP) by examining foreign language student teachers’ reflections on their ITP.

2 The Context of the Study

The study investigates the perceptions of pre-service English language teachers’ experiences at a Croatian university during their ITP. ITP was organised as the last part of ITE programme which included courses on second language acquisition, psychology of education, pedagogy, didactics of teaching foreign languages and an English as a foreign language (EFL) methodology course. The focus of the methodology course was on lesson planning, teaching strategies and the development of observation skills. Some students also attended an elective course on classroom discourse. At the time of the study the student teachers were enrolled in the last semester of Teacher Education Programme and had accomplished their school-based teaching practice. The duration of ITP was three months and it was organised in two blocks, first in an elementary school and then in a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. Each student was allocated to a mentor, an experienced EFL teacher, in each type of school.

The teaching practice consisted of the observations of school-based mentors, peer observations and teaching own lessons. Each student observed 20 mentor lessons, 10 in an elementary school and 10 in a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. During the observation process the student teachers collected data through descriptions and observation tasks (Wajnryb, 1992). The collected data were analysed and interpreted in post-observation sessions with school-based mentors. During the teaching practice each student teacher taught ten lessons, both in an elementary and a secondary school or a school of foreign languages. The student teachers wrote a formal lesson plan for each lesson. A lesson plan included the goals of the lesson, the objective of each stage of the lesson, procedures, timing, materials and aids, and an additional activity. Each lesson taught by the student teacher was observed by a mentor and followed by a post-observation session where the student teacher was provided with oral feedback. The student teachers were also provided with a mentor’s written feedback. After each student teacher had taught three of four lessons, a peer observation activity was organised. Each student observed a peer and was observed by the same peer. An observed student decided what aspect(s) of his/her teaching would be the focus of observation. Peer observation was preceded by a pre-observation session and followed by a discussion in the post-observation session.
3 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate EFL student teachers’ reflections on their ITP with respect to two main components: observation of the mentors’ lessons and own teaching. It also attempts to identify student teachers’ attitudes towards the different components of ITP. It addresses the following question:

What are the student teachers’ perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in initial teaching practice?

4 Method

4.1 Participants

Fifty-three student teachers of English language and literature at a Croatian university participated in this study. The study was carried out in the last semester of teacher education programme, upon the student teachers’ accomplishment of school-based teaching practice.

4.2 Instrument

A questionnaire was administered to the student teachers upon the accomplishment of their school-based teaching practice. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items accompanied by a five-point Likert scale (5 - strongly agree, 4 - agree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 2 - disagree, 1 - strongly disagree). The items were in the form of I-statements. Six items in the questionnaire referred to the student teachers’ perception of their cognitive involvement when observing their mentors teach, six items referred to the student teachers’ perceptions of their verbal and non-verbal behaviour when teaching their own lessons, and six items addressed student teachers’ attitude towards the practices and assignments they had during their teaching practice.

4.3 Data analysis

A quantitative analysis was performed on the data collected by the questionnaire. The analysis was carried out using SPSS for Windows 13.0.

5 Results and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Results of descriptive statistics of the questionnaire on student teachers’ perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in ITP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Mo</th>
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<td>1. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand the aim of</td>
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<td>the communicative activities s/he organised.</td>
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<td>2. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand why s/he</td>
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<td>used a particular teaching strategy.</td>
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<td>3. While observing my mentor teach I tried to understand the</td>
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<td>4.17</td>
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<td>purposes of the procedures by which a particular activity was</td>
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<td>organised/performed.</td>
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<td>4. While observing my mentor teach I was aware of the purposes</td>
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<td>3.72</td>
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<td>of various teaching techniques.</td>
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<td>5. While observing my mentor teach I considered the</td>
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<td>3**</td>
<td>0.81</td>
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communicative purpose of his/her utterances

6. While observing my mentor's lessons I considered the learning purpose of various types of interaction

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<td>3.75</td>
<td>4</td>
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7. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to learners' participation.

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<td>4.74</td>
<td>5</td>
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8. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to timing.

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<td></td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>5</td>
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9. When teaching my own lessons I paid attention to my mentor's reactions.

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<td>2.94</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.60</td>
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10. When teaching my own lessons I monitored my language use.

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<td>4.17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.75</td>
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11. When teaching my own lessons I monitored learners' verbal behaviour.

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<td></td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4</td>
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12. When teaching my own lessons I monitored my position in the classroom.

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<td>4.09</td>
<td>4</td>
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13. I enjoyed filling in observation sheets.

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<td></td>
<td>2.13</td>
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<td>3.15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>32.1</td>
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15. I enjoyed post-observation sessions after my own lessons.

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<td></td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>15.1</td>
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16. I enjoyed observing my mentors teach.

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<td>3.57</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>15.1</td>
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17. I enjoyed observing peer students teach.

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<td>3.94</td>
<td>4</td>
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18. I enjoyed teaching lessons.

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<td>4.55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.64</td>
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* Note: Values present percentages: D=collapsed scores for Strongly disagree and Disagree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, A= collapsed scores for Strongly agree or Agree

N - number of participants

M - mean value

Mo - mode (dominant value)

SD - standard deviation

** Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

The results of the questionnaire show that student teachers' perceptions of their cognitive, behavioural and affective involvement in ITP are positive (Table 1). The result of the whole questionnaire is 3.9.

The results of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers’ perceptions of their cognitive involvement when they observed their mentors teach (items 1 to 6) is relatively high; the mean value of these items is 3.9. The mean value of items 1, 2 and 3 (4.1) and their modes (4, 5 and 6 respectively) indicate that the majority of the student teachers attempted to determine the decision making that guided the teacher in lesson planning. This finding is important because it shows the student teachers' high awareness of the importance of lesson planning in terms of the goals and objectives of the activities, the choice of teaching strategies and procedures in organising and delivering a lesson. A high awareness of the importance of these components of lesson planning may be attributed to previous course work but also to task-based observations.

Slightly lower agreement was obtained for the items that refer to the decision making that guided the teacher in managing classroom interaction (items 4, 5 and 6); the mean value of these items is 3.7. Most student teachers agreed that they tried to understand the teacher's decisions on student groupings (item 6). However, most student teachers were indecisive as to whether they were able to determine the functions of teacher utterances (item 5) and the teacher's decisions that underlay the employment of a particular teaching technique (item 4). Lower results of these items may be explained with the complexity of factors that might influence the teacher's decisions on various aspects of classroom management, such as learner characteristics, learner language knowledge, and learner needs.
The result of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers' perceptions of their behaviour when they taught their own lessons (items 7 to 12) is very high; the mean value of these items is 4.1. Almost all student teachers in this study (98 %) claimed that when they had taught their own lessons they had paid attention to learners' participation. This finding indicates that in the initial stage of teaching practice the student teachers are highly aware of the importance of the amount of learners' participation. "The quantity of student participation and interaction that occurs" (Richards, 2010: 113) is one of the characteristics of the learner-centered teaching approach, which is one of the "core dimensions of skill and expertise in language teaching (Richards, 2010: 101).

The majority of the student teachers (96 %) report that they paid attention to timing when they taught their own lessons. This finding does not surprise because predicting the length of an activity in the planning phase and controlling the length of the activity while teaching are difficult for beginning teachers (Wajnryb, 1992: 116).

Monitoring learners' language use is one of the teaching skills that a student teacher needs to acquire (Richards, 2010: 107). Most participants in this study (92%) reported to have monitored learners' verbal behaviour when teaching own lessons.

Ability "to monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy" is one of the language-specific competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively (Richards, 1910: 103). A great majority of the student teachers (88 %) in this study reported to have monitored their language use when teaching own lessons.

Most student teachers (79 %) reported to have monitored their own position in the classroom when teaching own lessons whereas most student teachers (70 %) either "disagree" or "neither agree nor disagree" that they paid attention to the reactions of the mentor who observed their lesson.

The result of the items in the questionnaire that refer to the student teachers' perceptions of their affective involvement in the ITE (items 13 to 18) is 3.5. A great variability in the student teachers' attitudes towards the different practices and assignments in ITP may be noticed. The findings show that teaching own lessons was the most pleasant experience for the student teachers in this study. Ninety-two percent of the student teachers either strongly agreed (62%) or agreed (30%) that they had enjoyed teaching their own lessons. More than three-fourths of the student teachers reported to have enjoyed observing fellow student teachers teach. This finding does not surprise because previous studies have shown that student teachers have a very positive attitude towards the use of peer observation in ITP (e. g. Čurković Kalebić, 2017). Two-thirds of the participants in this study enjoyed post-observation sessions that followed the lessons they had taught. About one-half of the student teachers (53 %) reported to have enjoyed observing their mentors teach whereas less than one-half of the student teachers (45%) enjoyed a post-observation session that followed an observation of the mentor's lessons.

Finally, almost two-thirds of the student teachers (64 %) reported that they had not enjoyed doing written assignments (filling-in observation sheets) while observing their mentors or peers.

6 Conclusion

In this study an attempt was made to shed more light on the role of teaching practice in ITE of EFL student teachers. By answering a research question the perceptions of cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement of student teachers in ITE were investigated. Based on the findings the following conclusions have been drawn:

Guided and focused classroom observation of experienced teachers enables student teachers to raise awareness of the importance of the decision making process that guides the teacher in teaching a lesson. The findings of this study lead to the conclusion that during the observations of experienced teachers student teachers not only notice "good practice" but also try to discover the decisions that underlie teaching practice.
When teaching their own lessons student teachers seem to pay great attention to learners' learning. The findings of the study lead to the conclusion that learner participation in classroom interaction and learner verbal production were in the center of the student teachers’ attention.

The findings also indicate that student teachers have a more positive attitude to the activities that include their active involvement (teaching their own lessons, peer observations, and discussion sessions that follow student teachers' lessons) than to the activities in which their active engagement is lower (observing mentors and sessions that follow mentors' lessons).

A great variability in the student teachers' attitudes towards the sessions that followed their mentors' lessons as well as their own lessons has been found. This finding indicates the need for more research in the area of mentor support, mentor feedback and student teachers' reflections on own lessons in ITP.

References:


Impact of Space and Environment on Women in Urban Transformation (Case of Ankara)

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Assoc.Prof.Dr., TODAİE, 85.cad. No:8 Yüçetepe, 06100, Ankara-Turkey

Abstract

In this study, it is understood that Turkey is developing rapidly, the increasing need for accommodation due to migration from the village to the city and the distorted structure in the cities, and the urban transformation efforts carried out in order to overcome this skewed construction necessitated the reorganization of the environment and the place. Urban transformation, which brings about significant changes in social life, causes positive/negative effects especially on the social life of women. In this context, the historical process of urban transformation in Turkey and in the world has been analyzed and discussed from the perspective of environment and women's issues. In this context, it is aimed to analyze the reflections of the new place and the surrounding area, which are the result of urban transformation, on the social life of women, by interviewing face to face with the women living in Etimesgut in the city of Ankara and having experienced the process of urban transformation. In this framework, it is aimed to produce suggestions on spatial planning and environmental regulations that take into account the needs of women in urban life. The fact that women spend more time in domestic life, that women play an active role in neighborhood culture, requires that women be treated as a special category in every kind of urban transformation project and the possible effects on women should be examined. At the end of the work; It has been determined that women are not included in decision-making mechanisms in urban transformation projects carried out in Etimesgut region, that the lifestyles and needs of women are not adequately taken into account when domestic and environmental regulations are being made and that urban transformations have more intense and different effects on women. Turkey has cities that are shaped by immigration from the countryside and is a rapidly changing country. Rapid migration to urban from rural have brought many problems like lack of infrastructure in the cities, and uneven urbanization. There are many different methods and policies for finding solutions to these problems of our cities. Urban transformations are the most important of these and the largest impact area. The urban transformation projects, which are sometimes painful and sometimes glaring, are a multi-faceted and rapid process carried out not only by the state but also by private construction companies through the Housing Development Administration (TOKİ). This process not only transforms the physical appearance and infrastructure of the cities, but also inhabitants’ networks, lifestyles, living cultures and social tissues. In this transformation, every part of the society is directly or indirectly affected. The main claim of this study is that women are differently affected by the urban transformation process than men as a separate social category and are involved in urban transformation processes with different parameters. As a result of this work, women are passively becoming objects of this process rather than actively participating in decision-making processes and policy-making processes in the process of urban transformation. The main reason for this is that women in housing ownership are lower than men. Another assumption of this study is that women are not included in the process as a result of urban transformation and that women are not considered as a separate social category in such projects, that renewed housing areas, spaces, environmental regulations are inadequate for women and unsatisfactory. The three major sites in the Süvari Quarter of Etimesgut, the rapidly transforming region of Ankara, where the work was conducted, were handled and interviewed with the women who lived in these sites. The women in the sample are the women who settled in the apartments given to them as a result of urban transformation while they were sitting in the slums and their lifestyles changed. Seventeen of the 18 women interviewed were categorized as older than 41, while 11 were as young. The main reason for distinguishing older and younger women is the assumption that older people can adapt to change
more easily. Interviews lasted more than 2 months and the average interview duration lasted about 90 minutes. As the research topic was women, visits were conducted during the evening with their husbands at home. At each interview, 39 questions including demographic questions were asked and the answers were recorded on the voice recorder with permission.

Keywords: Urban Transformation, Place and Environment, Environment and Women.

Introduction

Turkey has cities shaped by immigration from the countryside to the east and is a rapidly changing country. Rapid migration to the city from the sea, lack of infrastructure in the cities, and uneven urbanization have brought many problems to the fore. There are many different methods and policies for finding solutions to these problems of our cities. Urban transformations are the most important of these and the largest impact area. The urban transformation projects, which are sometimes grievous and sometimes brilliant, are a multi-faceted and rapid process carried out not only by the state but also by private construction companies through the Housing Development Administration (TOKI).

This process transforms not only the physical appearance and the infrastructure of the cities, but also your networks, lifestyles, living cultures and social tissues. Every sector of society is directly or indirectly affected by this transformation. The main claim of this study is that women are differently affected by the urban transformation process than males as a separate social category and are involved in urban transformation processes with different parameters.

As a result of this work, women are passively becoming objects of this process rather than actively participating in decision-making processes and policy-making processes in the process of urban transformation. The main reason for this is that women in housing ownership are behind men.

Another assumption of this study is that women are not included in the process as a result of urban transformation and that women are not considered as a separate social category in such projects, that renewed housing areas, spaces, environmental regulations are inadequate for women and unsatisfactory.

The concepts that constitute the main axis of the study are discussed in the theoretical discussion in the first part of the thesis on urban, urbanization and urbanism. After the main theoretical discussions about urban, urbanization and urbanization, urban transformation was tried to be defined as a separate concept and international experiences and processes of Turkey were discussed. The most important part of this process, space and environment, has been debated descriptively and conceptually and has been associated with women. The dimension of the space and the space of the woman, the way the women experience the environment and the space, and the issue that they transform the space are also included in the discussion. Urban transformation with different dimensions and the women's issues in international legislation and agreements shed light on the position of women in Turkey in urban transformation. In the programs and regulations of international institutions, women are treated as a separate category in areas such as development, poverty, environment, education and health. It is assumed that women are influenced differently by all these factual processes. For this reason, different policies are set for women.

After discussing the issue of women and environment in Turkey, findings from the field study were discussed. The correctness of the assumptions suggested by analyzing the findings in the discussion and conclusion parts has been tested.

Theoretical Framework

There are many definitions related to urban transformation. These definitions vary according to the vision, purpose, strategy and method they emphasize. In urbanism, there are many definitions of urban transformation, which are used together with concepts such as renewal, conservation and sanitation that are used to provide reintegration of untouched areas with the city in economic, social and physical terms, but there is no clear definition of this concept in our laws.
There are also those who understand concepts such as urban regeneration, urban regeneration, urban regeneration, urban regeneration, urban conservation, urban gentrification, depending on the nature and location of the project being implemented. Urban transformation is the whole of the actions and strategies applied to improve the socio-economic, social, environmental and physical conditions of urban areas with collapsing and degradation through integrated and comprehensive approaches.

For the first time, the phenomenon of urban transformation has been resurfaced in the residential areas of the developed western countries in order to reconstruct the depressed areas economically and socially, and in general in the urban areas where the social populations where the population density has been lost or the low-income individuals continue their lives under inadequate economic and unfavorable physical conditions. And the implementation of the projects for the revitalization. The methods of intervening in the spatial shaping of western cities have evolved over time according to the social dynamics of institutional structures peculiar to those societies, with the teaching of errors made (Ataöv and Osmay, 2007: 58-82).

Thomas and Atkinson have described the phenomenon of urban transformation as a comprehensive broad-minded action plan aimed at finding a lasting solution to the economic, physical, social and environmental conditions of the changing regions developed for the solution of urban problems. As a result of change, the region may be a historic settlement, a residential area, or a lost industrial area. According to these theorists, it should be noted that within the frame of urban transformation, concepts such as urban renewal, remediation, revitalization and exacerbation, urban design projects, elaboration and law gentrification are used, and that this process is included in the groups that have a say in legislation, politics, economic decisions and preferences (Akyüz, 2015).

One of the most important assumptions in the context of urban transformation is that cities are entering into intense social and economic relations with new communication possibilities and the decline of the frontiers of the borders, and under the influence of increasingly external dynamics and international or national power balances. In this period, the geographical dimensions of production and hierarchical transformations between cities, the concepts of world cities, called global cities, new industrial centers emerging with new production processes, the relations of local government with democracy, newly created urban areas, new urban centers emerged by the global economy, new The class divisions that have come to the fore depending on the division of labor and the new urban divisions that are shaped by their spatial preferences have come to the agenda (Kurtuluş, 2005: 10).

Urban transformation projects under the supervision of actors active in international and national scales have brought significant problems to the national arena in the future. These activities, which are realized with the projecting mentality, increase the competition between the regions and cities and lead to the subordination of basic values such as transparency, social justice and democracy. It is important that the process is well guided and that the projects of sustainable urbanization are based on the principles of social justice and that the urban transformation projects are first and foremost publicly accepted without damaging the environment by protecting the local characteristics (Çiçek, 2015: 15).

Urban transformation can be carried out in accordance with the socioeconomic and physical conditions of the day, together with a strategic approach to the urban social structure that is worn out, worn out or has a potential value above the existing superstructure value and is generally dominated by poverty, Renewing, altering, developing and revitalizing the action (Özden, 2006: 217).

The first examples of transformation are the gecekondulaşas in the Turkish metropolitan cities with the end of World War II. It is observed that the urban transformation in metropolitan metropolitan cities from the 1950s was classified according to three different cycles. The first period was the period between 1950 and 1980 when the economic growth policy was expanded and the industrialization accelerated. Along with economic growth, immigration has led to the rapid expansion and expansion of large cities. In this period, as the most important urban transformation areas, vacant land in the city was
transformed into gecekondu neighborhoods and afterwards, with the health conditions of these neighborhoods increased, apartment buildings were restructured and restructured and restructured (Ataöv and Osmay, 2007: 58-82).

In the second period, between 1980 and 2000, when the big cities were influenced by the open liberal economy and globalization. In this period, two important developments were observed in metropolitan cities. On the one hand, licensed and unlicensed or inhabited or incongruous structuring took place in the city, while residential areas spread out of the center. Transformation is observed not only in urban residential areas but also in industrial environments, central and coastal areas. The quality of life has declined over time and has been the repair, rehabilitation or revitalization of risky areas. It is also observed that housing areas of historic value are protected by gentrification.

In the third and last period, the 2000s, the co-operation between the local government and the private sector accelerated, for the first time the ‘transformation’ was defined as a strategy. However, the transformation strategy is defined as urban restoration only, and this approach has begun to be applied to transform different urban parts into different uses. In addition, the gentrification of historic housing areas and the improvement of apartment / residential areas are striking. Historical analysis shows that intervention in Turkey without knowing and learning the contextual features of transformational areas can not go beyond limited physical change.

Taking into account the local characteristics of the area to be transformed in accordance with the current new planning and intervention paradigm requires the involvement of other claimants with the local government, the establishment of partnerships and the management of a multi-faceted transformation process. There is a need for a new approach in this direction for the transformation applications that will be implemented in the future (Ataöv and Osmay, 2007: 58-82).

Urban transformation requires that different disciplines work in a synchronized manner in the transformation planning studies, as the fields of activity and natural structure affect the whole city identity and the characteristic feature of the city on the existing city structure and the physical, social and economic future of the individuals living there. In this context, it is stated that urban transformation studies should be designed in consideration of 5 basic purposes while being passed on to a misadventure (Şişman and Kibaroğlu, 2009).

A non-indirect relationship should be established between the structural / physical conditions of the city and the social problems and the projects should be developed in such a way as to prevent social deterioration.

Urban transformation should respond to the need for change by allowing the city to constantly renew itself and develop again according to the new physical, social, environmental, infrastructure and economic needs emerging along with the rapidly growing, developing, changing and distorted texture of the city. Urban transformation projects should aim to improve the city's welfare level and quality of life by developing strategies that will restore the economic viability that has disappeared over time.

Projects should be developed by putting forward strategies to prevent urban sprawl from being used in the most effective way together with transformation of urban areas. Thus, reuse of previously used but dispossessed areas will occur and overdispersion will be limited.

Urban politics, the product of political forces with social conditions, must be achieved through a multi-stakeholder planning and design process aimed at meeting the need for reshaping. A planning approach should be adopted that ensures the participation of different segments of society and non-governmental organizations as well as public and private sector participation (Selçuk and Aydoğdu, 2014:39).

Modern and safe cities should be built and existing ones should be renewed with urban transformation projects. Modern cities should be created with the urban transformation that is compatible with the environment in which our people live in peace and security, safe against depression and disaster risks, and compatible with planning standards.
In this way, the cities will be brought to the country while the unhealthy growth of the cities and the destruction of the agricultural lands are prevented and the other side is safe against the earthquake risks.

Urban transformation projects will prevent the loss of life in earthquakes, the country economy will be minimally damaged and new employment areas will be opened to contribute to revitalization of the construction industry.

**Methodology**

The three major sites in the Süvari Quarter in Etimesgut, the rapidly transforming region of Ankara, where the work was conducted, were handled and interviewed with women who lived in these sites. The women in the sample are the women who settled in the apartments given to them as a result of urban transformation while they were sitting in the slums before and their lifestyles changed. Seventeen of the 18 women interviewed were categorized as older than 41, while 11 as younger were categorized as younger than 41. The important reason for distinguishing older and younger women is the assumption that younger ones can adapt to change more easily than older ones.

Interviews lasted more than 2 months and the average interview duration lasted about 90 minutes. Since the research topic was women, visits were conducted during the evening with their husbands at home. At each interview, 39 questions including demographic questions were asked and the answers were recorded on the voice recorder with permission. While demographic questions were 8, 8 were related to decision making process, 6 were related to environmental regulation, 8 were related to housing property, 6 were related to social life and lifestyle, 2 were about housing width and number of rooms, 1 about family relations, 1 about complaints 1 related to the rules, 1 regarding the rules and 1 question about the security.

**Findings**

The interviews were conducted with the women living in the city of Etimesgut and experiencing the urban transformation process was conducted to analyze the reflections of the new space and the surrounding area on the social life of the woman as a result of urban transformation.

Seventeen of the 18 women interviewed were categorized as older than 41, while 11 as younger were categorized as younger than 41. The important reason for distinguishing older and younger women is the assumption that younger ones can adapt to change more easily than older ones.

Of the 18 women in the sample, 11 of them are married and have children, while 7 are housewives and 4 of them are working in different jobs. Of the young women, 10 have 2 or fewer children, while only one has 3. In addition, 6 of the 11 women interviewed were high school, associate and university graduates while 5 were in primary and secondary education. Ten of the women in the young sample did not sit in the apartment or the apartment on the site of the urban transformation process or the one on the site.

Among the women who are categorized as 41 years old and over, 7 are married and housewife, 6 are 2, and 1 child is not. Moreover, while 6 were primary and secondary school graduates, 1 did not go to any school. Older women did not sit in the apartment or the apartment on the 2nd floor of the apartment or the site on the 5th stage of urban transformation.

Women over the age of 41 live in the neighborhood where they live between 24 and 30 years, young women under the age of 41 live between 11 and 35 years. When evaluated in terms of their demographic characteristics, all women are married while young women have higher levels of education and work compared to older women.

Children's ownership rates vary depending on age, while younger women under age 41 are more likely to have 2 or fewer children, while children over 41 years of age and over are 2 or older. Women, together with urban residents, are expected to increase their level of education with new residents.
In the urban transformation decision-making process, 8 out of 11 young women aged 41 and under did not take part in the decision-making process and 3 took part in the decision-making process. Of the 41 aged and over 7 older women, 6 were in the decision-making process and only 1 were not in the decision-making process. Although younger than 41 years of age are more effective, younger people under the age of 41 are less likely to take part in the process because their lands have been passed on to them through inheritance.

While 17 respondents favor positive / negative opinions of the 18 interviewers who are involved in the urban transformation, only 1 interviewer has negative thoughts. Women are coming closer to transformation with the idea that urban transformation will be more clean, healthy, warm and pleasant. Interviewees have been taken to different views because their houses are not involved in the planning and construction phases, and the Municipality or the Contractors have decided on the planning and construction stages.

The fact that women spend more time than men have in men's dominant world rather than women, and that the houses for financial gain turn into more and more concrete floors of concrete. With the urban transformation, they are pleased with the environmental regulation of the neighborhoods they are together with, and about the environmental regulation of their houses (park, garden, etc.). Of the 7 elderly women aged 41 and over, 6 are satisfied but only 1 is not satisfied.

Interviewers are often seen in the pictures below, where they feel a 2nd class when compared to other places where they are not satisfied with the environmental system and the lack of green spaces and the children's playgrounds are not adequate and orderly. A noticeable difference in the children's park areas and green areas of Simgeşehir 1 and 2.

The urban transformation that is determined by the Municipality of Etimesgut has been constructed by the contractor firm that is similar to a different area to the gecekondu owners, or the ones who want to be the host from the area where the gecekondu is located are hosting by meeting the price difference between them.

With regard to the positive and negative situations that have taken place in transportation with urban transformation, 6 out of 11 young women aged 41 and under expressed relief in transportation, and they stated that the 5'si did not come to a change in transportation. 6 out of 7 elderly women aged 41 and over reported positive developments in transportation and only 1 had no change in transportation.

Twelve of the 18 females stated that there were supposedly positive thoughts in transportation arrangements, while 6 said that they did not come to change in mass transportation. Negotiators generally call for environmental improvements as well as new ways of making improvements, a decrease in slope and slope areas, and favorable developments in consequent transportation.

In the analysis of the effect of the apartment or the site fees on the social life of the apartment or site in the life of the apartment or the site, they consider that they do not regard 9 of the 11 younger women under age 41 as expenses and 3 as the expense. Only one of the 7 elderly women aged 41 or older considers 6 as additional costs as additional costs.

The appraisal of the apartment or site dues evaluates only 3 of the 18 fathers who do not perceive 15 as additional costs as an additional expense. The subsidies have contributed to the social lives of women and have provided cleaner and more spacious living spaces.

In the analysis of ownership ownership of new settlement areas and housing realized within the context of urban transformation, 9 out of 11 young women aged 41 and under do not own ownership while only 2 ownership ownership. The 41-year-old and above 7-year-old woman interviewed only 5 of them ownership, while only 2 own the property. The interviewer is not directly entitled to ownership of 14 of the 18 fathers, while only 4 women are registered to the court on behalf of the property owner. Ownership is mostly registered with the spouse or father-in-law, while the proportion of women is very small.
When analyzed in terms of the number of households residing in Housing Property, the number of people living in the household of 7 elderly women aged 41 and over is 2 and above. Eleven women under the age of 41 have 2 or more in the household. While 18 women interviewed 17 in their house 2 and they were living with the household members, only 1 was staying with their spouse.

When the amount of income entering the residence is taken as the minimum wage reference, 9 out of 11 young women aged 41 and below have a minimum income level of 3 with a minimum wage level. 3 of the elderly aged 41 and over have a minimum income level of 4 and a minimum wage. 18 women interviewed had 11 more than the minimum wage level and 7 were the income level minimum wage.

Young women aged 41 and below have more income than women aged 41 or older because their education levels are high and they are involved in working life. With the urban transformation, the changes in the kitchen expenditures are expressed in the fact that 6 out of 11 young women aged 41 and under are experiencing an increase in the kitchen expenses, while the Sisi states that they do not come to a change in the kitchen expenses. 4 out of 7 elderly women aged 41 and over are experiencing an increase in kitchen expenses and 3 of them say that kitchen expenses do not change. With Urban Transformation, 18 women interviewed stated that 10 had an increase in kitchen expenses, 8 said that there was no change in kitchen expenses.

It is seen that women are able to contribute to kitchen or household expenses before urban transformation, while canvassing, growing vegetables in the garden, and at the same time washing carpets in front of their homes and decreasing their contribution to the household budget.

Analyzing the change in clothing or household goods with urban transformation, 9 out of 11 young people aged 41 and under are saying that they do not want to change in clothing or household goods, whereas 3 says that they have changed in clothing or household goods. Of the elderly women aged 41 and over, 6 out of 6 said that they only change in household goods, while only 1 says that they do not change in clothing or household goods. 18 women say that the interviewer does not seem to be able to change clothes or household items, but says that 8 does not come to change in clothing or household goods.

Women are generally understood to be changing clothing and household goods in line with their needs. It is understood that 41 year old and younger women are less likely to change than older women aged 41 or older, and that the change is due to the aging of the products used by women aged 41 and older for many years.

Prior to urban transformation, only 17 of the 18 women living in the slum district receive assistance from the municipality or any institution or agency. Interviewer women say that the life of the site or apartment is tranquil, orderly and orderly.

After the urban transformation, neighborhood relations have begun to take place with the permission of weakened departure / arrival. It has been found that it is difficult to find new neighbors with urban transformation and there are warmer neighborhood relations in the slum life. It is understood that with the urban return, changes also take place in the relations of relatives.

11 women aged 41 or younger and 7 women aged 41 or older and 4 adults aged 41 or older felt that they had a new place after the urban transformation, and that they felt they belonged to the slum life. 4 of them belong to the slum life and 3 of them belong to the apartment or the site life. It is understood that 11 of the interviewer's feelings belong to the slum life and 7 that they feel belong to the apartment or the site life.

Women who are transported to your premises as part of urban transformation are more formally perceived as having a more intimate life together with the fact that the physical conditions in the slum life are difficult and the physical conditions of the apartments are beautiful. Women believe that the urban transformation will be preserved not only in the form of
apartment blocks but also in the horizontal and single or double storeyed individual spaces as well as the neighborhood concept.

Women who continue their lives in the slum before the urban transformation are convinced that there is a lack of rooms and that their houses are not spacious enough. They also say that they do not even have toilets in their houses. But they believe that they have a certain spacious spaces together with urban transformation.

They say that 7 out of 11 young women aged 41 and under are having a positive change in the fact that the spaces bring about changes in family relations, and they say that they do not come to a change in family relations. 4 of the elderly women aged 41 or over say that positive changes in family relations are occurring in their new housing after the end of urbanization, 3 says that they do not come to a change in family relations. The interviewer said that 11 of the 18 females said that positive changes took place, while the 7 said that they did not change the family relations.

As a result of urban transformation in general, women are generally dissatisfied with the materials and workmanship used in the apartment or the site, and the rooms are large and the sun is generally enjoyed.

Of the 18 women interviewees who were informed about the rules of the apartments and the site, only 17 interviewees were informed about the rules, and only 1 interviewer said that they had no knowledge of the rules.

The women are more likely to continue their habits of slum life, resulting in the deletion of carpets or table cloths from the balcony, leaving them to the entrance of the flats.

For safety reasons, 10 out of 11 young people aged 41 years and under are safer than a shanty house or apartment building, only 1 said it is safer. Seven-year-old and older women say that the 7'side site or apartment is safer. Of the 18 women interviewed, only 1 said the saucer was safer. Women feel more secure about the physical characteristics of the apartment or site life, although they do not feel secure about their interest in the physical condition of life in the shantytown.

Conclusion

Women who have begun to be treated as separate social categories exhibit distinct characteristics from men in terms of their impact on urban regeneration and environmental regulation from developmental processes, social change and transformation, environmental change and disaster, poverty and violence. Every social phenomenon and event affects women with different parameters according to men. For this reason, the main axis of this study has been the dimension of women affected by urban transformation.

It is understood that the women who are selected from the urban transformation area in the Ankara İli Etimesgut District Süvari Quarter, which is the area of the worker, are affected by different processes from men and have different demands and expectations. In particular, it is understood that women are more actively involved in home use than men. It is understood that males are less used than housewives because they are more active in fields such as business life or social life outside the home. The structure of the house also affects the usage habits of the woman. Woman, the main actor of domestic labor, is a social category that is directly influenced by urban transformation from any politics of residential areas, spatial arrangement. For this reason, it is necessary to consider women as a separate category in the process of urban transformation.

Addressing women as a separate category in terms of being influenced by social processes has also affected international processes. Global organizations such as the United Nations and the European Union, in particular the development and environmental policies, have chosen to pursue separate arrangements and treaties for women. Urban transformation projects that are impossible to think independently of development and environment should also consider women as a separate category and should include policies and practices that consider women in their processes.
In this study, it is understood that in the light of the data obtained from the interviews conducted with the women in the field within the field, women are clearly behind in housing ownership compared to men, and they can not participate in decision making mechanisms and implementation processes about housing conversion. Women who are in a minority status in residential property are negatively affected by urban regeneration because they are less involved in policy-making and decision-making processes. It is difficult to keep up with the decline of rule and neighborhood cultures related to new housing styles, environmental regulations, new forms of relationships brought about by spatial change, housing use in new sites, resulting from urban transformation.

Another important demographic factor outside gender is thought to be age. It is assumed that older women will have difficulty in adapting to younger women. But as a result of the study, it was understood that the expectation of the elderly is lower than the youth, and that they are satisfied with the current transformation. The elderly are pleased with activities such as fuel and heating system shifts to boilers and boilers, hot water supply, parking arrangements, while younger people with higher expectations have indicated that regulations should be of higher quality and stressed that expectations are not fully met.

Apart from this, the decrease of social relations, the beginning of neighborhood culture disappearance, the emergence of site rules for housing use have made the elderly more difficult. Socio-cultural adaptations of older women are more difficult than young people.

The urban transformation area is the slum region. Some of the houses built in the gecekondu area have been given to landowners. There are big differences in the quality of the residential properties owned by the landowners and the quality of the residential properties that are sold to the market and where the new residents are located. This leads to comparisons and increases dissatisfaction. There is a difference in quality between many environmental and infrastructure arrangements, from the parking area to the entrance door or the pavement infrastructure between the two sites that are selected for the sample and whose photos are included.

In terms of housing ownership, a total of 4 women, of whom only 2 are young and 2 are elderly, own the property. Less than 25% as a percentage. He stated that only 9 out of 18 females were considered to participate in decision-making mechanisms. The participation of older women is higher than that of young people. It is understood that the young women who come to the house because of the inheritance of the houses are unable to participate in the mechanism.

Women are actors who spend more time in the field of housing as domestic labor and actively use and design housing. Apart from this, women are the main actors who reproduce social relations in the neighborhood culture, live the neighborhood institution and create the neighborhood culture. In the new way of life brought about by spatial arrangements, neighborhood culture is diminishing, and with newcomers, neighborhood culture and neighborhood relations are also transformed. This reduces the amount of time women spend outside the home and makes the neighborhood a safe and secure environment. On the other hand, it is understood from the photographs used previously that the owners of the slum areas settled in the new housing areas continue to maintain their old lifestyle and in the end they display images that do not match the new housing areas. An example of this is to keep the habit of staying away from slum life, such as drying clothes on the balcony or putting shoes on the outside of the door. This situation also causes problems such as violation of site rules, incompatibility between neighbors and decrease of neighborhood solidarity. This leads to an increase in the social divide between the new settlers and the shantytown owners.

The continuation of old habits of shantyowners leads to the continuing non-urban lifestyles in a relational and social sense in a materially urbanized setting. Louis Wirth's theoretical work does not seem to have occurred. In our country, which is the city view in the sense of the building, it is understood that in general, urbanization is interpreted only as the modern sites, the construction of residential areas and the increase of population density. On the other hand, behaviors that are specific to urban life, social patterns, lifestyles, living culture and social networks are missing. In our selected area for the sample, it is seen that the urbanization process and urban transformation that Turkey has experienced fast.
But in general, all but one of them stated that they were happy in the process and declared a positive opinion. Despite all the shortcomings, women are happy because they are housing owners because it is a relatively expensive and difficult process to obtain housing and access to housing in Turkey. The fact that slums are not precarious, unsecured and unhealthy according to modern and western dwellings, and the possibility of a demolition decision make women happy to have modern and worshiped dwellings. Since the slums are built on the land of the treasury, they are provided with houses that are worshiped with gecekondu owners. It is understood that the women who think positively are not entirely positive and have an appreciation. Despite their positive attitudes, demands and desires, such as a garden home or a fear of a reduced neighborhood and neighborhood environment, are accompanied by positive answers. The disappearance of gardens and green areas, the decline of children's parks and playgrounds, and the diminishing of out-of-home living spaces, such as the fact that women live in squatter courtyards and in front of the gates, are the most frequently highlighted complaints.

Environmental regulations in residential areas are mostly directed at children and women. These areas are mostly used by children and women. Because the most women are responsible for children throughout the day, the low number of areas for children also affects women. For this reason, environmental regulations are relatively weak in urban transformations that do not consider women and children as a separate social category and do not take this situation into consideration in their projects, while green areas, children's playgrounds and parks are relatively small. Since these requests are not addressed by women who are excluded from participation opportunities and decision-making mechanisms, housing in the urban transformation areas is transformed into modern and urban prisons for women and children.

References

Headmaster’s Competencies in Management Area: Evaluating the Significance Level of Managerial Competencies in Lithuanian Comprehensive Schools

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to present the insights of carried survey on evaluating the level of significance of managerial competencies in comprehensive schools in Lithuania. The approach that head teachers' managerial competency highly influences the process of education and is one of the most important factors ensuring efficiency of school activities such as educational policy and strategic planning, educational process, management of human, material and financial resources has been followed. Researcher self-made questionnaire for expert evaluation was used to measure competency components. In the paper the author presents main results of one part of the research related to school leader’s competencies in management area, which was divided into five spheres: strategic institution management, teaching and learning process administration, managing human resource development, ensuring and managing structure, processes and resources of institution, strategic partnership and collaboration. Each of the spheres comprises different items – competences a successful headmaster should dispose. The significance, specified as the most important, was assessed by ranking procedure. The Kendall coefficient of concordance has been used to assess the agreement among raters for every ranked question. The results revealed that the most significant head teachers’ competencies which highly influence the results of school activity areas are the abilities to form the strategic direction and implement effective staff policy, strengthen the attitude of school community that each student can reach a success in the learning process, organize conducive conditions for professional staff development, administer property and allocations, collaborate with parents, foster-parents or guardians.

Keywords: school effectiveness, school management, managerial competencies.

Introduction

World globalization process, integration of Lithuania in the space of EU raise new requirements for schools and headmasters. Managerial professionalism has become the most relevant nowadays problem. It is one of the most important conditions determining school and efficiency of its activities. Today the headmaster must be a professional in key managerial activity areas: educational policy and strategic planning, educational process, management of human, material and financial resources and etc. As supreme leader the headmaster should be able to manage all elements of the school, dividing the time well in school management, both for its own tasks as well as for the school as a whole, teaching and learning activities can be carried out efficiently and effectively (Supriadi & Yusof, 2015). In a new paradigm of educational management, principals should at least be able to play the role of educator, manager, administrator, supervisor, leader, innovator and motivator. In other words, school management made by the headmaster is based on the areas of the school administration, the administration of curriculum and teaching, student affairs, management, facilities and infrastructure, finance, and relationship with other schools.

The quality of school leaders is one of the basic factors influencing the quality of teaching and learning process at each level of the system of education as well as each kind of a school. Moreover it has impact on the staff's initiative, activity and cooperation and public relations of the school institutions (Bitterova, Haškova & Pisoňova, 2014). Headmasters are an important factor in enhancement of educational quality of schools. Realization of educational purposes, strategies and programs likewise accurate reaction towards needs of education addressees is not possible without knowledgeable, skillful and innovative educational managers (Ghorchian & Mahmoudi, 2005).
The term competency is used to describe a set of behaviors that reflects a uniform combination of knowledge, skill, abilities and motivations and is related to performance in an organizational role (Karami, 2008). Competencies in education create an environment that develops empowerment, responsiveness and evaluation. Acquiring the competencies could be through talent, experience or training performance. Woodruffe (1993) has accomplished several studies about managers’ competencies. He revealed that competency is applied for effectiveness at work and determined nine major competencies for managers and represented many secondary subsets for each one. Boyatzis (2011) determine competency as a set of related but different sets of behavior organized around an underlying construct called the intent.

Effectiveness is a goal of management that focuses on outcomes, objectives and targets are expected. Therefore, effectiveness is a measure that states the extent to which goals, objectives in terms of quantity, quality, and time have been reached. The effective school is a school that shows the correspondence between the results achieved with the expected results (Manan, 2014). Consequently, school administration must be efficient and effective. Managerial competencies are essential in achieving the goals of school effectiveness.

In this context the problem of the research has arisen – how the level of significance of headmasters’ managerial competencies is evaluated and what influence it makes on the results of school activities.

The objectives of the research are the following:
- to assess the significance level of headmasters' managerial competencies in comprehensive schools;
- to evaluate the importance of headmasters' managerial competencies on the results of school activities.

Research Methodology

The paper applied the methods of analysis, synthesis, expert analysis and evaluation (ranking), and questionnaire survey to assess headmasters' managerial competencies.

Formation of a group of experts. The aim of organizing a group of experts is to gather experts representing the field of education. Expert sampling involves the assembling of a sample of persons with known or demonstrable experience and expertise in some area (Žydžiūnaitė, 2017). A special competency-based performance criterion was applied for the selection of experts. The attention was paid to experts’ job experience in the field of education (Ministry of Education, National Agency for School Evaluation, Professional Competence development Institute).

Ritchie et al. (2003), suggest that within qualitative research the sample size is usually small primarily because phenomena only need to appear once to be part of the analytical map. After a while there is a point of diminishing return when increasing the sample size no longer contributes to new evidence. Diminishing return is a problem that occurs depending on the type of data being collected. Crabtree & DiCicco-Bloom (2006) refer to this process of diminishing return as data saturation and a signal that the data collection process is now complete or near completion. In the view of Guest et al. (2006) data saturation can occur within the first twelve interviews and after that very few new phenomena are likely to emerge. In the view of Gonzalez (2009) when undertaking research that is reliant on a phenomenological approach, the sample size is usually driven by the need to uncover all the main variants within the approach, he suggests that within conditions such as this, small survey samples of less than twenty are common. Regarding the results of many studies, the optimal size of expert group is between 8 and 10 (Blinas et al., 2008, 105).

As a result, 11 experts were selected from academic educational field and public institutions (work experience of the experts – 15-20 years). The Snowball Sampling Method (hereafter, SSM) was used to sample the respondents. The method is suggested in the literature as a useful in a variety of research populations. This is a technique for finding research subjects where one subject gives the researcher the name of another, who in turn provides the name of a third, and so on (Cohen & Arieli, 2011). In this method, the sample group grows like a rolling snowball. Most of the cases in which SSM has been used are characterized by less than optimal research conditions where other methodologies are not applicable. The field of education can be examined only by the experts who are familiar with the case in practice. This is the reason for applying SSM in this research environment, as it is the only effective method and the deciding factor whether research can be conducted.

Questionnaire survey of the experts was conducted individually. At first, experts were given individual questionnaires prepared in respect of each competency sphere with enclosed guidelines. The guidelines stipulated a task given for the
compatibility of experts’ opinions. The compatibility of opinions is determined by the coefficient of concordance which is calculated on the basis of the ranking of compared criteria. The dispersal coefficient of concordance was defined by M. Kendall (1970). The coefficient on Kendall concordance \( W \) has been estimated for every ranked question. The result of expert evaluation is the matrix \( E = \| e_{ij} \| (i = 1, \ldots, m; j = 1, \ldots, r) \), where \( m \) is the number of compared criteria (components of the competency), and \( r \) is the number of experts.

The idea of the coefficient is linked to the number of ranks of each criterion \( e_i \) with regard to all experts:

\[
e_i = \sum_{j=1}^{r} r_{ij} (i = 1, \ldots, m).
\]

(1)

To be precise, to the variation of dimensions \( e_i \) from the total mean \( \bar{e} \) by the total sum of squares \( S \) (the analogue of dispersion)

\[
S = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (e_i - \bar{e})^2.
\]

(2)

The total mean value \( \bar{e} \) is calculated according to the formula:

\[
\bar{e} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} e_i}{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{r} e_{ij}}{m r}.
\]

(3)

If \( S \) is a real amount of squares calculated in accordance with the formula (2), the concordance coefficient \( W \) is calculated in accordance with the following formula (Kendall, 1970):

\[
W = \frac{12 S}{r^2 m (m^2 - 1)}.
\]

(4)

If the opinions of experts are harmonized, the value of the concordance coefficient \( W \) is close to 1, whereas, if the assessment differs considerably, the value of \( W \) is close to 0.

Kendall (1970) proved that if the number of objects \( m > 7 \), the significance of the concordance coefficient may be determined using the criterion \( \chi^2 \):

\[
\chi^2 = Wr (m - 1) = \frac{12 S}{rm (m + 1)}.
\]

(5)

A random value is distributed according to the distribution \( \chi^2 \) with the degree of freedom \( v = m - 1 \). The number of freedom degree \( v \) of distribution \( \chi^2 \) does not depend on the number of experts \( r \) because it is used to measure the difference between the total number of ranking only. The critical value \( \chi_{kv}^2 \) is determined according to the level of importance \( \alpha \) (in
the research used value 0.05) chosen from the table of the distribution $\chi^2$ with the degree of freedom $v = m - 1$. If the value of $\chi^2$ calculated according to the formula (5) is higher than $\chi^2_{kr}$, then the evaluations of the experts are coordinated (Podvezko, 2005).

Research Results

The results revealed that the most significant head teachers’ competencies which highly influence the results of school activity areas are the abilities to form strategic direction and implement effective staff policy, strengthen the attitude of school community that each student can reach a success in the learning process, administer property and allocations, collaborate with parents, foster-parents or guardians.

The ranking method was applied to assess the significance level of headmasters' managerial competencies in Lithuanian comprehensive schools and to determine its influence on the successful educational process. The components of management sphere have been devised into 5 competency blocks: competency of strategic management of educational institution, competency of managing educational and learning process, competency of organizing conducive conditions for professional staff development, competency of administrating institution’s structure, processes and resources, competency of institutional partnership and collaboration.

**Competency of strategic management of educational institution** is determined by headmasters' knowledge and abilities to form the vision and mission of a school, to promote every member of the organisation to engage for the mission, establish and maintain the culture of collaboration and obeisance. The most significant component of this competency has been stated the ability to form the strategic direction of an institution (see Figure 1). The second and third components according to the level of significance have been stated ability to form institution’s favourable learning culture which is closely related to strategic objectives and adopt, and implement school activities improvement solutions. It shows that a school principal should follow the main set strategic objectives in all the spheres of his/ her professional activities, in order to ensure cohesive implementation of educational process, as well as observing common philosophy, culture and values of a school. It is also essential for the headmaster to monitor the areas of school activity, applying the obtained results for its improvement. As a less significant component has been ranked the ability to form efficient public relations. The ability to account perspectively for institution’s activities has been identified as the least significant, with the mindset of stiff legal regulation of accountability procedures ($W=0.607$, the opinions of the experts are harmonized).

![Figure 1. Evaluation of the components of strategic management of educational institution competency](image)

**Competency of managing educational and learning process** is associated with headmasters’ knowledge, abilities, standpoint, values and other personal qualities which are obligatory for planning, organizing and monitoring efficient learning and teaching process. The most significant component of the competency has been revealed the ability to strengthen the attitude towards success of every student (see Figure 2). As a very significant competency component – the ability to implement strategies ensuring students’ progress along with the community – has been identified. Less important are the ability to strive for the application of appropriate methods in order to achieve the best results and the ability to organize supervision of students’ achievements and progress. According to the experts, the ability to promote active participation in an educational process, both teachers and students, is less significant because it has slender impact on the school activity results ($W=0.509$, the opinions of the experts are harmonized).

![Figure 2. Evaluation of the components of educational and learning process management competency](image)
Evaluating the components of *organizing conducive conditions for professional staff development competency* the ability to establish proper conditions for staff's competency growth has been emphasized as the main assumption to ensure teachers' professional development (see Figure 3). The ability to incorporate school community into pedagogic staff training has also been indentified of high importance. This grounds the statement that creating congenial conditions for staff's professional development should be complemented with the involvement of the school community into this process. High level of significance was provided for the striving to spread teachers' acquired competencies within the institution as well as motivating to become reflective practicians. The ability to incorporate social partners into pedagogic staff training is less significant, though is essential in creating the model of learning organization ($W=0,579$, the opinions of the experts are harmonized).

**Figure 3. Evaluation of the components of organizing conducive conditions for professional staff development competency**

*Competency of administering institution's structure, processes and resources* is concurrent with the efficiency of school activities. As the most significant component of this competency ability to implement effective staff policy ensuring qualitative education has been stated (see Figure 4). The ability to apply contemporary management methods has been given a high level of importance. Less significant are the abilities to estimate necessary resources and giving priorities of their distribution. In the experts' opinion, the least important component to successful teaching and learning process is the ability to administer and account for the resources according to legal regulations. ($W=0,510$, the opinions of the experts are harmonized).
Figure 4. Evaluation of the components of administering institution’s structure, processes and resources competency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to manage effectively institution’s organizational structure</td>
<td>5.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to manage effectively institution’s infrastructure</td>
<td>5.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to administer and account for the resources according to legal regulations</td>
<td>5.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to give priority for distribution of resources</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to estimate necessary resources</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to apply contemporary management methods</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to implement effective staff policy ensuring qualitative education</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Competency of institutional partnership and collaboration is related with ability to communicate and collaborate with multifarious subjects of social environment. The most significant and having the highest impact on school efficacy component has been identified the ability to encourage initiatives contributing to the perfection of education process (see Figure 5). The experts excluded the ability to collaborate with parents, foster parents and guardians and as one of the most influential on community’s buildup and development of collaboration grounded relationship with each member of the school community. The ability to integrate institution’s culture into the learning process has also been given a high level of significance. According to experts, less significant are the abilities to have and maintain partnership relations with other educational institutions, and share efficient experience ($W=0.745$, the opinions of the experts are harmonized).

Figure 5. Evaluation of the components of institutional partnership and collaboration competency

In general, evaluating the level of significance of headmasters’ managerial competencies is purposeful because the competencies are the abilities which express headmasters’ multifunctionalism, establish conditions for community collaboration, constant perfection and learning, and achieve intended goals and objectives by implementing the policy and strategy of the school. Moreover, in the process of education alternation the listed competencies are essential in creating learning organization whose every member is highly important and assumes the responsibility of school efficacy.

Conclusions

The importance of headmasters’ managerial competencies on school efficacy and efficiency is developed after an objective assessment of its competency components is carried out. For this, techniques which allow the level of significance to be objectively evaluated and decisions to be made, which would ensure the best results of headmasters’ performance, are required.

A headmaster’s managerial competency is a complex phenomenon. To assess it in a quantitative manner, a hierarchical structure of the competency components was developed. In order to evaluate the level of significance of headmasters'
Managerial competencies multi-criteria evaluation method was used. The Kendall coefficient of concordance was used to assess the agreement among the experts' opinions for every ranked question. The estimated coefficient showed that in all cases the the opinions of the respondents’ were harmonized.

The results of the research revealed that the most significant headmasters’ competencies which highly influence the results of school activity areas are the abilities: to form the strategic direction and implement effective staff policy that ensure cohesive teaching and learning process; to strengthen the attitude of school community that each student can reach a success in the learning process which is of high importance in achieving one of the main educative goals – progress of every student; organize conducive conditions for professional staff development; to administer property and allocations; and to collaborate with parents, foster-parents or guardians. The listed headmasters’ competencies components are the most important and have the highest influence on forming institution’s strategic direction and establishing responsible learning organization.

References

Sound Columns in Electoral Campaigns in Albania

Ilir Ramdani

Abstract

Albania culture soundtrack entered too late. Sound columns newness brought in Albania in 2003. Edi Rama Rama will be remembered as the candidate who brought a unique innovation in the campaigns developed in Albania. Rama 2003 when running for reelection for mayor of Tirana, the Albanian song he chose as a soundtrack to the campaign, in which he revealed himself as the protagonist. Rama sang "Our Tirona", together with three boys of "WEST Side Family". Output of Edi Rama as a singer, with lyrics written by himself, starting with the string "Too much noise, too much noise" was completed and was launched with a video, the filming of which were realized in the most popular areas of Tirana, of center to the outskirts. This song not only became a hit in Albania in 2003, but also affected the Rama achieved victory in front of his former rival, the right-wing candidate, Spartak Njgela.

Keywords: Socialist Party, Democratic Party, mobilization

Introduction

It has become increasingly trendy for politicians to recruit musicians to promote and mobilize for support through music and musicians.

This is owing to the fact that many contestants for elective positions have found music to be an ideal tool for political mobilization and for spreading across their campaign messages to the electorate or voters on radio, television and other forms of mass media.¹

Recently, various musicians have identified themselves with political parties such as the ruling PS and opposition PD contesting the August elections and have their songs used by these political parties for political campaigns.

To many, this has stirred an exciting debate on whether musicians should take sides in the political process such as elections through their music. Others have argued to the contrary, that musicians, like any other members of society, have the right to participate freely in the social and political process of a country.

Some musicians feel that their music as a social tool can be used by any member of society including politicians and political parties as long as they mutually consent to such use for political campaigns.

Although the conclusion to this debate cannot be entirely arrived at, it is clear that music in Albania has continued to play a major role in the social and political identity formation in the everyday life of people throughout society.²

In Albania, music has for many generations played a big role in expressing, unifying and bringing peaceful co-existence among communities.

Music has always been the most visible attempt employed by Albanians to listen to themselves.

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Albanian music is a powerful medium of communication, through which human actions and reactions are expressed. It provides a forum to mirror the society so that members can understand things better and learn more about life.

In many instances, Albanian music focuses on the teaching of morality, building restraints into the psyche or minds of people and as a mechanism of conflict resolution in society.

In Albania, for instance, the fight against occupation was catalyzed by music and other forms of popular culture. These popular dances and music thus were historically deployed not only as social entertainment for Albanians but to champion the social, economic and political welfare of Albanian under occupation rule.

Sound columns history of election campaigns in Albania

From "Our Tirona" Rama 2003 new song to the Democratic Party in this campaign

West during election campaigns soundtrack is probably the most important detail, and the song is dedicated to finding exceptional importance. Albania culture soundtrack entered too late. Sound columns newness brought in Albania in 2003.

Edi Rama will be remembered as the candidate who brought a unique innovation in the campaigns developed in Albania. Rama 2003 when running for reelection for mayor of Tirana, the Albanian song he chose as a soundtrack to the campaign, in which he revealed himself as the protagonist. Rama sang "Our Tirona", together with three boys of "West Side Story". Output of Edi Rama as a singer, with lyrics written by himself, starting with the string "Too much noise, too much noise" was completed and was launched with a video, the filming of which were realized in the most popular areas of Tirana, of center to the outskirts. This song not only became a hit in Albania in 2003, but also affected the Rama achieved victory in front of his former rival, the right-wing candidate, Spartak Ngjela.

But would come in 2009 that the tradition of songs campaigns returned with the song still sung and lampooned "Albania is changing" Democratic Party sung by Elita 5, Wiley, Leonora Poloska, Elvana, Soni Malaj, Çiljeta, Stine and Bojken Lako. Socialist Party came out with the song "Rise" sung by EEST Side Family and Edi Rama, as in 2003.

Another political group that came up with a song G99 campaign was led by Erion Veliaj. The group released the song "Do we" sung by Alban Skenderaj. Those are the column voice of all election campaigns in Albania. Also in 2013 during the campaign of Albanian Youth Forum Euro socialist the song Born Free by Kid Rock was the sound column whom accompanied the whole campaign.

ELECTIONS 2011

Sound -Kolona Basha: The song "I Gotta Feeling" and "The Black"

Sound -Kolona Edi Rama: The song "Breath and Life" and "Audiomachine"

ELECTIONS 2009

Sound -Kolona PS: The song "Rise" sung by West Side Family together with Edi Rama.

Sound -Kolona DP Song "Albania is changing" sung by Elita 5, Wiley, Leonora Poloska, Elvana, Soni Malaj, Çiljeta, Stine and Bojken Lako.

ELECTIONS 2007

Sound 0Kolona Edi Rama: "Echo" is sung from "West Side Story" together with Edi Rama.

http://www.tiranaobserver.al/kolonat-zanore-me-te-famshme-te-fushatave-zgjedhore-ne-shqiperi/
Sound - Kolona Sokol Olldashi: "Give me back my city", sung by Ermal Mamaqi, in association with Olsen.

Elections 2005

Sound - Kolona PS: The song "Thunderstruck" sung by AC / DC

Soundtrack PD: The song "The final countdown" sung by "Europe"

ELECTIONS 2003

Sound - Kolona Edi Rama: The song "Our Tirona" singing "West Side Story" and Edi Rama.

Rama and "Our Tirona"

Edi Rama will be remembered as the candidate who brought a unique innovation in the campaigns developed in Albania. Rama 2003 when running for reelection for mayor of Tirana, the Albanian song he chose as a soundtrack to the campaign, in which he revealed himself as the protagonist. Song of the Democratic Party for elections June 23, 2013

The lyrics was written by Armand Trebicka while singing the "Elita 5", Elvana, Soni Malaj, UNIC, Vesa Luma, Vedat Adem, Renis Rybak, Eni Koci. The song talks about Albania changing and closed with strings "Our motive is you, ours Albania, so every day changes."

We are the change

Verse 1:
At any moment, this place changes,
I see on the horizon the future, to the horizon.
Today belongs to us, the future we expect,
and pride awakens us, we are the change.

refrain:
We change, we change,
all hands to unite.
We change, we change,
on every challenge we will win.

Verse 2:
Under blue skies and no clouds
It awaits us all a new day
a new hope.
Our motivation is you, ours Albania
therefore every day change.
Bibliography

Microfinance Sector and SME Financial Support in Albania

Alma Delija
Agricultural University of Tirana, Albania

Abstract

The creation of the microfinance sector and its functioning in Albania has played an essential role and has been and is a powerful tool for the development of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) of Albanian agribusiness. Microfinance has played an ever more decisive role in increasing output, reducing unemployment, improving the level of living conditions and welfare of the population, especially in rural areas, creating new jobs, contributing significantly to economic development of the country. The growth and development of SMEs plays a fundamental role in the national economy, serving as a driving force in the country's economic development. Empirical evidence suggests that the growing SME sector and the dynamism of their development can strongly contribute to achieving a broad range of development objectives, such as: Achieving income distribution and poverty reduction; Creating employment; Savings mobilization; And production of goods and services that meet basic basic needs of the individual and society. Despite the great contribution to the growth and economic development of the country, the growth and development of SMEs in our country has been hampered by financial access, poor management skills, and lack of training opportunities and high input costs. Liquidities' sluggishness and low access to finance for SMEs is the biggest obstacle to them. SMEs have limited access to financial services provided by formal financial institutions to meet their liquidity and investment needs.

Keywords: SME, MFIs, Microfinance, Cooperation

Introduction

Contingency test, and statistical analysis of the SME questionnaire

Analysis of questionnaire data

The data used are based on the questionnaire built to assess the performance of MFIs and the impact of lending on SME development. The total sample of the survey consists of 310 observations after database cleansing. SME employees are asked about their demographic characteristics (age, gender, educational level, place of residence etc.), the main characteristics of business where they work as operating activity, organization form, funding sources, savings and institutions where deposit savings as well as lending alternatives. Further, the study is based on the impact of collateral on borrowing, interest rate on loans and products, services offered by MFIs in micro-enterprise development. Respondents were asked about the factors that influence the choice of the MFI as a lending option, the level of satisfaction on products, the services they offer. Information on knowledge of products, procedures for applying and receiving credit from MFIs was collected. Finally, the focus of this descriptive analysis is the impact that has brought the cooperation with the microfinance institutions, the most valued aspect in terms of cooperation, the contribution of loans received from MFIs, as well as the performance evaluation of microfinance institutions by SMEs.

Contingency Analysis, Contingency Tables and Test $\chi^2$

This is one of the most commonly used analyzes, which consists in the use of techniques that examine the relationship between variables through contingency tables. This analysis is performed for categorical data for more than one variable
and uses double-entry tables, also known as contingency tables. These tables summarize the information needed to perform statistical inferences and statistical testing of the correlation between variables based on observed data. Chi-square test is the method for testing the connection between row and column variables in a two-entry table. The zero hypothesis $H_0$ assumes that there is no link between the variables, so the variation of one variable is not associated with variation in the other variable. Alternative Hypothesis Formulated on the basis of the existence of a link between the two variables but does not specify the type of connection, which is done by examining the data. The Hi-square test is based on a statistic that measures the divergence of observed data from the expected values under the zero hypothesis that there is no link between the variables. In double-entry tables, the expected value for each cell is:

Totals per row x total by column/Total number of observations

Once the expected values are calculated, the hi-square statistic is calculated by collecting the squares of the differences between observed and expected values for each cell and dividing this amount with the expected value. So, the hi-square statistic is calculated with the following formula:

The distribution of this statistic is $\chi^2$ (Hi-square) with (r-1) (c-1) degree of freedom, where $r$ represents the number of rows of the two-entry table and $c$ represents the number of columns. This distribution only receives positive values and the p-value value for the Hi-square test is the probability of observing a value at least as extreme as the test statistic for a Hi-square distribution (P ($\chi^2$ ≥ X2) with (r-1 ) (C-1) degree of freedom.

Hi-square tests are only valid when the size of the sample / selection is sufficient. There are some conditions that need to be met for the test to be valid. For example, for tables 2 x 2 to use the $\chi^2$ test, the selection dimension should be greater than 40 and if it is between 20 and 40 observations, the expected minimum value (frequency) should be at least 5. For Other $\chi^2$ tables can be used if no more than 20% of table cells have expected frequencies of less than 5 and none of them is less than 1.

One of the limitations of data obtained in the database is that the variables are of nominal nature. This limits little to the ability to conduct regressive quantitative analysis, but does not prevent partial analysis of qualitative variables in the model. It is important to distinguish the relationships that these variables have with one another, in order to reach this dimension for the entire population.

Results

This section presents the results from the statistical analysis of the data. Initially a descriptive analysis is provided under subsection 4.1 followed by contingency analysis, section 4.2. In the latter one will be tested hypothesis by Hi-Squared test and the correlation between variables will be shown under the hypotheses raised at the beginning of the paper.

3.1 Descriptive Analysis

This section presents descriptive data statistics from the questionnaire. The first part of the analysis shows demographic characteristics of choice, such as gender, age group, education, civil status, and place of residence in percentages and frequencies. Further, the analysis focuses on the characteristics of SMEs, their financing alternatives, and the impact of MFI borrowing on SME performance and development. The third and final part of the descriptive analysis focuses on the factors that determine the performance of micro-financial institutions by SMEs.

3.1.1 General Sample Characteristics

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Selection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 summarizes the main socio-demographic characteristics of the final sample, which consists of 310 applicants. The selection consists of 192 men and 118 women, corresponding respectively to about 61.9 and 38.1 percent of the sample. The age group 26-35 and 35-45 years of age dominates with 26.5 percent of the observations respectively for each and only 2.9 percent is represented by the age group over 65. About 23.9 percent of respondents are 46-55, 14.8 percent are grouped in the 56-65 age group and only 5.5 percent belong to the 15-25 age group. The majority of applicants or about 40.6 percent of them have general secondary education and about 19.4 percent have higher education. Only 4.5 percent have completed elementary education and 15.8 percent are 9 years old. With regard to civil status, it is noticed that most or about 75.2 percent of respondents are married. About 17.4 percent are single, 3.5 percent live in cohabitation, 2.3 percent are widowed, and only 1.6 percent belong to the divorced category. Most of the respondents or about 76.8 percent of them live in the village and around 23.2 percent in the city.

Table 2: SME Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Builder</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form of business organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Business</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By partnership</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income earned by the business</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>70.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income from bank loans</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising sources from loans received from MFIs</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government grants for business assistance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds from individuals of particular interest</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 presents the main descriptive features of SMEs. Data on key SME characteristics, how they operate, organization form, sources of funding, savings and savings deposits have been collected. Main activities are divided into agriculture,
livestock, construction, service and trade. We see that the main share of livestock is about 29 percent, followed by agriculture by about 25 percent. Services occupy a weight of 24 percent and trade at 14 percent. Commercial construction businesses account for only 8.4 percent of the selection. Regarding the form of organization, the individual dominates with about 81 percent. Businesses with partnerships make up 19 percent of the sample. Regarding the sources of funding, we see that the majority or about 71 percent are the businesses that have the main source of funding, sales revenues. Businesses that have as their source of funding loans from MFIs account for about 20 per cent, compared to 5.5 per cent of businesses which have as source of financing loans received from second tier banks. We see that businesses that have other sources of funding are about 2.5 percent.

Table 3: Characteristics of SMEs (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saves income earned in business</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings deposit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the bank</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In microfinance institutions</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I keep it home</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individuals were asked if their businesses where they were employed saved the revenue they generated from sales and in which institution they deposited their savings. From the collected data we note that around 78.3 percent of SMEs save and that about 48 percent prefer to deposit savings in microfinance institutions compared to only 13 percent of businesses choosing second tier banks. About 39 percent prefer to keep their savings at home.

Table 4: Lending alternatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lending alternatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banks</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other financial resources</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply and take credit in second-tier banks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One time</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than once</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied and received credit IMF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One time</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than once</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the most preferred lending option is that of borrowing from the IMF by about 78 percent followed by lending by second tier banks by about 17 percent. We see that we have a higher percentage of SMEs that have not applied and received loans from second tier banks, about 38 percent, compared with MFI borrowing by about 15 percent. Meanwhile, businesses that have applied for bank loans at least once are about 47 percent compared to about 34.5 percent of SMEs that have chosen microfinance institutions. We also see that the percentage of businesses that have applied more than once in the IMF is higher than in the second tier banks. This result is due to the ease of application and the greater favorability of SMEs by MFIs.
Factors affecting the selection of an MFI as a lending option

Chart 1: SME crediting preferences

Graph 1 shows that about 66 percent of SMEs have benefitted from the microfinance institution 'Union ASC in the last five years. About 17 percent have benefitted from 'Besa Fund', about 10 percent from 'NOA', followed by 'Union Jehona' with 2.7 percent and 2.3 percent respectively from 'FAF' and 'Vision Fund Albania'.

Chart 2: Factors affecting the selection of the MFI as a borrowing alternative

The graph shows that one of the factors influencing the choice of MFIs as a borrowing alternative is the well-known procedures with around 23 percent. Another factor of choice is the rapid preparation of documentation and ease of use, at about 22 percent, respectively. We note that the interest rate is estimated to be lower than the other factors in the election with only about 13 percent. Fast loan disbursement is estimated by 12 percent of SMEs and only 10 percent of them choose the IMF because no collateral is required for obtaining the loan.

From the data presented in the chart above, we see that the percentage of relatively satisfied SMEs is prevalent and only a small part has reservations about the level of satisfaction they receive from the products / services offered by microfinance institutions. Concretely, around 47 percent of respondents are relatively satisfied. About 35 percent of them are satisfied with the products and around 17 percent are indifferent to the assessment.

Respondents were asked to evaluate the cooperation with the micro-medical institutions so far. Specifically, the grade five regards the 'I did not cooperate' rating, the grade six 'satisfied enough' grade, the seventh grade belongs to the 'relatively satisfied' grade, the eight grade rating "satisfied by the co-operation", the grade nine rating "very satisfied by Cooperation" and grade ten expresses the utmost appreciation," I am a regular member, even I have referred to relatives to cooperate with the IMF institution ". From Graph 4.8 we can see that about 17 percent of SMEs have not cooperated with MFIs, and about 22 percent of those who cooperated were satisfied with cooperation. About 19 percent are relatively satisfied, about 13 percent are satisfied and about 16 percent express a high level of satisfaction. There are only 13.5 percent SMEs that consider the business as regular members and more referrals to other businesses for the products / services that MFIs offer.

Asked what aspect SMEs consider most in terms of cooperation with the IMF, it is noticed that the most important is the possibility of obtaining low interest rate loans. This finding expresses about 35 percent of SMEs. It is worth mentioning that significant importance is also taken by firms that estimate the possibility of increasing the loan amount by about 26 percent. A percentage of 23 estimates the short time of loan disbursement. And recently 17.1 percent of them estimate the reduction of bureaucratic procedures. In the analysis above, we saw the impact of cooperation with microfinance institutions on increasing income, welfare, creating new products / services, opening up new micro-enterprises, etc. Graph 4.12 shows the impact of microfinance institutions in the community. It is concluded that the most positive impact of the respondents in the community is marked by the poverty reduction of about 40 percent of firms compared to job creation by 28 percent.
About 16 percent estimate the improvement of environmental conditions. Through MFI activities, women's participation in business has increased, which is estimated by 9.6 percent of respondents. MFIs enable the preservation, development of the tradition, culture and values of the community and such a factor is estimated by about 7 percent of respondents.

Contingency tables

From the cross-sectoral disclosure of the main business activity and the number of applications for loans from second-tier banks (Table A1) it is noticed that the relationship between them is statistically insignificant at level 5 and 10 percent. While referring to the Hi-square test for the link between the main business activity and the number of applications for loans from MFIs (Table A2), we see that it is statistically important at the 5 percent level and the Cramer's V correlation coefficient is around 20 percent. Of the businesses that have applied for loans more than once, about 35 percent operate in livestock, about 30 percent operate in agriculture, and only 5 percent have major construction activity. Such a figure is about 9 percent for the firm's business activity. At the same time, if from agricultural and livestock businesses around 61 per cent applied for MFI loans more than once, only 32 per cent with the same application frequency are businesses with commercial activity, and only 30.8 per cent are those with activity Construction.

Table A3 represents the cross-disclosure between the main business activity and the borrowing alternatives. Note that the Hi-Squared test for this link is invalid. Thus, it is not supposed that no more than 20% of the table cells have expected frequencies of less than 5 and none of them is less than 1.

From the Hi-square test results for the link between the main business activity and the difficulty of borrowing from MFIs, we see that the link is statistically significant at the 10 percent level. The link Lambda coefficient is zero, and it is recommended that Cramer's V is used for combinations of nominal variables, which for this connection is 0.16. From Table A4 of the contingency we see that even though it resulted that businesses with construction and trade activity to apply less for loans from MFIs, they have less difficult process than agricultural and livestock businesses. Specifically, if less than 7 percent of construction businesses and about 10 percent of those trading have no difficulty in borrowing from MFIs, 25 percent and 29 percent of agricultural and livestock businesses respectively face difficulties in applying. Such a result is about 24 percent for businesses operating in services.

From the crossroads of the form of business organization and the application and receipt of credit by second-tier banks (Table A5), it is noted that the relationship between them is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. The Cramer's V connection coefficient is around 19 percent. About 41 percent of individual businesses have never applied for loans from second tier banks, compared to about 25 percent of joint ventures. However, from businesses that have applied more than once, about 64 percent are individual businesses and only 35.6 percent are affiliated businesses. So, we can not say the more organized the business structure, the higher the applications for loans in second tier banks. Such a result may be the attribute of higher frequencies of individual businesses compared to those in partnership.

Table A6 shows the results of the Hi-square test for the link between the form of business organization and application / borrowing from MFIs. It is noted that the linker is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the Lambda link coefficient is only 0.038. Despite the weak linkage, from businesses that have applied more than once for loans from MFIs, about 81 percent are individual businesses and only 12 percent are partnership businesses. If only 9 percent of individual businesses have never applied for loans from MFIs, such figure is about 41 percent for partnership businesses. This can be argued by the fact that the latter have greater initial capital than single-owner businesses. However, as long as business life expectancy in the market and initial capital (which are not the focus of the study) is not required, the argument can be taken as an assumption.

Hi-square test of business form and borrowing alternative (Table A7) is invalid because it does not meet the assumption that no more than 20 percent of cells have expected frequencies of less than 5 and that none of the Should be less than 1. From the cross-section of the form of business organization and the lack of borrowing from the MFIs, we note their
relationship is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. The Phi connection coefficient is (21.7) percent. The negative link is shown by the fact that business partnerships make it harder for the borrowing process than for individual businesses. Specifically, from firms that do not face difficulties in applying for borrowing, about 87 percent are individual businesses compared to only 13 percent of partnerships. However, such a result is a specific case of firms surveyed and it is assumed that other factors, such as bureaucracy of lending institutions, or the amount of credit, periods, and financial performance of SMEs.

From the cross-disclosure of loan interest rate impact on microprocessing development and the application of loans by MFIs (Table A9), we note that the correlation between them is statistically significant at 5 per cent. Kendall's correlation coefficient τ of this correlation is (17) percent. Thus, the more negative the impact of interest rates on loans, the lower will be the number of applications for borrowing from MFIs. Concretely, by SMEs that note the positive impact of interest rates on loans in their development, 4 percent have not applied any time, while about 54 percent have applied more than once. Of the firms that claim negative impact, around 63 percent have never applied for loans, and only 16 percent have applied more than once. The link is also distinguished by the column-based interpretation, where firms with more than one MFI loan application only 2 per cent think that interest rates have a negative impact on micro-enterprise development, while 69 per cent are firms that find the impact Positive and about 29 percent of them think that interest rates on MFI loans have no impact.

Table A10 shows the results of the Hi-square test for the link between the application for loans from MFIs and the reasons for applying for loans in these institutions, the correlation between them is statistically insignificant at the level of 5 per cent despite the validity of the test. From the cross-study of MFI loan applications and the impact of SME cooperation with them in the development of their micro-enterprises, it is noted that the link is statistically significant at 5 per cent level and Cramer's V coefficient is about 23 per cent. From Table A11 we see that from businesses that think that cooperation with MFIs has brought about growth in production, about 6 percent have never applied for loans, compared to 49 percent of businesses that have applied more than once and about 45 percent have applied only once. Of the businesses that find increase in investment, only about 13 percent have not applied or received loans from MFIs, and 53 percent are interested or have obtained more than one loan. The same trend can be seen in the effect on growth of the border, where by the SMEs claiming staff growth as a result of borrowing, about 56 percent have applied or received more credits than once compared to about 12 percent who have never applied. The highest variation is identified in revenue growth where about 72 percent of firms claiming an increase in business income have applied once. Such a figure is only 5 percent for businesses that have never cooperated with MFIs. Regarding the effect on improving technology, it can be said that not necessarily firms use borrowing to invest in technology, or not all aim to improve it. This happens in the case of businesses with mainstream construction and livestock activities where labor is dominant input to technology.

Table A11 shows the Hi-square test results for the link between applying and receiving MFI credit and the aspects of borrowing that SMEs most appreciate. We find that the correlation between them is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the Cramer's V correlation coefficient is around 21 percent. Of businesses that estimate credit volume growth, about 57 percent have applied or received loans more than once and only 19 percent have never cooperated. The high percentage of the latter can be the attribute of the assessment of the support that MFIs provide to SMEs. Of the businesses that estimate the reduction of burroctric procedures, less than 8 percent have never cooperated with MFIs, compared to about 47 percent who have applied once, and about 45 percent who have received loans at least once.

Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

The relation between the main business activity and the number of applications for loans from second tier banks is statistically insignificant at 5 and 10 percent. While referring to the Hi-square test for the link between the main business activity and the number of applications for loans from MFIs, it was found that it is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the correlation coefficient is around 20 percent. We saw no link between main business activity and borrowing
alternatives, while the link between the main business activity and the difficulty of borrowing from MFIs is statistically significant at the 10 percent level. The correlation coefficient for this link is 0.16. Although it resulted that businesses with construction and trade activity to apply less for MFI loans, they have less difficulty in the process than agricultural and livestock businesses.

The link between the form of business organization and the application and receipt of credit by second tier banks is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. The correlation coefficient of connection is about 19 percent. It was noted that for this connection we can not say that the more organized the business structure, the higher are the applications for loans in second tier banks. Such a result may be the attribute of higher frequencies of individual businesses compared to those in partnership. The link between the form of business organization and the application / borrowing from MFIs is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the bond coefficient is only 0.038.

Despite the weak link, from businesses that have applied more than once for loans from MFIs, there are more individual businesses than those with partnerships. This can be argued by the fact that the latter have greater initial capital than single-owner businesses. However, as long as business life expectancy in the market and initial capital (which are not the focus of the study) is not required, the argument can be taken as an assumption. The link between the form of business organization and the lack of borrowing from MFIs is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. The Phi connection coefficient is (21.7) percent. The negative link is shown by the fact that business partnerships make it harder for the borrowing process than for individual businesses. However, such a result is a specific case of firms surveyed and it is assumed that other factors, such as bureaucracy of lending institutions, or the amount of credit, periods, and financial performance of SMEs.

The link between the impact of loan interest rates on microfinance development and the application of loans by MFIs is statistically significant at 5 per cent. Kendall's correlation coefficient τ of this correlation is (17) percent. Thus, the more negative the impact of interest rates on loans, the lower will be the number of applications for borrowing from MFIs. Rather, the link between applying for loans from MFIs and the reasons for applying for loans to these institutions shows that the relationship between them is statistically insignificant at the 5 percent level despite the validity of the test. On the other hand, the link between applying for loans from MFIs and the impact of SME co-operation with them in the development of their micro-enterprises is statistically significant at 5 per cent level and Cramer's V coefficient is around 23 per cent.

The Hi-square test results for the link between applying and obtaining credit from the MFIs and the aspects of the borrowing that SMEs estimate most show that their relationship is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the Cramer's V correlation coefficient is About 21 percent.

The Hi-square test of the link between the level of recognition of products / services that MFIs offer and their application or borrowing shows that the link is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. Kendall's coefficient τ for this link is about 31 percent. So the higher the level of recognition, the higher the frequency of applying or receiving the loan. The relationship between the level of recognition of the products / services offered by MFIs and the aspects that SMEs value most from their acquisition results statistically significant at the 5 percent level and Cramer's V coefficient is around 19 percent.

Also, the link between evaluating cooperation with MFIs and applying or obtaining loans from them is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. The Kendall's coefficient of τ is about 40 percent. It is evident that firms that have not obtained loans at any single time can not estimate the level of satisfaction from co-operation with MFIs. The relationship between the assessment of cooperation with the performance aspects that SMEs best value at MFIs is statistically significant at 5 per cent level and the Cramer's V coefficient is about 26 per cent.

The same conclusion is said about the link between the assessment of cooperation with the MFIs and the reasons for their cooperation. The Cramer's V correlation coefficient is around 19 percent. Of the firms that share a high level of satisfaction,
about 10 percent more or 22 percent estimate well-defined procedures, 24 percent of firms conclude that documentation is prepared quickly and only 6 percent estimate the rapid credit delivery.

Even the link between applying or receiving credit from MFIs and assessing collateral demand is statistically significant at the 5 percent level. Kendall’s coefficient of τ is about 14 percent. Also, the correlation between collateral demand rating and borrowing difficulty is statistically significant at the 5 percent level and the Cramer’s V correlation coefficient is around 41 percent. Specifically, from businesses that have difficulties in borrowing from MFIs, most consider the demand for high collateral and the rest consider it low. The relationship between the difficulty of borrowing from MFIs and the impact of interest rates on micro enterprise development is statistically significant at 5 per cent level and the Cramer’s V correlation coefficient is around 30 per cent.

References

The Juridical Position of Greek Minorities in Albania

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Abstract

Greek minority played an important role in the life and formation of the Albanian State. This minority has been concentrated mainly in the south of the country, more specifically in the border areas between Albania and Greece. The role of this minority has been important not only in the cultural development but also in the affirmation of the Albanian State. The Greek minority has been known legally as a national minority in 1921 when Albania was accepted in the League of Nations as a sovereign state with full rights. The admission to this international organisation was conditional upon the signing of a document in which Albania committed to recognise and guarantee full rights to minorities living in its territory. This document entitled "declaration on the protection of minorities in Albania" would force the Albanian State to submit detailed reports to the League of Nations about the situation of the minorities in the country. All minorities within the country lost their status after the end of the Second World War, during the Communist regime of Enver Hoxha. After the collapse of communism and the advent of democracy, minority rights were affirmed not only in the Albanian jurisdiction but also by several international agreements, such as the Convention of the Council of Europe for Protection of National Minorities. The actual judicial system in Albania guarantees national minorities equal rights with the Albanian population and, simultaneously, allows the preservation of their national identity.

Keywords: Greek minority, the League of Nations, protection of minorities, convention, communist regime

Introduction

1. Recognition of national minorities in Albania and the declaration on the protection of national minorities.

With regard to the population composition, Albania is a homogenous state, inside of which live, although in a small percentage, some minorities of different nationality from the majority. Such national minorities are mainly settled in border areas of the Albanian territory. In the northern part of the country live Montenegrin minorities, in the southeastern part of the country live Macedonian minorities, whereas in the southern part of such territory live Greek minorities, with the latter making up the most powerful community in terms of numbers. The Greek minority can be mostly found in the region of Gjirokaster, Korce and Himara.

National minorities were legally recognized following the adherence of Albania, on 17 December 1921, as a member state to the League of Nations. As a condition to such adherence, the Albanian government had to sign a document, where by Albania should engage in the recognition and respect of the rights of the national minorities that lived inside the state borders. The document contained seven articles and was called “the Declaration on the Protection of National Minorities in Albania”. It was signed by the Albanian delegate, Monsignor Fan Noli1 and later ratified by the Albanian Parliament on 02 September 1921.2 The importance of this international deed stands in the fact that for the first time, the Albanian state, not only formally recognized the national minorities, but it would engage in respecting and guaranteeing their rights. The declaration made it clear that Albanian citizens belonging to minorities of race, religion or language must have the same rights and guarantees as the Albanian nationals. Such minorities were also recognized the right to hold, manage, and

1 MFA, File 102, page 30, correspondence of Ministry of Education, Tirana, 1922.
control their own income, charity, religious and social schools by freely using their own language and practicing their religion. The Albanian government, in view of such commitments made to the League of Nations, should, within six months from the day of such Declaration, submitted to the Council of the League of Nations full details on the legal status of the religious communities, including churches, monasteries, schools, charity associations of race, religion and language minorities.\(^1\) However, the Albanian government failed to fulfil such commitments resulting in future disagreements with Greece as regards the number of Greek minorities in Albania.

1.2. The role of Greek minorities in Albania after 1921

Following the recognition of national minorities, the Albanian government started the registration of such part of the population. Referring to the data collected by the International Investigating Commission, sent in 1921 by the League of Nations for defining the borderline between Greece and Albania, in the southern part of the country there were 35,000 residents of Greek nationality. Such figure was inconsistent with the inaccurate data provided by the Albanian government on the report submitted to the League of Nations. The report stated that only 16,000 residents of Greek nationality lived in the southern territories of Albania. Independently of the statistic data, the fact was that the Greek minorities made a powerful minority. This type of national minority is established when the same population is divided from the mother trunk by official state borders, or when the population of a certain country migrates over the years and settles inside the official state borders of another country. The settlement usually occurs along the borderline of the mother country.\(^2\) Having such a substantial importance, the Greek minority claimed that Albania followed the commitments made to the League of Nations. Their claims, strongly supported by the Greek government, consisted in the fact that the Albanian government should not deny their national identity. They claimed that Greek schools in south Albania should still be functioning in preserving Greek language. Greek schools and culture had played an important role in developing the south regions of Albania, given that the Albanian state had been engaged in fighting for its survival by leaving aside the development of Albanian schools. The importance of such schools was becoming increasingly high considering the vast illiteracy of the Albanian society of the time. In the Prefecture of Gjirokaster, there were 39 schools of Greek minorities and the number of pupils attending such schools amounted to 2,614.\(^3\)

The presence of such schools in south regions showed also the tolerance of the Albanian population at a time when nationalism had reached its peak in the Balkans. Other Balkan countries not only did not allow the settlement of national minorities’ schools, but they put so much effort on denying the existence of such minorities. With regard to Albania, the government did not hesitate to register such minorities and guarantee their right to vote. Therefore, referring to the number of population, calculated on March 1921 on the occasion of the general elections, there were 33,313 people who spoke Greek\(^4\) in the Prefecture of Gjirokaster. If we consider the total number of minority population residing in the prefectures of Korce, Gjirokaster and Himara, it made the 17% of the overall population.

Although the Albanian government had guaranteed the teaching of Greek language and the preservation of cultural heritage, the Greek minorities wanted a place in the local public administration of the areas where they lived. It meant that local representative should not be appointed but they should be elected directly by the voting population. However, such claim opposed to the effective law of the time, which contained no such provision. According to the law of civil procedure, section 7, employees were appointed by the ministries from which they depended, who, in turn were due to first consult the Prefectures. On the other hand, the Ministry of Interior Affairs appointed only its related employees.\(^5\) The proposal for the

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1 Beqir Meta, Minoritetet dhe ndertimi Kombetar ne Shqiperi (1912 – 1924), f.564, Center of albanological Studies, Institute of History, Tirana 2013.
3 MFA, file 102, page 131, Tirana, 1922.
4 MFA, file 221, page 9, League of Nations, 1923.
5 Kristo P. Luarasi, Law of civil administration in Albania, Editor “Mbrothesija”, Tirana, 1922.
direct election of public employees was very innovatory for the time; nevertheless, the Albanian government did not allow for its application.

The rights of national minorities, especially with regard to education, would suffer a significant restriction following the proclamation of Albania as heritable parliamentary Kingdom. The new government took a number of reforms aimed at concentrating the power on the central government. The empowerment of central government to the damage of the local government significantly restricted the rights of national minorities. It was clearly reflected on the Fundamental Charter of the Albanian Kingdom. Referring to section 207, the Charter provided that: in conformity with law and within the principles and programs adopted by the government with regard to private schools and their constant supervision by the government, Albanian citizens only could settle private schools.

Foreign citizens, in conformity with law, were only allowed to settle technical and agricultural school with theoretical-practical curricula.

Albanian religious communities could also settle religious school upon permission of the competent ministry and in conformity with law; the number of religious schools for every community, as well as the number of students was determined by the competent ministry by decree of the Council of Ministers.¹

This section was in contradiction with the Declaration on minorities, especially with section 5, already signed by Albania as a precondition for its adherence to the League of Nations. Paragraph one of section 207 provided that only Albanian citizens were given the opportunity to settle various private schools, whereas section 5, acknowledged to Albanian citizens, who were part of racial, religious or language minorities, the right to hold, manage and supervise their income, or establish in the future charity, religious or social schools, or other educational buildings, being also entitled to freely use their language and have their own religion. Section 207, paragraph two, restricted the right of foreigners to settle schools. It pointed out that foreigners were only allowed to settle technical or agricultural schools with theoretical-practical curricula. Furthermore, paragraph three provided that religious communities had restricted rights with regard to settlement and management of schools. Government, through the relevant ministry, was entitled to determine not only the number of schools necessary to the religious communities, but even the number of pupils who should attend such schools. Such measures taken by the Albanian government were strongly contested not only by such national minorities, but even by Greece to the Council of League of Nations. Many times, the Helenian government would remind the Albanian government its commitments to the international arena. Independently of the adoption of laws that restricted the rights of national minorities, Albania, still remained one of the most tolerant government in the Balkans. This is clearly indicated by the fact that minority schools remained opened under the settlement of the communist regime in Albania.

1.3. National minorities in Albania during the settlement of the Dictatorship

With the end of the Second World War, for almost 50 years Albania remained under the communist regime, isolated from the rest of the world. The one-party system leaded by the dictator Enver Hoxha would approve a number of laws aimed at denying the citizens’ rights. Such laws would deny even the rights of national minorities, which had been previously recognized with the adherence of Albania to the League of Nations. As far as individual rights were concerned, the situation would aggravate with the adoption of the constitution of year 1976. The communist regime intended to settle a totalitarian state based on a homogenous society. Such homogeneity could be achieved by suppressing any kind of diversity, including ethnic diversity. Although from the legal viewpoint there was a gap in the recognition of national minorities’ rights, the state provided statistic data on ethnic minorities in Albania to the national civil registry. In this respect, we find of great help the general registry of population and building of 1989 published by the Agency of Statistics. The following tables give the number of minority population compared to the overall number of population and their distribution by districts.

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The number of minority population compared to the overall population of the country:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of minority population</th>
<th>Percentage compared to the overall population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>44.570</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>54.687</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>64.816</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no.1

Number of national minorities divided by districts in 1989:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>Sarande</th>
<th>Korce</th>
<th>Tirana</th>
<th>Other districts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>64.816</td>
<td>20.395</td>
<td>36.773</td>
<td>4.706</td>
<td>852</td>
<td>2.090</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no.2

Number of Greek minorities divided by districts in 1989:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Gjirokaster</th>
<th>Saranda and Delvina</th>
<th>Tirana</th>
<th>Other districts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>58.758</td>
<td>19.921</td>
<td>36.531</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>1.696</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table no.3

The data contained in the above tables show two important aspects. The first relates to the fact that, as stated by all governments following the end of the Second World War, Albania has a homogenous population, where minorities make more or less the 2% of the overall population. The second aspect emphasizes the fact that Greek minorities are the most important community of national minorities in Albania. The number of national minorities in 1989 amounted to 64.816 residents, of which, the number of Greek minority amounted to 58.758 residents. The fact that such minority is concentrated in south Albania, in the districts of Gjirokaster, Saranda and Delvina, demonstrates its strong national identity, independently of the restrictions imposed by the communist regime.

1.4. Respect for minorities after the fall of the communist regime

The fall of the communist regime in Albania and the judicial reforms that followed made it possible for a significant improvement of the national minorities’ rights in the country. The lack of a new post-communist constitution was temporarily filled by the Main Constitutional Provisions. Such provisions included even some international norms related to human rights. Accordingly, section 4 of the Main Provision clearly provided: "The Republic of Albania recognizes and guarantees the fundamental human rights and freedoms to ethnic individuals and minorities in compliance with the international documents. In 1993, the Albanian Parliament adopted law no. 7692 “Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms”. According to section 25 of that law, “nobody should be discriminated because of their gender, race, ethnicity, language, religion, economical, financial, educational, and social status, political and parental affiliation, and any other personal circumstance.”2 Section 26 related to minorities’ rights provided that: “individuals belonging to national minorities have the right to exercise, without any form of discrimination and being equal before the law, any fundamental human right and freedom. They have the right to express, preserve and develop freely their ethnic, cultural, religious, and linguistic identity, to teach and learn their mother language, as well as to adhere to organizations and associations aimed at protecting their identity and interest.

On 28 November 1998, the new Constitution became effective upon proclamation by decree of the President of the Republic of Albania. The new Constitution had a relevant importance in terms of national minorities’ rights, whereby such rights were guaranteed in the constitutional law of the state. In this respect, the second part of the Constitution related to human

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fundamental rights and freedoms, section 18, affirms that all men are equal before the law. According to such section, the law equally protects all citizens residing inside the territory of the Republic of Albania. Such equality is further affirmed in the second section, wherein it is specifically emphasized that: “nobody can be unjustly discriminated for such reasons as gender, race, religion, ethnicity, language.” Section 18 affirms the right to non-discrimination, whereas section 20 goes further by guaranteeing to such minorities full rights and freedoms before the law. This section provides that: “individuals belonging to national entities are totally equal before the law in exercising their rights and freedoms. Paragraph 2 provides in detail that: “Minorities have the right to express freely, without being hindered or obliged, their ethnic, cultural, religious, and linguistic affiliation. They have the right to preserve and develop, teach and learn mother language, as well as to adhere to organizations and associations aimed at protecting their identity and interest.”

In 29 June 1995, Albania took an important step at the defence of the minorities by signing the Framework Convention of the European Council for the protection of national minorities. It was ratified by the Parliament of the Republic of Albania by law no. 8496 on 03 June 1999 and it was made effective one year later. The Convention is an important document as it covers a broad range of issues relating not only to the promotion of non-discrimination of national minorities, but also to the commitment of Albania in adopting a series of reforms aimed at efficient equality. Furthermore, the signatory states of such Convention had to promote favouring terms to the preservation and development of culture, religion, language and traditions. Independently of its importance, the Framework Convention contains no definition of the concept “national minorities”, as there is no such general definition accepted by all member states of the European Council. In other words, states are to decide which groups may be included by the Convention inside their territory. It would be better that the Convention provided an accurate definition of the term “national minorities”, so as its implementation produced the desired effects for the populations residing inside the territories of the signatory states.

1.5. Greek minorities in Albania after 1991

With the fall of the communist system and the establishment of the democracy, the Albanian society underwent significant changes to the affirmation of citizens’ rights and freedoms. The opening of borders produced great demographic movements of the population to the neighbouring countries such as Italy and Greece. Certainly, such changes affected even the Greek minority, which had the chance to immigrate to Greek in search of a better life. The great demographic movements provide no clear framework of the overall number of the Greek minorities in Albania; however, some scholars believe that the number of such minorities does not exceed 70 thousand residents. Nevertheless, referring to the statistic data related to nationality provided in the self-declaration, inserted in the civil registry of 2011, Albanians of Greek nationality were 24,242 residents. Such inaccuracies in the statistic data are due to the immigration of Greek minorities. In all areas where the Greek minority is concentrated, it is believed that over 50% of the population has immigrated. The reasons of such immigration related to the better working opportunities and living conditions. Greek minorities have been constantly supported by the Greek government with regard to staying permits, employment and education of children. The recent democratic changes in Albania, with regard to legislation, have brought essential improvements to the position of the Greek minorities. Such minorities enjoy full rights in accordance with most liberal European standards and values that regulate the life of an open democratic and pluralist society. Notwithstanding the problems, which the Albanian society has faced during the transition phase, Greek minorities have been guaranteed all rights pursuant to the European and international standards.

Conclusions

Greek minorities in Albania have played an important role not only to the development of the Albanian society, but also to the consolidation of the Albanian state. Their cultural values have been a significant contribution to the establishment of Albanian national identity. The recognition of Greek minorities by the Albanian government is one of the most important events, as it gave Albania the opportunity to be recognized by the League of the Nations as an independent member state with full rights. The adherence of Albania to such international organization, on the other side, was a guarantee to the recognition and respect of national minorities’ rights in general and of Greek minorities in particular. They were given the

1 Luan Omari, Aurela Anastasi, Constitutional Law, p. 70, Editor ABC, Tirane, 2010.
chance to preserve and inherit their values and national identity. With the settlement of the communist regime, we came across a denial of individual rights and freedoms. The denial of such freedoms affected even Greek minorities, which lost even the status of national minority. To regain such status, they had to wait for the fall of the communist system and establishment of democratic pluralism, which aimed at the affirmation of the rule of law. During such period, Albania would adopt a number of laws aimed at guaranteeing equal rights before the law and non-discrimination of national minorities. The economic transition that Albanian democracy is going through have made Greek minority population, as well as Albanian residents, immigrate to the neighbouring countries for a better life. Independently of such difficulties, the Greek minorities enjoy full rights according to European and international standards. Their rights are guaranteed even by the Albanian constitution, which recognizes full rights and freedoms before the law.

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Protection of Personal Data Requirement of Modern Times for the Functioning of the Security, Individual Freedoms and the Rule of Law

Mrs. Ruzhdi Jashari, Ph.d.cand.

Abstract

Rule of law, human rights, freedoms, and security; are the three main pillars to the new trend of global developments, especially in the development of democratic values, where the protection of individual freedoms is among the fundamental principles that have data protection as the center point. In the years 2015-2016 we have seen the major cases of confrontation regarding the wiretapping to that point as the intervention even in the system of the "US election campaign by the Russian hackers", then sending of Macedonia to the "early elections, due to the extraction and publication of wiretaps by Zaev", the review of the "Safe Harbor" Agreement, of the EU and the US regarding the transfer of personal data during free "transatlantic" trade among EU and USA, etc. In this time of globalization, and developments of major movements is been said: "no home", "no time", "no limit", by digitized devices and social networks, privacy of the individual is excessively violated through abuse of personal data, personal security is violated and security of the systems vital to society. Therefore, the national security of a country is been violated and endangered as well. Therefore, the development of institutions for protection of personal data, their independence and empowerment are of particular importance due to the vital interests of the country; where security, justice and freedom have a leading role in the development of a free and democratic society, where the individual human rights and freedoms, have a main place in modern developments of our time, in the society with the rule of law and the diversity of values. Freedoms and human rights, data and privacy protection; according to the European Convention of freedoms and human rights and the 108 Convention of the protection of personal data in automated processing, even though Kosovo has still not signed them. These rights are guaranteed by the constitution. On May 26, 2018 New Rules for the Protection of Personal Data of the EC and the European Union, will be no binding power for all EU countries. The entire legal measures of protection of personal data of the new Rules of PPD, should be forwarded to legislation interior PPD of EU member states and the EC and those who are already signatories to Convention 108 of PPD during the automatic processing of personal data. Among other things, we will give our assessments in question, where Kosovo really stands in this direction, with its commitment and aspirations for integration into European institutions and mechanisms.

Keywords: Protection of personal data, security, rule of law, human rights and human freedoms

Introduction

In nowadays the “Rule of law", or "law implementation", is an expression that is being used in daily political and journalistic jargon, in all countries at the International level. Certainly law enforcement gives in for the spirit of democracy development, the state of stability strength and boosts confidence in state institutions. Meanwhile, guarantee and respecting of the "Human rights and freedoms" at the time of the modern developments of human society, are state obligations arising from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR,1948) and at the same time the indicator and guide of democracy values. It is said that with the right that; "Where there is respect for human rights the democracy is progressed".

But for creating an environment for the development of democracy, respecting human rights and fundamental freedoms and the rule of law, the rule of law is indispensable security. Security as a term is very broad. Today, lots of modern safety studies have been advanced, which are at the center of studies for international relations.
The concept of threats has changed so much that "Security Studies include within their risks ranging from pandemics such as HIV / AIDS and environmental degradation to safety concerns associated with direct violence, conflict and inter-state terrorism" (Collins, 2013:15). Equally in the current international setting phenomenon of interference with privacy has become a serious concern for humanity. Thus the abuse of personal data does not exclude to any social class and gender new age. So, from our point of view the intervention in personal data threatens the security of the individual and contemporary security studies in their studies should also address the security of personal data, where the referring object is an individual.

Everything is okay in this regard while many scholars agree that the overall security implying here; human security, state, politics, economic, military and the environment are a priority to enable the development of democratic values, where the protection of personal data constitutes a fundamental value of individual freedoms and stands on the principle issue of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Freedoms of UN (UDHR: 1948). On the theory of human rights states that "where is protected the privacy and personal data right there is flourishing of human rights".

Therefore, in addition to the paperwork will try to point out the role of personal data protection, as a contribution to the function of law enforcement implementation, as an assistance in respecting of freedoms and human rights as well as the instrument or added growth of value of the security of the individual, local (state level), regional all the way to international level.

Of course the protection of personal data and individual privacy, the faster development of digital technology, have greater concerns for humanity, towards the improvement of working conditions and better men's life, because of the numerous possibilities of violating of privacy and abuse of personal data. Therefore, for this reason already, is under development a major debate at all levels of human society.

Finally, our effort now is to see, how much space it has, and that how much is included in the protection of personal data in modern safety science, as one of the challenges of the time security science, it adds quality to one of the theories missing and without treatment within them. Out separately in the context of human security, the protection of personal data will be one of the topics to be addressed with interest within contemporary security studies.

**The protection of personal data in function of the rule of law**

Risks that are being brought by automation of technology, without underestimating larger benefits to humanity, are affecting to the infringement of individual privacy. Therefore, the concern of citizens for their own safety, their rights and freedoms in the sphere of personal data protection are essential attributes of democracy development in society and rule of law.

State obligations of Kosovar society in fulfillment of standards in terms of the requirements of the Visa Liberalization and Stabilization - Association for Kosovo, are obligations also asked the EU and the EC to meet the pillar of justice - freedom and security, where protection and security of personal sample data is of particular priority in this area.

In this time of modern technological developments and developments with dizzying speed to free trade within the global market, legal protection of personal data is obligatory for all human society at international level and not only the obligation of a country, region or continent. So, the huge influx of international circulation of personal data, has led to transnational crime that has crossed state borders", that are affecting the jurisdiction of neighboring countries" (United Nations Convention Againsts Transnational Organized Crime, 2000).

Lack of knowledge and a greater need for the development of this field not only in Kosovo but also in the region and at international level, which is new and comes as a challenge of times, parallel with the rapid technology development of the "digital world", it increases the need for knowledge and cognition in this field; to be systemized, to be taught and studied, up to academic levels, as part of a "new field", perhaps of "theory for the protection of personal data".

The fulfillment of legal requirements for harmonization of legislation of Council of Europe member states, the EU and those that aspire to membership in the European Union with "aqui comunitarie", with regard to legal certainty and the protection of personal data, are also obligations for European integration and are more dimensional interest to humanity in every corner of the world to the globalization process, where one moves with "his indivisible property" of so called personal data.
However, harmonization of domestic legislation with the 108 Convention, adopted in 1981 by the Council of Europe regarding the protection of personal data during automatic processing, then issuing the special law on the protection of personal data pursuant to Directive 95/46, are vital for Kosovo, in its roadmap towards EU integration and euro-Atlantic institutions. Kosovo already has "the personal data protection law" (03 / L - 172: 2010) and "institute for supervising of this law" (NAPDP: 2011). The challenge that must be prepared by the Kosovo institutions on legal harmonization and incorporation of new bringing at the European level in this area (on the protection of personal data) when we consider the EC's new regulation and the EU Protection Agency Personal Data (New Regulation EC and the EU for the Protection of Personal Data, 2016), obliges the executive and the legislature of the country to be at the level of duties and responsibilities entitled in time before them.

Based on international law, the freedoms and fundamental human rights, focusing on "the protection of individual freedoms", in terms of binding international cooperation, these rights become part of positive international law and "them once and permanently cease to be a matter of exclusive competence of states and become legal issues of concern to the international community". Gruda (2013: 421).

Where does Kosovo stand in this regard?

The reality is the fragility of institutions and lack of political responsibility; the citizens of Kosovo are still far from taking in due time service in the field of personal data protection, which it has guaranteed the country's constitution. These rights with no doubt have an impact on the rule of law sector, a vital sector to fighting crime and corruption, where Kosovo, from various international reports, it is ranked as the country with the highest involvement in corruption and organized crime.

Whereas, although Kosovo has an advanced law and the best in the region since the end of the first five-year mandate of the agency supervisors, on June 30, 2016 until today (April 30 2017), the negligence of the central institutions and supposedly "suggestion of the EU office in Pristina; initially to review the law on protection of personal data, then made the election and appointment of state agency supervisors ", it "suspends the work of the institution - of the agency". We can freely say that people with this access was denied in practice their rights for a long time and years in getting services guaranteed by the constitution and the law, and also, lots of times it avoids Kosovo in the roadmap and its aspirations to European integration, a move that temporarily suspends enforcement of the law.

So this wrong approach to establish constitutional institutional vacuum that the Constitution does not recognize and irresponsibility of Kosovo's central institutions creates institutional cramps. Such vacume in the legal space of the European Union are not known.

Protection of personal data in the background of human rights and freedoms

Human rights and justice in the rule of law and the rule of law, meaning if the unjust gets hit, and it hits the violations of human rights and freedoms. Already in the world the dimension of humanism of humanity, slowly takes the leading role, which reflects the hope of lasting peace for which we all, globally, in every corner of the terrestrial globe, need to be devoted contributors. We have seen the case of international intervention in 1999 of the international community in Kosovo, when under the sovereignty of Serbia were violated human rights of Albanians, was just a concept on paper. Then, finally, when from the Assad's chemical poisons in Syria were killed hundreds of civilians most of them children, were hit Syrian military targets, by the US military forces with tomahawk missiles, without even consulting the sovereignty of this country, in defense of the values of humanism and of freedom: http://periskopi.com/publikohet-videoja-e-sulmit-amerikan-mbi-sirine, accessed 08/04/2017

Freedoms and human rights are numerous references in social science studies. Based on the theory of international relations, many schools advance their contemporary studies on universal human rights. Even modern diplomacy promotes in practice and in theory, human security at the international level, based on the basic principles of the Universal Declaration on Freedom and Human Rights (UDHR, 1948).

"Essential (sin qua non) condition of the liberal state, in all its versions, is the power and authority of the government, is limited by a constitutional system of rules, in which are respected individual freedom and equality before the law". (Gray, 1986: 107)
In the background of human rights and freedoms, where personal data is related to the dignity of the individual, is been placed on the principle number one of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Freedoms, now at the international level, has reflected a host of conventions, Protocols, Regulations, Declarations, Directives, Treaties and Agreements that guarantee the protection of personal data, individual freedoms and the right to privacy of an individual.

Society with modern political and constitutional systems, today are considered all those states that have built their constitutions of the wider respect of human rights and freedoms. At the international level in this regard the European Union leads where in addition to advancing respect for human rights in the justice system has two courts; that of Justice (ECJ) in Luxembourg and that of Human Rights and Freedoms (ECHRF) in Strasbourg.

The basic definition of the concept of individual rights, of course, comes from data security through the systems security in public and private institutions that hold and process personal data of citizens by guaranteeing them legal processing and legal basis of personal data through the rule of law.

While the higher standards of protection of personal data, the higher is the confidence and scale of human freedom rights, inasmuch much more improved are standards of democracy. This issue of the security of personal data, the "lower" or "consolidated", is a good indicator and one of the indicators of democratic development and security of a country. Besides increasing confidence in state institutions in this regard, the main beneficiary is the citizen.

At this time of dynamic technological developments that "For the man in the future will suffice as the" identity card "only the fingerprints stored on the computers of international police stations" (Dimas, 2008:398). Undoubtedly the protection of personal data is also affected by the levels of protection and data security at the regional and international level.

High risk level of data in the global level, in novadays represent the so called processors of data that are called " Big Data", with "bad transparency of provider services, vague locations for their data, disclosure of personal data,...the impossibility of continuing with implementation of security policies...disclosure of data during the transfer", etc.

Strengthening and advancement of human freedom that comes naturally from the speed rate of harmonization of domestic legal norms and instruments, with European privacy framework and conventions and human rights. As much as these acts are harmonized, much higher are standard on human rights and the higher security and vice versa; where the aspects of addiction for Kosovo and the region has to do with the positive dependence and is in accordance with the requirements of the SAA and European integration.

Personal rights, with the emphasis on the Copenhagen School; on the social identity, social security, protection of social identity, threats towards the social identity and social security dilemmas, under the light of integrational processes in Western Europe and the disintegration of Eastern Europe, it says that: "Social Security as a concept was perceived as a reaction to events in Europe, both in the East and in the West "(Collins, 2013:216, 217) where the democratic development of system of values, have advanced more in the field of personal rights. So, then the social security has to do with the preservation of collective identity, including personal rights of all individual identities of citizens.

Whereas seen from the aspect of international terrorism action with international dimension, which is steadily increasing, according to the Copenhagen School on Security Contemporary Studies, we can say that "the greatest threat of freedoms and civil rights in a democracy, happens in those contexts where the battle against terrorism is seen as an equivalent to a war "(Collins, 213, 384), therefore, the concept of protection of personal data deserves special treatment in security sciences.

**Protection of personal data an important element of security**

The safety concept for a long time it was connected as "territorial security of countries from outside interference" as "protection against external aggression" as "as protection of national interests" or "as global security." In the period of globalization trends these concepts are relativized and seem as inappropriate. Theoretician and critic in the advancement of modern states system, includes the belief in creating of structures "cosmopolitan to better promote freedom, justice and equality around the world ... in an effort to fundamentally revalue normative foundations of world politics" (Burchill & Linklater, 2010:196).
Such security concepts comprehend their expansion, taking into account the threats and risks already global, as: international terrorism, environmental problems, genocide and ethnic cleansing, health problems, fight against drugs, weak states and problematic for global security, poverty, religious extremism, cyber crimes etc.

However, in support of the Copenhagen school representatives, especially in the publication "Safety: a new analysis framework" (English "security: A New Framework for analysis") (1998) we find the definition that "security is about survival. Security called cure time as an issue is been presented as an existential threat to a defined referral object. "(Collins, 2013:151).

Therefore, from the point of view of security threats to personal data and the individual itself in this regard, we are dealing with the concept "anthropocentric", where the security problem it touches many areas and affects all levels of organized systems of human life where personal data lies.

Therefore, in this liaison we distinguish:

• Horizontal level, taking into konsideration wide range of systems,
• Vertical level, taking into account the organization of state systems in its two sectors (public and private bodies)
• Systemic level, taking into account the organization of systems, especially as (public and private bodies)

The inevitable questions are?

Security, for whom? The answer is for referring-individual object. But, except the object (individual) as vice versa beneficiary it benefits the system (public-private body), state, region and beyond).

Security for what values? For the values of humanism, justice, rule of law, peace and welfare.

From what threats, who are they? The data abusers, processors and operating systems with personal data, (public-private and state bodies).

- Real threats, cyber attacks, intercepting systems, human factor etc.
- Potential threats: within the system, over there where collected and where are processed.
- Threats: from beliefs, perceptions, poor knowledge of the individual and the state institutions.

What are the tools and what is the price of organization?

- A good political frame – Kosovo has it and the region as well,
- Independent Supervising Institution - Kosovo and the region hs erected those structures,
- The best system and independent judiciary, administrative measures to be applied in case of data security threats, where educational and soft measures have proved as ineffective,
- The cost of organizational expenses of authority is not great but rising costs in this regard favors the strengthening of all systems data security, where the national security, regional and wider in the center is the individual.

In this sense related to data security, the trends are positive. We highlight the fact that the European Directive on the protection of personal data is separate chapter regarding the security of personal data. Also, the special chapters have almost the laws for protecting of personal data to countries where this Directive has been transposed.

The laws for protection of personal data in Kosovo, with special provisions regulating the security of personal data in Article 14. While the same thing in terms of new Rules of the EC and the EU has also made new obligations on the private sector, related to their duties and obligations for appointment of protection officers of personal data in their companies http://www.pdpconferences.com/conferences-overview/136-the-new-data-protection-law-how-to-prepare-for-the-changes, seen on; 08/04/2017, at 18 o’clock, thus affecting to grow significantly the ambiance of data security. New regulation of data protection enforcement has an obligation to all EU countries starting from 26 May 2018. But much more work is required for activities and expertise about the practical implementation of legislation, the efficacy and safety to be growing.
Recommendation

From what was said above we recommend:

As preparations on the application of the new legal flows in the New Regulation of EU and EC Personal Data Protection, to be a fait accompli, that the European Community countries and those that aspire EU to start membership for the practical implementation of the new European law, immediately starting from 30/05/2018.

The authorities to be more efficient, and not to happen that the Governments and Parliaments of the states (as in the case of Kosovo) with their negligence create institutional vacuum by unabling the supervision of the implementation of the law in practice for data protection.

To be preserved the constitutional institutional independence of the institutions for protecting personal data.

To be raising the knowledge and scientific knowledge in all levels of education, regarding the safety and protection of personal data, that the state and society should be prepared for this new challenge of our time. Contemporary Science Security, to expand and to include the concept of human security, social security, political security, public safety etc; the deployment of new studies on the security of personal data. This will bring new favors to regional and international security.

To immediately be seen the possibilities of joint action platform of unique action in the international community about the protection and security of personal data and of personal data.

Manufacturers of digital technology, which is been applied in machining processes, operation and transfer of personal data to certify the technology related to security and privacy protection of personal data.

List of abbreviations

ASHMDHP-SAPPD / State Agency for Protection of Personal Data
UDHRF / Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Freedoms,
UE / European Union,
PE / European Parliament,
EC / European Council,
Pdp / Personal Data Protection,
DP / Data Protection,
PDP, dp / Personal Data Protection, Data protection,

Literature

Books and different editions


[2] Title in the original: Theories of International Relations, Tiranë.


[8] Guidelines on handling complaints and claims for infringement of personal data on social networks and in cloud computing. The projects its conducted with support of the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs for the Directorate for Personal Data Protection of Macedonia and personal data protection on Cloud computing, 2015.

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Abstract

The expertise on building stock typology used openly available data from the Albanian statistical office. As the CENSUS was not especially designed for gathering data for the energetic evaluation of the building stock, some data were not available on the required level of detail. Estimations were necessary to extrapolate data to the existing stock. Technically, the study selected and described twenty representative categories of residential buildings typology for Albania. They identified the level and the structure of final energy consumption at present and in the future by building age category, building type, climate zone, and energy end-use. Using an original template excel data sheet, they conducted the calculations of their thermal energy performance in three climate zones, designed standardized retrofit packages, calculated possible energy savings, and investment required by building type. The engineering principle of the Regulation in force, regarding to the legislative act of Energy Building Code in Albania, is beyond any doubt correct and carefully studied. The act is a rule book or the Regulation (energy building code - here The Code) which contains information that is sufficient to perform calculations of the different insulating layers for new construction after the year 2003. Also, the Regulation’s algorithms are still relevant in terms of calculation to provide Energy for heating demands in Albania. After 12 years, the Code remains the same and could provide either an optimal potential energy savings to the existing buildings, or an optimal cost-effective of building’s insulation without imposing a burden of high financial housing builders to multifamily prospective buyers. Based today Europe’s developments on Energy Performance of Buildings, the study is found relevant to provide a methodology for calculation of the energy performance in buildings (kWh/ m²a) based on volumetric coefficient heat losses (Gvt) for heating only, the existing indicator of the existing Code. The following study deals with the possibility of transposing the methodology used to the Code into an energy Performance based on minimum requirement for a new Regulation and/or EP Calculation Methodology based on efficient use of energy for heating and cooling purposes.

Keywords: energy; buildings stock; dwellings; typology; performance; code; methodology.

Introduction

Energy Performance on Albanian Buildings

Residential Building and dwellings typology

Residential Building typology by age and climate zones

The building typology was created on the last census data from 2011. The expertise used openly available data from the Albanian statistical office. As the CENSUS was not especially designed for gathering data for the energetic evaluation of the building stock, some data were not available on the required level of detail. Estimations were necessary to extrapolate data to the existing stock.

There is established a building typology consisting of 20 building types, based on the following considerations:

- building type: the statistics distinguish between detached houses; semi-detached houses; row (terraced) houses and apartment buildings.

size of building: data were available for the number of dwellings in the building: buildings with one dwelling; two dwellings; three to four dwellings and five or more dwellings.

number of floors: buildings are classified into buildings with one floor; with two floors; three to five floors and six or more floors.

Further aspects were also analyzed, but as statistical data were not available per building type these aspects were not incorporated directly into the matrix:

climate zones: all data were given on a national level and for each prefecture.

construction materials: limited data was available.

heating systems and energy sources: national data was available.

Originally 24 building types were established but we decided to reduce the number of types and merged the buildings built between 2001-2005 and 2006-2011. The Albanian building typology is shown in Tab. 1.

Table 1. Albanian Residential Building Typology

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<td>1960</td>
<td>Dtc_20-60</td>
<td>Sem_Dtc_20-60</td>
<td>Row_Terr_20-60</td>
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The building stock

The total number of residential buildings in Albania was 598,267 according to the 2011 census for a population of 2,821,977 (53.5% of the population live in urban and 46.5% in rural areas) (INSTAT). The number of dwellings was 1,012,062, from which only 709,865 dwellings were inhabited. The number of private households in inhabited dwellings was 722,262.

There is classified the building stock into 20 building types. Figure 1 shows the number of buildings and dwellings in each building type. Detached houses built between 1991 and 2000 (type D1) represent the largest group with 108,752 buildings of this type. Apartment buildings from 1961-1980 and 1981-1990 are also significant regarding the number of dwellings. Fig 1 also shows the number of residential buildings with unknown period of construction and the non-inhabited buildings.

![Figure 1: Number of residential buildings and dwellings by building type, based on INSTAT 2011](image-url)
Detached houses represent the highest share in the building stock with 83.7% of all buildings. Apartment buildings represent only 3.7% of the stock, however, these multistorey buildings include a large number of dwellings, representing about 35% of all dwellings. Semi-detached houses have a share of 9.4%, while row/terraced houses are less significant.

![Figure 2: Number of residential buildings and dwellings by building type, based on INSTAT](image)

Residential buildings by construction period

Only 7% of the existing building stock was built before 1960. After World War 2, from 1960 there was an upswing in the construction sector; especially large multifamily apartment buildings were constructed. 24% of buildings and 32% of the dwellings were constructed between 1961 and 1990. After 1990 we can observe a boom in the construction sector, but there is a shift toward detached houses from apartment buildings. After 2000 the number of new apartment buildings started to increase again. The construction period of 13% of the building stock is unknown and there is a large share of non-inhabited buildings where the construction period is also not known (17% of buildings).

![Figure 3: Number of residential buildings by construction period (dwellings estimated only), INSTAT 2011](image)

After 2000 the number of new apartment buildings started to increase again. The construction period of 13% of the building stock is unknown and there is a large share of non-inhabited buildings where the construction period is also not known (17% of buildings).
Figure 4: Share of residential buildings by construction period, based on INSTAT'11

Detached houses

Figure 5: Number of detached houses by construction period, based on INSTAT

Most detached houses were constructed after 1960, with a peak between 1991 and 2000 when about 22% of the existing detached houses was constructed (Fig. 6). Also the first decade of the 21st century had high construction rates (19%). About 18% of the that houses are non-inhabited.

Figure 6: Share of detached houses by construction period, based on INSTAT 2011
Semi-detached houses

The construction of semi-detached houses has been relatively constant: since 1960 5,000-10,000 buildings of this type were constructed in every decade, with the largest numbers built between 1991 and 2000.

![Graph showing the number of semi-detached houses and dwellings by construction period 2011]

**Figure 7:** Number of semi-detached houses and dwellings in semi-detached houses by construction period 2011

Row (or terraced) houses

After 1960, about 1300-3500 row houses were built in every decade, with the lowest number between 1981 and 1990 and the highest between 1991 and 2000.

![Graph showing the share of semi-detached houses by construction period, based on INSTAT 2011]

**Figure 8:** Share of semi-detached houses by construction period, based on INSTAT 2011
Apartment buildings

![Table showing the number of apartment buildings and dwellings by construction period (dwellings in) 2011](image)

**Figure 10:** Number of row apartment buildings and dwellings by construction period (dwellings in) 2011

Only 7% of the apartment buildings were built before 1960. The boom started after 1960, when large number of prefabricated buildings were built in the communistic era. The construction of apartment buildings slowed down after 1990, but during 2001-2011 more than doubled compared to the previous decade.

Number of floors

85% of the Albanian residential building stock has one floor, while 10% has two floors, 4% three to five floors and only 1% six or more floors. During the last decade the construction of buildings with one to two floors decreased, the mid-size buildings remained about the same and the number of high-rise buildings with 6 or more floor and especially the number of buildings with more than 11 floors significantly increased (Simaku 2014)

Non-inhabited buildings and dwellings

The high number of non-inhabited buildings and dwellings is remarkable. There are 101,368 buildings which are non-inhabited, while the number of non-inhabited dwellings is 302,197. This includes 83,493 dwellings for secondary purposes or seasonal use, 218,514 vacant dwellings and 190 dwellings inhabited only by persons not object of the census. Vacant dwellings accounted for 21.6% of the dwellings in 2011 compared to only 11.3% in 2001.

Climate zones

The territory of Republic of Albania is divided into three climatic zones: zone A is the mildest along the sea, zone B is the medium zone and zone C is the coldest in the mountainous area. About half of the buildings are located in climate zone B, while climate zone A has about one third of the buildings. The least buildings, about 16% of the stock are located in climate zone C. The situation is similar regarding the number of dwellings.

![Graph showing the number of residential buildings and dwellings by climate zone (dwellings only), INSTAT 2011](image)

**Figure 131:** Number of residential buildings and dwellings by climate zone (dwellings only), INSTAT 2011
The population of Albania is decreasing: in the last decade it fell by 9% from 3,069,275 to 2,821,977. Also the number of private households decreased compared to the previous census. The number of residential buildings in 2011 was 598,267, which is not much higher than 512,387 in 2001, but the respective number of dwellings in 2011 is 1,012,062 compared to 785,515 in 2001.

There are large regional differences in the country. Tirana region is the most affluent and buildings located here are in a better condition. The urbanization process is fast: in 2001, 46.4% of the dwellings were in an urban area compared to 53.6% in rural area, while in 2011 53.9% were concentrated in urban and 46.1% in rural areas. There is also high rate of internal migration in the country especially towards the coastal area and Tirana.

Figure 16 and 17 show data for the number and floor area of building permits issued for new residential buildings. No statistical data was available for the demolition rate of buildings.
Figure 16: Building permits issued for new residential buildings, based on INSTAT'11

Figure 17: Floor area of building permits issued for new residential buildings, based on INSTAT'11

Statistical data on construction materials

We could not find data on construction materials in the 2011 census, but there were some data available in the 2001 census. At that time, according to the census there were 507,180 buildings in Albania. The majority of this building stock was built from brick or stone (88%), and 5% was prefabricated. Even though the number of prefabricated buildings is lower than masonry buildings, they are usually multi-stores buildings containing many dwellings. Most of the apartment buildings constructed after 1960 were built with this technology. ‘Other’ materials include clay and adobe buildings.

Figure 18: Buildings by construction period and main construction material, based on INSTAT'01
Energetic quality of construction materials

Regarding the energetic quality of the building stock, apartment buildings built after 1960 with prefabricated technology usually have some insulation as this was part of the sandwich wall construction. Buildings built during the boom in the 1990s are partly or insufficiently insulated. Even in the 2000s, the building codes were not strict enough and many buildings did not even comply with these requirements. Buildings are usually poorly insulated and have a high energy consumption. A part of the building stock has already been refurbished. The most common interventions were roof insulation and the replacement of single glazing with double glazing.

Energy sources used for heating

Data on the main type of energy used for heating are available for private households. According to the 2011 census, the most common energy source is still wood (57.5%), followed by gas (20.8%) and electricity (15.4%) (fig 19). Solar heating and other energy sources, such as coal and oil are negligible. About 6% of the households are not heated.

There is a large difference between rural and urban regions: in the rural area wood is much more dominant as a heating fuel than in urban areas. 85% of the rural households have wood-based heating systems. Poverty and inequality is a serious problem. In cities, the situation is more balanced: wood (36.3%), electricity (24%) and gas (31.3%) are the three main energy sources (Fig. 20).

A difference can also be observed between the three climate zones. In the mountainous region of climate zone C, wood is predominant, as it is used by 96% of the private households (Fig 21). In climate zone A and B, about half of the households are heated with wood, but electricity and gas also have a significant share. In the milder Climate zone A, about 9% of the households have no heating.
The statistics by AKBN, however, show a different picture regarding the share of fuels. The share of electricity is much higher than in the census data. Electricity use also has an increasing trend: its share grew from 44% in 2012 to 50% in 2013. The consumption of wood and LPG is slowly decreasing. Regarding the climate zones, electricity is dominant in climate zone A and wood in climate zone C. However, the values are rather different from the census.

Based on the consultation with the local experts, the difference can be explained by two factors. First of all, the census asked for the main type of energy source in the household. Nowadays many households in Albania purchase a secondary heating system, which is usually a heat pump to increase the thermal comfort in their dwellings. These secondary heating systems are not included in the census, but probably these are used for an increasing number of hours as their operation is more convenient than wood fueling. The second reason for the difference may be that some energy use may be misreported by the households in the census. Also, the AKBN figures show the fuel mix and not the share of households, and the used energy is directly proportional to its share in household numbers.

**Heating systems**

Corresponding to the main energy sources, stove is the most typical heating system (63.3%), followed by electric heaters (8.5%) and air heat pumps (air conditioners) (6%). Only 3.2% of the private households have central heating (building or dwelling heating), while 4.4% has a fireplace (Fig 29). According to the experts, even where central heating systems exist, there is a lack of metering and controls to adjust temperature levels (Simaku 14B).

Regarding urban-rural differences, the same tendency can be observed as for the energy sources: in the rural areas stoves are predominant (81%), followed by fireplaces (7%). In urban areas, half of the households use stoves, with wood or gas fuelling. Electric heaters, heat pumps and other types of heating each account for about 10% in the households.

Similarly to the energy sources, there is also a difference in the heating systems between climate zones. In climate zone C, 95% of the households use stove for heating, with wood as an energy source. In climate zones A and B, around 60% have stoves with most of the appliances operating with wood, but there are also other stoves. In the milder climate zone A, fireplaces are also common (8%). Electric heaters (9%) and heat pumps (4%) have a significant share in climate zone A, and in climate zone B (9% and 11%, respectively). In climate zone A and B, the share of other type of heating is around 10%.

**Heated and unheated areas**

Traditionally several generations shared one building, occupying 2-4 rooms in the house (Simaku 14C). In winter, the „main room“ or sitting room, usually the biggest room, was the only heated room where fire was kept during daytime in an open fireplace or a wooden stove. The bedrooms were not heated. This habit is still alive and in many buildings only part of the living area is heated.

According to AKBN, in 2008 only 35% of the living area was heated at the coastline and about 70% in the mountains. The trend is that the heated area increases. In 2012, about 45% of the living area was heated in the coastline and 80% in the mountainous region.
Mechanical cooling systems

According to the census, 6% of the households are equipped with air conditioner: in climate zone A 4%, while in Climate zone B 9% of the households have air conditioner. In the census questionnaire air conditioners are listed as a heating type. Generally, most of the cooling units are reversible, thus they can be used both for heating and cooling. According to the AKBN statistics, however the penetration of air conditioners is much higher, see Table. However, the use of these units as cooling devices cannot be supported by statistical data.

Table2: Share of households with air conditioning in each climate zone (%), source AKBN (Kelemen 15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Domestic hot water

The census did not include any questions about the hot water supply, but a general characteristic of an Alban household is that sanitary hot water is made using electrical hot water boiler. This is supported by the data provided by AKBN, according to which 62% of the energy for water heating is from electricity, and 23% from wood, LPG 10% and solar 5% on a national average. In climate zone C, the ratio of wood is higher than in other climate zones, similarly to space heating.

Energy demand calculation using Building Code

The existing energy building Code indicator - Volumetric Coefficient for Thermal Looses, $G_{vt}$

In Albanian Code, the Volumetric Coefficient for Thermal Looses, $G_{vt}$ is used as performance indicator for new buildings (2003 to date). The Volumetric Coefficient for Thermal Looses, $G_v$ is the amount of heat transfer per heated volume of $1m^3$ of building and per $1^\circ C$ (or $1K$) difference of indoor ($t_{br}$) and outdoor ($t_j$) temperature (in W/m$^3$K).

The Volumetric Coefficient for Thermal Looses, $G_v$ is defined by the formula:

$$G_v = \frac{Q}{V_b(t_{br} - t_j)} \quad [W/m^3K]$$

Where: $G_v$ = volume coefficient of global losses (W/m$^3$ºC),

$Q$ = total losses (Watt),

$V_b$ = inhabitable volume (m$^3$)

According to the Regulations, this coefficient must not exceed normative values $G_{vt}^{max}$, which have different recommended values for 3 different climatic zones, and depends slightly by building’s and dwelling shape as a whole considering the ratio $S/V$, where $S$ is the building’s envelope area from which the heat occurs, and $V$ is the heated volume:

$G_v \leq G_{vt}^{max}$

This indicator is an old approach used in 90-th and does not correspond to the EN standards and methodologies for expressing energy performance indicators. Nevertheless the results are proven for more than 12 years and still are relevant and correct on energy savings calculations.

The existing method of calculation of thermal losses by the Albanian Energy Building Code, DCM No.38, 16/01/2003.
The total heating losses ($Q$) of the building are equal with the sum of thermal losses for the ventilation or for air change ($Q_{vent}$) and thermal transmission losses ($Q_{tr}$) which, by itself, is a sum of losses through the transmission on the flat area of the envelope ($Q_{pl}$) and the losses through the transmission of cold bridges or thermal linkages ($Q_{ny}$).

$$Q = Q_{tr} + Q_{vent} = (Q_{pl} + Q_{ny}) + Q_{vent}$$

To this balance we add up or subtract some positive an/or negative gains which are studied in detail; these supplements are represented by ($\pm Q_{shtesa}$). Thus we have the following relation:

$$Q = Q_{tr} + Q_{vent} = (Q_{pl} + Q_{ny}) + Q_{vent} \pm Q_{shtesa}$$

The indoor temperature to be used for calculation ($t_{br}$)

In different Albanian books or booklets which deal with heating we can find different fixed temperatures for different buildings or localities. For calculation purposes, understanding that in buildings these temperature differ slightly from each-other we have to take into consideration the following:

| Residences: | 20°C |
| Local of common use or for a number of people: | 17°C |

These temperatures can be increased slightly due to heating gains caused by people who live in, from the heating given out from different appliances, from solar gains, lighting, electric appliances, etc. The increase does not exceed 2 or 3 °C.

In general, all living spaces in a residence building should be around 20 °C. Referring to the different places and localities such as working environment, dining room, bathrooms, garages, etc., the temperature has different levels. There are some approximate temperatures that are available for calculation purposes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Room</th>
<th>Dinning/sleeping</th>
<th>Seating/Kitchen</th>
<th>Bathrooms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These temperatures are settled in stable and standard conditions of humidity of the air, wall's temperature and the speed of the indoor air which is not the case in practice. For sure these "predetermined" temperatures are used as such throughout the cold season as everything depends on the variation of the outdoor temperatures which in a way affect the indoor ones taken for calculation. The study explain this "strict" attitude toward these recommended temperatures are not the final solution for the exact thermal calculation because there exist other factors such as: the radiation of the objects which might heat or not, the type of heating, etc., (a whole radiant heating or partial convective). Also, another concept is that the average superficial temperature which is of a higher difference in relation to the outdoor temperature than due to the indoor one used for the calculation.

The outdoor temperature to be used for calculation ($t_{out}$)

In order to keep a constant indoor temperature of the buildings, it is necessary for the installed power to enter the building according to the variation of a comparative temperature so that to decrease or to increase time after time or to go up to the maximum values which correspond to the “outdoor temperature used for calculation”. As a result the installation of the building is designed to be done according to the minimal outdoor temperature which is used as a base for the project. In other words, this is a referring temperature which according to the experience of many developed countries is accepted to be the average temperature of a certain region measured in the five coldest days during the three coldest months of the last three years.

As specialized institutions of every country must give an official precise table of temperatures, the data of Albania exists in such a table, but the temperatures of the last 5 years are not included. Anyway the table has approximate values which are
used by our specialists (compiled by Hydrometeorology Institute since 1984). According to the literature a map can be compiled in order to give the temperatures of the regions on 200m height and with a difference by 1°C. This data are indispensable for the designers of the residences or of the social buildings to undertake some measures concerning thermo insulation and the sizing the heating system installation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Outdoor temp. used for calculation (°C)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Sarandra</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Kavaja</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Lushnja</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Vlora</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Durresi</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Delvina</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Berati</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Elbasani</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Tirana</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Lezha</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Kuçova</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Fieri</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Gjirokastra</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Shkodra</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Pogradeci</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Korça</td>
<td>-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Kukesi</td>
<td>-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Peshkopia</td>
<td>-13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thermal losses calculation due to infiltration and ventilation of building: $Q_{vent}$

It means also the “air change” and with that notion we mean heated air movement from indoor to outdoor of the building by different reasons such as, infiltration by non-fittings of the doors and windows, and also by impossibility to have “hermetic” fittings. Another reason for the infiltration is the bad use of openings, like doors and windows for any kind of reason: odors, overheating, quick ventilation and many different reasons.

Mechanical ventilation

**Mechanical ventilation** of the building area is an organized air movement from indoor to outdoor and replacement of the warm by the fresh air which comes from outside and this exchange causes a thermal supplementary load.

Corresponding losses, which are differently called “losses due to infiltration and ventilation” and also, even more important because of the losses which associate this process:

the difference between indoor and outdoor temperature is big. ($t_{brend} - t_{jasht}$) the flow of $Q$ due to air change is big and equal:

$$Q_{vent} = 0.34Vn(t_{in} - t_{jasht})$$ [Watt]

Where:

- $Q_{vent}$ = the losses in (watt)
- 0,34 = the average value of the specific heat capacity of air (W/m³K)
- $V$ = volume of local
- $n$ = number of air changes of the local considered.
\( t_{\text{in}}, t_{\text{out}} = \) indoor and outdoor temperature in Celsius (°C)

For the residences “the hourly rate of the air change of the space volume heated air in a room for different climatic condition of a normal winter” is fixed number. It is a relation between hygienic needs and the energy consumption. In reality, the percentage of air renovation might be much higher or much lower depending on some factors such as: the wind presence and/or its pressure, quality of the fittings of different doors and windows and also exposure of façades and openings. By experience this percentage varies as 1 to 10. The official texts take this into account but their application is very delicate. In the individual houses the permanent ventilation is obligatory for the kitchen, toilets and bathrooms.

The heat losses due to heat transfer through walls and thermal bridges. \( Q_{tr} \) and \( Q_{ny} \)

The main part of the indoor heat of the building goes out through the partitions. These losses are even more important because:

the difference between the indoor temperature and the outdoor one is big \((t_{\text{in}} - t_{\text{out}})\)

the coefficients \( K' \) of the heat transmittance through the different outdoor building’s elements envelopes in contact with indoor partitions’ \( F \) areas.

These losses are represented by the following formula only for a part of the flat partition:

\[
Q_{tr} = KS(t_{\text{in}} - t_{\text{out}})
\]

where \( Q_{tr} \) - superficial losses of the partitions (Watt)

\( K \) - coefficient of the partition superficial transmittance (W/m².°C)

\( F \) - area of the partition taken into consideration (m²)

Coefficient \( K \) varies according to the nature and thickness of the materials. It is calculated for a given locality to make separated calculations for each of the partition part Fig:

- Wall coefficient K1 Area F1
- Window, wooden frame coefficient K2 Area F2
- Wooden Door coefficient K3 Area F3

Thermal superficial losses of these layers are equal to:

---

1 the old system of units the coefficient \( K \) is given in [kkal/m²h°C] dhe \( K[k\text{kal/m}^2\text{h}^\circ\text{C}] = 0.86K \) [W/m².°C]
This coefficient $K_{ny}$ is given for one linear meter and is multiplied by length of the same linkage. As a result:

$$Q_{ny} = K_{ny}L(t_{in} - t_{out})$$

where:
- $Q_{ny}$ = linear losses of the thermal linkage (W)
- $K_{ny}$ = heat transmission coefficient for one ml linkage (m)
- $L$ = length of linkage (m)

The total thermal losses for the whole building are:

$$Q_{tr} = \sum (Q_{pl} + Q_{ny}) = \left( \sum K_i F_i \right) + \left( \sum K_{niy} L_{niy} \right)(t_{in} - t_{out})$$

The thermal balance of the heated area: volume coefficient of global losses $G_v$

Altogether, the maximum thermal losses for one building are given as a sum of losses due to transmission and of losses due to air change (infiltration, controlled or not controlled ventilation):

$$Q = Q_{tr} + Q_{vent}$$

where:
- $Q_{tr}$ = losses for the transmission through flat surfaces and linkages (Watt)
- $Q_{vent}$ = losses for the air change (Watt)

When it comes to examine carefully some buildings we will see that the same voluminous do not have the same thermal losses. This is because buildings change a lot from one to another. Following this idea, building coefficient wall-window is not the same; also their structure changes, they have different orientations, different exposure to the wind, they are situated in different regions, etc.

Based on these differences the volume coefficient of global losses, $G_v$ is introduced:

$$G_v = \frac{Q}{V_b(t_{in} - t_{out})}$$

where:
- $G_v$ = volume coefficient of global losses (W/m$^3\cdot$°C)
- $Q$ = total losses (Watt)
- $V_b$ = inhabitable volume (m$^3$)

In its essence, the volume coefficient of global losses is the thermal efficiency of the construction. To determine it we can calculate the losses due to transmission with the help of the superficial corrected coefficient “$K_c$”, which is more complex than the previous calculated coefficient “$K$”. This happens because the wind condition and the superficial size of the windows and doors are related to the architectural style of building. It is difficult to exactly find the $G_v$ coefficient, but its use quickens the procedure of numerous calculations. In practice, the study of this coefficient for different regions and different buildings provides a better experience for the engineers concerning heat efficiency in buildings.

The Climatic Zones: the limit values of $G_v$
As I have mentioned before, in Albania does not exist maps, which show the climatic zones of the country with the calculated and defined minimal temperatures. Although, it is given a table for different districts of Albania and for the sake of calculations let’s consider these districts as climatic zones. The coefficient Gv must change according to the thermal insulation of building and is obvious that thermal insulation is stronger in the cold zones. Based on these factors here is a table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heating type</th>
<th>Non electric</th>
<th>Electric</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climate zone</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhabitant volume Vb</td>
<td>1,60</td>
<td>1,75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vb&lt;150m³</td>
<td>1,45</td>
<td>1,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150m³ &lt; Vb &lt;300m³</td>
<td>1,30</td>
<td>1,45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 &lt; Vb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zones A are with a minimal outdoor temperature used for calculation +5 to -1°C
Zones B are with a minimal outdoor temperature used for calculation -1 to -5°C
Zones C are with a minimal outdoor temperature used for calculation -5 to -15°C

FROM INSULATION LAYER TO ENERGY PERFORMANCE INDICATOR

The principle of the Albanian regulation, as proposed in the published legislative act Decision Council of Ministers, Nr.38, 16/01/2003, is beyond any doubt correct. Aim of the contemporary regulation is to ensure the maximum achievable energy savings, but not to impose an unbearable financial burden on the building constructors and prospective buyers. In order to achieve such an aim, the idea of introducing an energy loss coefficient, like the Gv, that will depend on the climatic zones of the country’s regions, and that will determine building thermal losses in terms of conductivity and ventilation is definitely the right one. In that sense, considering the climatic conditions and the prevailing energy use patterns of Albania, a consumption of in between 50 to 100 kWh/m² and year can be considered as feasible, with respect to the development monitored in neighboring countries, like Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia and Kosovo (Fig 22).

Figure 22. Development in energy consumption in three Southeastern European countries

This figure (Energy Performance - EP), else known as the annual specific energy demand which refers to the square meter of a building’s heated surface, is comparable to those of other Southern East Balkan Countries. Both as a physical property and as numerical value it inscribes very well the new European directive for the EP of buildings (EPB Directive 2010/31/EC. In terms of renovation of existing buildings, increasing EE measures in existing stock, it can be achieved with a reasonable quality and quantity of thermal insulation, with reasonable double glazed windows and doors and with a minimum of
ventilation guaranteeing good levels of indoor air quality and also thermal comfort. At the same time, it complies with the
minimum temperature and ventilation rates foreseen in the Albanian Decision Council of Ministers, Nr.38, 16/01/2003

Figure 3: Climate zones and municipalities in Albania (Simaku, 2014d; “Wikipedia 2015; “Wikimedia” 2015)

The existing Method on Determination of the energy loss coefficient Gv

In terms of a regulation, this performance measurement can be described by the energy loss coefficient Gvo (Gv overall),
as foreseen in the Albanian Decision Council of Ministers, (DCM) Nr.38, 16/01/2003, well known as Energy Building Code
(EBC). In order now to be able to achieve the energy performance needed, the new regulation will have to foresee certain
limits for both components, of which Gv consists, namely: \( Gv = \left( \frac{S}{V} \right) \cdot k_m \), for volume coefficient of global losses
(transmissibility) and \( Gv \) for ventilation

And in order to ensure this there will have to be established that \( Gv \leq Gv_{\text{max}} \)

That in buildings with natural ventilation it is impossible to ensure that \( Gv, S Gv, max \)

Once it therefore, can only consider a certain constant \( Gv \), for the comparison reasons. In that sense, and also, given the
fact that ventilation is not far exploded and the most difficult component of energy losses to control, it is particular significant
that both partial \( Gv \) should be the subject of a limit or fix number, in order to be in practice fairly sure of achieving a
satisfactory result.

Determination of the Transmissibility losses coefficient Gvt

It has to be noted, that in the considerable number of buildings constructed after 1998 that is after the introduction of the
4th generation of energy regulations ventilation accounts for as much as 50 to 60% of the total energy consumption.
Obviously, that is reasonable that the transfer losses coefficient \( G_v^t \) foreseen by the existing regulation should be able to ensure the respective energy consumption. With respect to the data published in the Albanian Energy Building Code, DCM Nr.38, 16/01/2003, concerning the climate, the indoor temperatures and the building materials and techniques, the proposed values for the heat transfer losses coefficient \( G_v^t \) would have to be the ones presented in the following

Table 3. The research done by Gj. S, it is the only way to transpose the EBC to the Energy Performance terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climatic zones</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/V ↓</td>
<td>DD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.413</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>0.846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Volume coefficient of global losses \( G_v^t \)

As it was mentioned before, all the calculations are assumed to be done on the basis of indoor temperature \( t_{in} \) and the outdoor one used for calculation \( t_{out} \), both constant. For the calculation purpose, this heating regime is called “permanent regime” or as we call it usually “stationary regime”. These “fixed” calculations will be used when we size the surface of the radiators and/or their installed capacity. As a matter of fact, their maximum or designed capacity does not “offset” their cost when the outdoor temperature is higher than that chosen as minimum for the sake of calculation. The implementation of these coefficient will result in an average energy consumption due to volume coefficient of global losses that is presented in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climatic zones</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/V ↓</td>
<td>DD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Specific energy consumption due to volume coefficient of global losses
It has to be noted that these are typical values, as they demand on a series of constructive details, but they demonstrate the huge energy saving potential achievable. As for the calculation purposes, the losses due to ventilation, according to the formula and the data presented in the Code, DCM Nr.38, 16/01/2003, then the following figures would result, as they are presented in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate zones</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/V ↓ DD →</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Specific energy consumption due to ventilation losses

The total specific annual energy consumption would thus result to be the one presented in Table 7. (the sum of tab. 5 and tab. 6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate zones</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/V ↓ DD →</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Total specific energy consumption

The energy losses for the respective features are calculated based on the following formulas, based on the constant Degree Days method and according to Hitchin:

**Volume coefficient of global losses**

$$Q_v = DD * G_v * 24 * V / (1000 * S)$$ [kWh/m²a]

Where: DD = Number of Degree Days

G = as given before

V = Heated volume

S = Exposed surface

**Ventilation losses**

$$Q_{vent} = DD * n * 24 / 1000 * p * c_p * V / (3600 * S)$$ [kWh/m²a]

Where:

N = Number of air changes per hour

P = density of air

Cp = specific thermal storage capacity of air

and hence:

**Total losses**

$$Q_{tot} = Q_{trans} + Q_{vent}$$ [kWh/m²a]
If we compare these values, with the one that would result from the Code, DCM Nr.38, 16/01/2003, then once would have the following remarks:

If the coefficient G\textsubscript{v0} in the full legislation text refers only to volume coefficient of global losses, then the limits set are not strict enough, and a significant reduction is achieved by the herewith proposed values, based on the reduction of volume coefficient of global losses. This difference, for each climatic zone, in terms of Degree Days (DD) for Albania.. This difference represents the energy saving potential that is exploitable. The overall consumption shown in this figure is based on the assumption that the ventilation losses are in both cases the same and refer to 1 air change per hour over the whole 24 hrs period.

If the G\textsubscript{v0} coefficient proposed in the amendment, or even in the full draft, refers to volume coefficient of global losses and ventilation losses, then it leads to a very strict limit, which would incorporate for climatic zone C more than 80 cm of insulation to achieve it. It has to be noted that even in the vast majority of building, i.e. those with S/V ratios of up to 0.8, the consumption values due to volume coefficient of global losses, according to our proposal remain below 100 kWh/m\textsuperscript{2}a, whilst in the more moderate cases they are between 30 and 60 kWh/m\textsuperscript{2}. In that sense they are fully harmonized with the current European trends. The comparison of the impact of the three cases of coefficients (proposal, Code, DCM Nr.38, 16/01/2003 G\textsubscript{v0} without ventilation and G\textsubscript{v0} with ventilation) on the insulation needed to achieve the limits at typical buildings, is presented in the following tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate zone</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S/V ↓</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Total specific energy consumption values for the three cases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/V ↓</th>
<th>900</th>
<th>1500</th>
<th>1500</th>
<th>2500</th>
<th>2500</th>
<th>3000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>n.p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proposal. Insulation thickness [cm] without ventilation

Proposal. Insulation thickness [cm] with ventilation n.p. - not possible

References


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Is Heidegger's Hermeneutics an Interpretation of Being of Dasein?

Prof. Dr. A. Kadir Cucen

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to argue that Heidegger's understanding of hermeneutics is a way of Interpretation of Being of Dasein because he accepts that hermeneutics is a philosophical movement in which thinker understands and interprets what the meaning of Being is. One has to read very carefully Heidegger's major work of *Being and Time* to see what hermeneutics means. Heidegger thinks that all philosophers who dealt with hermeneutics misunderstand it. Philosophers from Plato to Husserl could not give the meaning to hermeneutics as what Heidegger's understands. So Heidegger redefines and reconstructs the meaning of hermeneutics as he does for philosophy. So Heidegger redefines and reconstructs the meaning of hermeneutics as he made for philosophy. He believes that a new beginning of philosophy must be phenomenological hermeneutics. In this paper, I will try to explain how the meaning of hermeneutics changes in the western philosophy, to explore how Heidegger understands it and how he makes it as phenomenological movement of ontology.

Keywords: Heidegger, Hermeneutics, Dasein, Existence, Understanding, Interpretation, Care, Being-in-the-world, Death, Authenticity and Inauthenticity

Introduction

Definitions of Hermeneutics

The word *hermeneutics* comes from the Greek verb *hermeneuen* and the noun *hermeneia*. The verb *hermeneuen* and the noun *hermeneia* have three meanings: to express, to interpret and to translate. The basic or real meaning of hermeneutics is to bring to understanding or to make clear and understandable of the problematic words or sentences. “Hermeneutics, at the beginning, is a sub discipline of theology where it covers the study of methods. As a method, hermeneutics makes clear and understandable the problematic on hard sentences of sacred texts. Because dogma has to be interpreted”. (Silverman, p. 43) So, "the messenger of gods is called ‘hermes’ means an interpreter of gods’ words to ordinary people". (Kearne, 14) "The terms ‘hermeneutics’ has a variety of meanings. Its original meaning comes from theology, where hermeneutics was the method used to infer the mind of the ancient writer, usually of some part of the Sacred Scriptures, but also the meaning of liturgical and religious symbols, etc." (Silverman, p. 43)

However, Heidegger discusses and rejects all these definition or meaning of hermeneutics because he thinks that hermeneutics is more then all previous meanings. For him, hermeneutics is not a method as Husserlian phenomenology or hermeneutics is not a linguistic analysis. On the contrast to these meanings, hermeneutics is a philosophical movement or tendency but not a school as existentialism. So for Heidegger, hermeneutics is a philosophical activity or praxis. In broader meaning, Hermeneutics is to make such understanding meaningful for life and thought. (Shapiro p. 3-4)

On the other hand, for young Ricoeur, hermeneutics in traditional way is a study of methods for interpreting difficult texts but later he thinks that hermeneutics extents to a general epistemological sphere". (Howard, p 167) Also hermeneutics is a philosophical method , one among the others he seeks to articulate and interpret because for him hermeneutics of symbols, signs, myths or stories give a rise to think and interpret. (Pellauer, vii)
Historical background of Hermeneutics

After giving some definitions of hermeneutics, let’s trace its historical development. Heidegger says that in Plato’s work of Theaetetus, Plato has his own version of hermeneutics. "Plato's hermeneutics is the announcement and making known of the being of a being in its being" (Kearne, 14) However in Aristotle’s philosophy, hermeneutics has a practice dimension which is linked to 'discourse'. Because discourse makes beings openly manifest. Hermeneutics in practice sense means a translation from one language to another and make a commentary. In Augustine, hermeneutics is the interpretation of ambiguous passages in Scripture. In seventeenth century, hermeneutics is an interpretation itself. Schleiermacher thinks that hermeneutics is an art (technique) of understanding another's discourse. But for Heidegger, hermeneutics is not a discipline connected with grammar and rhetoric. (Kearne, 15)

Late 19th century, Scheirmacher and Dilthey used the term "Hermeneutics" in connection with the theory of knowledge. They called their activity “understanding” that different from “explaining". (Howard, pp. 1-2) For Dilthey, hermeneutics is an analysis of understanding as such and human sciences. Natural scientists give or know how nature changes by finding the laws of nature. Dilthey calls this knowledge ‘explanation’ but for him social scientists try to understand what happens in history or society or tradition. The knowledge of social sciences or humanities bases on ‘understanding’. Gadamer, “hermeneutics comprise the conditions and processes of the hermeneutical circle used by the interpreters to obtain meaning from literally text and historical/cultural phenomena.” (Silverman, p. 43-44)

Influences on Heidegger’s Hermeneutics

When Heidegger starts to develop his idea of hermeneutics at the beginning of his career under the Husserl’s supervise, he gets the influence of Nietzsche, Dilthey, Brentano and Husserl. So Heidegger gets some things from each of his predecessors.

The problem of modern philosophy was to ground and justify the knowledge of philosophy as natural sciences did since Descartes. Descartes’ dream was to make the philosophy as universal science and Husserl tried to make philosophy as a rigorous science.

When Nietzsche said that God was dead, he reject all kind of theory of ethics, especially Christian theory of ethics and western metaphysics. For Nietzsche, his time is the end of the western metaphysics and ontology, namely traditional philosophy. Heidegger gets the idea of ending of western metaphysics from Nietzsche. Heidegger wants to start a new beginning of philosophy and a new investigation of the meaning of Being.

While Dilthey explained the difference of knowledge and methods between the social and natural sciences at the end of 19th century, he showed on what grounds both sciences should be. "The modern interest in hermeneutics seems from the work of W. Dilthey and the beginning of the scientific study of history. For Dilthey, hermeneutics was the method of determining the mind of the historical author or agent.

Heidegger was influenced by Brentano’s idea of the seeing multiplicity of being and intentionality. He adapted them to his philosophy.

Husserl wanted to demonstrate the essence of things by developing the phenomenology method. So he tried to suggest a new beginning of philosophy without starting any supposition. But Heidegger says that Husserl’s phenomenology is descriptive but he introduces a hermeneutic phenomenology in his Being and Time. His double task is to reground the ontology as fundamental base for philosophy, then to destroy the western history of ontology because it is metaphysical and no concrete answer to the meaning of Being since Plato.

In Husserl’s phenomenology, the ego is a starting point for intentionality but for Heidegger, Being-in-the-world with others is the ground of intentionality because Dasein concerns and encounters itself and others in-the-world.

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When Husserl suggests the world of life as a source of all condition of meaning in his *Cartesian Meditation* and *Crisis*, he recognized the ego not enough the source of all projects. Heidegger takes the term intentionality world of life and uses in his analysis of everydayness of Dasein's Being. (Grondin, 49-50)

**Heidegger and Hermeneutics**

For Heidegger, hermeneutics goes beyond the methodological aspects of hermeneutics to the existential-hermeneutical analysis structure of the interpreter, that is of Dasein's Being-in-the-World. "According to metaphysical approach we are mortal that we seek to ground Being on something like eternal permanence...It is against this metaphysical outlook that Heidegger proposed his own hermeneutics of Dasein. I.e. his philosophy of human finitude." (Grondin, 10) Heidegger thinks that hermeneutic philosophy is an analysis, interpreting, understanding or evaluating of the being of Dasein. When Heidegger introduces his idea of hermeneutic philosophy that seeks for the meaning of Being, indeed he rejects the history of ontology, namely western philosophy. The aim of his *Being and Time* is the rejection of tradition ontology and restating a new question.

**Heidegger's aim**

As it is said above, Heidegger's project is the destruction and deconstruction of the tradition. According to Heidegger, the modern ontological dualism of spirit and nature goes back to the Cartesian distinction between the ego cogito and the *res corporea*. The world is understood as such an extension in the Cartesian tradition. Heidegger maintains that the Cartesian ontology of the world in which Being lies in extension is not concerned with the phenomena of the world, and it does not succeed in determining the nature of the entity with-in the world.

According to Heidegger, Descartes restricts the question of the world to that of Things of Nature as those entities with-in-the-world which are approximately accessible. For Heidegger, traditional ontology causes Descartes not to see his way into a deeper grasp of the problem of an ontology of Dasein, and he departs from the phenomena of the world. Consequently, Descartes takes the Being of Dasein in the same manner in which he takes the Being of the *res corporea*. If the Cartesian definition of the world is ontologically in error, then for Heidegger, the traditional ontology must be re-interpreted from the very beginning.

In the Heideggerian destruction of the historical destiny of ontologies, the destruction of the Cartesian understanding of Being links the ancient and the medieval metaphysics to the Kantian doctrine of being in which Heidegger tries to see the roots of the previous ontologies. Consequently, one can be most faithful to the spirit of the destruction if one simply tries to understand the general character of the forgetfulness of Being's moment from ancient to modern times with Descartes.

**Asking a new question: the meaning of Being**

Philosophy, for Heidegger, is the dialogue between Sein and Seiendes because he says that "in distinction from the mastering of beings, the thinking of thinkers is the *thinking of Being*. Their thinking is a *retreating in face of Being*." (Heidegger, *Parmenides*, 7) For this reason, the aim of philosophy is to distinguish Being from beings. Therefore, Heidegger's destruction of the history of ontology meant only a reasking of the question of Being in a different manner. So he begins his major work *Being and Time* with a quotation from Plato's Sophist that addresses the question of Being.

"For manifestly you have long been aware of what you mean when you use the expression "being". We, however, who used to think we understood it, have now become perplexed.

Do we in our time have an answer to the question of what we really mean by the word "being"? Not at all. So it is fitting that we should raise anew the question of the meaning of Being." (Heidegger, B&T untitled page)

According to Heidegger “with the question of the meaning of Being, our investigation comes up against the fundamental question of philosophy” (Heidegger, B&T, 49). Heidegger thinks that the Pre-Socratics see Being as *unconcealment*,
aletheia in its primordial meaning. However, with Plato and Aristotle philosophy turns from Being to beings as the fundamental question of metaphysics.

**Destruction of traditional ontology**

Our purpose here is to explain and to interpret what Heidegger means by destruction and how he relates the destruction of ontology to temporality. According to Heidegger, his reinterpretation of the question of Being is a positive destruction because he is not going to destroy or do away with the history of ontology, but he says that his positive destruction is an "overcoming" of the history of ontology. Heidegger asserts that his task of the reinterpretation of the question of the meaning of Being is to break free of the frozen traditional ontology with a radical way of asking a new question about Being instead of beings.

Therefore, the meaning of re-interpretation is not to shake off the philosophical tradition, but to carry out the positive possibilities of a tradition and to keep it within its proper limits. By re-interpretation or retrieving of traditional ontology, we mean the disclosure and the elaboration of hidden and unthought possibilities of the question of the meaning of Being in its history of ontology.

For Heidegger, the philosophical hermeneutics of Dasein is firstly to clarity the history of being. The destruction of the history of being prepares a new understanding or interpretation of man who dwells in the world as a Being of possibilities. So his hermeneutics of activity is a movement from inauthentic to authenticity, from destruction of history of being to re-understanding of Being in its own self, from Dasein’s everydayness life to future possibilities of Being itself. (Grondin, 59)

**Heidegger’s understanding of Phenomenology**

Our purpose in this section is to re-interpret the interpretation of Heidegger’s destruction of the history of ontology. We have to keep in mind that destruction for Heidegger means the re-asking and the re-interpreting of the question of the meaning of Being. He maintains that it is possible philosophically to analyze what it means to be or the meaning of Being only through phenomenology, because "phenomenology is our way of access to what it is to be the theme of ontology, and it is our way of giving it demonstrative precision. Only as phenomenology, is ontology possible." (Heidegger, B&T 60)

Therefore, ontology must deal with its subject matter by employing the phenomenological method. "Thus "phenomenology" means to let that which shows itself be seen from itself in the very way in which it shows itself from itself...Thus the term "phenomenology" is quite different in its meaning from expressions such as “theology" and the like. Those terms designate the objects of their respective sciences according to the subject-matter which they comprise at the time. (Heidegger, B&T 58-59)

From the interpretation of the concepts of "phenomenon" and "logos", the expression of "phenomenology" means: "to let that which shows itself be seen from itself in the very way in which it shows itself from itself." (Heidegger, B&T 58) By this definition, Heidegger reaches his Husserlian maxim: "to the things themselves." (Heidegger, B&T 58) But this definition is very broad so he distinguishes the ordinary definition of phenomenology which is "to have a science 'of' phenomena means to grasp its objects in a such a way that everything about them which is up for discussion must be treated by exhibiting it directly and demonstrating it directly."8 In this ordinary definition of phenomenology, he sees phenomenology as descriptive which is at bottom tautological and ordinary.

“What is it that phenomenology is to 'let us see'? What is it that must be called a 'phenomenon' in a distinctive sense? What is it that by its very essence is necessarily the theme whenever we exhibit something explicitly? Manifestly, it is something that proximally and for the most part does not show itself at all: it is something that lies hidden, in contrast to that which proximally and for the most part does show itself; but at the same time it is something that belongs to what thus shows itself, and it belongs to it so essentially as to constitute its meaning and its ground.” (Heidegger, B&T 59)
"The phenomenology of Dasein is a hermeneutic in the primordial signification of this word, where it designates this business of interpreting.... hermeneutic also becomes a 'hermeneutic' in the sense of working out the conditions on which the possibility of any ontological investigation depends.... “hermeneutic”, as an interpretation of Dasein's Being, has the third and specific sense of an analytic of the existentiality of existence:. hermeneutic works out Dasein's historicality ontologically as the ontical condition for the possibility of historiology, it contains the roots of what can be called 'hermeneutic' only in a derivative sense: the methodology of those humane which are historiological in character...Philosophy is universal phenomenological ontology, and takes its departure from the hermeneutic of Dasein, which, as an analytic of existence, has made fast the guiding-line for all philosophical inquiry at the point where it arises and to which it returns.” (Heidegger, B&T 62)

Heidegger's Understanding of Hermeneutics: Analysis of Being of Dasein

Everydayness, theyness

When we assert that Heidegger's hermeneutic phenomenology is the analysis of Dasein's Being, we mean that Dasein is aware of itself in the daily life of everydayness. So Dasein finds and realizes itself in its everydayness life with other because Dasein as an understanding of Being involves to daily life in-the-world.

Dasein has been thrown into world as the possibilities of Being. Each human being as Dasein is the characterized from the outset as a Being of possibility and of "having-to-be". (Grondin, 57) But Dasein lost its authenticity when Dasein lives with other and follows the other because when Dasein lives as "theyness" then it is no longer authentic. Dasein always encounters, articulates and interprets what we encounter with our public language. The aim of Dasein as the possibilities of Being-in-the-world is go ahead of itself and leap ahead of others. "Out of its throwness, Dasein comes to reflect upon the projectors and plans of indelibility that have constituted its history". (Grondin, 59)

Dasein in its everydayness is inauthentic. It does not see its authenticity of Being-in-the-world immediately. The inauthentic existence of Dasein as Being-in-the-world lies in its average everydayness. In an average everydayness, we live inauthentically because of living under the force of habit as the "one"or the "they." In average everydayness, Dasein's existence is demonstrated by the "others"; it is the public in general, i.e., "one" or "they".

Authenticity means to be oneself, being one-self. Authenticity depends on Dasein's own being but not on Dasein's being-with-others. Authentic Dasein is always in each case mine. The factual existence of Dasein does not make Dasein authentic or inauthentic.

Being-in-the-world

Dasein as Being-there is not something standing outside or is not looked up within itself. Dasein as Being-in-the-World is an existence which is always already standing out in-the-world. Dasein as Being-in means involves or interests (concern-care) in-the-world. Dasein as Being-in-the-world means that it has always existential relation to the World. (Denker, 63)

Dasein as the possibilities and understanding of Being lies and encounters with other in-the-world. Dasein is thrown into the world so it tries to disclose, discovers, interpret of understands what are there its surroundings and in the world. So to be in-the-world is a Being that involves and encounters the things and others discloses, and also interprets, understands and discloses or discovers.

World is not a total of things. World is not only earth or soil or country World is an existential and ontological meaningless of something. Dasein is in-the-world. World is not Descartes' extensa or matter. World is phenomenological and hermeneutical meaning, «to be of use»

Being-with, Being-for-self and others
Others are always there with me and I am always there with others. We are encountering with others either things, animals or humans in the World. Dasein is not isolated from environment and World.

Dasein is always a relation with something because Dasein has initial intentionality towards others. Being with is an existential togetherness. Dasein touches to his surroundings. (Denker, 64)

"To be Dasein, to be "there" means that this "there" that we are, can be elevated to consciousness... as something that each one of us has to take up something to the possibly..." "Dasein is a self-dialogue, that is in a state of permanent confrontation with its own self and thus with others." (Grondin, 51)

Dasein is signified out as a being of Sorge-Care... For Heidegger understanding is not to be thought of as a mode of cognition. Rather it alludes to a "possible being" ...to be able, to be up to it, to cope with it." (Heidegger, B&T 227)

Throwerness, Fallerness, Facticity

Dasein's Being-in-the-world as care has three fundamental characteristics: (1) Existence (2) Facticity (3) Falling. The essence of Dasein lies in its "to be" or in its existence

Throwness is the facticity of Dasein. Dasein has been thrown into the world and inauthenticity of everyday life. Fallerness is an inauthentic and existential mode of Dasein in its everydayness.

Dasein always finds itself thrown into a concrete situation and attuned to a cultural and historical context. This thrownness makes up Dasein's facticity. Dasein in its facticity has the tendency to fall from authenticity, but when Dasein falls, it has also to ability to choose its possibilities and understands or interprets its own being. (Denker, 214)

Care

The relationship of Dasein to Being-in-the-world is based on its concern. Heidegger does not use the expression "concern" in its ontical significations, but he uses it in its ontological meaning as an existentiale which designates Being as a possible way of Being-in-the-world. Heidegger chooses the term "concern", because "the Being of Dasein itself is to be made visible as care... only because Dasein, when understood ontologically, is care. Because Being-in-the-world belongs essentially to Dasein, its Being towards the world is essentially concern." (Heidegger, B&T 84) The phenomenon of concern shows that Dasein's world is a world of meaningful relations of Dasein. Therefore, Dasein's Being-in-the-world is essentially "Care." "Care" is a existentiale for Dasein's Being as Being-in-the-world. Dasein's Being reveals itself as care". (Heidegger, B&T 227)

Dasein's Being is care and Dasein concerns to the world so the relation of Dasein to the world is not theoretical or epistemological but practical and ontological. So the essence of Dasein lies in its to be or in its existence and the being of Dasein is concerned about in its being or in its case mine. So care is the basic structure of Dasein just as it is encountered at first and most often in its everyday environment. Being of Dasein shows itself in care.

Authenticity and inauthenticity

In this part we also bring out that Heidegger's Dasein analytic is based on the idea of Being-in-the-world, of care, of finitude, of authenticity or inauthenticity, of temporality, and historicity in which Dasein is primordially an understanding of Being.

Dasein is the questioner that raises the question of its being. Dasein is an entity which met provide an access to the question of being. Dasein has a possibility to be authentic or not. To be authentic means to be its own existence.

The analytic structure of care as Dasein's Being-in-the-world can be examined either authentically or inauthentically: The authentic analytic structure of Dasein's comportments are state-of-mind, understanding, and discourse. The inauthentic comportments of Dasein's Being-in-the-world as care are ambiguity, curiosity and idle talk.
Interpretation

Heidegger accepts that assertion as a logical statement or proposition is the derivative mode of interpretation because interpretation is more basic and belongs to hermeneutics. When one makes a predicate statement, there is a logical truth and signifies the present-at-hand object. But interpretation is not a predicative statement. Interpretation states the ready-to-hand and usability and serviceability of tools.

Interpretation is basically the making explicit of our understanding of something. Since every understanding is historical, every interpretation is a destruction of the tradition from which we understanding something. Interpretation is the development of the possibilities of Dasein’s projections. (Denker, 122)

Interpretation has three basic structures: As-structure, fore-structure, and meaning. Interpretation makes explicit something as something but as-structure required fore-structure which is interpreted already in advance; Fore-having, fore-sight, and fore-conception are the ground of interpretation of as-structure. The third structure, meaning, is an understanding of the as-structure. All these structures of interpretation must be understood in terms of their ontological function which makes explicit the meaning of Being. i.e., what it means to be.

Understanding

Understanding is our most basic ability to live within the world and others. The structure of understanding is projection. Understanding always has a mood, Understanding gives the possibility of interpretation. Understanding can be authentic or inauthentic.

Authentic understanding of Dasein’s existence itself in its own resoluteness, conscience and guilt. Inauthentic understanding of Dasein falls prey to fallennes and it flees from death and its own possibilities. Dasein has always an implicit understanding of being. We understand something as something. (Denker, 222)

For Heidegger, Dasein is an understanding of Being because it has the projection of possibilities of meaningfulness for things and itself. So Dasein’s existence is futural that is, it’s being towards future. Heidegger thinks that future has priority over both the past and the present. Understanding is existential and ontological basis of Dasein’s Being because only Dasein as Being-in-the-world has a form of structure of understanding. Dasein is understanding of Being that has possibilities.

Hermeneutical circle

The circle of understanding lies on three fore-structure of Dasein itself. Dasein has a priori and primordial knowing. Fore-structure of Dasein’s knowing is fore-having, fore-sight and fore-conception.

Dasein interprets and understands something as something in terms of its fore-structure. No interpretation of an object could be free of preconception. So hermeneutical circle based on fore-structure of understanding and interpretation of Dasein’s knowing.

Temporality and Death

Dasein is always "ahead of itself", if Dasein is "not yet" Dasein forwards itself to its existence. But Dasein cannot grasp in its totality of being so Dasein is a being towards to its end that is Dasein as "being-towards-death". "Dasein, as care, is the thrown (that is, null) basis for its death". (Heidegger, B&T, 353) Death is no longer appear as the interpretation of existence.

If Dasein is being-in-the-world, If I am, it has the potential and possibility to be in itself or not. When Dasein dies, it is no longer a being-in-the-world.

Heidegger describes the phenomenological meaning of death as "to let death, as that which shows itself, be seen from itself in the way in which it shows itself from itself." (Heidegger, B&T, 58) so death is a factual event but I cannot be
experience my death or describe it. As Epicurus said, death means nothing to us. When we are alive or existence, death is not present and whenever it is present, we are nonexistence….In so far as I am aware that death will necessarily be present for me at some uncertain time as a factical event. (Stefanovic, 3-4)

**Resoluteness and conscience**

Resoluteness is an outstanding mode of Dasein’s disclosedness. It is the authenticity of care and makes it possible for Dasein to exist authentically. It frees us from everyday life.

If Dasein listens its own call of conscience, Dasein follows its own possibilities and becomes authentic existence in the World. Conscience calls for Dasein to obey the demands of its own unique situation and to choose its own projection. (Denker, 193)

Dasein is authentic when it follows the call of conscience in its resoluteness which "calls Dasein back to its thrownness so as to understand this thrownness as the null basis which it has to take up into existence.” (Heidegger, B&T, 333) Therefore, resoluteness brings Dasein right into its current concernful Being-alongside what is ready-to-hand

**Conclusion**

Heidegger's ontological and existential analysis of Dasein and its temporality is for the sake of the question of the meaning of Being. Dasein is the "there", the place of the truth of Being, and therefore by no means something different from Being. Fundamental ontology can be discovered through Being as the place of manifestation. A part of Dasein's structure is to have a pre-understanding of its ontological Being. Therefore, Heidegger answers what Being as such is only what the meaning of the Being of Dasein is in the light of the understanding of temporality. Heidegger's hermeneutical analysis of Dasein's Being, which are the analysis of Being-in-the-world, Being-with, thrownness, fallenness, authenticity, inauthenticity, care, interpretation, understanding, death, resoluteness and conscience are aimed essentially at destroying the history of ontology, then to start a new beginning of philosophy.

**References**


Aproximación Semantica Al Desplazamiento Forzado Bajo La Perpectiva De Las Políticas Públicas: Caso Colombia

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Abstract

El desplazamiento forzado en Colombia ha tomado “paulatinamente” dimensiones de catástrofe humanitaria, situándolo como tema específico de preocupación política y para solucionarlo es preciso que los investigadores elaboren propuestas y formulen proyectos sociales, normalmente destinados a ámbitos públicos de decisión. Este trabajo, pretende lograr una aproximación desde una perspectiva semántica a los conceptos y relaciones dentro del contexto de la violencia sociopolítica en el país. De hecho, se persigue una caracterización de la problemática del desplazamiento forzado en Colombia contrastada con la de otros países de la región, a partir de una diversidad de circunstancias, y en particular, en cuanto a modalidades y dimensiones propias de las políticas públicas. Se busca por tanto, a través de un análisis semántico, reflexionar sobre las orientaciones políticas que definen el proceso de atención a la población en situación de desplazamiento forzado, asumiendo el marco normativo que la sustenta. Este primer esfuerzo, se centrará en la identificación y representación de algunas de las métricas asociadas a los indicadores, para medir la eficacia de las políticas públicas. Finalmente, se complementa la aproximación semántica con una representación de aquellas políticas pública asociada a la restitución de tierras de los desplazados, la cual está contemplada en leyes vigentes y cuya aplicabilidad se proyecta hasta el año 2021.

Keywords: Desplazamiento forzado, Semántica, política pública.

1.- Introducción

El presente documento de avance, forma parte de un estudio más amplio sobre las políticas adoptadas por el Estado colombiano en torno al problema del desplazamiento forzado. Con ello, se quiere contribuir a una mejor comprensión del tema, analizar sistemáticamente la respuesta gubernamental y estatal y presentar criterios y propuestas alternativas centradas en el proceso de restitución de tierras, para el resarcimiento a las personas desplazadas por la violencia, para posteriormente evaluar sus alcances en términos de ejecución e impacto.

En primer lugar, se realiza una revisión bibliográfica sobre desplazados y refugiados, así como una aproximación semántica sobre el tema, los proyectos sociales, los lineamientos de política pública y la normatividad nacional e internacional asociadas a la problemática.

Mediante un análisis comparado, se presenta una caracterización del desplazamiento forzado contrastado en cuatro países de la región; para posteriormente centrarse en el caso de Colombia, determinando su origen, características e impactos; para culminar con el marco normativo y de políticas públicas para la atención a la población desplazada; cuyo impacto se pretende medir mediante indicadores de goce efectivo de los derechos de los desplazados.

Se trata de una aproximación exploratoria que demanda la construcción de nuevos referentes conceptuales y metodológicos, así como esfuerzos de investigación de mayor alcance, que permitan dar cuenta de los resultados de la política de restitución de tierras, desde sus impactos reales en las diferentes dinámicas regionales y sociales.
2.- Revisión de Literatura

2.1 Desplazados Versus Refugiados

Para la Oficina del Alto Comisionado de las Naciones Unidas (ACNUR) para los Refugiados, desplazados internos son:

“los individuos o grupos de personas que han sido forzados a huir de sus hogares para escapar del conflicto armado, la violencia generalizada, los abusos de los derechos humanos o los desastres naturales o provocados por el ser humano” y que no han cruzado la frontera estatal internacionalmente reconocida. (ACNUR, 2007)

Se puede hablar de dos grupos de desplazados forzosos. El más numeroso es el de los “desplazados internos”, los que han tenido que dejar sus casas sin salir del país. En segundo lugar están los “refugiados”, aquellos que salen en busca de un lugar seguro a los países vecinos. Así pues, cuando un desplazado cruza las fronteras internacionales adquiere la condición de refugiado, los cuales se ven forzados a huir porque no disponen de la suficiente protección por parte del gobierno de su país.

Las diferencias entre refugiados y desplazados internos llegan más allá del concepto formal, y radican sobre todo en el sistema de protección y asistencia internacional para los refugiados y no para los desplazados internos, quienes sólo cuentan con la atención de la jurisdicción nacional. Los desplazados internamente pueden haber huido por las mismas razones que los refugiados, pero en tanto permanecen en el interior de su país siguen estando sujetas a su régimen legal e institucional, por ello, quedan excluidas de la protección del Derecho Internacional Humanitario referente a los refugiados (UNHCR, 2010). Al desplazado no es posible aplicarle la Convención sobre el Estatuto de los Refugiados (ONU, 1991) y tampoco la Convención sobre Asilo Territorial (OEA, 1954), estando sujeto a leyes de su propio Estado.

Así que, según la ley 387 de 1997, de Colombia, se define el desplazamiento como:

“toda persona que se haya visto forzada a migrar dentro del territorio nacional abandonando su localidad de residencia o actividades económicas habituales, porque su vida, su integridad física, su seguridad o libertad personales han sido vulneradas o se encuentran directamente amenazadas, con ocasión de cualquiera de las siguientes situaciones: Conflicto armado interno, disturbios y tensiones interiores, violencia generalizada, violaciones masivas de los Derechos Humanos, infracciones al Derecho Internacional Humanitario u otras circunstancias emanadas de las situaciones anteriores que puedan alterar o alteren drásticamente el orden público” (Ley 387, 1997).

2.2. Semántica y Ontologías

La semántica estudia el significado de las palabras. En áreas especializadas de conocimiento se hacen necesarias estructuras que ayuden a modelar dicho conocimiento, entre las que se encuentran herramientas como tesauros, taxonomías y ontologías (Noy y MaGuiness, 2005). Los tesauros y las ontologías crean una serie de relaciones semánticas entre las teorías y los conceptos permitiendo una representación formal y relaciones entre los mismos, facilitando la comprensión, por consenso del dominio del conocimiento objeto de estudio (Arenas, 2009).

Debido a la trascendencia del fenómeno del desplazamiento en Colombia, distintas organizaciones no gubernamentales, instituciones académicas y entidades estatales e internacionales producen mucha documentación sobre este fenómeno. Como una alternativa de solución al problema de la dispersión e invisibilización de la información y a la polisemia conceptual y terminológica sobre desplazamiento forzado, la Universidad de Antioquia implementó un sistema de documentación basado en ontologías donde se representara conceptualmente la terminología sobre el tema, de manera que permitiera la representación y recuperación de la información (UDEA, 2009).

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1 El Derecho Internacional Humanitario comprende una serie de convenciones de derecho internacional sobre protección de derechos humanos.
2.3. Proyectos Sociales Y Políticas Públicas

Los proyectos sociales permiten la toma de decisiones para la asignación de recursos públicos a proyectos y programas de inversión, con el fin de reducir incertidumbre en las alternativas, seleccionar aquellas de mayor beneficio neto para la sociedad, y finalmente verificar los resultados de tales decisiones. Todo lo anterior para propiciar una eficiente asignación en los recursos públicos y lograr un mayor nivel de impacto en las áreas de intervención. Gobernar exige articular constantemente tres variables: proyecto de gobierno, capacidad del gobierno y gobernabilidad del sistema. Estas variables constituyen un sistema triangular donde cada una depende de las otras, pero la piedra angular es el proyecto de gobierno: “el Proyecto de Gobierno se refiere al contenido propositivo de los proyectos de acción que un actor se propone realizar para alcanzar sus objetivos” (Matus, 1987).

Las Políticas Públicas por su parte, son “el conjunto de actividades de las instituciones de gobierno, actuando directamente o a través de agentes, y que van dirigidas a tener una influencia determinada sobre la vida de los ciudadanos”. (Pallares, 1988). Por tanto, tienen que ver con el acceso de las personas y o grupo de ellas, a bienes y servicios, con el objetivo de resolver y dar respuestas a la multiplicidad de necesidades, intereses y preferencias de los beneficiarios.

2.4. Marco Normativo De Las Políticas Públicas

La normatividad sobre desplazamiento forzado en Colombia, atiende las directrices internacionales del DIH, en materia de restitución con el fin de devolver a la víctima a la situación anterior; la indemnización como medida material y compensatoria al delito a que fue sometida la víctima y su familia; la rehabilitación, para la restauración de los daños ocasionados para su recuperación integral y la satisfacción o compensación moral, que implican acciones tendientes a restablecer la dignidad de las víctimas y difundir la verdad.

Debido a la gran normatividad en torno al problema del conflicto y al fenómeno de protección a las víctimas, se presentan las principales leyes, dentro de un conjunto de más de 26 normas, las cuales se resumen posteriormente en un modelo conceptual. La Ley 418 de 1997 ha sido el fundamento jurídico medular del desarrollo normativo de la atención humanitaria a las víctimas de la violencia política y el conflicto armado en Colombia. En ella se abrieron espacios jurídicos para la desmovilización y reincorporación a la vida civil de los excombatientes, como una forma de prevención del desplazamiento y a la vez creó un programa de protección a testigos y víctimas intervinientes en el procedimiento penal, lo cual aplica al objetivo de protección. Igualmente, la Ley 104 de 1993 conocida como Ley de Orden Público, pretendía la promoción de la convivencia pacífica, la eficacia de la justicia y la desmovilización de combatientes de grupos armados ilegales, mediante la creación de incentivos al abandono de las armas, al tiempo que produce mecanismos para atender a las víctimas de la confrontación armada. Esta ley define la asistencia humanitaria como la ayuda indispensable para la atención de requerimientos urgentes, en virtud del principio de solidaridad y teniendo en cuenta el daño especial percibido; contemplando medidas de asistencia en materia de salud, vivienda, crédito y educación para cuya aplicación era necesaria la elaboración de un censo de damnificados.

La Ley de Justicia y Paz (Ley 975 de 2005), facilita la reincorporación individual o colectiva a la vida civil de miembros de grupos armados al margen de la ley, garantizando los derechos de las víctimas a la verdad, la justicia y la reparación. Finalmente. La ley de víctimas y restitución de tierras, ley 1448 del 2011, ofrece especiales garantías y medidas de protección, asistencia y reparación a los miembros de grupos expuestos a mayor riesgo de violaciones de sus derechos fundamentales: mujeres, jóvenes, niños y niñas, adultos mayores, personas en situación de discapacidad, líderes sociales, miembros de organizaciones sindicales, defensores de derechos humanos y víctimas de desplazamiento forzado, y de esta manera contribuye a la eliminación de los esquemas de discriminación y marginación que pudieron ser la causa de los hechos victimizantes.
2.5. Política De Atención a La Población Desplazada

Para el desarrollo de las políticas públicas en torno al desplazamiento forzado, los organismos del estado encargados de su ejecución, consideraron pertinente establecer varias etapas de acción durante la ejecución de políticas. Se trata de encontrar soluciones integrales que comienzan con el alivio de una situación de emergencia y terminan en la solución definitiva de desarrollo. Desde este punto de vista, se establecen cuatro fases:

**Fase I: Prevención y protección** La idea de esta fase es anticiparse a situaciones que puedan causar desplazamientos. En esta se incluyen las medidas de protección, que abarca las actividades tendentes a conseguir el pleno respeto de los derechos de las personas, sin distingo de la raza, el origen étnico, sexo, o demás características de la población desplazada. Se deben adoptar medidas especiales de protección integral a las víctimas, testigos y a los funcionarios públicos que intervengan en los procedimientos administrativos y judiciales de reparación y en especial de restitución de tierras.

**Fase II: Atención Humanitaria de Emergencia:** Conjunto de acciones dirigidas a atender las necesidades inmediatas de los desplazados y proveer cuestiones básicas de salud y alimentación. Contempla la asignación de bonos que pueden cambiar por alimentos y elementos de aseo en supermercados. Para poder acceder a esos beneficios, los desplazados deben estar inscritos en el Registro único de víctimas (RUV); esto implica un reconocimiento de la población desplazada para el goce de los derechos generados por la ley.

**Fase III: Retorno y reparación** Se trata de crear una serie de condiciones que permitan que los desplazados inicien una vida en un lugar nuevo, o regresen en condiciones de seguridad al lugar de partida. La reparación comprende las medidas de restitución, indemnización, rehabilitación, satisfacción y garantías de no repetición, en sus dimensiones individual, colectiva, material, moral y simbólica.

**Fase IV: Consolidación y estabilización socioeconómica.** Se llevan a cabo planes de desarrollo para dar autonomía económica a los desplazados. Lo importante es que los afectados sean partícipes de opciones económicas individuales, familiares o colectivas dependiendo del tipo de desplazamiento; con propuestas de autogestión tales como proyectos de economía solidaria y microempresas comunitarias.

3. Metodología

Se busca a través de un análisis semántico, reflexionar, sobre las variables que inciden en las orientaciones políticas que definen el proceso de atención a la población en situación de desplazamiento, asumiendo el marco normativo que la sustenta.

En términos metodológicos, primero se hará un análisis regional sobre características del desplazamiento forzado en algunos países de Latino América (Sección 4). Luego, se usarán de referencia tanto la ontología citada anteriormente (Arenas, 2009), como los tesauros del sistema SISDEON (Rivera y col, 2009), para el analizar las causas del desplazamiento en Colombia (Sección 5) y su caracterización (Sección 6). Así, se aprovecharán la semántica de ambos recursos, con el fin de evitar ambigüedades e inconsistencias. Para el análisis e impactos de la política pública, se analizan las acciones institucionales a partir de las informaciones obtenidas en las entidades involucradas; no es el resultado de un proceso de investigación basado en estudios de campo en los lugares de localización de las poblaciones desplazadas; de un lado, por los requerimientos que demanda semejante empresa y de otro, por las limitaciones propias del proyecto que sólo permiten parcialmente cumplir este objetivo. Finalmente, se realizará una aproximación al modelo semántico (Sección 7) representado vía ontologías (Novy y McGuiness, 2005) entre las políticas públicas, el presupuesto utilizado para su ejecución y el impacto obtenido, que permitan dar cuenta de los resultados de política pública en el marco de su eficacia como proyecto social.
4. Desplazamiento Forzado a Nivel Regional

Se realiza un análisis preliminar, del problema del desplazamiento en cuatro países de la sub región tales como, México, Honduras, Perú y Colombia, usando información documental de fuentes secundarias. Se reflexiona, además, acerca de las características y elementos distintivos de este fenómeno, así como las propuestas de política utilizadas para mitigar el problema.

El desplazamiento forzado prevalece en Latinoamérica, pero se evidenció ampliamente en México, Honduras, Perú, y aún más y pese al proceso de paz, en Colombia. La violencia política en América Latina, está enmarcada mayormente en una dimensión de lo interno, es decir, tiene sus causas y desarrollo al interior de los Estados nacionales latinoamericanos, ya sea por conflictos políticos, guerrilleros, grupos al margen de la ley y/o narcotráfico; no por conflictos de índole internacional o regional.

En cuanto a las causas que han propiciado el desplazamiento en los países estudiados, se observa que en México el fenómeno es multicausal; como consecuencia de la insurgencia de los grupos Zapatistas, pasando por problemas de tipo étnico y religioso y culminando con la violencia generada por el narcotráfico. En Honduras, el fenómeno es consecuencia de la violencia delictiva generalizada por las pandillas o maras. En Perú, el desplazamiento se originó por el conflicto entre grupos de insurgentes y el gobierno; principalmente por las condiciones de pobreza de algunas regiones de dicho país.

El desplazamiento en Colombia, país con mayor número de desplazados, presenta diferencias en sus causas con los demás; en él se destacan hasta 4 tipos de desplazamientos: 1) El político (bipartidista), 2) El guerrillero, 3) El paramilitar y 4) El del narcotráfico. Es decir, en el confluyen las causas generadoras del desplazamiento, observadas en los demás países analizados, lo que hace de este fenómeno algo más profundo y complejo. Gran parte de los desplazamientos son multicausales. De otro lado, las causas van migrando; de una orientación de tipo político, hasta llegar a modos de delincuencia, cuyo objetivo es la consecución de dinero fácil y dominio territorial.

Una primera característica diferenciadora del desplazamiento en los países objeto de estudio, es el tiempo de duración o permanencia de este fenómeno. En México es de mediano plazo, pues es solo a partir de los Años 70, y especialmente en la década de los años 90 que los grupos insurgentes generaron desplazamiento armado interno. En Honduras el fenómeno es reciente, solo a partir del año 2009 se identifica el desplazamiento como resultado de la violencia generalizada.

En Perú el desplazamiento cubre dos décadas, a partir de la intervención del grupo guerrillero Sendero Luminoso y Tupac Amaruc y concluyo con la firma de acuerdo con el gobierno en los años 90. En Colombia, este fenómeno es de tendencia histórica de largo plazo de aproximadamente 70 años, pasando desde la violencia política, a la violencia guerrillera, el paramilitarismo y el narcotráfico.

Por el número de personas afectadas, se puede afirmar que en México y Honduras el desplazamiento ha sido un proceso gota a gota. En Perú y especialmente en Colombia ha sido de carácter “masivo”, debido a la gran cantidad de desplazados. En este último, la cifra actual supera los ocho millones de personas, lo que equivale al 14% de la población total del país.

Finalmente, con respecto a la cobertura, en México las zonas más afectadas son el noreste del país, afectó inicialmente a la población indígena y ahora afecta a cualquier tipo de población; en Honduras las áreas urbanas y afecta a toda la población en general; en Perú fue la zona del Altiplano, afectando a la población indígena preferentemente y en Colombia tiene impacto en todo el territorio nacional y afecta generalmente a la población campesina. El desplazamiento forzado ha sido una consecuencia directa de la proliferación de grupos armados; sin embargo, la literatura sobre el tema argumenta que son también las condiciones propias de las regiones las que propician ambientes adecuados para que el crimen y el conflicto tomen territorios de sus manos y sea la población civil la directamente afectada (Boton y Botero, 20013)
5.- Colombia Un Caso Especial De Análisis

En una primera fase, el conflicto colombiano fue ocasionado por un bipartidismo entre los años 48 al 53 del siglo XX, conocido como “La Violencia”; lo que facilitó el surgimiento de grupos al margen de la ley. A partir de 1960, la influencia comunista dio un carácter diferente al conflicto. Miles de familias abandonaron sus tierras y se organizaron en las montañas, muchas se establecieron como grupos armados.

La segunda fase de desplazamiento forzado tuvo lugar a mediados de los años 70, cuando aumentaron los conflictos entre los grupos de izquierda o guerrilleros y el gobierno legalmente constituido. A finales de esta década, con el auge del narcotráfico estas organizaciones se convirtieron en grupos al margen de la ley, los cuales se armaron mediante el dinero de la droga por cultivos ilícitos. Estos grupos subversivos, desde la década de los 80, se han fortalecido con el dinero producto del narcotráfico y por las facilidades que ofrece el mercado negro de armas globalizado. Lo anterior, ha generado graves consecuencias en la población civil inocente, en medio de una lucha de insurgencia/contrainsurgencia, ubicando al país en el segundo lugar con el mayor número de desplazados internos en el mundo, después de Sudán. (Sánchez, 2009).

La escalada de poder de las FARC, ocasionó que algunos habitantes se organizaran en cuerpos de autodefensas, para defender sus predios de los ataques de la guerrilla. Algunos grupos de autodefensa se vincularon con los narcotraficantes, como un modo de potenciar su estructura armada y enfrentar de mejor forma a la guerrilla y terminaron involucrados con drogas, secuestros y amenazas a la población, como una forma de financiación, convirtiéndose en los llamados grupos paramilitares. El fenómeno del desplazamiento forzado en Colombia, posee tres características básicas: Es producto de un conflicto de larga duración; Se presenta en forma diferencial en las regiones del país, y afecta a todo tipo de personas sin distingo de clases o religión. Esto contribuye a hacer del desplazamiento algo muy complejo y difícil de medir. Geográficamente, los desplazamientos se concentran en zonas de gran dinámica económica y de concentración de recursos estratégicos como la tierra; por grupos de interés con fines de explotación en base a macro proyectos e imposición ilícita de monocultivos.

En la Figura N° 1 se representa el mapa conceptual sobre causas de desplazamientos forzados producto de los diferentes tipos de violencia (UDEA, 2008).

6. Caracterizando El Desplazamiento Forzado

Según su tipología, puede caracterizarse por el número de desplazados, asentamientos, temporalidad, modalidad y trayectoria. Se entiende el desplazamiento masivo como la migración forzada que afecta, en una misma circunstancia de tiempo, modo y lugar, a 50 o más personas o a 10 o más hogares. Según la modalidad, el desplazamiento puede ser individual, familiar, masivo o colectivo. Las personas se desplazan de manera individual o unifamiliar pero de forma continua y sistemáticamente (ver conceptos en Figura N°2).
Este tipo de desplazamiento dificulta en gran medida la posibilidad de tener estadísticas aproximadas por su característica de visibilizarse, ser silencioso o mimetizarse en la misma población. (Ospina. 2004). El desplazamiento colectivo, responde casi siempre a éxodos de campesinos provocados por el desbordamiento de la confrontación entre la fuerza pública y grupos guerrilleros, o entre paramilitares y guerrilla.

Según la temporalidad, este resulta de enfrentamientos entre la guerrilla y las fuerzas armadas: ligado a la duración del conflicto, e incluso puede volverse permanente, en caso de que los afectados no regresen a las zonas de origen. Finalmente, según la trayectoria del desplazamiento, este puede ser rural, interveredal, interurbano, fronterizo interdepartamental, etc.; depende del destino que tomen los desplazados para asentarse. De allí surge el concepto de zona de expulsión y de recepción.

El desplazamiento forzado ha sido un proceso prolongado, intenso y creciente. Los desplazados generalmente pertenecen a los sectores más vulnerables de la sociedad rural, compuestos por mujeres, niños, ancianos e indígenas. La extensión del fenómeno envuelve al 74% de los municipios del país, los cuales son expulsores o receptores de población desplazada. Las pérdidas en bienestar podrían equivaler al 25% del valor del consumo rural, según el estudio de Ibañez y Vélez (2003). Eso es un problema de índole humana y para solucionarlo es preciso que los investigadores elaboren propuestas y formulen proyectos sociales, normalmente destinados a ámbitos públicos de decisión. En la figura N°2 se resume características destacadas del desplazamiento forzado en Colombia.
Figura N° 2: Caracterización Del Desplazamiento (UDEA, 2008)

Las estadísticas exactas sobre el número de personas desplazadas internamente en Colombia no están del todo disponibles o estas provienen sólo de cifras oficiales. De hecho, hay tres fuentes utilizables de estadísticas sobre desplazamiento interno: 1) el Registro Único de Población Desplazada (RUPD) que es administrado por la Agencia Presidencial para la Acción Social y la Cooperación Internacional - Acción Social, 2) el Sistema de Información sobre Desplazamiento Forzado y Derechos Humanos (SISDHES, 1992), administrado por la Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento (CODHES, 1992); y 3) el boletín semestral de la Iglesia católica publicado por el centro de investigación sobre movilidad, Pastoral social. Las cifras arrojadas por cada una de estas organizaciones no coinciden y ha generado invisibilización del fenómeno y dificultades para generar políticas públicas que cubran el total de los afectados.

La tendencia en cuanto a las víctimas en el periodo 1985-2015 (RUV, 2015) muestran un fuerte crecimiento de las víctimas desde el año 1985 hasta 1999. Cuando el Gobierno del Presidente Ernesto Samper expidió la Ley 387 para la “prevención del desplazamiento forzado; la atención, protección, consolidación y estabilización socio-económica de los desplazados internos por la violencia”, había 683.969 personas, siete años más tarde, año 2014, el desplazamiento se había aumentado cinco veces a 3,3 millones de personas. Las cifras arrojadas por cada una de estas organizaciones no coinciden y ha generado invisibilización del fenómeno y dificultades para generar políticas públicas que cubran el total de los afectados.

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Con la llegada del Gobierno del Presidente Juan Manuel Santos (2010-2014), éste tomó la decisión de pasar al Congreso una norma de restitución, que terminó en la expedición de la ley 1448 de 2011, Ley de víctimas y restitución de tierras. Hoy, cinco años después de expedida, la población expulsada de sus hogares sigue aumentando a pesar de la ley 1448 de 2011, Ley de víctimas y restitución de tierras. Aunque la presión y la aceleración de la expulsión de personas ha disminuido notablemente, es una cifra que no deja de ser despreciable si se tiene en cuenta que la nueva ley intenta reparar a la población (Villamizar, 2015). Para el 2015, la cifra acumulada es de 8.036.477 personas (RUV, 2015).

El desplazamiento forzado se configura como un proceso de éxodo que implica muchos cambios, transformaciones e impactos. Como primera medida, significa un proceso de desterritorialización, no solo en términos geográficos sino también culturales, políticos y jurídicos. Como el desplazamiento puede ser individual o colectivo, este genera la ruptura violenta de redes familiares, lo que provoca una creciente desestructuración social irreversible y la ruptura de los referentes culturales. Este fenómeno afecta la integridad de las víctimas, y genera problemas psicológicos que deterioran las relaciones interpersonales y la salud; las pérdidas económicas generan inestabilidad emocional; los impactos colectivos y el daño a las redes sociales y comunitarias afectan la capacidad y posibilidades individuales, así como pérdida de liderazgo social y político.

El despojo y pérdidas patrimoniales producen estados de pobreza y deterioro del nivel de vida no solo en términos individuales si no también colectivos; el daño a la infraestructura física en las regiones afectadas como son las vías, escuelas y hospitales. Existen también daños ambientales causados por la voladura de oleoductos, contaminación de los ríos, tala indiscriminada, extracción de minerales y reservas invadidas. En la figura N° 3 se presentan los impactos...
generados por el desplazamiento forzado a nivel poblacional y territorial, destacando las pérdidas de los derechos de la población afectada.

Figura N° 3: Impactos Del Desplazamiento (UDEA 2008)

7. IMPACTO DE LAS POLITICAS PÚBLICAS: MODELO SEMÁNTICO

Para medir el impacto de las políticas, se comienza por hacer una representación semántica de la correspondencia entre las obligaciones por derecho internacional que tiene el Estado Colombiano a los desplazados forzados. La obligación de reparar, que se regula en todos los aspectos por el derecho internacional (alcance, naturaleza, modalidad y determinación de los beneficiarios), no puede ser modificada o incumplida por el Estado, invocando disposiciones de su derecho interno. Es por ello que, el estado colombiano está obligado a reparar a las víctimas del desplazamiento forzado. En la Figura N°4 se presenta la normatividad en materia de desplazamiento, alineada con las DIH.

Figura N°4 Normatividad en Materia de Desplazamiento Forzado

Por otra parte, en cuanto a las medidas de eficacia de las políticas, el Gobierno Nacional desde 1994 viene diseñando y desarrollando instrumentos y análisis orientados a alcanzar la eficiencia de las políticas públicas, mediante el diseño de los Indicadores de Goce Efectivo de Derechos para población desplazada. La batería de indicadores de GED está construida por derechos de la población desplazada en tres niveles: 1) indicadores de GED; 2) indicadores complementarios; y 3) indicadores sectoriales.

El Departamento Nacional de planeación (DNP) plantea hasta catorce (14) “Indicadores de Goce efectivo” de los derechos; cada uno de ellos tiene unos indicadores subsidiarios, es decir para medir aspectos específicos del indicador ya sea por grupos poblacionales, así como por características propias de cada indicador. En cuanto a los indicadores sectoriales, estos miden la eficiencia y eficacia, para evaluar la gestión de los programas sociales y humanitarios y hacen referencia a: 1) Cuántas familias se atiende, 2) Cuál es la relación entre recursos invertidos y personas atendidas, por tanto, cuál es el cubrimiento territorial y poblacional de la inversión, es decir, cuánto se ha gastado, y no cómo se ha gastado.

La “Encuesta de Goce Efectivo de Derechos” (EGED), es una investigación desarrollada por el Departamento nacional de estadística (DANE, 2015) en convenio con la Unidad para la Atención y Reparación Integral a las Víctimas (UARIV);
proporciona información que nos permite una caracterización general de la población víctima de desplazamiento forzado y el estado actual de la población con respecto al goce efectivo de sus derechos. Esta investigación se centrará en los resultados de la política sobre restitución de tierras, frente a los resultados obtenidos en los indicadores de EGED y relacionándolos con los recursos presupuestales asignados a su aplicación, con el fin de medir la eficiencia, eficacia y efectividad de la política.

En La Figura 5, se hace una representación semántica de la ontología de dominio (en Protégé,1) asociada al desplazamiento forzado bajo el contexto de la eficacia de las políticas públicas aplicadas en los últimos años, medidas en término de indicadores de goce efectivo.

CONCLUSIONES Y DESARROLLOS FUTUROS

Se logró identificar la existencia de tesauros y ontologías previas, creada por investigadores locales sobre el tema de desplazamiento forzado en Colombia, la cual permite respectivamente un rastreo bibliográfico ágil y la representación del conocimiento de una forma flexible describiendo el contenido y la estructura organizacional de los conceptos.

Se logra así, una caracterización de la problemática del desplazamiento forzado en Colombia contrastada con la de otros países de la región, a partir de una diversidad de causas, y en particular, en cuanto a modalidades y dimensiones propias de las políticas públicas.
Se presenta una versión del desarrollo histórico del conflicto político-social del país, que incide directamente sobre la problemática del desplazamiento forzado, caracterizándolo y analizando la semántica de sus consecuencias e impactos tanto en lo poblacional como en lo territorial.

Teniendo en cuenta el marco normativo a nivel internacional y nacional, se estudian los objetivos de la política pública en las fases de prevención y protección, atención humanitaria de emergencia, retorno y reparación y consolidación y estabilización. De allí que, se hace una primera representación conceptual de la correspondencia entre las obligaciones por derecho internacional y normativas de correspondencia del estado colombiano. Asimismo, se revisan y analizan los “Indicadores de Goce Efectivo” en el contexto del marco normativo y los beneficiarios de las medidas (legal, institucional, autores) que se han establecido para valorar resultados de las políticas en términos de eficiencia, efectividad y eficacia.

A futuro, se pretende centrar esta investigación en evaluar los proyectos públicos asociados a la restitución de tierras, la cual comprende aspectos relevantes de políticas públicas y articulación entre las diferentes entidades creadas por el gobierno de Colombia para el resarcimiento a las personas desplazadas por la violencia. Se pretenderá, lograr algún modelo relacional entre las políticas públicas, el presupuesto utilizado para su ejecución y el impacto obtenido, que permitan dar cuenta de los resultados de política pública en el marco de la restitución de tierras.

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Testing a Methodologic Approach to Territory Categorization Using Census Data

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Abstract

The more traditional perspective in Geography views territory as a dichotomous reality of sociodemographic and biophysical characteristics yet, literature states that both territorial dimensions coexist and interact. The number of indicators for each territorial dimension is vast which makes the territory categorization a complex task. Despite it, territory categorization generates knowledge about the differences between territories that improve the planning process and make it more directed and strategic. This work main goal is to test a methodologic approach to categorize Lisbon Municipality area at the statistical section level, integrating information on the physical and social aspects. For this purpose, multivariate and complementary statistical analysis techniques will be used: Principal Component Analysis (applied to the physical and social aspects of the territory) and Hierarchical Classification Analysis (based in the factors extracted in the Principal Component Analysis). The resulting clusters will then be mapped and its distribution will be tested for spatial autocorrelation.

Keywords: Territory; Principal Components Analysis; Hierarchical Classification Analysis; I of Moran.

Introduction

Territory can be defined as a delimited and precise space, with multiple dimensions, in which several power relations interact (Albagli, 2004; Faria and Bortolozzi, 2009). Territory results from the integration of culture in the environment (Braga, 2007), however, it is not only a social construction resulting from historical power relations, but also a natural space (Haesbaert and Limonad, 2007).

The definition of territory varies according to different sciences, which makes this concept ambiguous (Faria and Bortolozzi, 2009). From a political point of view, territory is closely related to the borders of the State/Nation as in the environmental perspective the territorial biophysical characteristics are emphasized (Faria and Bortolozzi, 2009). Once territory integrates several dimensions, namely geographical, anthropological, cultural, social, economical and bioecological (Albagli, 2004), one can state that the choice of the aspects to be highlighted depends on the research objective and the researchers own conceptualization of territory (Faria and Bortolozzi, 2009).

This study is based on a geographical interpretation of the territory as a combined space, resulting from a set of processes in which the material, physical and social aspects of human action are inseparable and interdependent (Haesbaert and Limonad, 2007).

Albagli (2004: 27) states that: "Territorial differences and inequalities lie both in their own physical and social characteristics and in the way they fit into larger structures. Each territory is thus shaped by the combination of internal and external conditions and forces and must be understood as part of a spatial totality."
This means that each territorial unit is determined by endogenous and exogenous factors and also by the way they interact: they carry intrinsic characteristics, which give each territory a peculiar structure, and in turn determines the way each territory is integrated in wider spaces conditioning the evolution of its own internal structure.

The categorization and differentiation of each territorial unit by its level of development, or living conditions, for example, is an attempt of researchers to understand and explain the differences between territories (Martín e Barros et al., 2015). In addition, analyzing how territories relate to each other, observing the spatial networks formed according to certain aspects, allows strategic and more targeted planning (Martín and Barros, 2015).

For example, studies in the public health field often use deprivation indices at the area level rather than individual information to identify areas of greater vulnerability, thus less healthy, which are priority areas in the fight against health inequalities (Allik et al., 2016; Knighton et al., 2016). These indices, also called Geographic Deprivation Indices, generally use census data and are validated in Western Europe (Knighton et al., 2016). Since deprivation is a multidimensional concept, composite indices in opposition to a single indicator better reflect the true level of deprivation at different geographic scales, as the existing evidence suggests (Lian et al., 2016).

As mentioned previously, each territory is the product of the interaction between physical and social aspects, and both dimensions of the territory are composed of a large number of indicators. The objective of this study is to classify the area of the Municipality of Lisbon, at the statistical section level, integrating information on the physical and social aspects, simultaneously, and to test the existence of spatial autocorrelation.

**Methodology**

This study was carried out in the Municipality of Lisbon, capital of Portugal, which is composed of 1054 sections. However, the analyses performed refer to 1053 sections due to lack of information for one section.

**Data collection and organization**

Data used in this study was collected at the statistical section level and was collected from the 2011 census. Sixty-one sociodemographic, economic and building variables were freely available and collected on the National Statistics Institute (INE) website. Information on land use (at level 2) was collected on the Territory General Directorate website and comprised 11 variables, dated from 2007.

Data were grouped in two large dimensions: Physical Aspects (PA) that include information on buildings and land use, and Social Aspects (SA) integrating demographic and socioeconomic information. Afterwards, the information was converted into percentage resulting in 34 indicators in the PA dimension and 24 indicators in the SA dimension.
Data Analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS (v.22) except the Moran I that was calculated in ArcGIS (v.10.4.1).

In order to reduce the number of indicators in each of the dimensions (PA and SA), the statistical method used was the Principal Components Factor Analysis (PCA). The PCA was performed with a Varimax orthogonal rotation, which facilitates the interpretation of the components by maximizing intra and intercomponent variation, thus seeking that in each component only some indicators present high loading values, appearing in the other factors with values close to zero.

PCA on PA initially resulted in 12 factors according to the Kaiser method (value of eigenvalues above 1). To reduce the number of factors, some of the original information was excluded (indicators that presented loadings between -0.49 and 0.49 in all the components initially extracted), which resulted in a new extraction of 6 factors. No indicators were excluded from the SA dimension because the results of the first analysis were more parsimonious: 5 factors. In addition to considering the loadings, the scores or coordinates resulting from the PCA were analysed and mapped.

PCA were followed and complemented by an Ascending Hierarchical Classification (AHC), commonly known as cluster analysis, performed with the 6 PA factors and the 5 SA factors. AHC was computed using the Ward method and the Euclidean quadratic distance as methods of similarities and distances between elements and between groups of elements.

Moran’s I measures the spatial autocorrelation by analysing the degree of dependence between the values of the sections estimating how much of the value of each section depends on the values of the neighbouring sections. This index varies between -1 and 1 - the closer it is to 1 the stronger the spatial autocorrelation, the closer it approaches -1, the less similar are the neighbouring areas. When the value is equal to or close to zero it means that there is no spatial autocorrelation, that is, the study areas are spatially independent. In order to calculate the statistical significance of Moran’s I, the pseudosignificance test was used.

Moran’s I was calculated using CHA results (clusters), previously calculated in SPSS and imported into ArcMap. CHA was computed choosing the contiguity of boundaries and corners as the conceptualization of spatial relations, that is, taking into account the values of all the sections that share a border, a nodule or that overlap.

Results

Principal Components Factor Analysis

Physical Aspects

Table I shows the value of the highest loadings per factor and the respective percentage of variance explained. The six resulting factors account for almost 75% of the variance in this group of indicators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor (% Explained Variance)</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (28,76%)</td>
<td>% houses with water</td>
<td>0,953</td>
<td>Housing Conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% houses with toilet</td>
<td>0,941</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% houses with sewage</td>
<td>0,937</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% houses with bath</td>
<td>0,731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>% houses with 50m2</td>
<td>0,855</td>
<td>House Dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first factor is related to housing conditions, such as the percentage of houses with water, toilet and sewage. The variables that most contribute to the second factor are the percentage of houses with 50m² followed by the houses with one or two divisions (Housing Dimension). The third factor is related to the percentage of empty houses and mainly non-residential buildings, as opposed to family houses (Non Residential). The percentage of buildings with 3 or more floors and the predominantly urban land use, as opposed to the percentage of buildings with only 1 or 2 floors are highlighted in the fourth factor (Urban Area). In the fifth factor, the indicator with the highest loading value is the percentage of buildings with plate (Construction Material), and finally in factor 6 (Agricultural Area), the percentage of land uses of temporary crops is the only indicator with a high loading value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Loading Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Housing Dimension</td>
<td>0.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Non Residential</td>
<td>0.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Urban Area</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Construction Material</td>
<td>0.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Agricultural Area</td>
<td>0.964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig 2 Spatial distribution of scores/coordinates of the factors categorized in quartiles
Figure 2 represents the spatial distribution of the scores/coordinates by statistical section, categorized in quartiles. This figure show that factors 1 (Housing Conditions), 2 (Housing Dimension) and 5 (Construction Material) do not appear to have any pattern in their distribution. Factor 3 (Non Residential) has higher values in the central sections as well as in the sections near the river. Most of the sections of the municipality of Lisbon have score values above 0 (mean value) in factor 4 (Urban Area), and the sections with larger area and more peripheral have the highest score values in factor 6 (Agricultural Areas).

**Social Aspects**

Table II shows the highest loadings per factor and the percentage of variance explained by the SA dimension. In this case, the five resulting factors account for almost 82% of the variance of this group of indicators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor (% Explained Variance)</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (35.68%)</td>
<td>% houses occupied by renters</td>
<td>0.889</td>
<td>Low Socioeconomic Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents looking for job</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% classic families with unemployed</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents who don’t read or write</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents with 6 years of schooling</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents with 4 years of schooling</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents with academic degree</td>
<td>-0.765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% classic families without unemployed</td>
<td>-0.782</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% houses occupied by owners</td>
<td>-0.867</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (26.39%)</td>
<td>% employed residents</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>Socioeconomic Stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents employed in the tertiary sector</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents between 15 and 64 years old</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents with 9 years of schooling</td>
<td>-0.456</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents 65 years old</td>
<td>-0.723</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% retired residents</td>
<td>-0.769</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (8.79%)</td>
<td>% classic families with 3 or 4 persons</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>Families with Under 15 y/o Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% nuclear families with children less than 15 years old</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents employed in the secondary sector</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% residents with 12 years of schooling</td>
<td>-0.677</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% classic families with 1 or 2 persons</td>
<td>-0.829</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (5.59%)</td>
<td>% male residents</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>Residents Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% female residents</td>
<td>-0.904</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (5.09%)</td>
<td>% residents looking for first job</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>Families With Over 15 y/o Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% nuclear families with children above 15 years old</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicators in factor 1 are associated with the labour situation, educational level and type of residence housing (Low Socioeconomic Level). The second factor highlights individuals employed in the tertiary sector, in working age residents as opposed to residents over 65 and retired (Socioeconomic Stable). In factor 3 the percentage of families with 3 or 4 persons and with children under 15 years of age have the highest positive loadings and smaller families with a high negative value.
(Families with Under 15 y/o Children). The fourth factor is related to the percentage of male and female residents (Residents Gender) and, finally, the percentage of families with children above 15 years of age in search of the first job have higher loadings in factor 5 (Families with Over 15 y/o Children).

**Fig. 3** Spatial distribution of scores/coordinates of the factors categorized in quartiles

The spatial distribution of factor 1 (Low Socioeconomic Level) shows that the sections with the highest scores are located in the centre of Lisbon and near the river. Factor 2 (Socioeconomic Stable) and 4 (Residents Gender) do not present a clear distribution pattern of the scores by section. Sections with the highest values in factor 3 (Families with Under 15 y/o Children), are located in the peripheral areas as well as in the northeast area of the municipality. Sections with scores higher in factor 5 (Families with Over 15 y/o Children) appear to be concentrated in the peripheral areas and to the north of the municipality.

**Ascending Hierarchical Classification (Clusters Analysis)**

The performed classification suggested the formation of four distinct clusters. Figure 4 and Table III synthesize information by cluster allowing a better understanding of each cluster meaning. In the graph of Figure 4, which presents the means of the factors per cluster, one can verify that each cluster represent a different conjugation of factors’ values.
Fig 4 Mean factor score per cluster

Note: The average value of factor 6 PA (Agricultural Area) is too high to be represented in this graph (13.79).

In summary, cluster 1 integrates sections that are similar in terms of the size of housing (small housing), with a low socioeconomic level and with families with under and over 15 years old individuals. Cluster 2 predominantly consists of urban sections with good housing conditions, families with over 15 years old individuals and employees in the tertiary sector. In cluster 3, sections are characterized by the small size of housing and mainly non-residential buildings. In this cluster, there are low socioeconomic level sections as well as sections with employees in the tertiary sector. Cluster 4 is uniquely related to the agricultural area, regarding land use typology.

Table III Synthetic Description of Cluster Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clusters</th>
<th>Factors with highest score mean</th>
<th>Factor description</th>
<th>Designation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Factor 2 PA</td>
<td>House Dimensions</td>
<td>Areas of Socioeconomic Vulnerability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 1 SA</td>
<td>Low Socioeconomic Level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 3 SA</td>
<td>Families with Under 15 y/o Children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 5 SA</td>
<td>Families with Over 15 y/o Children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Factor 4 PA</td>
<td>Urban Area</td>
<td>Areas of Greater Urbanity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 1 PA</td>
<td>Housing Conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 5 SA</td>
<td>Families with Over 15 y/o Children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 2 SA</td>
<td>Socioeconomic Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Factor 2 PA</td>
<td>House Dimensions</td>
<td>Essentially Non-Residential Urban Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 3 PA</td>
<td>Non Residential</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 1 SA</td>
<td>Low Socioeconomic Level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 2 SA</td>
<td>Socioeconomic Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Factor 6 PA</td>
<td>Agricultural Area</td>
<td>Agricultural Areas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cluster 1 (Areas of Socioeconomic Vulnerability) encompasses 24.79% of the population living in the study area, which underlines the precariousness conditions in which almost a quarter of the residents of this municipality live in. On the other
hand, about 48% of the statistical sections, where almost half of the population of the municipality of Lisbon live in, are Areas of Greater Urbanity (cluster 2) - with good housing conditions and jobs in the tertiary sector.

In Cluster 3 (Essentially Non-Residential Urban Areas), there is a little more than 21% of the population of the whole municipality, in about 27% of its statistical sections. And in cluster 4 (Agricultural Areas) that encompasses only 4 sections with 2226 (0.38%) individuals.

Table IV Sections and population per cluster

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>24.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>47.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>26.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5 reveals that, the spatial distribution of clusters seems to have a pattern. The value of Moran's I confirms that the distribution of clusters is spatially autocorrelated and significant once Moran's I equals 0.49 with a z-score=28.37 and p=0.000.

Fig. 5 Clusters spatial distribution

The map presented in Fig. 5 overlaps the administrative boundaries of each parish of the Municipality of Lisbon and the distribution of clusters by statistical section. In this map one can verify that there is internal homogeneity in the parishes with respect to the clusters of the sections that compose them. For example, the parishes of Misericórdia and Santa Maria Maior are almost exclusively composed by sections classified as cluster 3, Essentially Non Residential Urban Areas, that is, parishes where services and commerce predominate.
Analysing the percentage of statistical sections by cluster and parish, we verified that:

Benfica, Marvila and Beato are the parishes with the highest percentage of sections classified as Socioeconomic Vulnerability Areas (cluster 1).

Cluster 2 (Areas of Greater Urbanity) is in a higher percentage in the parishes of Avenidas Novas, São Domingos de Benfica and Alvalade.

All parishes have sections classified as Essentially Non-Residential Urban Areas (cluster 3).

Only 4 sections are classified as Agricultural Areas (cluster 4).

Conclusions

The categorization of the territory is a complex task essentially due to the multidimensionality of the concept "territory" and to the large number of territorial indicators available. However, it is essential to know the territory in depth, to understand its differences and to interpret them. Only this way one can intervene to attenuate these differences, in particular through strategic and targeted planning.

PCA is the most appropriate statistical analysis to reduce the number of indicators needed to describe territorial units, without prejudice of losing relevant information. However, the spatial representation of the factor loadings distribution by sections is difficult to read and interpret.

The application of HCA to PA and SA factors together facilitates the interpretation of the distribution of these characteristics by cluster and section after mapping.

Moran’s I proves the spatial autocorrelation of the mapping of the distribution of clusters by sections. Sections with similar PA and SA are geographically closer and spatially pooled significantly.

The grouping of sections by clusters is relatively uniform per parish and there are also parishes whose sections belong almost exclusively to a single cluster.

The methodology of factorial analysis, followed by hierarchical analysis and its mapping and spatial autocorrelation test through the Moran I, proved to be useful in the analysis of the statistical sections of the Municipality of Lisbon. The aggregation of sections by sections classification with clusters is not due to chance and the interpretation of the information of each cluster seems to be theoretically valid. However, this methodology needs replication in other territories and at different scales in order to prove its broader applicability.
References


NGO Management a Skill to Be Taught!

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to collect available information on NGOs in Albania and their requirements for educated and trained employees and volunteers with specific skills and capabilities that are in line with the investors' requirements concerning application, implementation, and reporting systems. Since 1991 with the process of democratization and under the motto "To make Albania like Europe" the first NGO started to flourish (Jorgoni, 2013) in the fresh post-communist Albania. Mainly the NGOs started their activity in Albania as branches or daughter organizations of the mother NGOs from European and USA countries. The mother NGOs shared experience and funds with but the Albanian reality and infrastructure was not prepared to digest and implement the information and knowledge offered. Albanian NGOs were the first institutions in Albania that smelled freedom and Europe. Being member of any NGO had a strong conceptual and emotional meaning as if being member of the big real world outside the cold communist epoch. The communist curtains (Churchill 1946) for 45 years destroyed private propriety and legal institutions together with the perception of the individuals for free life and the big world. Aiming shrinking of people’s mind to fit the parameters of a communist red block full of black names and fake facts; generating the New Man only if the very nature of man can be changed to conform to the requirements of the new communist order (Alt and Alt 1964). Nowadays Albanian society shares social problems (drug, human rights etc.) with Western Europe; political problems with Asian and East Europe; and environmental problems with Central Europe and rest of the world.

Keywords: Non-Profit Organization, third sector, social marketing, voluntary behavior, CSO (civil social sector),

Introduction

"If I had known I was going to live this long, I would have taken better care of my health" (Forbes 1979).

If the Albanian society would have known the real importance and the role and impact of NGOs in its life they would have been much more careful since the moment a NGO is created and registered.

A Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) is a citizen-based association that operates independently of government, usually to deliver resources or serve some social or political purpose. (WhatIs.com 2016)

The World Bank classifies NGOs as either operational NGOs, which are primarily concerned with development projects, or advocacy NGOs, which are primarily concerned with promoting a cause.

1991 – 1997 period is considered as a difficult transition in which the economic, politic and social life of Albania started to take shape according every western pattern available. During this period representation of NGOs are working in the main sectors of activity: democracy, Women, Social service/health, Business and environment” (Partners Albania NGO Assessment Report, 2002). During this first economical-social-political transition period, “chaos” is the brand name of everything and also NGOs although being supported by international institutions couldn’t escape the reality. The first NGOs of the period 1991-1996 were some of the first to penetrate communities, facilitating discussion on taboo issues such as reproductive health, family planning, abortion and sex education as well as offering family planning service (Xhillari, et al. 2013).
1997-2002 period is the second period of political-economical-social chaos increased somehow the number, funds and the variety of social issues covered by Albanian NGOs. (PA 2002). After 1997 the issue of trafficking everything illegally from drugs to women and children out of Albania increased the number of NGOs in human rights area.

2002-2013 is the third transition period for NGOs when NGOs consolidated their capacity and influenced more in the Albania society. (PA 2002)

Although the NGOs activity started since 1991, the 15 years of experience still face great problems:

Lack of management capabilities in the major number of NGOs, specially local ones
Lack of measurable performance
Lack of reporting systems and auditing competencies
Lack of responsibility to conclude what is started and is paid for.

All these reported problems come out of one big issue, lack of proper education and training for NGOs management.

NGOs Role in a Society

According Misra, Rajeeb (2008) were identified three major roles for voluntary organizations in a democracy:

a) Political role – In this capacity, NGOs are mechanisms through which people voice their concerns and make demands on the government for socio-political reforms.

b) Educational role – NGOs provide training to develop the skills of their members and to educate the public, especially the depressed sections of society, on their rights.

c) Watchdog role – NGOs serve to watch the government in its use of power and promote accountability to the public.

d) Socio – economic booster role – The support of the NGO can start with the identification of the need, its presence through the entire process until the very important step of the revision and auditing.

Methods and Methodology

The secondary data is collected from articles on NGOs; reports of international organism that observe the NGOs performance and impact in Albania; INSTAT Albania on the availability and the share and importance of NGOs in the economy, employability and funds; HEIs curricula and academic programs.

Results

“There are about 500 to 600 local NGOs registered, about half of these are fully engaged in on-going activities” USAID Country Index (1999)

TASCO Albania Office (2011) reports that there are 2231 registered associations, 311 foundations, 522 centers in Albania. Only 450 NGOs or CSO are active all over Albania.

NGO number is increased in years. Tirana Court of First Instance, registers CSOs and maintains the CSO register, there were 6,855 CSOs in Albania at the end of 2014 (USAID 2014).

According Vimala Parthasarathy (2012), “The growth of the NGO sector consisting of non-government organizations engaged in social welfare and development activities has been accelerated in recent years by several factors: 1) increase in fund availability for social causes, 2) positive public perception of the capacity of the voluntary sector to address social concerns and increasing awareness of the limitations of state and public agencies to reach out effectively to sections of society needing transformation.”

Ngo typical structure

In a typical NGO structure, (see Fig 1) one realizes the complexity and its clear separated functions. Simple structure of NGOs leads to the obvious lack of necessary elements, usually the General Director or the Leader who is the one to obtain
the funds (project planning and application) but not necessarily able to manage the processes of organization, managing the unplanned situations, and reallocation of funds as consequence.

Fig. 1. Organizational structure of a typical NGO after Hari Srinivas (2015)

**Legal framework for NGOs in Albania**

The legal framework regarding the NGOs in Albania is regulated by:

Albanian Constitution 1991

Civic code of Republic of Albania

Law 8750 date 29.07.1994

Amended by Law 8791 date 03.05.2001

Law 8788 date 07.05.2001 “On non-profit organizations”

Law 8789 date 07.05.2001 “On non-for profit organizations registration”

Law 8781 date 03.05.2001 “On some amendments and changes in Law 8750 date 29.07.1994 Civic Code of Republic of Albania”

**Tax exemption**

The main authority responsible for registering the nonprofit organizations is the Tirana District Court. The nonprofit organizations have various exemptions on their taxes:

the revenue realized by donations or membership dues are not taxed,

the income tax is not applicable on donations, and
various customs obligations have granted relieves and exemptions. Supported by and according Albanian Customs Code (1999), the Article 199 “Relief from Customs Duty” point k, “goods for charitable, philanthropic, or assistance purposes for charitable organizations, religious institutions, public entities, as well as budget funded state entities; amended by art. 17 of law no. 8473 dated 14.4.1999,

Top 6 findings from the report of Partners Albania (2013):

No.1. Financial reporting and accounting rules are not effective and appropriate for CSOs. (PA 2013)

No. 2. There is confusion in the legal framework regarding the exemption of the grants from tax, leading to different interpretation in practice. (PA 2013)

No. 3. The Public Benefit Status is regulated through a decision of Council of Ministers and does include a limited number of working areas of CSOs (NGO). (PA 2013)

No. 4. Public funding is available only for the past three years through state agency Civil Society Support Agency. It does not support institutional development and co-financing of EU projects. (PA 2013)

No. 5. There are no national strategic documents dealing with the state and CSO (NGO) relationship associated with lack of adequate structures and mechanisms with a mandate to facilitate cooperation between the state and CSO. (PA 2013)

No. 6. In practice CSOs are not able to obtain contracts in competition with other service providers due to lack of clear rules and procedures and lack of capacities from the government institutions on contracting out CSOs. (PA 2013)

Need for training is observed in Albanian NGOs and reported by UNDP Albania “Capacity needs and training assessment of Roma/Egyptian NGOs, (March 2013)”. The report describes in general the situation of the NGOs in Albania and specifically the situation of minority communities like Roma and Egyptian. The Roma/Egyptian NGOs are not necessarily managed and operated by respective minority members, therefore the lack of training/education is not an issue related to these specific institutions but as a part of the today’s reality.

“Civil society in Albania is reportedly weak, mainly concentrated in urban areas and dependent on external funding” (Jorgoni 2013). The improvements are slow and deficiencies are still high regarding the specifics of the NGOs even after 22 years of experience in this field. “Most NGOs characterize EU application procedures as highly complex, and feel that in general, they are not prepared to comply with EU requirements related to project management and reporting” (Jorgoni 2013).

“The third sector should increase its capacity for advocacy and public relations, networking and development of partnership with the Government and the private sector. Financial and management capacities also need to be strengthened to ensure the future sustainability of the third sector” (Xhillari, et. al. 2013).

NGOs Human Resources

It is a fact that NGO Management faculties do not exist in any of the Albanian universities (public or private) MAS (2016), but as long as the third sector is consolidated as a market it needs its own capital.

Sustainability

USAID report (2014) says: “CSO sustainability in Albania improved in 2014, with advances in organizational capacity, advocacy, and infrastructure. CSOs have increased their internal organizational capacities, constituency building mechanisms, and advocacy efforts, and the government increasingly recognizes the contribution of CSOs in major national reforms and policy-making processes. The legal environment, financial viability, service provision, and public image, on the other hand, have stagnated.”

NGOs Statistical Data

According the Agency for the Support of Civil Society (2015) registered NGOs in Albania are concentrated to the most populated regions. If you rank them the highest number is exercising their activity in Tirana 313 or 69%, the second comes Korca with 27 or 6% and then Shkodra 5% and Vlora 4%. The rest of the regions have a very small part of the NGOs funds.
Referring the fig 2, regarding the legal form of Enterprises (INSTAT 2014), among the registered enterprises the NGOs share only 2% of the entrepreneurship activity in Albania.

![ACTIVE ENTERPRISES BY LEGAL FORM 2014](image)

Fig. 2. Registered businesses in Albania 2014 (INSTAT Albania)

Registered trend of NGOs during the period 1991 – 2008 shows that most of them is registered since the beginning of the democratization process but the real boom appears to be after the period of the 1997 crisis about 49%, (PA 2007).

According Peter Frumkin (2005), the voluntary sector or community sector is the duty of social activity undertaken by organizations that are not for-profit and non-governmental, this sector is also called the third sector, in contrast to the public sector and the private sector. The strong impact of the third factor is to neutralize and diminish the outcome that generates the other two factors government and business. The awareness raising and gaining people is the key of success and the existentialist meaning of any NGO.

Election and policy watchdogs NGOs will continue to exercise their activity “to increase its capacity or advocacy and public relations, networking and development of partnership with government and private sector” (Xhillari, et. al. 2013)

**Training Availability for NGOs Staff Members in Albania.**

Xhillari et. al (2013) found that 1) Lack of NGO training and low volunteering rates have been identified as a key problem, and 2) There is frequently poor NGO knowledge of EU systems, they require a focused attention to the NGOs, establishment and operation.

The institution of Partners Albania offers NGOs training programs in the fields of: Cross Sector Training (PA 2015)

**Development of Training Capacities**

- Youth Leadership
- Women Empowerment
- Cross Sector Training
- Private Sector Training
- Local Government Training

**Training Topics for NPOs (non-profit)**

Most of the Albanian NGOs miss the HRM development plans because of their high dependence on funding donors, the projects turnover and the size of the respective NGO. This makes the staff of the third sector very mobile.
Promoting NGOs / Social Marketing

It's a thousand times harder to do social marketing than to do package goods marketing, (Novelli 1979)

Discussion

As long as the third sector works mainly with the international funds and the most important part of them are daughters or branches of international NGOs, the understanding and then the application and implementation of the respective legislation, rules and regulations should be conform the investors or mother NGOs platforms. Specially the application and reporting forms.

Albania by means of being a candidate member of EU, and aspiring to be part of it within the next 10 years, leads to the exigency to capture the EU’s education requirements. It is necessary that the process of finding the parallel lanes starts now because in the due moment of integration it will be very disappointing for the graduated generation.

It is the moment to fight for the stability of the NGOs staff. This should be an ongoing task of the NGOs, of the advisory institutions, of the auditory organisms of government and also a specific task of the educational institutions to prepare and offer curricula that fulfill the NGOs requirements.

Referring to the same intention of the above-mentioned reports on the situation of the NGOs in Albania, is necessary the preparation of a curricula specifically adapted for NGO management within a business administration faculty arranged according the European models and Bologna Card education standards.

The Albanian education system is still oriented theoretically and has a gap in the practical integration, that inhibits the quality performance achievement of NGO projects and thus the lifespan of the organization as such.

There is still a long way to improve the exemption of the NGOs activity from the customs taxes and duties.

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Free time for seniors as an activating action

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Abstract

Modern civilization is primarily a fast pace of life, a number of changes in human life, the need to face many tasks and Obligations. Free time in contemporary European democratic societies is one of More important non-economic indicators describing the quality of life of citizens (Flora, Noll 1999). Intense activity leads to fatigue, fatigue and sometimes discouragement. This to effectively and perform their duties properly and meet the everyday demands, the end is planning zne leisure, entertainment, or leisure time. The sphere of free time fulfills important roles in human life, translated into the quality of the individual and of age Society. This applies to all ages, especially seniors who ruined s are a special category, both adrestatów and Recipients of free time. The demographic processes that we can currently observe in Europe, a Also in many countries around the world, they lead to an increase in number and the proportion of older people in społeczeństw knows. Seniors represent a diverse social group in terms of cultural features, social status, health problems, economic Social. Aging in roses NYM rate, thus roses AD are their needs and forms of activity and lifestyles, Tore correlate with k Date of free time. The aim of this article is an attempt to present the seniors free time, its functions, types and forms in the context of the activities undertaken by them aktywnoś you.

Keywords: free time, old age, senior, activity, activation

Introduction

Old age and activity

Old age is a natural phenomenon, which is a very individual process. The limits of old age are very fluid and the process of aging goes through stages. Aging is continuous and irreversible. The elderly are not only from biological or physiological, but also stand out against the background of society different visible features, behavior, etc. The aging as a natural process of development, is one of the stages of life of a man who can neither be withdrawn nor reversible, what more is the period of the tell everyone wants to live. Aging is of great importance in the individual, social, family and ekonomicznym. Starość as the last step in ns until recently was post rzegany gro wnie as the period p rowadzący degradation of health perception of somatic complaints, failure, progressive dependency on environment, isolation, and lack of acceptance alone Kindness. However, over the past years there has been a significant improvement in the social perception of old age, which may be a period of development and The implementation of new tasks, adapted to the capabilities and seni needs ora, where attention is paid to processes and passiveness Unit activity. Most importantly, from childhood to shape the habits of active life, active ways of spending free time, which will promote the process of active aging (Perek-Białas, Worek 2005).

Nowdays, old age is perceived as culturally shaped and stage of life aging as a natural process of life (Hamilton, 2006). Such change has been made both by the social activity of the elderly themselves and by the way A series of activities for seniors promoting successful, active old age. The increasing social activity of older people and the high demands placed on them, The fact that old age has its rights and eliminates ograniczenia. Seniorzy increasingly feeling the power to direct their own development, the p slaughter taking all sorts of initiatives charac activating sculpture.

Helena Radlińska already in I In the twentieth century, she wrote that old age is a modified profession, including education Work on yourself: In professions that require education and training Work on yourself-old age is delayed ”(Radlińska 1947). Polish Seniors. They are increasingly involved in social life, they care about the longest possible preservation of
intellectual and physical skills, by participating in various forms of social activation. According to Aleksander Kamiński, author of the quote ,, add life to years and not years to life ", promoter of the theory of activity and education to old age, the key to a positive and satisfactory aging is to support seniors in expanding their interests, aspirations, skills and eliminating erroneous habits. The foundation of a healthy retirement is to accept their aging And try to organize yourself a satisfying, active life again.

In consideration of old age and aging, regardless of the scientific discipline and cultural factors, the category is commonly analyzed human activity. Usually Defined is she as Innate trend down actions, way Communicating with other people and the surrounding world. Theories of adaptation to old age assume it is a period that allows seniors to maintain the present, and even deepening activity in family, social and work sometimes, and improving the quality of life associated with his sense of feel iem (Steuden, 2010).

Although old age is a process that of Natural causes can not be stopped, its effects, especially the negative ones, can be reduced or slowed down their pace. All activities, especially taken with Their own will, they can provide a lot of joy, enrich health, improve the well-being and make people more confident. It is precisely by the activity of the old man can strengthen the meaning of life, strengthen satisfaction, and also change the quality of life.

Very often old age is associated with worsening health conditions, it can not always mean lack of life satisfaction. This means that positive aging is not just a "privilege" for healthy people. This attitude requires a certain discipline, and draws attention to the fact that the permanent grow together does not have to be sad. It mainly refers to Getting the right distance to own and to live (Hill 2009). Any type of activity that an elderly person enters is called in konkretnjej to meet the needs or interests of implementation. It is important to fix it and continuous stimulation for activity to keep the desire for action. Senior citizens aware of the beneficial effects of their activity are more likely to work on themselves, as long as possible to maintain good physical condition and psychical. Many people realize that the longer they work on themselves, the later they will begin to feel the effects of old age. At the moment of cessation of these activities the individual notes that he is on the threshold of authentic, declining old age (Kamiński 1986).

One of the most commonly known methods of positive passage in Age is an activity. The human organism of nature is designed for activity. Its refusal may result in faster infirmity. A man leading active lifestyle signs of aging will feel later than his passive peers. Activity is a way of life positive. It affects communication with the public and the world.

**The forms of activity are divided into three groups:**

- Formal appearing in participation and work for social associations, local community, volunteer activities, involvement in Politics, etc.

- Informal, frequent contact with Family, friends, friends, neighbors, etc.

- Loneliness - activity manifested by developing your own interests, giving up hobbies, passion, watching television, reading, solving crossword puzzles,

In addition to seniority are influenced by various factors that can decide on making activity retired or its omission (Szatur- Jaworska, Błędowski, Dziegielewska 2006):

- Education - people with Higher education is more aware of the positive relation of activity to life, therefore they more often take it;

- Family environment - the family, its origin and intergenerational relations have a large impact on activity;

- Condition and health - this condition is very important because better health and psychophysical efficiency facilitate activity;

- Material conditions - depending on what kind of activity a senior can afford for financial reasons, eg travels, sanatorium, participation in Cultural events;

- Sex - women far outnumber retirees so they are more likely to be active;

- Place of residence (city, village) - offer addressed to seniors living in rural areas is definitely poorer;

- Influence of cultural institutions - if in There is a cultural institution in your area, which also directs your offer to seniors, then this age group is more likely to be interested in activity.
It is important to attach great importance to the preservation of active lifestyle, by continuing those forms of activity that have so far given so much satisfaction, and there was no time for such things as gardening, traveling, learning foreign languages. If this is not possible, focus on developing other new interests. Senior activity fulfills many important functions including:

- Adaptive - serves better adaptation to the new, ever-changing conditions of both the family and the situation Social;
- Integrative - helps in adapting to a group of people in similar age;
- Compensation - allows to compensate for deficiencies in areas such as lack of professional work, etc.;
- Educating - leads to the development of acquired or acquired new dispositions;
- Entertainment - recreation - by filling free time, neutralizes stress and returns the desire to live;
- psychohigieniczną - keeping activity improves quality of life and increases the level of satisfaction;

This, in How can a person experience his or her old age? Individual personality conditioning but also with adopted in a family lifestyle, cultivating the tradition. Active aging can be characterized by preference for their chosen lifestyles, such as (Czerniawska 2000):

Completely passive style - characterized by staying in home and limitation of family contacts and social to a minimum. This type of behavior may result in illness or disability, where the barrier is the difficulty in movement, but also other matter is the mental barrier, where the older man reluctant to use any form of activity, withdraws from social life and it closes in myself;

Family style - people who make this style feel fulfilled by playing the role of grandmother or grandfather helping children to raise grandchildren. This form of activity occupies the entire free space for the elders so that they no longer have time for another form of activity;

Style resulting from possession of a parcel garden - people who have a parcel garden especially retired spend all their spare time nursing and plant the plants which brings them full satisfaction. They can this way of making new social contacts eg from members of the family garden gardeners and neighbors;

Style based on activity in social association - this is a style implemented especially by older people who enjoy good health and are socially active and socially. Such persons are active in various societies, associations, circles of interests, trade unions, political parties and operate in volunteering. These people are rewarded for their work for others, for their help and for their social life;

Domocentric style - this is a style with borderline family and completely passive. These people are accomplished by practicing their hobby (crossbreeding, flower breeding, etc.) but without going out home. They use the mass media and engage in help the family;

Pious style - it is performed by religious people who use it excess leisure time is focused on more active participation in church life and numerous church movements

A different distribution of active aging due to the interest has G. Orzechowska (Orzechowska 1999), who distinguishes the following forms:

Home-based activity related to running a family home and the functioning of the immediate family

Cultural activity, which is predominantly manifested in the urban lifestyle: reading the press, watching television, participating in socio-cultural institutions

Occupational activity that satisfies the need for recognition, improves well-being, improves self-esteem

Social activity means voluntary action for a specific group or local environment, eg: increasingly popular volunteering among seniors
educational activity, which allows the extension of memory performance, mind, experience new information technologies and learning opportunities tailored to the interests of each senior eg :: Am squint to participate in UTA

Religious activity, which, with age, becomes significant

recreational activity, which sometimes is a substitute for a recent work, otherwise allows for communing with nature and requires a greater effort from fizyczneg

Increased activity contributes to improving a person's well-being, improving self-esteem, lowering anxiety, helping in acceptance of the last phase of life, a It also leads to increased frequency and Intensity of interpersonal contacts. Wide range of activities in every phase of development involves developing personality, increasing self-confidence, broadening the horizons of thought. These elements have an impact on building a positive self image, and in Consequences of better coping with any problems that arise in the life. Active person in crisis situation does not close in He himself, takes a stand ready to act into develop such an attitude play an important role such factors jak: personality type, health status, family situation, material, education, access to cultural institutions.

Functions, types and forms of "free time"

The term "free time" has appeared and disseminated relatively late, It was not until 1957 that it was recognized by the UNESCO International Commission (Matyjas 2003). There are currently many free time definitions. They accentuate its various aspects - sociological, psychological, pedagogical and physiological-health. It seems that one of the more comprehensive definition presents M.Kwilecka, where free time is: ,, sphere ... free, unhampered human activity, time spent on various activities providing leisure, entertainment, broadening knowledge and interests held, the development of creative abilities, and so A time when the feelings of coercion are minimal, the time of activity chosen according to our own reason, reason and willingness. Such free time is the sphere of human existence, where there are no direct obligations and normative constraints, ie autonomous time, discretionary, freely used by man according to his own tastes and possibilities, that is, time totally dependent on the individual, regardless of his Use The free time is related to shaping and improving life both in its social as well as individual form " (Kwilecka 2006).Human time in most cases is roughly divided equally in sleep, rest and work, and this rhythm is strongly linked to gender, age, and social position (Ciskszentmihalyi1997). What man remains in the day, after fulfilling all obligations connected with creative and productive activity and being free time. Today it is filled with three types of behavior:

- use of public communication
- lead the conversation
- course with a variety of activities ranging from hobbies, sports, to cinema, theater or restaurants (Ciskszentmihalyi1997). Such a division is convergent wyróżnianymi by researchers culture systems and refers to social life in the collective wości of local or broader (K loskowska 19720.

With discussed k Westie activity linked to the cap of the free time of the elderly. However, as Brunon Synak observes, the free time of old people is a difficult category to identify, because it is not easy to point out what their daily routine is to be voluntary and what is compulsory (Synak, 1982). Therefore, some scholars take the concept further, or the time półwolny seniors, that is, one: ,, which is designed for operations to duty, which is performed with the feeling that they should be performed, and at the same time combined with the awareness of voluntary and pleasure to perform actions' ( Zaorska 1987).

Undoubtedly, free time is the only sphere in a man's life in which he can freely and freely develop without the compulsion of any institution of social life. The lack of sense of duty, the freedom of choice, and his or her consciousness are the basis for determining which behaviors are free and which are not. Their choice is conditioned by the specific characteristics of man and his current situation. To participate fully in free time, a certain level of education (usually medium) and material status is required. The latter is important in that, in the absence of satisfying the needs, even understood only subjectively, free time is sold on the secondary labor market. Certain behavior in their free time are strongly correlated with the basic socio-demographic characteristics (sex, age, social position) participants of social life. Free time fully to man important functions, which, in principle, in equal measure must exist in the life of the individual. In doing so can lead to disturbances in the functioning of a man not only as a member of the community, but also as a biological organism. C performs the following curtains free functions (Wnuk-Lipinski 1972):
- an educational function involving the expansion of their skills and knowledge. Through personal development is met the need to explore the world and to develop own skills

- switches the function will raise implemented by learning how to behave in a given situation, the assimilation of social norms and values

- integration function, which is connected with the strengthening of family ties, friends. The implementation of this function involves performing joint activities in a free time

- recreational function consisting in rest, both in the physical and mental dimensions of the individual

- a cultural function realized by the creation of cultural values

Compensation-function, which satisfies the needs of selected, including those mental spending leisure time and resting in a fun way is essential in every individual's life. The most obvious function of free time is rest, which can be active, doing something that brings peace and unloading of tension and passivity, which does not require physical involvement, for example: crocheting.

Forms of entertainment, which in youth were joyful, with age may already be unreachable, for example: sports. But an excess of free time, a feature that most seniors, allows for other reasonable and satisfactory development, eg. volunteering, travel, childminding, pilgrimage, prayer.

Increasingly popular form of seniority is participation in universities of the Third Age, Senior Clubs or volunteering. As noted Czerniawska: „aim of the Third Age University is not only improving the lives of the participants, but also a change for the better conditions of life of the elderly living in the community and in the world “ (Czerniawska 2000). The overall aim is functioning UTA quality of life of older people. G hunted objective is to stimulate seniors conducted in the form of lectures, seminars, discussions, foreign languages language courses, sightseeing trips and recreation and rehabilitation (Steuden 2012).

Manlomd is not only a social being but also an active being by nature. This activity expresses needs, not only the basic biological but also Those second order, showing Come on between Others through The need Affiliation, Recognition, Cognitive, Prestige, respect, aesthetic experience or science. In the process of education, realized among other things through participation in the UTW, seniors have the opportunity to realize their own interests, to broaden their knowledge, to shape their personality and creativity, to develop their ability to work in Team, and also Skilful management sometimes free.

Next form of seniors activation is functioning and activity Clubs Senior. The main function of such activities tytucji ins for older people is to organize free time. Programs used in such institutions may be the reason used in other markings on a similar profile. In addition to spending leisure time, the purpose of this institution is to meet the needs of a higher order by fostering numerous social contacts, which promotes social bonding, prevents loneliness, boredom and emptiness. Club members have the opportunity to help each other, seek specialist advice. We could talk about fulfilling certain Features: Compensatory through Replenishment Contacts Social, Integrative that Community, psychotherapeutic, preventing aging and adaptation stress by adjusting to changes in living conditions (Lesczyńska-Rejchert 2010). Among the forms of social, cultural and physical activity are conducted various educational profiles, interest groups, hobbies, readings, lectures. Meetings with interesting people are organized, readers are encouraged and encouraged to amateur artistic activities. Popular is the common viewing of television that ends in a discussion. Various shows, social games, concert halls, cinemas, theaters are offered. Very popular dance evenings, trips, pilgrimages, and occasional meetings. Members associated in the Club not only actively participate in the proposed forms of activity but also have an impact on determining the curriculum and activities of the Club (Szatur-Jaworska, Bładowski, Dziegielew ska 2006).

Research conducted by the Center for Social Opinion Research in 2012 in the Ogonopolska trial shows that 65% of the respondents have as much free time as they need. 21% thought they had too much free time, and 14% have not enough (Omyłka-Rudzka 2012). Research on older people clearly indicates that seniority leisure is closely linked to Age and Generally, however, the area of interest of seniors is quite narrow. Rarely is the use of Engage in social or political activity. This is confirmed by the SHARE study, conducted by the Institute for Educational Research, with which shows that the current level of total mości in the last 12 months showed 22% of respondents, about 30% of the indicated activity as reading books and Newspapers, secondly, is participation in religious practices. Relatives spend a lot of time watching television
(40%), including newspapers. In addition study shows that activity in all analyzed areas decreases with age, except for great religious ktyki (Holzer-Żelażewska, M aliszewska, Paczyński 2014). The presented test results are consistent with research of the European Commission, which in the age group 55+ are the most popular form of activity actions in religious organization, church, charity or dealing with social (Bojanowska 2016).

Summary

Into a free time definition we could implement a whole range of human needs: aesthetic, cognitive, emocjonalnych, twórczych.Niebagateline importance in the spending it also has a social aspect, the Community, because it satisfies the need for affiliation, or belonging to different social groups, and the need for acceptance ws pressure. Basic, which need universal, common to all human beings, affect the development of both individual physical, intellectual, emotional, and social and spiritual. As time goes by, human needs change as well as the power and capacity to meet them.

Nowdays demographic trends indicate that we will be increasingly aging population, the all the circumstances relating to the changes in in daily life. It becomes necessary to undertake a wide range of activities aimed at changing the image of the elderly and and old age phenomena. Increase in the number of older people regardless of their age and social, economic an political potencial people age should cause to seek ways of rengthening and activating (empowerment) of the game ups abrogated thus depend on nannies from social assistance through the wider activation of older people in environment, mainly in the local perspective.

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Classes for gifted children as a development factor of self-awareness in primary school

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Abstract

The article dwells on the issue of self-awareness development in primary schools. The paper offers theoretical and empirical researches of the issue. The empirical research is based on Newtten’s method of “unfinished ideas” (modified by A.B. Orlov); Newtten’s the scale of temporary settings; self-appreciation method “Tree” or “Find yourself” (modified by L.P. Ponomarenko); content-analysis of the composition “I am a human being”. In conclusion the article provides pedagogical recommendations to a constructive development of self-awareness of pupils. The article was written with the support of Russian Humanitarian Scientific Foundation, project 15-06-10726 (а).

Keywords: self-awareness, giftedness, self-appreciation, personal attitude, psychology of primary pupils.

Introduction

Self-awareness is a psychological form of personality that is a number of relations and ideas about itself, its role and position in the world, appreciation of its activities. Self-awareness lies in the basis of organization and regulation of a person’s life. There are a lot of researches particularly by I.S. Kont, V.V. Stolin, I.I. Cheshokova, K. Horney, E.E. Erickson, V.A. Yadov, etc. devoted to the analysis peculiarities of self-awareness.

System-forming and integrative core of individuality and self-awareness is self-appreciation of personality, which mostly makes life positions of a person, the level of his/her demands. The origins of the ability to appreciate yourself are set in the early childhood, whereas the development and improvement of individuality and self-awareness continues during the whole life of a person.

Psychologists consider such factors as a communication with the surrounding and the very activities of a child as the main conditions of development of and self-awareness. Forms, kinds and criteria of appreciation are used during the communication, whereas their testing and fulfilling of personal sense take place in the individual experience. The child chooses criteria and methods of appreciating another person, he/she copies those methods from other people, from the way others appreciate him/her. The formation of an adequate self-appreciation as one of the individual peculiarities of a person is closely connected to the issues of treating, teaching and development (I.M. Kon, A.I. Lipkina, V.S. Mouhina, L.F. Obuhova, R.V. Ovcharova, D.B. Elkonin).

The concept of self-appreciation

Self-appreciation - the most important personal instance - greatly affects all spheres of a person’s life activity. It is a kind of regulator that contributes to self-development. The level of demands, energy of a person his/her relations with other people depend on the peculiarities of self-appreciation [11].

According to the official statistic data, by the time children begin to study at school 30 % of them already have social adaptation issues. Most of those children do not determine the idea of themselves as valuable [10].
A child of 7-10 years old spends most of his/her time in school, thus, studying becomes his/her main activity. In this case, the most powerful factor that can affect child's self-appreciation is the appreciation of a teacher. A child who takes teacher’s point of view into the consideration, assess him/herself and the other classmates as “excellent” and “unsatisfactory”, in other words, divides them into “good” or “bad” pupils [3; 4; 5; 6; 7; 8].

There is a number of theoretical and empirical researches on relationship between success in the main activity (for junior pupils – in studying) and peculiarities of the attitude to the world. The conception of J. Newtten proves the importance of such side of attitude to the world as the temporary transspective of life. Newtten offers facts of the relationship between lifestyle conditions and the perspective of the future [5; 6; 10; 7].

M.R. Ginsburg relates an attitude to somebody’s life periods to the factors of self-definition, which may be harmonic or may demand pedagogical or even psychotherapeutic correction [1].

Unofficial practice of differential teaching can be found in many educational establishments. It is based on the practical records of a child who enters the school or during the first years of studying. Mary-Catherine McClain and Steven Pfeiffer after conducting a national survey have reported about significant changes in the definitions and categories of giftedness over the past decade, and the variability of identification methods of giftedness [7]. They claim that nowadays there is not any country that supports only one model of definition of childhood giftedness; that is because administrators think that the whole rocess is mostly random. Another scholar, Nada Puric, comes to the conclusion that 50% of success at school can be explained by intellectual factors. The rest of academic success depend on personal characteristics, motivation, social and material status, cultural and educational status of the family [13]. The question is in what way it affects the children when they are being differentiated as “gifted”, “normal” and “weak”?

Hypothesis

While planning the empirical research, we supposed that children who study in the classes for the “gifted” have a higher level of self-appreciation, they want to become leaders and they understand the world as something valuable and they wish to be a part of it for a long time (have a long time transspective). The pupils from other classes think of themselves less positively, the ideas of the world and their place in it are simpler and less valuable, their time transspective is shorter.

Method

The research was based on the following methods: J. Newtten’s “unfinished ideas” (modified by A.B. Orlov); Newtten’s the scale of temporary settings; self-appreciation method “Tree” or “Find yourself” (modified by L.P. Ponomarenko); content-analysis of the composition “I am a human being” [2].

Course of the experiment

The survey was held in one of the authoritative grammar schools in Samara (Russia) during the second term of the academic year. 40 third-grade pupils took part in it. All classes were divided into two groups. 17 pupils were put in “the most successful” group (experimental group) and the rest 27 pupils joined the testing group.

Results

The analysis of the results showed that each group had different aspects of self-awareness. Children from the experimental group are interested in goals that are connected with leadership, relaxation and entertainment (70% of pupils). Pupils from the testing group are more concentrated on overcoming difficulties (74.1 %).

The most popular features of attitude to themselves of junior pupils of the perspective group are the positions aimed to leadership, rest and entertainment (70 and 71.4% of questioned pupils correspondingly; the “Tree” method). As for the pupils in the testing group the most, the most characteristic settings are ones that aimed to overcome difficulties and to reach a goal (74.1 and 54.1 % of questioned pupils of the testing and experimental groups correspondingly).

Discussion

The groups are different because of the different number of pupils who defined their state as “comfortable”, “normal/adaptive”. In the class formed by the idea of “all the rest” there are half of such pupils (48.1 %) in experimental group – only every fifth (21.4 %).
One of the tasks for the third grade pupils was to define a figure on the picture they did not like. The results cleared up the differences between the groups towards the denied aspects of self-attitude. In the class of low social status the dominative displeasure of negative emotional state – mainly “crisis state” (33.3 %) is marked, “tiredness, general weariness, little store of force, shyness” (33%). 22.2 % of pupils defined “higher self-appreciation with the setting to leadership” as negative.

In psychology (for example, in psychoanalysis) rejected emotions are explained like pushing some modern tendencies out. Thus, in the testing group it is possible to predict hypothetically the development of negative tendencies of self-attitude, and in the experimental group – growing contradictions between the setting to leadership and aiming to entertainments and wishes to find an easy way to success.

We have analysed correspondence of projective self-appreciation of students (figure “I”) and ideal appreciation (figures that are liked). In the prestige class the real image “I” coincides with the ideal one much more often (71 % of questioned pupils of the experimental group and 41 % in the testing group). In that age a high self-appreciation is typical. That is why it is possible to say about a worrying tendency in a testing group, where more than a half of students demonstrate rejection of themselves and their social status.

Attitude to themselves is clearly shown in the composition “I am a human being”. In the group of “gifted pupils” 61 % of children identify themselves as representatives of human society. That shows positive dynamics of their personal development. In the other group one third of the questioned pupils do not relate themselves to human society and write about their individual characteristics. In the experimental group there are only 8 % of such students.

Attitude to themselves is also shown in the characteristics and categories that pupils use to describe themselves. L.V. Vygodsky after analyzing a lot of children’s came to the conclusion that the more words and categories they use, the more they orient in the topic. In the experimental group children used from 8 to 69 words, in the testing group - from 5 to 43.

Attitude to studying activity, the learning process, school, teachers and classmates is reflected in the results of two diagnostic procedures: Newtten’s “Unfinished ideas” and the composition “I am a human being”.

In the composition the theme on teaching and cognitive interests is not given, that is why the presence of studying categories in the text accurately shows the factor of significance and importance of the topic for the author. In the experimental group 92 % of the pupils were interested in studying and cognition. In the testing group 56 % of pupils have the same interests.

The middle number of the used categories, showing cognitive interest in experimental and testing groups was revealed: 3.8 and 1.5 categories correspondingly. In the group for the gifted the part of studying-cognitive category among all categorical units is 17 %. At the same time, in the testing group this part is only 6 % (differences are important at the level of importance of p = 0.001).

For revealing some attitudes to the world in the compositions of third-graded pupils the parts of the usage of category «Social World» were calculated. To this group of categories the following aspects were related like people, friends, parents, world (mankind), social roles.

In the experimental group 46,2 % of asked pupils relate to the categories of social world in their compositions that shows the importance of different sides of the world for the author. The part of this category relating to the whole volume of the texts is 13,2 %. In the testing group «world» is shown less picturesquely. In this group 29,6 % of pupils used categories of outer world (differences are little), the part of categories to the whole volume of compositions – 6,5 % (differences are little at the level of significance of p = 0,001). According to A.Adler, social interest is the necessary condition of psychological health.

Descending of social interest may be caused by psychological tension, stress.

The scale of temporary settings of J. Newtten let reveal that in the group for talented pupils appreciations of criterion inner / outer control are close to the boundary of value «outer control» (4,3 b.). This means that for them past is a period of life the process and results of which depended upon not them, but other people. The middling mark of that aspect in the testing group is on the contrary, lower than normal (3,1 b.). In other words, pupils from the «usual» group think, that past depended on their efforts, in fact they witness their responsibility and, perhaps, fault for the sticking nickname «usual» to them.
In the testing group the value and positiveness of future are shown less than in the experimental group, though about presence tendencies were contradictive. This result also demands analysis and interpretations.

Hypothesis of research is partly sured. The junior students who are taught in the group for perspective talented children have got higher self-appreciation, position to leadership, they see the world being actual, worth, and significant. The third-grade pupils from the parallel group appreciate themselves less positively, their ideas about the world and themselves are simpler, they see the world like less actual and worth one.

The expecting difference in the longitude of life perspective among the pupils of different groups is not revealed. Thus, success in studying activities of junior pupils, attitude of the teacher shown to pupil and his / her temporaries affect self-coinside of a child, his / her self-appreciation, social status, attitude to the world, other people, own life transspective.

Behaviorist attitude toward the separation of groups into successful (the so-called «prestige», for talented people) and unsuccessful (for «usual» children) may be considered like a positive sureness for those children (as well as their parents, teachers), who were taken into the group of «perspective», if not to take into consideration surroundings of less successful temporaries.

Is studying in groups for «usual» children negative sureness that makes escape behavior taking into that group?

This question cannot be answered positively. In case when a pupil is moved from the group for talented students into a «usual» one, he / she gets not a one-time negative sureness, but a «long-life» one, which he / she can get rid of with great difficulties or even it is impossible to do by himself / herself. In the school, as a rule, there is not a process of ecological, friendly «moving from group to group depending upon the level of success of studying, testing» (among the parallel); as a result, the juniors have to adopt to the position of outsiders for the nearest 8-10 years.

The study highlights the difficulties of gifted children education and the resultant social situation around this training. Different countries face the same problem: a better development of abilities becomes possible in specialized classes, however, along with academic success come problems of psychological nature, which are widely explained by Brazilian researchers Vanessa Terezinha and Alves Tentes[14], and a scientist from Hungary, Eva Gyarmathy [6].

Conclusion

The data of our work as a result are useful for school psychologists while choosing of effective direction in working with children who have low social status. The aims of the programme must be normalization of social status and self-appreciation of pupils, resistance to the practice of differentiation of pupils according to criterion of successfulness of studying activity. The main goal of teacher-psychology is to prevent fixing of situational unpleasant state of a child into the quality of personality, that will be an important step on the way of forming psychologically healthy, active personality of a pupil.

Bibliography


The construction of knowledge and research in secretariat in Brazil: The interdisciplanry context in GESET – Study group for the Executive Secretariat

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Abstract

The construction of knowledge and the incentive to research in the executive secretariat in Brazil has developed, matured and been transformed especially in the last decade. A determining factor for this development was the consolidation of some (still few) national scientific journals focusing on studies based on the secretariat. Given the context that has become fruitful and prosperous, providing space for such a discussion, we are invited to reflect on the construction of scientific knowledge and, consequently, the research of / in the secretariat field, having as object of analysis the Group of Studies for the Executive Secretariat (GESET – Grupo de Estudos do Secretariado Executivo Trilingue, in Portuguese) of the State University of Maringá, in southern Brazil. Reflection focuses on the benefits of doing research and encouraging it among undergraduate students, as well as the interdisciplinary nature of not only secretarial training but also research in the secretariat. We consider that the study and research groups come together for critical discussions of the secretariat environment as salutary paths for the continuity of research and knowledge development for the secretariat field in Brazil.

Keywords: Scientific knowledge. Research. Executive Secretariat. Interdisciplinarity.

1. Introduction

The construction of scientific research knowledge in the Secretariat in Brazil has been gaining more space in events, especially in recent years, in which professor and students have reacted to the demand to strengthen the area, building their own theoretical and scientific basis as an attempt for the establishment of an area of knowledge. However, the debate about the characterization of training in the Executive Secretariat as a science raises some questions pertinent to this theme and its consolidation as an area. In the context of the discovery and appreciation of the Executive Secretary, we wonder: can I be considered a scholar of secretarial science? If so, why is it still difficult to define lines of research in the secretarial area? According to Bernardon (2001, p. 17), "another serious question of secretariat courses is precisely the search for their own research [...], perhaps because, as in applied linguistics, they are seeking consolidation as science". Statements such as this one corroborate the need for discussion about the scientific environment that surrounds secretarial studies.

In this context, we propose to discuss research in the Executive Secretariat under the bias of the scientific approach in an inter and multidisciplinary context. We also believe that a greater goal to be achieved, which is transdisciplinarity, is done through the didactic transposition of knowledge acquired by those who learn about the secretarial work. This achievement can be reached when there are studies of an inter-multi-transdisciplinary character in a group of institutional studies in a university in the south of Brazil, aiming at the abstraction or real appropriation of the acquired knowledge.

It is important to emphasize that the construction of the secretarial identity, even presenting a seemingly old practice, needs to talk about the discursive practices that constitute the identity of the profession. Understanding what practice is, we observe how comprehensive are the knowledge that constitute the secretarial exercise. Thus, knowing a practice and that
practices are materialized by subjects, occurring in social relations, we affirm that there is no knowledge that is constituted in an isolated way.

In the present context, the secretarial professional works with the decision-making processes in the organizations, using complex knowledge that involves humanistic competences in a global way. Because it is a comprehensive area, it becomes difficult to define an object that characterizes its identity. Thus, one can see in the academic productions of the area a will to define an object of study that contemplates the knowledge that constitute this science.

In this sense, we highlight the importance of discussions in a study group - in our case, a Study Group for Executive Secretariat (GESET), in a public university in southern Brazil, for the dissemination of research and reflection in the area, contributing to improve the training, performance and recognition of the Executive Secretariat professional in the Brazilian labor market. In addition, we describe the group as having an interdisciplinary character, that is, it develops in the constant interweaving of multiple knowledge to strengthen research, according to the secretarial formation that is also characterized as interdisciplinary.

2 Theoretical Approach

The object of our reflections for this study is GESET - Study Group for the Executive Secretariat - which was created informally in 2010 at the State University of Maringá (Brazil), due to the desire of some students of the Executive Secretariat undergraduate course to discuss and deepen knowledge in studies that involved the secretariat, whether under the focus of work practice in the labor market, in the development of knowledge in secretariat, in training, among others. It became formal and was registered in the competent bodies of the University in 2011.

In order to better explain our ideas, we start from the importance of scientific knowledge to the Executive Secretariat, clearly described as part of the training in the National Curriculum Guidelines (DCNs - Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais, in Portuguese, Brazil, 2005): "[...] as the desired profile of the trainee, training and aptitude to understand the issues that involve solid scientific, academic, technological and strategic domains, specific to their field of action ... "(BRASIL, 2005, p.2).

However, the creation of a study or research group is justified by what was observed in Maçaneiro and Kuhl’s words (2013). For the authors, the curricula of the Secretariat courses contemplate the research in a very small fraction of their workload. In this sense, “only a small part of the content is reserved for topics related to scientific research, and in most (secretariat) undergraduate courses, there is only one discipline called "scientific methodology" or something similar. That is, the vast majority of undergraduate courses in Executive Secretariat treats scientific research in only one discipline, related to the methodology of academic work." (Maçaneiro; Kuhl, 2013, p.162)

For the reflections on what is researched in the study group, we will approach a theoretical path about the discussion over knowledge, as well as how it is constituted in the secretariat. It is known that the construction of knowledge is given by the intrinsic practices of each area, in other words, the knowledge of a given area is given by the process of progressive development of common sense, as it happens in the constitution of knowledge in the secretariat, which composes this science, due to what is discussed concerning work practice in this profession. Thus, knowledge is acquired in several ways, and is generally classified by empiricist and scientific practices as well. Severino (2007, p. 24-25) points out that the production of knowledge "occurs through our capacity for symbolic reconstitution of the data of our experience, we learn the links through which objects manifest meaning to us, subjects." Thus, motivated to mobilize questions from the present to delineate practices that point to the existence of an epistemology of the Secretariat area based on practices that indicate in a given discursive regularity the object of this knowledge, the following research question is asked: which is the core object for the secretariat?

In the history of the evolution of knowledge, we realize that the more we learn, the less we know. Reflecting on some societies, such as the Greek, we realized that knowledge at that time was given in a more global way. There were philosophers who understood different knowledge, such as economics, medicine. The various ways of social organizations mobilized the knowledge, which became more and more specific in each field. (Foucault, 1988)

Thus, for a better understanding about the conduction of the works in GESET Study Group, it is necessary to understand the concepts of Epistemology and Theory. According to Nonato (2009), the branch of Epistemology that interests scholars in a given area (in this case, secretarial advisory services) is called “Specific Epistemology”, which can still be called "Scientific Epistemology" due to its connection with the Science areas. Nonato (2009, p. 62) then states: "[...] epistemology
must articulate the scientific foundations with the experience problematic, not only considering to briefly discuss the themes of an area. Then it is practical correlation, showing itself as a vehicle between the knowledge theory and practice."

Regarding theory, Sabino and Marchelli (2009) define it as an opposing element on the side of actions in the process of praxis construction. According to these authors, “a theory must be committed to scientific utility and verifiability, failing to be disapproved from the beginning. Being constructed precisely under the aegis of the observation of reality, a theory must constitute a system of concepts that guides human practice toward praxis." (2009, p.609)

Thus, we can say that epistemology discusses philosophically the science of a given area, correlating theory and practice. The theory, in turn, is constituted by several disciplines, being able to be classified as interdisciplinary.

We also agree with Stock and Burton (2011) and his proposal that sustainable research is developed through multi, inter and transdisciplinary aspects. The authors explain that traditional research, through structured disciplines has been fruitful for the epistemological, methodological and ontological development, which allowed the advances of science without the need for constant discussions on such topics. Over time, however, it has been realized that this approach is no longer enough. The various fields of knowledge often encounter problems that they are unable to solve on their own, with their knowledge alone. Because of this condition, Stock and Burton (2011) propose "integrated research" as a reference to research involving multiple disciplines. For this, we would like to differentiate each one of the aspects that involve different areas: multidisciplinarity, interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity.

The multidisciplinary research, according to Stock and Burton (2011) is that one in which different areas of knowledge have research under the same aspect or problem. However, there is no integration of the areas in search of a response, each researcher shares their knowledge within their area of research on that subject. In this way, although the visions are different, according to each perspective, in the end we will have several glimpses on the same topic.

Interdisciplinarity, in turn, would be "a step forward considering multidisciplinarity. Interdisciplinary studies focus on the systematized problems of a specific "real world" problem and as a result, the research process directs participants (from a variety of unrelated disciplines) to cross boundaries to create new knowledge."(Stock; Burton, 2011)

This way, we can say that interdisciplinary research would integrate researchers from different areas more closely, because they would have to work together in order to solve the problems presented to them, or in order to develop an area that would need development.

Finally, transdisciplinary studies are characterized by aggregating different researchers, scholars and non-academics working together to solve a real-world problem. Stock and Burton (2011) argue that interdisciplinarity is already rare and difficult to achieve. Transdisciplinary studies would therefore be even more scarce, even though we believe that this possibility is possible as long as the organizational environment (business society) wishes to intertwine with the academic environment and intervention. Theorists say that in this type of research, involvement would be so large that at times disciplines would have to be redesigned. The key aspect of this type of research is that it involves key people in the community, that is, the general public. We leave the academy and take into account what managers, users, consumers, think and what are the difficulties they are facing. Because the focus is on what needs to be solved, the field of study of its researchers sometimes runs into the background. This way, we avoid a possible academic "ego", after all, we do not have one discipline overlapping another, but a joint work with people who are not researchers in order to solve a problem in common.

The current situation of the secretarial profession in Brazil is marked by the promotion of research, which seeks the object of study of this knowledge. The discussion at this time is considered pertinent and also emphasizes the late onset of science in the area due to social, economic and educational aspects - such as opening of undergraduate courses in the country - making up the scientific path of the profession. In this sense, we understand that the secretariat's course is based on the contexts of market social organization of each time. It is considered a factor that becomes relevant in the scientific production of the area, which integrates the complexity of the knowledge that compiles it. This complexity in the composition of secretarial knowledge relates the secretarial field to philosophical knowledge, since, as we know, this type of knowledge is characterized by mobilizing broad questions. (Foucault, 1988).

In this section, we propose a research movement in the study group, encompassing the complex epistemological compound of the secretariat, bringing together the multi, inter and transdisciplinary characteristic of the knowledge of this field. Corroborating Sabino, (2009), who considers this epistemological complexity of the area, as well as objects of studies, we
point out that "the nature of the secretarial praxis is considered multidisciplinary, in which diverse theories are used in an interdisciplinary way, with a view to achieving the scientific coherence necessary to understand the reality of the function as well as its practical aspects." (Sabino, 2009, p.610)

It is considered that the construction of the knowledge in secretariat comprises several sciences which are based on the application of multiple knowledge that are interrelated in the epistemological compound of the secretariat. It is through this transdisciplinary bias that we try to direct the discussions and, consequently, the researches in GESET Study Group.

Thus, in order to intertwine the knowledge acquired in the formation of the Executive Secretariat, the GESET study group aims to provide scientific development for its participants, always based on the intertwining of different knowledge, sciences, epistemologies, theories, seeking basis in these multiple knowledge from secretarial training to the praxis of future secretaries.

3 Research Methodology

The methodology is generally based on studies already existing in the secretarial area, that is, a field of interdisciplinary nature which focus is to write, analyze and theorize the processes, contexts and products of the secretarial action, as well as the agents involved.

The research is characterized as a qualitative research and participant observation, in which the researcher obtains, describes and analyzes several data, interacting with the participants or with the object being studied, since it participates in the studied context. In addition, it is also documentary and bibliographical, which according to Gil (2002, p. 45) "is the use of materials that have not yet received an analytical treatment or that can still be re-elaborated according to the objects of the research". Thus, we seek to understand, explain and interpret the phenomena studied, in this case specifically, relating concepts learned with the training and the secretarial work.

It also has a descriptive character, as it relates the activities of the study group, describing them in relation to their interdisciplinary aspect.

4 Discussion and Results

Before characterizing the study group, it is important to position the reader on the most recent constitution of the teaching and training scenario of the executive secretariat in Brazil.

The promotion of the secretariat research is marked by the advent of national scientific events, especially in the beginning of 2000. However, the event that intensified the discussion about scientific knowledge in the secretariat area was the 1st ENASEC – National Academic Meeting of the Executive Secretariat, in 2010, in the city of Toledo, in the west of Paraná, in southern Brazil.

Another event to consider in this context is the creation of the Brazilian Association of Research in Secretariat (ABPSEC). This association was created considering the struggles for the Secretariat to have recognition as an area of scientific knowledge. This idea was discussed at the First National Academic Meeting of the Secretariat (ENASEC), and its first board was considered formally registered in 2013.

Considering such a scenario in national territory, local actions also have their place. Thus, according to the interdisciplinary character of our object of study, we will try to describe the bias of the scientific approach printed in it.

GESET Study Group has as main objective the contribution to the reflections and discussions of research in secretariat. It is always intended, through an interdisciplinary vision, to gather works from different areas, aiming at the construction of joint knowledge for the formation of executive secretaries, in addition to fostering research and knowledge in secretarial studies, corroborating the authors already mentioned. Thus, the specific objectives for the development of the group are to study, discuss and problematize different theoretical assumptions related to secretarial studies, as well as to research and analyze practical experiences with core and theoretical foundation in the most different fields of action of the executive secretaries; develop internal and external grant strategies that assist the executive secretary in training, as well as analyze tools used during their work practice. In a broader scope, it is also intended to consolidate research in the secretariat area, to train secretariat professionals with critical thinking, to elaborate tools/ways to be used in the labor practice of new executive secretaries, to create a space for those who also have an interest in teacher training for new professors in executive secretariat, and lastly, to encourage the formation of groups of support studies with students participating in the
project that can assist / congregate other students of the secretariat undergraduate course or of other courses and disciplines, maintaining their inter / multi / Transdisciplinary.

In this way, professors from the different disciplines and courses that are part of the undergraduate curriculum are invited to participate in the group and guide students in their area of activity. There is also the partnership of professors from these different areas of knowledge with teachers from specific disciplines of the secretariat are with the aim of guiding students in their different desires. Knowledge intertwines and partnerships become salutary for the construction of new knowledge. At this point, it is observed in practice at what extent secretarial research is and can be multi, inter and transdisciplinary. Professors from other subjects guide and develop research on the secretarial area, thus characterizing an interdisciplinary research. According to Nascimento (2013, p. 110), “the area of Executive Secretariat is interdisciplinary, influenced by different sciences and areas of knowledge, among which are Applied Social Sciences, such as Economics and Administration, Math Sciences and Language Sciences, such as Linguistics and Social Communication . etc.

And according to Biscoli and Bilert (2013, page 40), interdisciplinary research “has proven to be the way to solid recognition of the research results, since the insertion of different areas in the research demands greater depth in the analysis and greater relation between areas of knowledge, adding value to the constructed result.”

In the case of works in the training area for example, we have multi or transdisciplinary research, depending on the level, since they depart from a real problem and mobilize several theories to solve it, or even aggregates people from outside the academy who seek the same goal - solve a real problem within their workplaces, or develop aspects that they consider to be still incoherent.

It is noteworthy that GESET Study Group, through periodic meetings, has contributed to strengthen and deepen the academic production of the secretariat area, thus opening spaces for relevant discussions about the area, which causes salutary discussions among students, especially regarding the lines of Secretariat professional research. In addition, it offers participation in events, not only as listeners, but also proposing written works with professors who also participate in the project.

In the same way, highlighting the formation of critical thinking, the research project contributes in a considerable way to the formation of a professional who is more critical to the information found. It stands out that the advent of technology, provides borderless access to a great amount of data. The undergraduate student, once he develops different abilities and his critical sense to be immersed in the context of the research, will have discernment to be an interpreter according to his theoretical formation, not accepting any or all answers found, but rather evaluating the truthfulness of the facts.

It is important to point out that research has been developed with the intertwining of knowledge in secretariat and: languages - language studies, text and discourse studies, education, administration and information technology. In addition, there is a constant search for theoretical reference for reading and critical discussion based on the Secretariat area with the contribution of different theoretical knowledge as a science.

5 Final Considerations

Through our experience, we have observed that the activities developed by the students and professors involved in the study group here described are extremely important for their success in various areas of the secretariat profession. First, we identify that the students who were and are part of the study group develop critical thinking which is more consistent about the content presented in the classroom. In addition, their scientific writing ability improves considerably, which we can identify by comparing, for example, the initial research project text and its final report or its writing in open responses of subject evaluations taught by the professors who are also participants of the group. We also observe that the study groups corroborate a more autonomous learning of their members, once the students, after understanding their roles, take actions to propose projects, to research on subjects that are of their interest and that often are not covered with such depth in the classroom. In addition, we recorded cases of students who participated or are participated in the study group and started an academic career, continuing their studies through masters degrees in areas such as administration and languages.

It is worth mentioning that the studies developed in the GESET study group contribute significantly to prepare the student not only for the academic career but also for the work market, since the companies have demanded professionals with the critical profile and who know how to elaborate projects which are consistent with and relevant to the context in which companies prefer employees who have the skills to research and propose materialized improvements through projects,
with clear objectives and concrete arguments. In addition, deepening the research is fundamental for students' understanding of theories, and also the understanding that secretariat scientifica research does not mean that this is done only by practical action. It is necessary to understand that the secretarial work involves multidisciplinary knowledge, and like any other, it needs constant updating. In other words, the act of studying must be present in the daily professional life, which leads us to conclude that the formation of a professional with a researcher profile provides that he is engaged with the complex transformations that occur in the socio-economic context in global view.

We believe that the issues raised in this discussion are relevant to the executive secretariat community, especially when it comes to undergraduate level. In this paper, we emphasize the need for academic research in secretariat, insofar as it strengthens the complex formation of the professional and fosters the scientificity of this knowledge.

We also emphasize the need for an undergraduate degree in the development of the research, considering the time factor and its maturation. We therefore consider that the work developed by GESET study group is important for the training of both students and the development of professors as advisors, as well as contributing so that the research in the secretariat area continue to develop in the academic environment.

References


Comparative Analysis of Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar’s Travels to European Countries

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Abstract
Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar (1901-1962) is one of the most controversial authors in the 20th century Turkish literature. Literature critics find it difficult to place him in a school of literature and thought. There are many reasons that they have caused Tanpinar to give the impression of ambiguity in his thoughts through his literary works. One of them is that he is always open to (even admires) the “other” thought to a certain age, and he considers synthesis thinking at later ages. Tanpinar states in the letter that he wrote to a young lady from Antalya that he composed the foundations of his first period aesthetics due to the contributions from western (French) writers. The influence of the western writers on him has also inspired his interest in the materialist culture of the West. In 1953 and 1959 he organized two tours to Europe in order to see places where Western thought and culture were produced. He shared his impressions that he gained in European countries in his literary works. In the literary works of Tanpinar, Europe comes out as an aesthetic object. The most dominant facts of this aesthetic are music, painting, etc. In this work, in the writings of Tanpinar about the countries that he travelled in Europe, some factors were detected like European culture, lifestyle, socio-cultural relations, art and architecture, political and social history and so on. And the effects of European countries were compared with Tanpinar’s thought and aesthetics.

Keywords: Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar, Europe, poetry, music, painting, culture, life

Introduction
Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar is a person who left his mark with his sophisticated personality in the 20th century Turkish literature. Although he first appeared with a poetic identity, later as a novelist, storyteller, shortly as an artist, in the following years he was recognized as an academician. It is an indisputable fact that Tanpinar varied from that period authors with his profound worldview and knowledge. He devoted himself to education from his childhood, despite the fact that he was born in the east he read the works of the western intellectuals, and he was one of the writers who admired the Western culture. Although he desired to go to Europe, which he knew from the books, he could not go there due to his busy working life and financial problems. Later, he managed to go to Europe after the entering political world at the age of 52.

Tanpinar went to Europe four times throughout his life and stated his impressions of Europe in his diaries and letters. His letters by Zeynep Kerman and his diaries by İnci Enginün and Zeynep Kerman were published into a book and presented to the reader after the death of Tanpinar. These authors stated that Tanpinar had a strong desire to write when he was in Europe (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, s. 15). In this study, Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar’s experiences, observations, art and socio-cultural life in Europe will be tried to read from his diaries and letters.

Tanpinar first set out from Istanbul on 1953 for Paris. He later traveled to Belgium, Holland (6th to 13th of July/1953), England (25th of July to 8th of August/1953), Spain (15th to 29th of September/1953), Italy (3rd of October to 6th to November), consequently returned to Istanbul on the 6th of November. He went to Europe for the second time to attend the International Congress of Filmology and stayed there from February 11th to March 4th, 1955. His third trip to Europe was again, with the intention of attending a congress and happened between the dates of August 28th and September 4th,
Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar's European dream which had existed since 1936 finally came true in 1953. He has also compared the sense of art and socio-cultural life in Europe among European countries, and from time to time with his own culture as well. After having been in Paris, Tanpinar made cultural comparisons. “Paris gave Tanpinar the opportunity to compare two different cultures and civilizations. Therefore, this city is beyond his own horizon, the opposite side of his civilization (İşın, 2003, s. 43).”

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar’s Observations on Art and Socio-Cultural Life in Europe

Besides Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar is well known not only due to his poems and novels in Turkish Literature, but he also draws all attention towards himself that he has construed in the branches of arts crafts like painting, music, architecture etc. It is a writing that to the comments. Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar is a very serious European affectionate, so one can easily notice the reflections of music and paintings that belong to Western cultures in his literary works written before 1953. When Tanpinar first travelled to Europe in 1953, he tried to see the origins of the paintings that he had seen in catalogues before.

On April 21, 1953, Tanpinar noted that he has been in Paris for three weeks. During these three weeks, it is known that Tanpinar changed four hotels and saw quite a lot of artifacts, visited some districts. Tanpinar emphasized that he collected a lot of things from the environment, and stating that with such little experience no one can see and recognize the whole Paris. In his letter to Adalet Cimcoz, dated April 6, 1953, after emphasizing the beauty of Paris, he reported that the daily life was equal to that of Istanbul when it was compared economically.

Tanpinar expressed that painting that was common in Paris bases on two fundamental issues. That period’s painting was under the influence of two different movements of thought, which painters were working on conventional and unconventional paintings. Tanpinar said that the supporters of conventional paintings in Paris were those who think ahead and appreciate it. He also underlined that, non-figurative and abstract painters had been claiming that development was indispensable. Tanpinar mentioned the names of the districts that hosted in some paintings in Paris in 1953. Tanpinar stated that someone could see places where elderly and young painters were drawing paintings in the neighborhoods such as Montparnasse, Saint-Germain, Trocadéro, Faubourg Saint-Honoré and Seine (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, s. 56) Tanpinar had a serious interest in painting and music. He built his poetic genre on these two basis mainly. He interpreted the arts in museums and painting exhibitions which he visited in Paris. The notes that he took constituted the sub-structure of some of his articles (Erdoğan, 2009, s. 88)

Tanpinar gives information about a big strike which starts in Paris in a letter which dated 15th, 1953 he wrote it to Adalet Cimcoz from Paris May. Tanpinar accepts as praiseworthy for Paris people who shows patience, caution and without grievance condition to the strike. Tanpinar drew attention to the advanced social life in France by emphasizing the French’s trust in the government and compliance to the system. He also pointed out that insurances that all people from all classes have, increases in wages, non-working days and the few number of working hours have made French people careless (Kerman, 2007, p. 84).

Tanpinar mentioned in his notes which dated May 24-25th, 1953 that he attended Bach concerts that was organized in Notre-Damé, Paris. He got used to the alien feeling of turning to the origin of his own self and being this close to it by the virtue of the music he had listened in this grand place. Tanpinar regarded the life he had lived in Istanbul as a loss after all the artistic pleasures he experienced in Paris (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 59). He mentioned in his notes that the difference of socio-cultural life in Paris have over those of other countries and cities is that here, life flows on in a normal pattern till two a.m in the morning (Kerman, 2007, p. 91).

Between the dates of July the 6th to 13th, 1953, Tanpinar went to Brussels and from there - to Holland. Even though he did not admire the cities much, the museums he had visited in those places had left him enamored (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 67). On June the 6th, Tanpinar had his dinner in a diner located in La Grand-Place in Brussels and pointed out the

1 In his diaries, he first mentioned it as 24th International Congress of Orientalists, then as the 16th.
Tanpinar mentioned his doctor Laroza, whom he met in Paris. Laroza was so sophisticated that it would be regarded as a strange thing in our culture. In his notes dated May 24th-25th, Tanpinar listed the cities and places he had visited along with Laroza in his diaries: "Canal, Saint-Louis Hospital, Saint-Germain-des-Prés, Delacroix workshop, Luxembourg Café, the church in Gare de l’Est, exhibition in Rue des Invalides". Tanpinar admired the church he saw in Gare de l’Est for its exterior mosaic tiles and architecture and commented on the paintings and stained glasses there saying they are from very early 18th century (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, s. 60-61). It is known that Tanpinar went to Brussels after attending Dufy’s art exhibition in Paris on July 5th, 1953. His criticism on Dufy’s art was affirmative. According to Tanpinar, Dufy was an artist who knew how to simplify and who could play with colors so well that it arouse much astonishment (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 67).

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar argued that Belgians are merchants. The main motivation for Tanpinar's way of thinking was that Brussels had a royal palace, a parliament and only public markets rather than entertainment venues. Even theater is about monnaie (money) for Belgians. Tanpinar defined the Belgian as people who have no interest in their museums and art and only play cards in Cafés (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 68). One of the cities Tanpinar has visited in Belgium was Bruges. He described this city as the city of woodworking and lace making. Tanpinar considers Bruges as a smoothly running city where "good old things fell between the cracks" and which has "the world's fairest and most equal distribution of income". And the natural landscapes of water, willows and swans are unquestionably perfect (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 71).

To sum up Tanpinar's thoughts on the cities he had visited in Belgium, he expressed that he liked Gand, Bruges the most. Tanpinar was of the opinion that Belgians wanted to build big cities, but they were not successful as they built those cities too close to Paris. He lastly visited Ostend in Brussels. Tanpinar remarked that this city which is established between a sea and a lake offers a lifestyle more suitable for tourists. The muddy sea, the sound of the wind and water, the extremely wealthy bakers and businesses displayed the true essence of the city. Tanpinar mentioned that just like it was throughout Belgium, people here were also not so concerned concerning art. He pointed out that most people of its people were not aware of the city's fantastic art museum (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 71).

As it is understood from his notes dating back to July 9th, 1953, Tanpinar had also been in Holland. Tanpinar admired Holland for its nature and the care its people show for art. For Tanpinar, Holland is a country which is at the disposal of greenery and water. During the time he had been in Holland, Tanpinar visited art exhibitions and museums and unlike Belgium, he had the opportunity to see a great number of art centers and artworks. In his note dated July 15, it is seen that he had a special day in Amsterdam with a person he later forgot the name of. Tanpinar points out that the city of Utrecht reflects peace, prosperity and felicity. He also stated that the cows, grass and the smell of milk he came across while passing to Rotterdam was truly a landscape of Holland. Tanpinar had visited Van Gogh Museum, Musée de Amsterdam and he took notes of the paintings he saw. Abundance of artworks he had seen in the museums of Holland especially catches the eye.

Tanpinar went to London on July 25th, 1953. Just like he did in other cities, the first places he visited were the museums. Albert Museum, National Gallery, Marlow, Windsor, Hyde Park were the main places Tanpinar visited in London. Tanpinar argued that no dream could ever be this beautiful after he watched swans fly. He summed up his views on Hyde Park in those words: “Its mist makes one feel as if he is looking at the world through a pearl (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 89).” The notes that Tanpinar took during his London trip was mostly about the paintings he had seen in museums. The main reason Tanpinar attached that much importance to painting was the Western idea that painting art nurtures the works of literature (Özcan, 2002, p. 9). In his first trip to England, he did not visit that many places other than London. Tanpinar described London of 1593 as extremely crowded, yet not compensating order. He summed it up like that: "Streets in London are like nightmares. Double-decker buses, streets are as crowded as beehives, and the city never sleeps (Kerman, 2007, s. 113).” Tanpinar pointed out that unlike Paris, London did not have cafes and people did not waste time.
In a letter he wrote to his friend Sabahettin in August 4th, 1953, Tanpinar pointed out the manifestation of social and cultural life in England. He emphasized that the people in England did not have idle street lives. But rather, he observed that the English lived orderly lives, worked and had things to do. Tanpinar pointed out that the cultural life in England changed dimension in the evenings. The city’s three, four hundred theaters and auditoriums would be bustling with people. Tanpinar argued that the English have a taste in music. He attended the concerts of Mozart and Ravel and, to say it in his words, those concerts made him love England. He said that England was a thousand times richer than France in terms of cultural, social and economic aspects and the nature it has (Kerman, 2007, p. 259).

As it is seen in his notebook, Tanpinar planned to go to Italy after he returned from London to Paris. In his notes dated August 14th, 1953, Tanpinar pointed out that political and social conditions in Italy started to turn into a mess and everything was not smooth sailing in France either. Tanpinar compares France to a partially rotten fruit. According to him, France’s biggest heartache was the Communist Party and that was the reason France couldn’t regulate its left movements and obtain the social development (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 92). Tanpinar reported in his notes dated August 15 and in the letter he wrote to Adalet Cimcoz, dated August 9th-17th, that the strike in Paris had still been going on. He also remarked that not only the strike was affecting the social and cultural lives of the people adversely, but it also harmed the country’s economy. He mentioned that the metro was shut down, bus service was stopped and because they were unemployed, the people wasted their whole days in cafes (Kerman, 2007, p. 111).

On September 14th, 1953, Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar went from Paris to Spain. What made him happy in Madrid was scenery and museums. Tanpinar emphasized that the places he passed by in Spain, the lamps that were lit in the windows, the small apartments and the deserted streets all had a particular aspect that reminded of Arabic and even Anatolian architecture (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 104). Tanpinar stated that unlike Holland, Belgium, England and France, the customs passport transaction here was more difficult and took longer. He stated that when he entered into the borders of Spain, everything from civilization to landscapes had changed. He also pointed out an aspect of Spain that was similar to us: Its diners had pictures of generals hung on their walls (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 105). Tanpinar argued that the Spanish did not have stability. And to him, the cause of that was that Spain only had a capital city for the last four centuries. One of his findings that reflected the social life in Spain was that in the capital city, Madrid, the power was cut until half past seven in the morning with the intention of saving electricity. After indicating that the Spanish laid all their hopes on America, Tanpinar reported that the awaited mutual agreement had been signed.

In his museum expeditions that he made in Spain in the name of art, Tanpinar came across the works of Goya, the famous Spanish artist. The only thing satisfied Tanpinar in this trip was to know Goya (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 107). His thoughts on bullfighting were particularly negative. He described it as an inhumane act of people who show no sympathy for animals and use them for their own wrongful enjoyments. On my last day in Madrid, I have witnessed the death of a young small bull that had a godlike beauty. I have never seen such a pointless, inconsiderate action happened before (Kerman, 2007, p. 120).

The place Tanpinar most admired in Spain was the Primate Cathedral of Saint Mary of Toledo. Tanpinar regards this place as the full reflection of Spanish history and struggle. No other place could show what a change in taste is like, better than this Cathedral does. There is a suffocating feeling stemming from too much wealth, a deadlock... The treasure of the cathedral: a stack of fortune piled up by innocence that lasted for a history... (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 109).

Even though he did not mention it in his diaries, it can be deduced from his letters that Tanpinar had been in Italy in September, 1953. Rome, Naples and Florence were among the cities Tanpinar had visited in Italy. Tanpinar mostly laid emphasis on the beauty of Italian architecture. "Gardens of Italy are very beautiful and Florence is more beautiful than anything. Heaven knows I have started to fear Venice; if Florence is like this who knows how Venice is like? I have never seen a city like this. It resembles a silver boiler. It purified the things within it (Yazan & Karışman, 2000, p. 162)." Tanpinar's opinion on the city of Rome was that due to its disorganization, one could get lost at any time. One is exposed to the power of past in a city that has a two thousand five hundred year old history. Tanpinar mentioned that the fountains and town squares were serene and beautiful According to him, if there is a place where fountains are watched under the rain, then it has got to be Italy. Tanpinar pointed out that at every step you could come across a palace, if not a fountain (Kerman, 2007, s. 122).

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar went to Paris, Europe between the dates of February 11th and March 4th, 1955 as second time member of the International Congress of Filmmology. It is observed that he did not take any notes down in his diaries during this time. His last note during this time was on February 11th and the next one was on May 6th. Thus, there is not much
information on this Europe trip of Tanpinar's. However, he briefly included his thoughts on Paris in letters he wrote to Adalet Cimcoz, dated February 14th and 28th, 1955. In the first letter, Tanpinar highlighted the beauty of Paris and emphasized that the music, painting, art, prosperity of economic life and French language were things that were beyond perfection and out of reach (Kerman, 2007, p. 126).

He went to Europe for the third time to attend a congress. He went to Munich between the dates of August 28th and September 4th, 1957 with the intention of attending the International Congress of Orientalists. He then visited Vienna. There are no notes in his diaries regarding Tanpinar's third and shortest trip to Europe. However, some information on his trip to Munich could be seen in a letter he wrote to his brother Kenan in September 1st, 1957. Unlike his other letters, Tanpinar started this one without addressing anyone and referred to himself as a third person, writing with a style of irony. Even though Tanpinar went to Europe shortly after the Cold War, he did not stress in any of his notes or letters the socio-psychological state of Europeans or the post-war reconstruction labor taking place throughout the countries. It is highly likely that during his stay in Europe, Tanpinar had observations about the post-war situation, however, it is known why he did not write about them. Tanpinar kept abreast of the social issues and political developments in Turkey particularly in his last travel to Europe. In fact, it is detected that there are notes focusing on Turkey in letters he wrote to his friends as well as in his own diaries. Although Tanpinar was closely interested in politics, in his travels to Europe he refrained from writing about his thoughts on the current situation. In a letter he wrote to his brother, Tanpinar stated that the people of Munich had slowly been recovering from the tragedies of the World War II, getting their normal life back and starting to rebuild the ruined cities in August, 1957 (Kerman, 2007, p. 290).

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpinar's longest and last trip to Europe took place between June 26th, 1959 and June 8th, 1960. Tanpinar, who lived in Europe with Rockefeller Foundation scholarship for a year; got the opportunity to travel to England, Switzerland, Portugal and Paris. Because of the discomfort that both the money troubles and the diseases had caused, Tanpinar did not succeed in realizing the plans he had made on this trip. In his note dated November 1st, 1959, he reported that the new fiancée of the Iranian king was also there in the theater that he had gone to in France. After noting that Parisians had been very kind and attentive to the Iranian princess and also mentioning the incident where princess' car was taken under siege by strikers, Tanpinar passed on the issue without putting too fine a point on it (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, s. 163). Because of his health problems on his last trip, Tanpinar had to go to the hospital frequently. It is determined that Tanpinar had been trying to go to art days, painting exhibitions, ballet and plays organized in Paris at times when his health was better. Tanpinar regarded the art of theater in which the materials are humans as being superior to other arts (Tanpinar, 2014, p. 83).

He also regarded the monarchist system of the French as a reflection of the truth and summarized the situation of French people with this analogy: "You know the well-bound books, even when their covers are ripped off their shapes stay the same. French, as well, is brought up with this kind of discipline and decency (Kerman, 2007, p. 201)." Tanpinar links the principle that distinguishes Europe from Eastern cultures, to the idea of liberty underlying the freedom given to people in their jobs.

Tanpinar wrote a letter to Adalet and Mehmet Ali Cimcoz from London on 9 August 1959, telling about what his trip to England contributed to him. During his stay, Tanpinar closely observed the social and cultural life of England and sought to summarize the lifestyles of the English and their perspectives on the world in his own words. Tanpinar says that these English people, whose clothing, industry, and practices we know of also have sides we have yet to discover. Tanpinar attributed the nationalist side of the English to the fact that they are a nation who call their country 'home'. His thoughts on the English's social and cultural lives were as follows: They are a community made up of very kind people who know how to listen and never quit saying the word which is always an indication politeness: "sorry". He argued that the taste of imperialism suggested an idea of greatness to England. He also stressed that the English not only sought greatness, but also the beauty. The artist expressed that greatness influenced beauty and it was possible to see this influence in many squares of London (Kerman, 2007, p. 139).

According to him, English were people who did not enjoy the beauties they owned. He was of the opinion that due to the laws and regulations that shape social and cultural life, people were not living their daily-lives comfortably. Tanpinar pointed out that unlike those in Paris and Istanbul, cafes and diners in London were only open on certain hours of the day (Kerman, 2007, p. 293).

In his note dated March 15th, 1960, Tanpinar summed up his view on the English's perspective of social life. The English find themselves in senseless things, in nothing and they live like that. This happens throughout Europe. But the English's
Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar often compared the East to the West in his scientific studies and literary works. The Western view of art and culture, the importance given to artists and individual living conditions had always been elements that caught his attention. He dreamed of visiting the place that the West admired so much. As a lover of art, Tanpınar had visited the museums in every city he had traveled to. He admitted to his readership that he was influenced by Western artists when building the foundation for his sense of aesthetics. Even before he went to Europe, he was a well-read writer who had acquaintances of different cultures and who also wrote about it. Tanpınar often compared the East to the West in his scientific studies and literary works. The Western view of art and culture, the importance given to artists and individual living conditions had always been elements that caught his attention. He dreamed of visiting the place that the West always had in his thoughts. Even though he yearned for going to Europe which he admired so much, he could only realize this at the age of 53. He had been in Europe four separate times. He communicated his own interpretation of the art, culture and social life he observed to his readership.

As a lover of art, Tanpınar had visited the museums in every city he had traveled to. He mentioned his admiration for Paris, the first city he visited in Europe, in his letter to Adalet Cimço. He had seen numerous artworks in this city and gathered plenty of information. That the streets of Paris are filled with books and paintings caught Tanpınar’s attention. He talked about French language as something that is too beautiful and out of reach. He also stressed that he admired the routes, the cafes and the people of Paris. He highlighted that the daily life in France is similar to Istanbul in terms of economy.

Besides that, he remarked that the weather, the smell, the color and the sound of Paris are identical to those of Istanbul. Tanpınar mentioned his affirmative thoughts on the Parisian art of painting and music in his letters.

It is mentioned in his notes the literary works he was writing and the ones he intended to write. He also noted down the uneasiness he felt about the political disorder that was happening in Turkey. It is seen that he went to Spain for the second time in May 17th, 1960. Tanpınar emphasized that some things that he saw in Spain seven years ago had changed. The only thing satisfied him in his previous trip to Spain was the Prado Museum. It is also a place he got in no time flat in his second trip. He stated that, however, due to the construction the museum was under and the disorder it caused, he could only see a couple of paintings of Goya and Velazquez (Enginün & Kerman, 2007, p. 183).

Tanpınar stressed in his letter dated May 20th 1960 letter to Adalet Cimço that the Spanish are elegant people. Tanpınar pointed out in the same letter that with regards to economy Spain was so rich and affluent that it could not be compared to Turkey. However, he emphasized that this country that had such wealth had its welfare level reflected only on a couple of streets and the limit was it, unlike other European cities. Tanpınar argued that Spanish pleasure was comprised of ponds with fountain, poor statues and nice gardens (Kerman, 2007, p. 193).

It is detected that Tanpınar gave information about recent developments in the art of movie in Paris in his letter to Adalet Cimço, dated July 20th 1959. Tanpınar stated that in the days he was in Paris movies that attracted the Parisian the most were the Russian generated ones, especially Einstein movies (Kerman, 2007, s. 134). Tanpınar shared his thoughts on French movies in another letter he wrote to Mrs. Adalet on December 11th, 1959. As it can be deduced from his writings, he did not like French movies and said the reason for that was that there were too many dialogue scenes (Kerman, 2007, p. 162).

CONCLUSION

Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar paid attention to the Western artists (literary persons, painters, musicians, architects, sculptors etc.) of his time and that came before. He admitted to his readership that he was influenced by Western artists when building the foundation for his sense of aesthetics. Even before he went to Europe, he was a well-read writer who had acquaintances of different cultures and who also wrote about it. Tanpınar often compared the East to the West in his scientific studies and literary works. The Western view of art and culture, the importance given to artists and individual living conditions had always been elements that caught his attention. He dreamed of visiting the place that the West always had in his thoughts. Even though he yearned for going to Europe which he admired so much, he could only realize this at the age of 53. He had been in Europe four separate times. He communicated his own interpretation of the art, culture and social life he observed to his readership.

As a lover of art, Tanpınar had visited the museums in every city he had traveled to. He mentioned his admiration for Paris, the first city he visited in Europe, in his letter to Adalet Cimço. He had seen numerous artworks in this city and gathered plenty of information. That the streets of Paris are filled with books and paintings caught Tanpınar’s attention. He talked about French language as something that is too beautiful and out of reach. He also stressed that he admired the routes, the cafes and the people of Paris. He highlighted that the daily life in France is similar to Istanbul in terms of economy. Besides that, he remarked that the weather, the smell, the color and the sound of Paris are identical to those of Istanbul.

Tanpınar mentioned his affirmative thoughts on the Parisian art of painting and music in his letters.

It is mentioned in his diaries that he admired the museums he visited in Holland and in fact, they left him enamored. Tanpınar was impressed with the interest shown to art by the Hollander. He points out that he also liked the nature of the country.

Tanpınar's impressions of Belgium are slightly different to that he had of other countries. Fascinated by the historical magnificence of the Grand-Place of Brussels, he stated that not even in Paris was there a town-square like that. Besides that, he expresses that unlike the people of other countries, the Belgian did not pay attention to art, were not aware of the fantastic art museums in the city, cared more about money and instead of taking an interest to art they played cards in cafes. They had to pay to go to theaters as well. Even though he did not like Brussels, Tanpınar admired Bruges and described this city as “the world’s fairest and smoothly running city”.

Tanpınar went to Madrid, Spain in 1953 and expressed that the things that made him happy there was the landscape and museums. He likened the city’s architecture to Arabic and Anatolian architectures and pointed out that trains, little streets and a plenty of other features were identical to those of Anatolia. Tanpınar's negative thoughts on Spain were centered on bullfighting, customs passport transaction that was more difficult and took longer unlike in Holland, Belgium, England and
France and power being cut until half past seven. He stressed that when he went to Spain for a second time in 1960, he saw that the country had developed economically.

Tanpinar, who had visited Italy in 1953, mostly laid emphasis on the beauty of Italian gardens. His thoughts on Rome were that it is a disorganized city full of fountains and palaces.

In 1957, Tanpinar went to Munich, Germany and stayed there for a week. He expressed his views on the city in a letter he wrote to his brother. He mentioned that after the World War II, the ruined buildings were being rebuilt. It is also seen that he complained about the fact that Munich was an expensive city and the German did not know French or Turkish. While he stated that he visited four museums and twelve art galleries in Munich, he did not make a further comment about it.

Tanpinar's impression of England was quite positive. While he visited the museums in London, he took down the names of the paintings he admired. In a letter he wrote to a friend, he described London as a city that "never sleeps". He also expressed that the English were neat people who did not waste time and in the evenings, hundreds of theaters and auditoriums of the country would be bustling with people. In another letter of his, he mentioned that England had contributed to him in many aspects. He stated that he was impressed by the English's way of living, worldview and nationalist side. When Tanpinar compared England to France, he pointed out that England was thousand times richer than France in terms of cultural, social and economic aspects and the nature it has. Tanpinar's negative thoughts on England were that the English did not benefit from the beautiful environment they were living in. He thought that English laws were limiting the people's daily lives. He complained about the fact that even diners were only open at determined hours.

References
The Representation of Masculinity in Cinema and on Television: An Analysis of Fictional Male Characters

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Abstract

Mass media, especially cinema and television, are important devices that build and strengthen males and female roles in societies. The representation of gender in media is crucial because individuals get to know gender roles in the process of socialization. Besides the female identity, masculinity is also a constructible element and fictional male characters produced both in cinema and on television send messages about masculinity to the audience. In this study, the male representation both in the television series and in films were compared with this assumption and the question how male characters are represented on the two different mass media is examined in Turkey. Furthermore, the question "whether masculine representation reinforces the existing patriarchal male image or produces an alternative male model" is in the interest area of the study. The method of this study is reception analysis and in-depth interviews were undertaken with audiences with different demographic characteristics. As a result, it has been found that male representations in cinema and television are produced with similar myths, symbols, metaphors and messages, similar gender languages are used in different media, and fictional male characters in cinema and television have common characteristics.

Keywords: gender studies, masculinity studies, mass media, audience studies, Turkey

Introduction

Just as femininity, masculinity as an identity is produced by societies according to gender approach; we can see that there are many femininities and masculinities identities cyclically and culturally. This phenomenon is similar in Turkey just as the other countries. Hegemonic masculinity is a kind of cultural structuring. The characters of a man with particular ideal can be identified by the power domain belonged to culture. The man with particular ideal in the modern societies where we live must have these qualifications which serve to the institution of the social structure. The man with particular ideal may be described as a productive man who interiorises gender roles by following the social rules. However, on the other hand, it is not possible to mention that there is only one masculinity definition. Masculinity is shaped by the codes of every society.

Both cinema and television are the two of strongest mass media which reflect social values. Films have plot which has the power both reflects and influences social values system. The narration provides the identification. Besides cinema, television illustrates the power of mass communication to inform, educate and influence the public. While industry insiders often deny this power, saying television is just for entertainment, it is clearly obvious that both adults and children learn a great deal from watching television week after week. Some critics urge that television teaches negative values such as stereotyping, consumerism, a superficial and trivial approach to life.

In this study, the male representation both in the television series and in films were compared with this assumption and the question how male characters are represented on the two different mass media is examined in Turkey. Furthermore, the question "whether masculine representation reinforces the existing patriarchal male image or produces an alternative male
model" is in the interest area of the study. The method of this study is reception analysis and in-depth interviews were undertaken with audiences with different demographic characteristics. As a result, it has been found that male representations in cinema and television are produced with similar myths, symbols, metaphors and messages, similar gender languages are used in different media, and fictional male characters in cinema and television have common characteristics.

**Masculinity & Hegemonic Masculinity**

Gender theory brought by the arising second-wave feminism has initiated the studies on masculinity (Akca & Ergül, 2014). Feminism has begun to be supported by some men questioning gender inequality since 1970s. This concept, so called as pro-feminist, has lead to the spreading of critical masculinity studies discussing the men and masculinity by sticking to the feminist principles (Bozok, 2009). Critical studies on men and masculinity has emerged from several criticisms and debates on gender relations such as feminism in particular, and gay and queer studies. Moreover, critical masculinity studies refer to a group of studies pointing out men critically in terms of gendered power relations (Heam, 2004). Masculinity which is developed with hegemony notion generated by Gramsci, refers to the hierarchical relations among the different masculinities. Multiple masculinities by Connel (2000: 216) tell that gender has been generated with different ways in different cultures and different eras, particularly in a culture such as at a school or a work place we may encounter with these masculinities.

The first generation critical masculinity studies continued their discussions over an ideal masculinity state. This concept continued to the end of 1970s and based on the sex role paradigm minimized the masculinity to a role model (Akca & Tönel, 2011). Accordingly, there is only one personality cluster characterizing the men, thus describing masculinity. The same situation is valid for the women (Connell, 1998). In 1980s, the viewpoint that there are more than one form of masculinity has begun to be widespread (Renkmen, 2016: 249). Accordingly, different cultures and different historical eras create different gender regimes, so different patterns of masculinity (Connell, 2002a: 141). That means masculinity is not static and eternal but it is historical. Its meaning may vary due to the changes in time and people (Kimmel, 2005: 25). This viewpoint about masculinity also claims that several masculinities can be produced within the same gender regime. These masculinities develop different relations with each other and different power focuses and institutions, and they are represented in various forms in various cultural products (Özbay & Balıç, 2004: 92-93). Therefore, masculinity differentiates depending on some factors such as historical, class, cultural, sexual identity, sexual orientation, religion, race, and ethnicity, and as a result of this differentiation various inequalities emerge.

On the other hand, Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) state that the supporter of hegemonic masculinity may not only act with the standards presented by the culture of the society all the while, but also modernise gender relations and form the masculinities over again. According to them, since gender relations are a kind of stress field, an ascribed masculinity may stay as hegemonic during to solve for these tensions. The authors do not base hegemonic masculinity on social reproduction theory. In other words, they mention that gender theory cannot guess which pattern wins within the hegemony struggling.

**Masculinity Forms in Popular Media in Turkey**

Generally, it is possible to see that the social status of man as "new" and "changing" in film genres. Many of films, figured in genres, are in a struggle for keeping order status quo. Individualistic man profile dominates in film genres such as westerns, gangsters, and detectives. Mannish images and iconographic tools such as knife, gun, telephone, car which create a hero are essential elements of these films (Schatz, 1981).

Abisel (1984: 33) states that many of Turkish films move in the direction of keeping order status quo. Even though traditional values are not valid, it is desired to be sustained and reinforced. Certainly, the same fact obtains in terms of values related
man. When we analyse Turkish cinema, it is possible to see that Turkish cinema is based on types. There is a cinema based on types opposite the cinema based on characters.

Uluyağcı (2000)\(^1\) states the masculinity in Turkish cinema in her sightful article. In Turkish cinema, it seems that there are male types that we can generally describe as traditional until 1950 and 1980. However, after 1980s, a new type of male appears on the screen. It is observed that though this type is out of “traditionality” is preserved as it is, but preserves the existence of the traditional male image that existed before. Whereas women are passive and trouble-maker, men are observed to have an unlimited sense of courage, ambition and revenge in films. Therefore, it is possible to state that masculinity is reproduced in every time on the screen.

For instance Yesilcam cinema\(^2\) cannot get a clear attitude when it fronts it (Ayça, 1987: 38). Thus, the values for the man come in the face of the viewer. In the Turkish cinema, leading actors always play as “good men”. However, these are also divided into groups among themselves. The actors who act a role for the viewer with the “hard male type” are better suited to the traditional Turkish man type both physically and behaviourally. The so-called romantic boys separated from the more traditional male image. In the mid-1980s and early 1990s, new male image appeared in mass media. The changing male image emphasizes that the traditional values are no longer valid and that the more emotional type of the man of contemporary world of that time should be well-groomed, briefly more contemporary, and closer to the female type.

Moreover Oktan (2008) states that it is possible to see the representations of masculinity presented in a significant part of the films made in the Turkish cinema since the second half of 1990s as a demonstration that there is a threat perception in terms of masculinity. In the most of these films, which are the subject of friendship with male men, male domination, which maintains its weight in Turkish cinema in general, is dominant. However, in these films made in the 1990s, masculinity is rather problematic, depressed, fragile, diseased, prone to extreme violence to women and homosexuals, constantly depressing has a pessimistic, guilty, insecure qualities.

On the other hand, Gürbüz (2016) states that after the 2000s in Turkish cinema, various masculinity situations began to appear. This representation of masculinity has become a story of a crisis stemming from the change in the values of gender roles in a few films. Moreover, in some movies it was created in such a way as to allow us to criticize these values directly.

Masculinity representation on television in Turkey is not different from cinema. The academic scholars indicate that the heterosexual neo-liberal entrepreneur has become a hegemonic male in the world and in Turkey. Akça and Ergül (2014) state that the presentation of leading male characters as a hegemonic man in the series in Turkey shows that despite the change in the hegemonic masculinity, the traditional masculinity patterns still remain in Turkey and this change only reveals a hybrid structure.

Reception Analysis

Each of audiences will decode texts in ways that reflect their personal biographies, their own histories. The researchers have attempted to link the social position of the audience with their readings of media texts. They also place an emphasis on the idea of ‘pleasures’ and ‘audience interpretation’. This theory is very popular in cultural studies and would describe watching television as a cultural practice (Morley, 1980, Buckingham 1993, Ang 1989). Reception analysis is one significant critique of the field has questioned the extent to which audiences are free to interpret texts in different ways. Emphasising the interaction between text and reader, combined with an integration of micro and macro levels of analysis, offers a response to the attack on the concept of the audience. In brief, this attack is critical of the tendency to adopt the broadcasters’ concept of audience (Livingstone, 1998). According to Hall (1993, 101) there are three different positions...

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1 On the other hand, Uluyağcı states in both Turkish cinema and in other cinemas such as Hollywood and some other countries’ cinema masculinity type is similar to each other.
2 Yesilcam refers to the 1950-1960 era in Turkish cinema.
receivers take in order to decode the meanings within cultural texts, particularly televisural discourses. These are the dominant-hegemonic position, the negotiated position and the oppositional position.

Receptions of the Audience

The aim of the study is to determine how the Turkish cinema audience and the audience of Turkish television serials have received the main male characters in those productions physically, psychologically and socially and compare these characters with the male characters in daily life. In this context, selected audiences are asked to answer these questions without any limitations by asking three open ended questions.

To provide information on the participant profile, audiences can be included in the middle class and upper-middle class social categories. The audiences' age range is 18-50. Five of them are women, and four are men. The aim of the work is not just how the audience see the male characters in the series and movies they watch, but also how these characters are in harmony with real life. Similar findings of different audiences were not reported in the study. The page limit of the search is considered and we as the researchers intended not to repeat similar info.

Each participant in the study is coded with the letter A and listed starting at number one.

A1

In Turkish films, male characters in the comedy films such as Recep İvedik, Sabit Kanca, Olur Olur, Dedemin Fısı are vulgar, brutal, hairy, distant from civilization, fat and ugly people. They are trying to do comedy with profanity, rudeness, and disgusting behaviour. These can in fact be interpreted as the hidden aspects of some men. When we look at the romantic Turkish films, all the male actors seem to have popped out of modelling competitions. All men are handsome, muscular, bearded, skin smooth, tall. Some are brunette and some are blonde. They have no physical defects, their self-confidence is high. They oppress the other characters in the line and judge them. This character absolutely falls in love with a very beautiful woman and gets her. In this process, he overcomes all kinds of difficulties and is always perfect. He is absolutely rich and has luxurious houses and cars. He belongs to the upper class and is the owner of the holding. There are similar issues in the Turkish series. The main characters are handsome and fit men. They are rich, well-educated and high-class members. They usually fall in love with a crowded, tribal family member and an urban girl who does not fit into the family. All male characters put pressure on everyone. There are no such characters in everyday life. The perfected characters are the profiles that do not fit in everyday life. None of us meet a rich, handsome, holding boss, a suit in a cage or on the road.

A2

There are two types of men in Turkish films: Firstly, they are overly in love with their love, they are extremely romantic and emotional men. These profiles are usually handsome and rich or handsome and poor. They are charismatic and beautiful smiles. They are physically sporty, muscular. The other male type is malicious, bad physics. In the Turkish series men are physically well. They are sporty, well-fed, muscular men. Either a dark or coloured eyed or blond and coloured eyed. These people are all sensitive, helpful, modern, quality time passers.

The men we communicate with in daily life are men in the opposite direction of these sequences and films. People, who use slang, do not pay attention to style; do not know where to act. His clothes and his physics are not like in the series and movies. We are usually full-bodied, short-lived, and full of people who do not pay attention to their nutrition and who cannot communicate with women. They are not tied to their houses, their families, like the men in the series, the movies.

A3
Generally, male characters in Turkish movies are handsome, rich and business man. The types that people admire as characters, which seem unconcerned. They live in good homes; they have good car bins and want to have what they want. Unlike the films in the Turkish series, all the main characters belong to a company, an agency, a holding. They live in the scenic houses. All the women in their surroundings tolerate them, but they choose a single woman. He runs after the woman he wants at every opportunity, doing everything to get it.

In our everyday life, while such types are admired for some, they are unnecessary professions for me.

A4
Male characters acting according to patriarchal ideology are generally good-natured, holding-holding people with excellent qualities. There’s no flaw in their character. In these constructions the physical and characteristic features are given in contrast. Poor - fat, rich - poor qualities are transmitted with different characters. The main character never dies. He never has a tragic incident either.

A5
In Turkish films, male main characters usually appear as two types: first type is overweighed, coarse, dark and patriarchal mannered. Other type is stylish, muscular, handsome and romantic. These types (second) are mostly seen in romantic movies. In the Turkish series, the main characters usually play a role in the network. Women around him are in love. There is a wife and a woman he loves. The actors are all models.

In real life, there are no men who pay attention to clothing and fitness. With the influence of these series, men may have started to play sports. The male characters we saw on the series apologize for making mistakes against their wives. However, there are even those who kill their wives in everyday life.

A6
The main characters in Turkish movies are different according to the film style. Romantic movies have charming, charismatic, emotional, tall, cute male characters. She has the ability to express herself. They look like one of us in comedy movies. They’re usually fat. Tall, muscular, mysterious characters are selected in action and similar genre films.

In the series, the male characters are rich, handsome, and know what they want. Their financial situation is good. Self-confidence is high.

In real life, we do not see the characters we see in movies and series. Comedy-type productions are full of characters from us, but the male characters in romantic productions are unlikely to come out.

A7
Physically handsome men are used in romantic movies. These characters are rich at the same time. The audience is satisfied by seeing things that are not in them. The diction of these characters is flat, rich, envied by others. They attach importance to family relationships. They appeal to the traditional audience. They do not look like brand fans, but the brand is highlighted in the movie they own. In comedy films, people are made fun of ignorant people. Physically very fat or very weak people are used. I do not find it similar to real life.

A8
In Turkish movies, male main characters generally vary by genre, but there are mostly muscular, handsome, attractive, powerful men. In the Turkish series, we see rich, handsome, strong characters. The male characters we encounter in the Turkish film and series do not resemble the people we communicate in everyday life. On the contrary, some people move away from their natural state by trying to resemble those characters.
In romantic movies, the male character has to be absolutely handsome. The character and appearance of this man is perfect. He's in the perfect male profile. If there is a problem, this character definitely solves that problem. It's like Superman's unflying state. In comedy films, there is the opposite. An ugly male character is used as possible. We see fat, hairy, bald, vulgar or stupid men.

In everyday life, I see men who try to resemble characters in movies and series. As a character, there is no one who can be exposed to such evil and approach the events with goodness.

Conclusion and Analysis

Being a man in society is as difficult as being a woman which is a process that carries big responsibilities and burdens. Men have been socializing with a number of codes in society since they were born. This socialization, which started in family at first, continues with other ideological apparatus of the state. Mass media such as films, television are effective on this process. Masculinity does not exist on its own. Although their ideal masculinity characteristics change over time, men can appear in society with these qualities.

It is possible to state that the most people do not meet these standards but are influenced by these standards. In this study, which uses the method of reception analysis when asked how the cinema and television viewers evaluated the male characters in these productions, two stereotypes appeared. The first one is romantic, handsome, rich and powerful in every sense. The latter is funny, simple, rude and frustrating. It is as if the two characters reflected in inner appearance. According to the common perception of the receptions, both in Turkish TV series and in Turkish films, women are the second plunge. The role of the woman in the narrative is to be with the male character, to be loved and protected by him. Male fights against life, overcomes difficulties and protects his woman. All gender roles are strictly distinct from one another. In all these constructions men are described by their external appearance. Wealth is a very important element. These productions create a pressure on how the men in the real world should be and also an expectation of how woman’s ideal man should be. Consequently the face-to-face interviews in this work show that the male characters on television and in the cinema are not convincing.

References


Family Education

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Abstract
Family is the child's first school, the parents are the children's first teacher. Nowadays, in China most families have only one child, the responsibility of parents is not just let the children eat and drink, parents also should bear the task of cultivating children, educating children. About two-thirds of the time spent in the family, family education is earlier than any other form of education, even if the child in the kindergarten, primary school, junior high school and even university, no matter how the living environment changes, family education is the longest and the most important in a person's life.

Keywords: family education; fair; interest; teaching; love

Introduction

· The current situation of education in China:
Under the previous one-child policy in China, the child is often the focus of the family unit. As a consequence, most children have been spoiled since childhood. On the other hand, parents pay so much attention to their studies and grades, that they care little about their characters and moral development. This gives rise to many serious problems when these children step into the society.

Ways to improve the current situation of family education

· Liberation of humanity
It is reported that a Chinese team visited America in order to investigate its system of primary education. In their report, they described that there was no distinction in morality and ability between second grade students; most of them have not yet learnt to read; but they took music, art, and sports classes seriously as they did in mathematics, physical and chemical sciences; It seemed there was no classroom discipline, and students ignored the authority of their teachers. The investigation concluded that American primary education was bad.

In the same year, an American team also came to China and reported that Chinese students were well disciplined. In classes, their hands were always behind their backs unless the teacher asked questions; they did not speak in class; They were expected to do homework after school; They were ranked by exam marks. The American team concluded that the grades of Chinese students were the best, and therefore Chinese science culture might surpass America in 20 years.

However, 30 years has passed, the conclusions of these two teams were both wrong. American -style education is being increasingly admired, while Chinese-style education has become an object of public denunciation. This anecdote is a reflection of education in China. In fact, the children are being stifled by the preconceptions of their parents, teachers and society, instead of being free to grow and carve their own path in society. Education is not only about knowledge, but more
about the liberation of their individual interests and desires. However, our education sees knowledge and discipline as the top priority, which glosses over the ability to function as an individual in society.

On the contrary, a survey report shows that 80% of children are unable to do their laundry, cook or complete housework successfully. Among those under the age of 18, 17% suffer from emotional disorders and behavioral problems. This is especially evident in interpersonal relationships, emotional stability and adaptive ability problems. Many teenagers find it difficult to deal with adversity and disappointments in life and choose to commit suicide to end up everything. This is the tragedy of an examination-oriented education. If everybody could find their own interest and make a difference in their own field, instead of blindly joining the fierce competition to reach the so-called success, this world will be more peaceful and beautiful.

· Learn to give than to receive

In the process of education, it is imperative to let children know the most important rule within the universe is to give with love. Learning to give unselfishly allows one to capture that great feeling by putting others first.

Destiny to human beings is like orbit is to a planet, all of them are enclosed in a circle. Whatever we send out will definitely come back to us without exception. From what has been discussed above, we could draw the conclusion that it is far more important for Chinese students to share an equal higher education resources, to be guided to find their unique interests in life, and to learn to give and make contributions to the society, than to merely focus on getting high marks. Only in this way would the status quo of Chinese education be improved.

· Get closer to nature.

Nowadays, people prefer to stay at home to surf the internet or to play computer games, which results in various psychological problems. On one hand, human well-being depends on the benefits that nature provides for free, everyday and everywhere. On the other hand, nature reveals us the principle of our space.

· Moral behavior education is more important than scientific knowledge.

On 20 October 2010, Yao Jiaxin, a 21-year-old student from Xi'an, hit a restaurant waitress and stabbed her to death when he saw her taking down his license plate number. Yao was put on trial on 23 March 2011. This case brought much public attention because of Yao's family background and whether the death penalty should be abolished.

Ironically, during the trial, Yao's lawyer pleaded for leniency by saying Yao was a 'model student' with many awards for academic excellence. This led to heated discussions over the Chinese parenting.

Nowadays, parents tend to over-indulge their only child, the so-called 'little emperors' by the media. But in fact, the situation in ancient China was much better. Children benefited a lot from the great tradition of family education, as an education of moral behavior always came first.

The Master said, "A youth should be filial at home, and, respectful to his elders in public. He should be earnest and truthful. He should always be kind to all and cherish good friendship. When time and opportunity permitted, he should consolidate these behaviors in books."

"The doctrine of the mean," said: "Therefore, the gentleman respect for virtue and ask the question, caused by the vast and subtle, very high and moderate, so the new, honest to Chongli." This can be said that the basic principles of traditional Chinese moral education highly generalized. The traditional Chinese moral education "enlightenment", "moral education" is to "move the good life", the goal is realistic, not mysterious; method is to focus on empirical, rather than logical analysis; Inner comprehend to achieve behavior conscious, rather than emphasis on experience by the external experience to achieve ideological understanding.
Therefore, to sum up, the basic characteristics of the traditional Chinese moral education thought is embodied in the following: one is the unity of "moral education" and "cultivating one's morality"; second, "knowing" and "practicing"; thirdly, "the theory that man is an integral part of nature". The traditional morality, which encourages people to pursue noble spiritual realm and yearns for ideal moral personality, still has significant referential value in our socialist moral construction today. Ideal moral personality is a mirror of national morality. With a country of people holding the right moral value, there will be a bright future for the country's development. Hence, China's status quo in education and civilization is calling us to inherit our traditional moral spirit and make the best use of if it in our modern social life, to improve people's socialist moral spirit of the realm, and to establish a new ideology with modern ideology and morality Personality.

Necessary manual labor or sports help people keep in good health.

Laozi said, "The Sage rules people by emptying their hearts, filling their bellies, weakening their intelligence and toughening their sinews. In order to make the people ignorant and less unselfishness"

The family atmosphere is an important factor in effective communication with the children. In life, there are many opportunities for joint activities between parents and children. Take the children to outdoors, to enjoy the beauty of nature and the spectacular sight of changing seasons. A good seasonal outing with children is not only a feast for the eyes, but a precious opportunity to build up the parent-child relationship and create unforgettable memories of childhood. Take your children to travel abroad if you have holidays, the horizon-broadening experiences such as monuments, exhibitions, and connections with local people will influence them through their entire life. Be your children’s tour guide, even this may request extra working hours for memorizing the city’s history or culture, as this would be the best way to win your kid's heart for having a knowledgeable father. Entertain with your child. After dinner or during the holidays, play, sing, and chat with you children, to enjoy the great atmosphere of family gathering. The purpose of joint activities is to eliminate the generation gap; by getting closer to children through various outdoor and indoor activities, parents would find it much easier to educate their children, which is based on trust and relaxing atmosphere.

· Religious education.

In ancient China, there was a great diversity of religion beliefs. The main religions were Buddhism, Taoism, Islam, which told people how to be genuine, kind-hearted, beautiful, and the core value of all is Love.

However, Buddhism is very different from other religions. Buddhism is a kind of values, view or outlook of life. And the teachings of Buddhism can make each person turn from learning for fun into finding enlightenment, from the bitter to happiness. This is the eternal values of all sentient beings, especially those we seek.

Regarding the meaning of religion, many people believe it is important to find something to support them, in which way to meet their inner self-satisfaction. Archimedes had this sentence: give me a fulcrum, and I shall move the world. If we do have the faith, it will not only allow us to 'move the world', but also give our whole life a big move.

With this complete support from faith, we will have correct standards and norms to judge what is right from wrong. We know what can be done, what cannot be done. In the words of Buddhism, "all evil do, all good to pursue self-purification of its meaning." As a result of this belief, we will not be local, short-term interests of the temptation, and do not meet the long-term interests, the ultimate value of things. At the same time because of the support of this belief, we need to get to understand that everyone has its special reason to live on this planet, and no one should be destroyed by others. Yet nowadays we are too easily knocked down by a lot of things, such as 'I wish I were born better than others', 'I may be impressed by family'; 'my academic performance is not as good as others’ etc. Once we have a belief, we will be more self-conscious and will think in a positive way.
Pay more attention to women's status in family education

In modern society, in order to advocate the equality of men and women, females start to work more than ever, and so do their husband. In this way, patents have no time to communicate with their children. Not to say to improve themselves personally. However, children usually learn from their parents, especially their mothers, if they are cultivated, their children won't be too bad. While if they don't care about their behaviors, their children will certainly be affected.

To conclude, the issue of family education has become a heated topic during the past years, which has been brought to the forefront by both the Chinese government and the whole world. Emphasis should be paid in aspects such as the establishment of morality and humanity education, the importance of right guidance by parents, who act as their children's first educators. Moreover, it is essential that we learn from what our ancestors left for us in moral education and utilize it in our modern social life.

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The Efficacy of Corrective Feedback on L2 Writings of EFL Students

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Abstract

Errors have been perceived as problems within the process of teaching and learning a language. However, especially in writing, learners are able to benefit from their errors with the help of corrective feedback. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of explicit corrective feedback in Turkish EFL learners’ writing. The participants of the study were 43 intermediate level Turkish EFL students at a private university in Turkey. There were one experimental, 21 students, and one control group, 22 students. As the data collection both groups were administered a pre-test, a post-test and a delayed post-test as a paper and pencil tests. The experimental group received explicit corrective feedback with extended comments on their errors, and the control group received no feedback. Their errors were only underlined without providing correction. The number of errors that each group made in the writings was compared to each other. In order to ensure the reliability and validity, the participants were administered a 5 Likert scale questionnaire after the writing sessions. The results revealed that the experimental group who received explicit corrective feedback made fewer errors than the control group who did not receive feedback on their L2 writings. Besides that, the experimental group made fewer mistakes in their tests compared to the previous ones. Thus, the findings of the questionnaire revealed that students had a positive view about corrective feedback their L2 writings especially if it has extended comments.

Keywords: L2 writing, corrective feedback, explicit feedback, error correction, feedback, EFL, error, correction

Introduction

Throughout the history of teaching writing skill in second language (L2) several debates have come up in terms of the effectiveness of error correction. However, both teachers and L2 students are able to benefit from written errors with the help of corrective feedback (CF). Feedback is the explanation provided by the teacher about the performance of the student in an aim to improve student’s learning (Voerman, Meijer, Korthagen & Simons, 2012). The aim of feedback is to teach skills to students so that they can improve their language proficiency to an extent which they are aware of what is expected from them as learners, and can produce language with minimal errors. Rusell and Spada (2006) stated that it means any type of feedback provided to a learner from any source that includes evidence of learner error of language form. Learners need to be provided with constant feedback and correction in their writings in order to facilitate their writing skills and minimize their errors to the least. Therefore, written corrective feedback is very significant within this process. Moreover, the kind of feedback that learners need when they make errors in writing is significant as well. When checking students’ writings, teachers often see that the process of L2 writing requires more effort. At that point the type of feedback that needs to be provided becomes essential. Different learning styles, language levels, ages and purpose of learning are determining factors when providing feedback to language learners.

Literature Review

To date, several studies have been conducted on corrective feedback in order to determine which types of corrective feedback are effective in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. However, the issue of which is the most effective one(s) is still debatable. Truscott (1996; 1999; 2007) claimed that there is no rational evidence that proves the usefulness of error correction in students’ writing. He stated that corrective feedback is unable to observe to what extent learners have acquired language and also it is harmful for learners to acquire the language. On the other hand, several scholars have done studies against the claim of Truscott and found out many evidences that prove the ultimate benefit of CF. They stated that learners need to be provided with corrections after making errors so that they can acquire language in a more useful
way. Moreover, with the help of explicit corrective feedback learners get the opportunity to focus on their errors and come to understand what kind of errors they need to correct. It allows learners to self-repair (Lyster, 1997) and it becomes easier for learners to interpret the feedback that they have received.

The efficacy of corrective feedback has been tested in several ways. Carroll and Swain (1993) conducted a study including 100 Spanish adult ESL learners whose level was low elementary. The aim was to teach the structure of dative verbs. They had five different groups — A, B, C, D and E — which were divided into groups according to the type of feedback they received once they made an error. The participants were provided with two feedback sessions following the practice of recall that included production tasks after each feedback's session. Group B-C and D received implicit feedback such as pointing out their errors by stating that they made mistake or recasting. Group A received explicit metalinguistic feedback when they made errors and group E with no feedback as the control group. The results of the study indicated that all group A, B, C and D outperformed group E, the control group. Moreover, group A, which were provided with direct explicit feedback was concluded to have the best output among the others. Later on Carroll conducted a study in 2001, without Swain this time, on the efficacy of explicit feedback in writing. The participants included adult low-intermediate ESL students and the aim was to form nouns from verbs. The participants were divided into groups as they were previously did in the previous study of Carroll and Swain (1993). Learners were given elicited verb and noun constructions within a sentence format. They were provided with different types of corrective feedback to their writings. Eventually, Carroll resulted that all types of feedback helped them to learn the target knowledge, yet only the students who were provided with explicit metalinguistic corrective feedback — group A — were able to generalize the form whereas the others which were provided with implicit feedback did not work in generalization. Therefore, Carroll concluded that among the others, explicit feedback enabled learners to improve L2 knowledge.

Pérez, Fuentealba, Barra, Rojas and Cistemas (2012) conducted a research to examine the impact of feedback on content and structure in writing tasks of EFL students. Participants included three students and a female teacher in the first study. In the second study there were three students and a male teacher. They used structured interview which consisted of six questions in learners’ target language, a writing task and a document analysis methodology. The purpose of the interview was to examine learners’ opinions and preferences about receiving feedback rather than testing their English knowledge. The document analysis was carried out by examining a collection of students’ writing tasks which was done both before and during the examination. The study revealed that students felt motivated to write the task for the second time once they were provided with explicit feedback in terms of content and organization. In the interviews, most of the participants preferred receiving written feedback so that they could be able to comprehend their errors better. Additionally, students’ writings seemed to be more improved when they received comments in target language. In 2013 Ulg, Sari & Griffiths investigated teachers’ perceptions of corrective feedback in Turkey. They interviewed 51 non-native Turkish teachers of English with different experiences in several state and private universities in Turkey in an EFL context asking them about when and how corrective feedback is required in both oral and written skills. The results indicated that teachers want to correct learners’ errors, and that they are in favor of immediate written and oral correction. As another example of study about teachers’ perceptions on corrective feedback Kirgoz and Agcam (2015) interviewed with 36 teachers from various grades in state primary schools. They asked teachers their opinions about the efficacy of corrective feedback and its varieties, about their attitude toward learners’ errors and how and when errors should be corrected or whether these errors should be corrected. They resulted that elicitation is the most effective way in correcting errors, following the repetition CF as another effective type. It was concluded from the interviews that explicit correction is an effective CF type used by EFL teachers. In 2016 Chen, Nassaj and Liu conducted a study to examine learners’ perceptions and preferences on written corrective feedback in an EFL setting. They interviewed 64 intermediate, advanced-intermediate and advanced English learners in a university. The results showed that most of the students were in favor of error correction despite the fact that they were objective about the role of explicit grammar instruction. Moreover, they strongly preferred detailed comments on both content and grammar of their writings.

As another example of studies which resulted with the positive effect of CF on learners’ language competence was conducted by Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen in 2009. They especially focused on explicit and implicit correction and their efficacy in the acquisition of grammatical features on 56 intermediate level Iranian learners of English. The participants were asked to read a text and retell it during an interview. During the interview they were corrected implicitly with recasts or explicitly once they made grammatical errors. The participants had tailor-made tests which were constructed according to the errors that they had made. Their test results were statistically analyzed and they indicated that the learners who
received explicit feedback outperformed those who were corrected implicitly once they made errors. Therefore, the study pointed out the significance of explicit CF in the improvement of learners’ metalinguistic knowledge in language learning.

There was a little or no difference between implicit and explicit feedback within some research (Kim & Mathes, 2001; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Gholami & Talebi, 2012). In 2001 Kim and Mathes examined the efficacy of implicit and explicit feedback on 20 Korean speakers’ use of dative alternation in English. They aimed to find out which one is more useful for the learners. The learners were divided into groups according to the CF type that they received and were trained in dative alternation in the form of one structural change. One group was provided with explicit metalinguistic feedback when they made errors while the other one with implicit error correction in the form of a sentence recast in the correct form. Posttests showed no difference between the groups. Similarly, Bitchener and Knoch investigated the effectiveness of different types of CF over a 10-month period, found out that each of the groups which received one of the feedback performed better than the control group; however, there was no difference in effectiveness between the treatment groups. Gholami and Talebi (2012) conducted a case study which included 45 elementary female learners of English in Iran. The aim was to find out the effect of implicit and explicit feedback on EFL learners’ grammatical accuracy especially on regular past tense. These participants were assigned into one control and two experimental groups. The experimental groups were provided recast and explicit feedback with picture description tasks and the control group did not receive any feedback. Learners’ acquisition of regular past tense -ed was measured with their metalinguistic knowledge and verbal imitation tests. As the analysis of data they used ANOVA and resulted that experimental groups who were provided with explicit feedback did slightly better than the control group. The results also indicated that there were no much differences between the two types of feedback, implicit and explicit, in terms of learners’ achievement in an EFL context.

As it is presented within the previous studies, most of students seemed to benefit from corrective feedback on their L2 works. Yet, the type of feedback that would be the best for language learners is not perceived as a single one. In fact, every language learner may prefer different type of corrective feedback related to their age, level, purpose, etc. To the best of my knowledge, there are a few studies conducted in Turkey on the efficacy of corrective feedback on L2 writings of EFL students. With respect to this need, present study aims to examine the efficacy of corrective feedback on Turkish EFL learners’ use of indefinite and definite articles in L2 writing.

Research Questions

1. To what extent is corrective feedback effective in Turkish EFL learners’ L2 writings?

2. What are Turkish EFL learners’ perceptions on corrective feedback that they receive in their L2 writings?

Methodology

Setting and Participants

The present study was conducted at an English preparatory school of a selected private university in Istanbul, Turkey. The study was carried in the researcher’s own teaching environment. In this university, the students are supposed to take a proficiency exam before they start studying their departments. All students start studying their departments when they successfully complete A2, B1, B1+ and B2 levels. They are administered an achievement test at the end of each level which lasts 8 weeks. There is no such a thing as failing the level, yet when they finish all levels, their total score out of 4 levels must be 70 or higher grade in total in order to start their departments.

In this preparatory school, there are 34 classes and 764 students. The present study involves two B1 level classes, which consists of 43 students (19 females and 24 males) aged between 18-22.

At the time of the study students had just finished A2 level and started B1 level. Each student has different background English knowledge; some of the students just started learning English as a foreign language in this preparatory program, and some of them had a little previous knowledge of English.

The participants of this study had taken A2 level writing classes, and had been taught the target structures before the treatment. There are two classes which will be called in the study as the experimental group, consisting 22 students (10 females, 12 males) receiving explicit corrective feedback and the control group consisting 21 students (9 females and 12 males) with no feedback on their L2 writing. These participants were randomly assigned to groups to receive different treatments within the study. The reason why B1 level students were chosen as the participants is that they had just
completed A2 level and they were expected to make more errors since they were new to learn English as a foreign language, and also because they do not have enough exposure to the target language and have difficulty in producing what they have learned.

Data Collection Instruments

In order to obtain data about the efficacy of corrective feedback on EFL learners’ L2 writings, two types of instruments were used as data source. The first data type was a paper and pencil test type consisting a pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test. Students were asked to write three different writings in different weeks. Both experimental and control group were administered to the same tasks within same weeks. For the each writing they were asked to write one paragraph with the length of 120 words in 30 minutes. The second data collection instrument was a questionnaire with close-ended questions for the students. This quantitative data was used in order to collect data about EFL learners’ perceptions of corrective feedback on their L2 writings.

Questionnaire

The present study administered a close-ended questionnaire in which there are multiple choices and 5 Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This quantitative data was used in order to examine the general views and perceptions of the students for corrective feedback on their L2 writings. The questionnaire was posed to both experimental and control group after the treatment. The design of the questionnaire (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010) was adapted to the study with some changes. It started with demographic questions followed by their English level question. The questionnaire was extensively revised to promote its readability and transparency. The teacher translated the questions into students’ first language, Turkish, when needed with the back-translation method. Therefore, the teacher translated the questions into English back to ensure that it is equivalent enough to compare the results of the data.

Writing Assignments

Students were expected to write all tests in single 120 words length-paragraph using simple past tense which they had been taught previously in their writing classes. In the first writing assignment, which was considered as the pre-test, they were expected to write about their holiday experience. They were also supplied with content ideas in their writings.

For the post-test, students were assigned to write a letter to their friend explaining their last weekend. They were again supplied with content ideas. Finally, in the delayed post-test students were asked to write a short narrative story with the information provided.

Procedure

The participants were informed that they would be a part of the study. While giving feedback on the writings, the focus was on the target structure as they had just learned them in their writing classes. The writing sessions were held in classrooms and lasted 25-30 minutes. The pre-test was given a week prior to starting the treatment in order to ensure the homogeneity and students’ proficiency in L2 writing using the target structure. As stated above, students were assigned to write a paragraph about one of their holiday experiences. They wrote a 120 words length-paragraph using target structure 25-30 minutes. Between the process of pre and post-test the experimental group was given explicit corrective feedback treatments in their writings within the classroom. The post-test was given after both experimental and control group completed their first assignment. The procedure was the same with the pre-test. Yet, this time the experimental group was provided with explicit corrective feedback in their writings. Their errors were identified, corrected and given detailed explanations by the teacher. Students were provided with constant explicit corrective feedback on their L2 writings during writing sessions. The control group received no feedback on their writings; their errors were only underlined by the teacher with no correction. Therefore, they needed to understand and correct their errors by themselves after being informed by the teacher that they had made errors.

After the experimental group received explicit corrective feedback and the control group received no feedback, one week later the students were given a delayed post-test to write a short narrative story in 25-30 minutes. The purpose of giving the same structure was to investigate if students made the same errors and if they could benefit from the type of feedback that they had received when they made errors.
After students completed pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test, the participants were administered the questionnaire the week following. It aimed to find out students' perceptions on the corrective feedback that they had received on their writings. When the whole procedure ended, students' number of errors in their writings in each three sessions and answers on the questionnaire were counted.

Data Analysis

For the analysis of writing assignments, the numbers of errors for both experimental and control group were counted in order to analyze if there occurred and changes after the treatments. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit students' perceptions of written corrective feedback. Therefore, close-ended questions with multiple choice or Likert scale formats were used to elicit main tendencies of students. In order to analyze the data, the numbers of students to questionnaire responses were counted. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted to examine statistically significant differences among three proficiency levels. In the following chapter, both experimental and control group's ratio of errors after receiving different types of feedback on their writings and findings of the quantitative questionnaire will be presented.

Results

Finding of Writing Assignments

Both experimental and control group were assigned to complete writing tasks which consists pre, post and delayed post-tests. The feedback was given to the experimental group's writing assignments as illustrated below;

S: "I went to Antalya with my family."
T: "I went to Antalya with my family, 'go' is an irregular verb."

For the control group the errors were only pointed to be reformed by the learner as given below:

S: "We swimmmed in the sea."
T: "We swimmmed in the sea."

Table 1 shows the number of errors that two groups made in the use of target structure, simple past tense. The number of errors were presented as total for each three assignments.

Table 1. Number of Errors That Students Made in Writing Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Delayed Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As showed above, there were no significant differences in control group's number of errors, in fact, there was an increase in the number of errors. Only underlying the error did not work for them to correct their errors. They kept making the same errors in the target structure. Most of them could not understand what their mistakes were, and couldn't correct them. This could be because they were ineffective in self-correction due to their English level.

However, as illustrated above, after the treatments that experimental group received explicit corrective feedback, students benefited from the corrected errors and explanations. There were significant changes in the number of errors that the experimental group made in their writings. As the target structure was the same for each assignment, they benefited from the previous feedback that the teacher provided, and as a result there was a spectacular decrease in the number of errors.

Findings of Questionnaire

Both experimental and control group were administered the quantitative questionnaire after completing the writing assignments. The results of the questionnaire were divided into 10 categories; participants' perceptions of grammar instruction, error correction in English, their preferences of error correction types, their opinions on teachers' error correction
priority, preferences of error correction techniques, their responses to extended comments on writing assignments, preferences of comment types, responses to corrected errors, preferences on the timing of grammatical error correction, and finally participants' preferences on the timing of content and organizational error correction.

The first question was asked students in order to find out their general perceptions of grammar instruction in writing classes. The participants' responses are presented as percentages in Table 2. Table 2 indicates that most students were in favor of the necessity of grammar instruction in their writing classes and believed that learning grammar would improve their writing skills in English. However, they expressed less positive opinions on explicit grammar instruction, as illustrated in the results of statements d, e and f. Moreover, the statement “I like studying English grammar” received the lowest ratings. On the other hand, the statement “I think that language practice in real contexts is more important than grammar instruction in the classroom.” was the one that received very positive ratings.

Table 2. Students’ perceptions of grammar instruction in writing classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar instruction is essential for mastering the writing of English.</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study of grammar improves my writing skill of English.</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my English writing will improve quickly if I study and practice English grammar</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like studying English grammar</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I need more grammar instruction in my English writing classes.</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I keep the grammar rules in mind when I am writing in English.</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that language practice in real contexts is more important than grammar instruction in the classroom.</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Strongly disagree=1; disagree=2; neutral=3; agree=4; strongly agree=5

The second item was administered in order to elicit students' perceptions on written corrective feedback. As indicated in Table 3, students had a very positive view towards written corrective feedback in L2 writing. Table 3 indicates students' perceptions of error correction in writing classes.

Table 3. Students' perceptions of error correction in writing classes
In the third item, students were asked to state their perceptions of types of written corrective feedback. As Table 4 shows students’ most preferred error types for correction. The responses were consistent with grammar errors (N=26) as the most popular response followed by vocabulary errors (N=14), and spelling errors (N=3). Overall, the students considered grammar as the most important element in their L2 writing.

Table 4. Students’ preferences of error correction types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>Grammar Errors</th>
<th>Vocabulary Errors</th>
<th>Spelling Errors</th>
<th>Organization Errors</th>
<th>Punctuation Errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most preferred error correction type</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 4 was asked in order to examine students’ opinions about teachers’ error correction priority. Most of the students (N=18) preferred their teachers to correct all of their errors. The second popular response (N=16) was teachers’ correcting major errors but not the minor ones. Minority of the students (N=9) preferred not to be corrected when they make grammatical errors, and preferred teachers to focus on the content only. Table 5 shows students’ preferences on teachers’ error correction.

Table 5. Students’ opinions on teachers’ error correction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>My instructor should correct all errors.</th>
<th>My instructor should correct major errors but not the minor ones.</th>
<th>My instructor should only correct errors that interfere with communicating ideas.</th>
<th>My instructor should not correct grammatical errors, and should focus on the content only.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If there are many errors in your writing, what do you prefer your instructor to do?</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item 5 examined the students’ preferences of error correction techniques. As Table 6 indicates the most preferred technique was “correcting the error and then providing an explanation for the correction”. 39 students out of 43 considered this technique as very useful. The reason of students’ preference of this technique most probably stems from their English proficiency level since they need constant explanation as in form of correction when they make errors in their L2 writings. B1 level EFL learners are tend to make more errors since they have just started learning English, as a result they are required to be provided explicit corrective feedback on their L2 writings. The second error correction type that was preferred by students was “underlining the error and then correcting it”. It also shows that students need to be pointed out their errors and need to understand their error.
Table 6. Students’ preferences of error correction techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written Corrective Feedback Techniques</th>
<th>Very useless</th>
<th>Useless</th>
<th>Neither useful or useless</th>
<th>Useful</th>
<th>Very useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Underlining the error without correcting it</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underlining the error and then directing you to a source for information</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicating the type of error without locating or correcting it</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locating the error (e.g., by underlying it) and also indicating the type of error</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underlining the error and then correcting it</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correcting the error and then providing an explanation for the correction</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simply indicating that you have an error in the sentence by putting a cross next to it without locating or correcting the error</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking my classmate(s) to correct the errors</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Very useless=1; useless=2; neither useful or useless=3; useful=4; very useful=5

As stated above, students need detailed explanations for their errors. Only showing the error or giving the type of error without correcting it is not enough for them. They also did not prefer their friends to correct their errors. This might be because they are aware of each other’s language proficiency and they need correction from their teachers as they see their teachers as more reliable error correction source. The next item was asked to students in order to investigate their opinions of extended comments by teachers on their written assignments. The results showed that students considered extended comments as a very important element of their language learning process (%90). Their most popular comment
type was “comments on grammar” (%85). On the other hand, “comments on the writing’s overall quality” was the least preferred comment type among students (%82). This is most probably because students at this level usually prefer grammar corrections since they haven’t exposed to grammar too much and want to improve their L2 competence. Table 7 indicates students’ responses to teachers’ extended comments on their L2 writing assignments, and Table 8 indicates their preferences for the type of comment by teachers.

Table 7. Students’ responses to teachers’ extended comments on their L2 writings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>Not important at all</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do you think when your teacher(s) writes extended comments on your L2 assignments?</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not important at all=1; not important =2; neutral=3; important=4; very important=5

Table 8. Students’ preferences of type of comment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Comment</th>
<th>Very unimportant</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comments on the content</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on the grammar</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on the organization</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on the overall quality of the L2 writing</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next item was asked to students in order to find out how carefully they would review their teachers’ feedback. Most students (33 out of 43) stated that they would read teachers’ feedback carefully and correct all errors (Table 9). As claimed above, they need detailed explanations on their errors so that they can see and correct errors in their writings.

Table 9. Students’ responses about corrected errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How carefully do you review teachers’ correction of errors?</th>
<th>Frequency of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will not read them.</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will read them, but I won’t correct the errors.</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will read them, and correct the major errors.</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will read them carefully, and then correct all the errors.</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated above, B1 level EFL learners preferred receiving explicit explanations by their teachers on their errors in L2 writings. They also preferred to receive feedback on all of their errors, mostly on their grammatical errors rather than spelling, punctuation, organization and vocabulary. Since they are new to learn English, they mostly focus on grammar rules to improve their language competence at this level. Most of them also stated that they would care about the extended comments given by teachers and correct their errors after receiving ones.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study examined the role of corrective feedback in EFL writing classes in a private university’s English preparatory school in Istanbul, Turkey. The findings are not so much different from the previous studies in terms of the type of corrective
feedback. The findings of the questionnaire showed that students had positive view on written corrective feedback, especially on grammar corrections. They need constant grammar instructions for mastering the writing of English. This derives from their lack of grammar knowledge since they have just started learning L2. They also believed that error correction by teachers is very important, moreover most of them even responded that they would read the comments on their errors carefully and correct all of them. This finding showed that most of these participants really cared about error corrections by their teachers especially on grammar. However, they did not prefer receiving feedback from their peers. This is most probably because their low level of English, and they did not think that they would benefit from peer correction.

The findings of the writing assignment reveal that there is a spectacular difference between the experimental group who received explicit corrective feedback and the control group who received no feedback. In the control group’s writing assignments, the number of errors in post and delayed post-test did not change much, while in the experimental group students gradually made less errors compared to the pre-test. They benefited from teacher’s comments and error corrections when they completed their writing assignments.

In order to achieve an effective error correction method, teachers should have a clear understanding of the nature of errors. Corder (1967) defines errors as learners’ way of testing their understanding about the nature of target language; also they should be perceived with openness and acceptance especially if they are new in learning language. Students’ responses to error corrections need to be taken into consideration. Error correction involves both cognitive skills and effective views of language learning, which includes feelings and attitudes.

Both teachers and learners should be open to transform language proficiency from negative productions of learners to positive results. Teachers need to provide necessary facilitations for learners so that learners can benefit from their errors after receiving corrective feedback.

The study has some limitations, for example, the findings were based on data from a small group of students. Also, the generalizability of the findings needed to be endorsed by further research. Further research needs other kinds of instructional contexts in Turkey to empirically test the generalizability of the present findings. Thus, students’ background English knowledge should be taken into consideration when investigating their perceptions of corrective feedback. Finally, the present study investigated EFL learners’ ratio of errors and perceptions of written corrective feedback in Turkey. Similar studies can also be conducted by language teachers, instructors or researchers in this context.

References


Earning Per Share Under International Accounting Regulations and Based on the Example of Companies Listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange

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Abstract:

Earnings per share is one of the most important financial ratios facilitating investors make decisions about the choice of a company to invest in. To fulfill this role, it should be calculated according to the same rules by all companies, so that the results can be compared correctly. Therefore, the IASB (International Accounting Standards Board) issued a special standard comprehensively regulating the rules of its calculation and presentation in financial statement. It is International Accounting Standard 33 – Earning per share, which was released in December 2003. It was first applied to financial statements prepared for the reporting period starting after January 1, 2005. The standard was revised once – in 2008. This standard requires calculation and presentation in financial statement basic and diluted earnings per share and accurately specifies how to do it. The aim of this paper is to describe the rules of calculating, presenting and disclosure information about earning per share under IAS 33 as well as to analyze the presentation of such information in financial statements of the largest companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange. The main methods used include the analysis and evaluation of legal acts and subject-related literature as well as the analysis of information disclosed in financial statements of the largest companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange.

Keywords: earning per share, International Accounting Standard, accounting regulations, financial statement, financial ratios.

Introduction

Earnings per share (EPS) is a popular financial ratio which is widely used by investors worldwide. It measures potential profit on investment in company’s shares (Sierpinska, Jachna, 2004, p. 214). It is important for both investors who count on a profitable dividend as well as those who expect an increased market value of shares resulting from, for example, the increasing profit (Golebiewski, Tlaczala, 2005, p. 143). The EPS value also affects the market price of shares, and hence translates into an increased total corporate value (Jerzemowska, 1999, p. 135). For investors, it may be a crucial indicator used to build investment strategies and portfolio (Nowak, 2017, p. 226). It is also a basis for calculating other capital market ratios such as P/E or DPR (Dynus, Kolosowska, Prewysz-Kwinto, 2005, p. 99-101).

EPS is reliable provided that it is calculated using the same principles, and thus enabling comparisons between different reporting periods and different entities. Nowadays, however, joint-stock companies can issue various types of shares which differ, for example, in offered preferences. Moreover, as a result of a dynamic development of the financial market, a wide range of instruments has emerged which under specific conditions can be converted into shares (options, convertible bonds), and hence can increase the number of shares and affect the EPS value. Therefore, it was necessary to prescribe specific principles for calculating earnings per share.
The aim of this paper is to describe the rules of calculating, presenting and disclosure information about earning per share under IAS 33 as well as to analyze the presentation of such information in financial statements of the largest companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange.

The main methods used include the analysis and evaluation of legal acts and subject-related literature as well as the analysis of information disclosed in financial statements of the largest companies listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange.

1. EPS under international accounting regulations

The principles for calculating earnings per share have been prescribed in detail in a separate standard - IAS 33 *Earnings per share*, which was first adopted in February 1997, effective from January 01, 1999. So far the standard has been amended twice and its version as of August 07, 2008, is now in effect. The objective of the standard is to prescribe principles for the determination and presentation of earnings per share in order to enable performance comparisons between different entities in the same reporting period as well as different reporting periods for the same entity. The most important requirement of IAS 33 is the calculation and presentation of two amounts of EPS in the financial statements - basic and diluted.

1.1. Basic earnings per share

Basic earnings per share is a ratio of profit (or loss) generated by an entity in the reporting period for which it is calculated and which is attributable to ordinary equity holders of the parent entity and weighted average number of ordinary shares during the same reporting period. The requirement to determine the ratio for ordinary shares makes it necessary to adjust the numerator, i.e. profit or loss if the entity apart from ordinary shares has also issued preference shares. Thus, in accordance with paragraph 14 of IAS 33, the net income for the period should be adjusted by the amounts of dividends on preference shares as well as all equivalent payments. The EPS value should be calculated according to the following formula:

$$EPS = \frac{\text{earning after taxes} - \text{dividends on preference shares}}{\text{weighted average number of ordinary shares}}$$

The requirement to include the weighted average number of ordinary shares in the denominator results from the fact that in the period the number of such shares can change because, for example, new shares have been issued or existing ones have been bought back, which affects the equity. The denominator is thus determined as the number of ordinary shares at the beginning of the period adjusted by the number of shares bought back or issued during the period multiplied by a time-weighting factor. The time-weighting factor is a quotient of the number of days that the shares are outstanding and the total number of days in the period. In practice, while determining the value of this factor, there might be some problems resulting from the correct determination of the date from which the shares should be included. Potential situations have been elaborated in paragraph 21 of IAS 33.

While calculating the weighted average number of shares, not only changes in the shares number which affect the equity are considered but also those which do not affect the equity, for example, bonus issue (stock dividend), share split or consolidation of shares.

1.2. Diluted earnings per share

The diluted EPS calculation is required due to the existence of financial instruments which under specific conditions can be converted into ordinary shares and thus increase the number of shares and reduce basic EPS. A dilutive instrument is called a potential ordinary share and is defined as a financial instrument or contract which entitles its holder to ordinary shares. They include: financial liabilities or equity instruments that are convertible to shares (e.g. convertible bonds), options and warrants as well as shares that would be issued upon the satisfaction of certain conditions (Holda, 2013, p. 251). The
basis for calculating diluted EPS is the basic EPS, the nominator and denominator of which are adjusted by dilutive effects of potential ordinary shares (Helin, 2006, p. 195). The nominator is adjusted if the conversion of potential shares could affect the profit or loss generated by the entity. An example of such a situation is the exercise or conversion of convertible bonds into shares, as as result of which the entity ceases to pay interest (bonds cease to exist), which increases its profit or loss and reduces financial expenses. Potential adjustments of the nominator resulting from the exercise of potential ordinary shares are presented in detail in paragraph 33 of IAS 33.

The denominator is adjusted meaning that the weighted average number of ordinary shares is increased by the weighted average number of additional shares that would have been outstanding as assuming the conversion of all potential shares. As in the case of the basic EPS calculation, potential ordinary shares are weighted for the period they are outstanding. Detailed methods of including potential ordinary shares in the calculation of EPS depend on a share type and as there are many of them, they will not be presented in this paper.

1.3. Presentation and disclosures of earnings per share

Principles for the presentation of earnings per share in the financial statements are prescribed in paragraphs 66-69 of IAS 33. An entity is required to disclose basic and diluted earnings per share for profit or loss (including continuing operations) attributable to ordinary equity holders of the parent entity. The presentation of EPS (basic and diluted) depends on the adopted method of information presentation in the statement of comprehensive income [IAS 33.67A]. In accordance with IAS 1, an entity presents profit or loss in a single statement - statement of profit or loss and other comprehensive income. EPS is presented separately if an entity prepares two separate statements, i.e. statement of profit or loss and statement of comprehensive income - EPS is presented in the former. Moreover, an entity that reports a discontinued operation is required to disclose basic and diluted earnings per share for the discontinued operation in the statement of profit or loss or in the notes.

If EPS is presented, the following disclosures are required [IAS 33.70]:

- the amounts used as the numerators in calculating basic and diluted EPS, and a reconciliation of those amounts to profit or loss attributable to the parent entity for the period
- the weighted average number of ordinary shares used as the denominator in calculating basic and diluted EPS, and a reconciliation of these denominators to each other
- instruments (including contingently issuable shares) that could potentially dilute basic EPS in the future, but were not included in the calculation of diluted EPS because they are antidilutive for the period(s) presented
- a description of those ordinary share transactions or potential ordinary share transactions that occur after the balance sheet date and that would have changed significantly the number of ordinary shares or potential ordinary shares outstanding at the end of the period if those transactions had occurred before the end of the reporting period.

Complicated economic reality creates a number of situations that will affect the earnings per share ratio – basic and diluted. Therefore, an attempt was made to verify whether and how the largest capital groups listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange comply with the requirement of presentation and disclosure of earnings per share imposed by IAS 33. It should also be noted that such a study concerning Polish stock exchanges has not yet been conducted.

2. Study methodology and study group

The study included the largest capital groups listed on the Warsaw Stock Exchange, i.e. those groups which on February 10, 2017, were included in two major indices: WIG20\(^1\) and mWIG40\(^2\). For the purpose of a detailed analysis, the study entities were divided according to the type of business activity, and the results are presented in Table 1.

---

\(^1\) WIG20 is an index which comprises 20 largest companies listed on the WSE, selected in respect of capitalization and turnover value.
\(^2\) mWIG40 is an index which comprises 40 largest companies listed on the WSE, following the 20 companies of WIG20.
### Table 1. Analysed entities according to the type of conducted business activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Number of companies</th>
<th>Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical and fuel</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electromechanical</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial services</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail and wholesale</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood and paper</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: author's compilation.

In the study group companies from the financial sector (banks and insurance companies) had the biggest share - chemical and fuel sectors constituted 20% and construction and property development sectors 10.9% each. Other included capital groups from such sectors as: catering, hotel, media, transport and other services. Among the WIG20 entities, entities from financial, fuel and energy sectors were dominant while in mWIG40 financial as well as construction and property development sectors. In accordance with the Polish Accounting Act, all entities, being capital groups listed on the WSE, prepared financial statements under international standards IAS/ IFRS while the analysis included consolidated financial statements prepared for fiscal year 2015 or fiscal year which ended in 2015. It is connected with the fact that complete financial statements for year 2016 were not yet available while preparing this paper.

### 3. Study results

At the beginning of the study it was checked whether the study entities calculated and presented earnings per share in the statement of profit or loss as required by IAS 33. The analysis showed that EPS was presented by 98.3% of the companies, including all groups from mWIG40 and 95% from WIG20. One group which did not present EPS directly in the statement of profit or loss presented it in the introduction to the financial statements in selected and consolidated financial data. The results allow to conclude that all the study entities comply with the requirement set out in IAS 33.

Next, it was determined in which line of the statement of profit or loss the entities presented information on earnings per share. The analysis showed that the line strictly depended on the method adopted by the entity to present disclosures on profit or loss and comprehensive income. According to the currently effective IAS 1 *Presentation of Financial Statements*, an entity may choose how to present such disclosures, i.e. in a single statement (statement of comprehensive income) or two separate statements, i.e. statement of profit or loss and statement of comprehensive income which begins with a net income. The groups which adopted the first method, i.e. presentation of profit or loss in a single statement, presented EPS
at the end of the statement while those which prepared two separate statements presented EPS directly after the profit or loss and before the statement of comprehensive income. The results are presented in Chart 1.

Chart 1. EPS presentation line in the statement of profit or loss

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presentation Method</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two statement (Profit or Loss and Comprehensive Income)</td>
<td>61.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the end of statement of comprehensive income</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One statement (only Comprehensive Income)</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After the Profit or Loss and before the Comprehensive Income</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: author's compilation.

As Chart 1 shows, the study entities more often decided to present disclosures on profit or loss in two separate statements, and thus more often (64.4%) presented EPS directly after the net income and before the statement of comprehensive income. On the other hand, 35.6% of the study entities decided to present EPS at the end of the statement of comprehensive income. The analysis in respect of the size of a group (based on belonging to WIG20 and mWIG40) did not show significant differences. The first presentation method - that is presentation of EPS after the statement of profit or loss and before the statement of comprehensive income - was selected by 68.4% of the WIG20 groups and 62.5% of mWIG40.

The second method - after the statement of comprehensive income - was selected by 31.6% of the WIG20 groups and 37.5% of mWIG40. Moreover, a detailed analysis in respect of the type of business activity allowed to conclude that for some sectors EPS was more frequently presented in a specific line. It was noted that EPS was presented directly after the net income and before disclosures on comprehensive income by all financial business companies, 83.3% of construction and property development companies and 66.6% of chemical business companies. In the case of companies which presented EPS at the end of the statement of comprehensive income, energy, IT and metal business groups were dominant - 75% each.

In accordance with IAS 33, entities are required to calculate and present two earnings per share: basic and diluted. Thus, in the next part of the study an attempt was made to determine in how many capital groups under the study dilutive factors appeared and whether those factors significantly affected EPS.

Factors diluting the number of shares appeared in 25% of all the capital groups under the study and that share was equal for WIG20 and mWIG40 groups. A detailed analysis in respect of the type of business activity showed, on the other hand, that among all sectors represented by the study entities dilutive factors were more frequent for retail and wholesale trade companies - it was the case for 80% of the groups conducting such business.

The analysis of the influence of dilutive factors on EPS immediately showed that for over one fourth of the study entities in which the factors had appeared (i.e. 26.7%), they were insignificant and did not affect the basic EPS amount. For the
remaining entities, i.e. those in which dilution appeared and affected EPS (73.3%), an attempt was made to determine whether the change was significant. For this purpose a percentage difference between basic and diluted EPS amounts was calculated. For 81.8% of the entities the difference was insignificant and was less than 5% (for over half of the entities it did not exceed 1%). Only in the case of two entities (which constituted 18.2%) was the difference significantly higher and reached over 15%, i.e. 16.4% and 27.0% respectively. Nevertheless, considering the whole study group it may be concluded that factors influencing the dilution appear rarely and cause insignificant differences between basic and diluted EPS amounts. Significant differences appear rarely and in this study they were the case for barely 3.3% of the study entities.

The groups in which dilutive factors have appeared appear present basic and diluted EPS amounts separately in accordance with IAS 33. What is more, they present both amounts in the consecutive reporting periods, even if dilutive factors no longer appear and basic and diluted EPS amounts are equal. In such a case, under IAS 33 dual presentation can be accomplished in one line. Therefore, in the next part of the study, the groups in which dilutive factors did not appear (they constituted 75% of all the groups) were analysed in respect of the method of presenting EPS in the financial statements. The results are presented in Chart 2.

Chart 2. Presentation of equal basic and diluted EPS amounts

Source: author's compilation.

From all entities in which dilution of shares did not appear, 44.4% chose dual presentation of EPS in one line usually named profit (loss) per share: basic and diluted while 48.9% chose separate presentation. In the case of the remaining 6.7%, only basic EPS was presented since dilutive factors had not appeared in any of the previous reporting periods. A detailed analysis of the information presentation in respect of the size of the group based on belonging to WIG20 or mWG40 showed significant differences. The WIG20 capital groups more often presented EPS in one line (80%) rather than in two separate lines (20%). In the case of the mWIG40 capital groups, a separate presentation was more dominant (63.3%) than dual presentation (26.7%).

In accordance with IAS 33, an entity that reports a discontinued operation in accordance with IFRS 5 shall also calculate EPS amount for the discontinued operation and disclose the amount either in the statement of profit or loss or in the notes. However, the satisfaction of that requirement was impossible to verify as only one capital group had disclosed such an operation in the statement of profit or loss. The group, however, presented only earnings per share amount for the whole operation (continuing and discontinued) and did not prepare any notes to EPS.

In the next part of the study, the notes to financial statements were analysed as under IAS 33 entities are required to disclose principles for the EPS calculation. First, it was examined how many study entities prepared the notes to that item.
of the financial statements. The results showed that 83.3% of the study entities included it in the financial statements - 80% of the WIG20 groups and 85% of the mWIG40 groups. Thus, no differences were observed in respect of the size of the group. What is more, entities which did not prepare a separate note to EPS reported additional information on basic and diluted numbers of shares directly in the statement of profit or loss.

Next, the nature and scope of disclosures in the notes were examined. It was checked whether the entities disclosed information on the number of shares that was the basis for the earnings per share calculation, a change in this number in the examined period, and if any change, what the reason for that change was. It was also checked whether profit or loss that was the basis for the earnings per share calculation was reported and whether details on dilutive factors were presented. The analysis showed that all study entities disclosed information on the number of shares that was the basis for the earnings per share calculation and the net income, i.e. information required by IAS 33. The situation was different for disclosures on the reasons for the number of shares changes, if such changes appeared, and on dilutive factors. From the entities in which a change in the shares number in the studied period appeared (they constituted 30% of all the entities), only 27.8% provided the reasons. However, such disclosures were frequently reported in the notes to equity. In the case of entities in which dilutive factors appeared in the studied period and which also presented the notes (21.7% of all the entities), 92.3% provided detailed reasons for dilution. It usually resulted from options per share issued within incentive plans for managers or from the issue of convertible bonds.

Finally, the analysis of disclosures in the notes verified the method of information presentation adopted by the study entities, i.e. whether it was a description or numerical table, or both. The results are presented in Chart 3.

Chart 3. Presentation of information in the notes

![Chart 3](chart3.jpg)

Source: author's compilation.

Usually the notes regarding earnings per share were presented both in a numerical table and in descriptions of reasons for changes in the number of shares or dilutive factors. Such a method was adopted by 84% of the entities which prepared the notes. The method was more frequently adopted by larger WIG20 groups (93.8%) rather that smaller mWIG40 groups (79.4%). Smaller groups more often presented information only in a table or only in a description without disclosing specific figures. Descriptions varied greatly - some groups presented synthetic information in a few short sentences, other presented detailed information significant for the earnings per share calculation.

Finally, the study verified if and how principles for the presentation and disclosures regarding earnings per share had been described in the accounting policy which is a constituent of financial statements. What should be first indicated is that 5% of the study groups did not include any description of principles for the assets and liabilities presentation in the published
financial statements. Only 26.7% of the remaining entities which included their accounting policies described principles for the presentation and disclosures on earnings per share. It might be related to the fact that IAS 33 exactly prescribes the principles for the EPS presentation and calculation, and the study entities did not want to copy those principles in their financial statements. Almost 90% of the entities which described principles for the earnings per share presentation in their accounting policy copied the principles set out in IAS 33 and limited the description to presenting principles for the EPS calculation.

5. Conclusions

Based on the analysis of financial statements of selected capital groups listed on the WSE which concerned the principles for the presentation and disclosures of earnings per share, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Capital groups under the study meet the requirement under IAS 33 and present information on earnings per share in the statement of profit or loss.
- The information presentation line in the statement profit or loss depends on the method of its preparation. If an entity prepares a statement of profit or loss and statement of comprehensive income separately, EPS is presented directly after the statement of profit or loss. If an entity prepares only a statement of comprehensive income, EPS is presented at the end of the statement.
- In 2015 dilutive factors were not frequent and appeared in only 25% of the study entities.
- The influence of dilutive factors on EPS remains insignificant and for 86% of the study entities the difference between basic and diluted EPS amounts did not exceed 5%.
- Not all entities disclosed information on earnings per share in a separate note; disclosures on the number of shares and net income constituting the basis for the EPS calculation which are required under IAS 33 were presented directly in the statement of profit or loss.
- Detailed information included in the notes was presented both in numerical tables or in descriptions; almost all entities in which dilutive factors appeared described why they had appeared in detail.

References:

[10] The financial statements of entities included in the WIG-30 index: WIG20 i mWIG40.
The Constitutional Legal Basis of Local Government in the Southeastern Countries of Europe

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Abstract

In the most general sense, the mission of the local administration or local government is to "ensure governance at the level closest to citizens". Knowing that local government has an important role in the functioning of the state and of law, the local governance in the political system in most countries is primarily seen in its relations with the central government. If the historic point of view is taken into account, the development of local government in Kosovo has a tradition of two centuries. If the Constitution of the Ottoman Empire of 1876 is reviewed, it shows the pyramid of organization of local government in Kosovo, which was in fact inspired from the local government in the West. Speaking about local governance means slotting or reviewing a range of significant phenomena directly related to the destiny of the state. The local government, according to the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, represents the public power. It sanctions municipalities as basic administrative and political units.

Keywords: constitution, government, local, Kosovo, Europe

Territorial organization of local government according to the Constitution of Kosovo and comparative review of this organization to some constitutions of countries of South-Eastern Europe

The role of local governance in the political system is primarily seen in its relations to the central government. Liberal and democratic observers have presented two bases, upon which these relations have been developed as of the 19th century. First, the local governance is considered as an important factor in encouraging and educating participants in political life and as basis on which services are organized in order to satisfy local needs. Second, the local governance is seen as something rational in administrative point of view, since it ensures the effective performance of public services, where services are necessary under the central administration.

In this regard, the local government is seen as embranchment of central government action (Political Dictionary, 2011). Ahtisaari determined a decentralisation plan that is more detailed than those that are part of each constitution in the region. As far as decentralisation is concerned, there will be a law for that, which does not provide for organization of the state power in three levels, but it will be in two levels, in the central and local government, therefore there will be no regionalisation either in the constitution or in the law. Constitutional tendencies lead to the purpose of decentralisation, which will carry on from political decentralisation into legal decentralisation, with the aim of providing administrative services closer to citizens. The law is the act that materializes the entire specification of the territory of Kosovo, based on the constitution with a special chapter taking into account harmonization and compliance with the European Convention on Local Autonomy. If starting from the historic point of view, the development of local governance in Kosovo has a tradition of two centuries. The tradition of local self-governance has existed from of the Ottoman Empire time. As of 1829 and onwards, the local government commenced. There are different periods at different times of the local power.
Kosovo in the Yugoslavian Kingdom had 14-16 districts and over 200 municipalities. In 1945, Kosovo had 500,000 inhabitants, whereas today it has 2 million inhabitants. Now we have a situation that should result from the census in order to define a municipality, then the geographic configuration determines the number that should be: 3000, 5000 or 8000 etc. Based on the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo in Chapter X, the local government units in Kosovo are the municipalities and the capital is Pristina, according to Article 12 of the Constitution of Kosovo. When speaking about the constitutional language for the local government, the Article 12 is also taking into account, because the capital city is also part of the local government as well as chapter 10. The local government in the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo is stipulated in Article 12, point 1, which states: "Municipalities are the basic territorial unit of local self-governance in the Republic of Kosovo". Whereas point 2 states: "The organization and powers of units of local self-government are provided by law." With regard to relations between the central and local government, the Constitution of Kosovo determines that the municipality is the basic territorial unit and the constitution does not provide for political regional regulation. The local government, according to the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, represents the public power. It sanctions municipalities as administrative-political basic units.

The Constitution empowers citizens the right to participate in local government through their representative bodies or directly, meaning that the Mayor of the municipality is elected from the citizens “one citizen one vote”, whereas the members of the Assembly are elected indirectly, known as representative democracy. Organization and functioning of local self-government is sanctioned in chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, provided in Article 124, paragraph 1 (Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo).

The municipality is the basic local self-government in the Republic of Kosovo. Municipalities have a high extent of self-government and encourage and ensure active participation of all citizens in the decision making process of municipal bodies, Article 13, paragraph 1 and 2: “The capital city of the Republic of Kosovo is Pristina” and paragraph 2 stated “The status and organization of the capital city is provided by law”, which means that Pristina is also a municipal unit determined by the Constitution, but it has a special status regulated by the law as it is the Capital of Kosovo by the Constitution. Article 12 of the Constitution of Kosovo should be in conjunction with the Chapter X, Article 123, points 1, 2, 3, 4 and Article 124, points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. Therefore, the law should be the act that is to specify the issues, whereas the Constitution provides for paths or tracks for further elaboration, taking into account economic and sociologic indicators of culture development, geographic situation and other numerous components that are taken as grounds for conducting territorial organization and local government.

The Constitution of Greece – Likewise in some other European countries, there are two forms of decentralization: territorial and functional decentralization. Currently based on the Constitution of Greece, territorial decentralization was set forth and guaranted in Articles 101 and 102 of the Constitution of Greece, wherein it is stated that administration of local issues is a responsibility of local bodies, that pertains in two levels, the first level territorial decentralization is comprised of municipalities (towns and cities with more than 7,000 citizens). Administrative authorities and urban municipalities that are divided in districts, according to their size, are the Mayor of the municipality, the municipal council; administrative bodies of a smaller rural community are the council of the community and the mayor of the community (Parke & Kirtman, 2004, p. 383-387).

The Constitution of Turkey – Based on the Constitution of 1982, Article 127 and the amendments of 1995, the administrative units are divided in 79 provinces. Local organization is conducted through 67 large municipalities and districts.

In the Constitution of Bosnia and Hercegovina, Bosnia and Hercegovina is divided into ten cantons, they are: the Una-Sana Canton, the Posavina Canton, the Tuzlia Canton, the Zenica-Doboj Canton, the Central Bosnia Canton, the Bosnia Podrinje Canton, the Hercegovina-Neretva Canton, the West Hercegovina Canton, the Sarajevo Canton and the Livno Canton (Canton 10). There is no special article on decentralisation. It summarizes the structure and division of
responsibilities/competences of federal and local governments: federal, cantonal, joint government, municipal and city government.

The Constitution of Serbia – Based on Article 188 of the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, the local government is regulated based on territorial units, and they are municipalities, cities and the Belgrade city. The territorial organization of the Republic of Serbia is organized according to the Law on Territorial Organization adopted by the People’s Assembly of Serbia on 29 December 2007. Serbia as a territorial unit is comprised of 150 municipalities, 23 cities and the city of Belgrade, as a special unit and from 174 local self-government communities.

Constitution of Cyprus – Administrative division of Cyprus, according to the Constitution of 1997, is divided into main districts, towns, villages and municipalities. The constitution provides for six districts. The district of Nicosia is composed of 56 cities, named in two languages: Greek and Turkish language, whereas the district Kyrenia is composed of 56 cities, named in two languages: Greek and Turkish Language. The district of Famagusta is composed of 90 cities. The District of Larnaca is composed of 3 states and 141 towns and villages.

The Constitution of Albania – According to Article 108, point 1, communes, municipalities and districts are units of local government. The Constitution of Albania has 8 articles on centralization. In the basic principles: Local government is founded upon the basis of the principle of decentralization of power and is exercised according to the principle of local autonomy (Constitution of the Republic of Albania, art XII). In the chapter on local government (sixth section): Determination of local government unit, determination of administration bodies of local government, authorizations and competences of local government.

Constitution of Macedonia – According to Article 114, units of local self-government are municipalities and the city of Skopje, as the capital of Macedonia. The Constitution of Macedonia has 4 articles on decentralization. In basic principles: the fundamental values of constitutional order include the local self-government (Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, art. VIII).

The Constitution of Montenegro – Article 114, the basic forms of local self-government are municipalities and communes.

Based on the Constitution of Bulgaria, local self-government and local administration are regulated according to Article 135, which is divided in regions, districts, communes, cities and municipalities. Article 136, point 1 states that the municipality is the basic territorial administrative unit, in which local self-government is implemented.

The Constitution of Hungary – According to Article 41, point 1 and 2, states that the territory of the Republic of Hungary is divided into administrative units including the capital city, districts, cities and villages. Point 2: the capital is divided in districts.

The Constitution of Moldavia – based on Article 110, the Republic of Moldavia is structured in regions, districts, cities and villages. Some cities can be declares municipalities based on the law. Administrative division of Moldavia has 40 regions, 6 republican cities and 4 centres (cities), including also the capital Kishinev. The province inhabited from Gagauz, which has an autonomous status, and 5 regions on the left side of the River Nistru (Transnistria acquired a statute as autonomous republic unrecognized by the Government).

Separation and functioning of state powers based on the Constitution of Kosovo in comparative point of view

As of occurrence of the modern state in political theory and in the constitutional law, the issue of state power separation and functioning has been discussed in horizontal and vertical line. Other conceptual main features that are in the constitutions include the purposeful separation or distribution of three main powers or functions of administration – the executive, legislative and judiciary, identified already by Aristotle and rediscovered by the French lawyer and philosopher Montesquieu. The type, character of state bodies, relations among them, was a topic of scientific, political and constitutional discussions. Early on, Montesquieu emphasized that there is no freedom if the three primary powers are not divided (Montesquieu, 2002). Only the people may build the power, if we preserve the notions of constitution, its initial meaning and its political sustainability (Duhamel, 1993, p. 20)
The principle of separation of powers in legislative, executive and judicial is the most important principle and element of the rule of law state. The main purpose of introducing this principle in legal theory and practice was the demand for better recognition and guarantee of individual’s rights and freedoms (Zaganjori, 2002, p. 97).

As known from the modern general theory of state and law, one of overall characteristics of state is the state power, or the apparatus through which it implements its political will. The state power is manifested and expressed in three basic forms, such as: constitutional and legislative power, executive – administrative power and judicial power (Elezi, 2007, p. 91).

The state power, based on the Constitution of Kosovo, is primarily manifested and expressed in three basic forms, in constitutional and legislative power, executive – administrative power and judiciary. In the basic provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, the separation of powers is sanctioned under Article 4, point 1, 2, 3 and 4. In Article 4, point 1 it is stated that: “Kosovo is a democratic Republic based on the principle of separation of powers and the checks and balances among them as provided in this Constitution”; point 2 “The Assembly of the Republic of Kosovo exercises the legislative power”; point 3 (The Constitution of The Republic of Kosovo, cl.2, 3)

“The President of the Republic of Kosovo represents the unity of the people”. The President of the Republic of Kosovo is the legitimate representative of the country, internally and externally, and is the guarantor of the democratic functioning of the institutions of the Republic of Kosovo, as provided in this Constitution”; point 4 “The Government of the Republic of Kosovo is responsible for implementation of laws and state policies and is subject to parliamentarian control” and point 5 “The judicial power is unique and independent and is exercised by courts” (The Constitution of The Republic of Kosovo, cl. 4)

According to the Constitution of Greece, the state power is sanctioned based on Article 26, point 1, 2, 3. The legislative power shall be exercised by the assembly and by the speaker of the assembly, that is different from the exercise of legislative power in the Constitution of Kosovo, wherein the speaker of the parliament is not underlined; the executive power shall be exercised by the president and the. There is also a substantial distinction to the Constitution of Kosovo, in which it was sanctioned that the executive power shall be exercised by the government; and the judicial power shall be exercised by the courts, which render judgments in the name of the Greek People (The Constitution of the Republic of Greece).

The Constitution of Turkey – the state power in Turkey functions based on the principle of separation of powers and is dividing according to Articles 7, 8 and 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey. The Legislative power belongs to the Grand National Assembly of Turkey, which is composed of parties wining 10 % of ballots. The assembly is a single chamber, composed of 550 members with a 5 year mandate and it acts on behalf of the Turkish nation. There are no divisions in exercising the legislative power, but in composition of the MPs, because Kosovo has 120 MPs, whereas the National Assembly of Turkey has 550 MPs, and the second difference is with regard to the election. In Kosovo, it is 5 %, whereas in Turkey 10 % in order for the political parties to get seats in the parliament.

This power cannot be delegated. From the historical point of view, some distinguished personalities of the Albanian nation were stakeholders and part of the legislation as of September 1908, after the promulgation of the Law on Parliamentary Elections, in September 1908. On 17 December of the same year, the Young Turk Parliament was established. In the parliament 26 members of the parliament were elected from the provinces inhabited by the Albanians, among whom there were Ismail Qemali, Nexhip Draga, Hasan Prishtina, Shahin Kolonja, etc. Within the Parliament an opposition group was established from the members who had liberal and anti-centrlist views, led by Ismail Qemali (Bicaj, p.164).

According to Article 8 of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, the executive power shall be exercised by the President of the Republic, who is the head of the state and is elected by a majority of at least two thirds of the Grand National Turkish Assembly, known as Meçlis, for a mandate of seven years, but only for a single mandate. In order for a candidate to be qualified for such a function shall be a Turkish citizen and shall be over 40 years old, which implies a fundamental distinction, since the President of Kosovo does not possess these executive competences exercised by the Turkish President.
The Turkish President shall chair the National Security Council and perform the function of the Chief Commander. During the war times, the Chief of General Headquarters acts as the Chief Commander on behalf of the President. The president has the authority to promulgate or return laws to the parliament for review, to call public referendums, to call the new parliamentary elections, to nominate the prime minister or to accept his/her resignation, to appoint or dismiss ministers, to ratify and publish international agreements, etc.

The executive power is exercised by the President and the Council of Ministers, chaired by a Prime Minister. The Prime Minister is appointed by the President from the members of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey and he/she appoints ministers, prior to the general elections.

According to Article 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, the judicial power is exercised by the independent courts in the name of the Turkish People. If comparisons take place, it comes out that the judiciary is exercised by the courts, in both states, based on their constitutions, either the one of Kosovo or of Turkey; however, in the Turkish Constitution there are several types of courts, which are not foreseen in the Kosovo Constitution, i.e. the Military Court. Moreover, it is provided for that Turkey has a unified legal system of civil and military courts, each of that with the court of appeals as a final instance for reviewing decision and trials made by the courts of justice. The Constitution of 1982, provided for the establishment of courts on state security in dealing with criminal offences against domestic and external security of the state (Constitution of the Republic of Turkey).

The state power in Bosnia and Herzegovina based on the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina, respectively Article 4, 5 and 6, it also separated in legislative power that is exercised by the Parliamentary Assembly, composed of the Chamber of Representatives and the Chamber of Peoples. The distinction here is on the fact that Kosovo has a constitutional and legislative institution, whereas based on the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the legislative power is exercised by the Parliamentary Assembly, which comprises of two chambers.

The executive power is exercised by the Presidency and the Council of Ministers, whereas the judicial power is exercised by the regular courts and the Constitutional Court (Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina).

Based on the Constitution of Serbia, Article 4, there is separation of legislative, executive and judicial powers. The relation between the three branches of the state power, which is based on their reciprocal check and balance. The legislative power, based on Article 98 of the Constitution of Serbia, is exercised by the National Assembly; the executive power is exercised by the president of the republic and the government that is the main institution in charge of the executive power, whereas the judicial power is exercised by the courts. Compared to the Constitution of the Republic Kosovo, there is no fundamental distinction in the internal composition of the parliament and its structure (Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, art. XCIV).

Based on the Constitution of Cyprus, the state power is separated in legislative power, which is provided under Article 61, exercised by the chamber of representatives in all matters, except for special cases by the chambers of municipalities. That is to say that there are distinctions in composition and structure of the legislative body, then, there are also functional distinctions. The executive power is exercised by the president of the republic, the vice president and the council of ministers, with separated powers (Constitution of Cyprus, art. LXI).

The legislative power is exercised by the single chamber parliament; the Chamber of Representatives comprises of 80 members, elected directly by the people, with a mandate of 5 years, 56 from the Greek community and 24 from the Turkish community. The executive power is exercised by a president and a vice president, elected from both communities, together with the council of ministers, 7 Greek ministers and 3 Turkish ministers, appointed by the president and the vice president. The president of the state is elected directly by the people for a mandate of 5 years (Lidia & Mushat, p. 123).

Based on the Constitution of Albania, Article 7, the state power is separated and balanced among the legislative, executive and judicial power. The legislative power is exercised by the parliament, the executive one by the government, respectively the Council of Ministers and the judiciary by the courts (Constitution of the Republic of Albania, art. VII).
The state power in the Republic of Macedonia, based on the constitution, is separated in legislative power exercised by the parliament, executive power exercised by the government and the judiciary by the courts according to Article XCVIII (Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, XCVIII).

By the Constitution of Montenegro, the state power is separated into legislative, executive and judiciary. The separation of powers is made according to Article XI of the Constitution of the Republic of Montenegro (Constitution of the Republic of Montenegro, art XI).

In the Republic of Macedonia, the state power is separated based on Article LXII. The legislative power is exercised by the National Assembly, whereas the executive power by the Council of Ministers, according to Article CV of the Constitution of the Republic, whereas the judicial power is exercised by the courts, as per Article CXVII (Constitution of the Republic of Bulgaria, art. CXVII).

The new Constitution of Hungary is combined with a range of basic laws that were adopted at the end of 2011, excluded all the possibilities of control by the government and the ruling party. The power of the Constitutional Court was put in shadow, and it was requested a regulation on religion, by reducing the number of registered religious sects to 14, wherein no other religion is included, apart from Christianity and Jewish. The Constitution of Hungary sanctions the separation of power based on Article 19. The Parliament is the legislative body; the executive power is exercised by the government, according to Article XXXIII, whereas the judicial power is exercised by the courts based on Article 45 of the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary (Constitution of the Republic of Hungary, art. XXXIII, XLV).

Also in the Republic of Moldavia, the power is separated, but balanced. The separation of power is sanctioned in general provision, based on Article VI, wherein it is stated that the power is separated in legislative, executive and judiciary. The legislative power is exercised by the parliament, the executive power by the government, whereas the judicial power by the courts, based on Article CXIV of the Constitution of the Republic of Moldavia (Constitution of the Republic of Moldavia, art. CXIV).

Conclusion

This chapter includes comparative models of the constitutions of 11 countries of South Eastern Europe, in the scope of structure, content, democratic orientation of political regime sanctioned based on the constitution of countries of South Eastern Europe and Kosovo; forms of state government, based on the above-mentioned constitutions; territorial organization of local government, according to the Constitution of Kosovo and some constitutions of the countries of South Eastern Europe and separation and functioning of state powers.

My conclusion in comparative structural aspect of the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo, in relation to these 11 constitutions of the countries of South Eastern Europe, provides that any effort to understand or compare constitutions today was not possible without any historical background and the political and social context in which basic principles contained in the document would be set, as mentioned above. Distinctions and similarities could be surprising.

Political regimes sanctioned by all constitutions that are subject of my review, all countries or states of democratic regime, which implies that as an expression of citizen will through their legitimate representatives, determined the form of regime and afterwards it comes out that the forms of state government are sanctioned in the constitution as parliamentary republics, some of them as presidential republics and some as semi-presidential republics; it comes out that the state power is divided and balanced, whereas the organization of local administration appears to be distinctive in all countries in which these constitutions were sanctioned.

Literature


[12] The Constitution of Republic of Kosovo. Art XIII, cl. 1,2,3,4,5,6,7


[14] The Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina, art. IV, V, VI


[16] The Constitution of Albania, art. CVIII, cl. 1, 7


[18] The Constitution of Macedonia, art. CXIV art. IV

[19] The Constitution of Montenegro, art. CXIV


[21] The Constitution of Moldavia, art. CX cl. 1

[22] The Constitution of Cyprus, art. LXI
An Integrated Multi-Criteria Decision Making Approach for Tablet Computer Selection

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Abstract

Today, educational institutions follow modern technology and use technological products such as smart board and tablet computer widely as education tools owing to the rapidly developing technology. The lessons supported by these technologies, make learning more effective by influencing student motivation positively. In that scope, the discussed developing technology and its innovative tools will help to improve the quality of education in the long term and contribute to the development of the different skills of the students. In this study, tablet computer selection problem of a high school located in Denizli, Turkey will be analyzed deeply. That determined high school decided to use tablet computers in the lessons as an education tool and the school management aimed to select the most suitable tablet computer to give their students. In this context, tablet computer alternatives have been assessed by an integrated approach based on the combined use of two MCDM (Multi Criteria Decision Making) methods; AHP (Analytic Hierarchy Process) and OCRA (Operational Competitiveness Rating). The weights of the criteria were determined with AHP method, then OCRA method was used to rank tablet computer alternatives. The school management has been guided in the selection process of the most suitable tablet computer for their students. They found the search results satisfactory and decided to buy the selected tablet computer by the integrated MCDM method proposed in this study.

Keywords: MCDM, AHP, OCRA, tablet computer selection

Introduction

In recent years, due to the developments in electronic and information technologies, technologic devices that have internet connection like tablet computers and smart interactive boards have been widely used in the education. Many studies in the literature even indicate the usage of tablet computers in education would enable largely improved teaching quality (Wang et al., 2013; Anderson et al., 2006; Lomas and Rauch, 2003). On the other hand, lessons have become more interactive and engaging with the help of tablet computers. Also students become living highly informed by using of electronic technology products such as tablet computers, e-books and smart phones.

Tablet computer market has been developed vigorously in recent years and there are various alternatives and different brands in the marketplace. Also there are a lot of criteria to be considered while determining the most appropriate tablet computer. To select the most ideal tablet computer is a crucial decision for institutions and at the same time it is costly and time consuming. For this reason, in this study an integrated MCDM method is proposed for tablet computer selection. This integrated approach is based on AHP and OCRA methods. After determining the selection criteria, their weights are determined by using AHP method. Later tablet computer alternatives are evaluated and the best one is determined with the help of OCRA method.

In the literature there are studies that considers the importance of tablet computer in education or try to determine the criteria to select the best tablet computer. Anderson et al. (2006), applied UTAUT (Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology) to assess the user acceptance of tablet computers by the faculty of a College of Business at a large university in the United States. Huan et al. (2011), proposed DEMATEL based network process and Structural Equation Modeling
(SEM) for deriving factors influencing the acceptance of tablet personal computers. El-Gayar et al. (2011) developed a model to understand college students’ acceptance of tablet computer as a means to forecast, explain, and improve their usage pattern in education. Wang et al. (2013), analyzed the key factors of consumer groups for tablet computer purchasing by using the combination of fuzzy AHP and MDS (Multidimensional Scaling) methods. Tsai and Chang (2013), compared the Apple iPad and non-Apple tablet computers with different multicriteria decision making methods. They used four MCDM methods, namely GRA (Grey Relational Analysis), VIKOR (Vise Kriterjumska Optimizacija I Kompromisno Resenje), TOPSIS (Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution) and AHP to evaluate and select the tablet computers’ rankings and then constructed a tablet computer evaluation performance model. Çetin and Demir (2015), determined the importance level of main and sub-criteria in selection of tablet computer by using fuzzy AHP. Raji and Zualkernan (2016), developed a decision tool for selecting the most sustainable learning tool intervention for a developing country with the help of MCDM approach based on the combination of ANP (Analytic Network Process) and Future Search Conference technique.

The difference of this study from others in the literature, AHP and OCRA methods are applied together to the tablet computer selection problem. The criteria weights are determined with AHP method and tablet alternatives are evaluated and the best one is determined by OCRA method.

The rest of this study is organised as follow. After the introduction section, AHP is explained in the second section. In the third section, OCRA method is introduced and the steps of the method is given. Application of tablet computer selection is presented in the fourth section. Finally conclusion of the study and suggestions for future studies are given in the last section.

**Analytic Hierarch Process**

Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) is a structured technique for organizing and analyzing complex decisions. It was developed by Saaty (1980) and owing to its simplicity, it has been widely used as an efficient MCDM method for ranking alternatives and determining the criteria weights. AHP can be defined as a process of hierarchizing a system in order to carry out a wide-ranging evaluation and final selection of one of the alternative solutions to a particular problem. The method can also be understood more broadly as a theory of measurement using quantitative and/or qualitative data (Cabala, 2010).

In the literature, AHP method has been applied to different fields such as strategic planning (Arbel and Orger, 1990), evaluation of advanced construction technology (Skibniewski and Chao, 1992), warehouse site selection (Korpela and Tuominen, 1996), strategic investment analysis (Angels and Lee, 1996), facility location selection (Yang and Lee, 1997), project management (Al Harbi, 2001), software selection (Lai et al., 2002; Karaarslan and Gundogar, 2009), managing risk in supply chain (Gaudenzi and Borghesi, 2006), selection process for a project variant (Cabala, 2010), supplier selection (Bruno et al., 2012), inventory classification (Lolli et al., 2014), energy management (Jovanovic’ et al., 2015), identifying the factors affecting on labor productivity of construction projects (Sherekar and Tatikonda, 2016), risk evaluation (Zeng and Xu, 2017), assessing renewable energy sources (Nasirov et al., 2017). In addition, AHP method has been also used in the literature to determine the weights of the criteria in MCDM problems. For instance, Macharis et al. (2004) integrated useful AHP features into PROMETHEE (Preference Ranking Organization METHod for Enrichment of Evaluations) method such as the design of the decision-making hierarchy and the determination of the weights. Önüt and Soner determined the weights of the criteria in transshipment site selection with AHP method. Dağdeviren et al. (2009) used AHP method to determine the weights of the criteria in weapon selection problem. Amiri (2010) proposed to use AHP method to determine the weights of the criteria in the project selection for oil-fields development. Kaya and Kahraman determined the weights of the criteria in multicriteria renewable energy planning by using AHP methodology. Demircanlı and Kundakçı (2015), determined the criteria weights in the evaluation of the performance of football players by using AHP method. Sançalı and Kundakçı (2016), used AHP method to determine the criteria weights in the evaluation of hotel alternatives. In
this study, AHP method is also used while determining the weights of the criteria in tablet computer selection problem. By this way AHP method is integrated with OCRA method.

The steps of the AHP can be summarized as:

**Step 1:** Firstly, evaluation criteria and alternatives of the problem are clarified. Then the problem is constructed as a hierarchy of goal, criteria, if exists sub-criteria, and alternatives. The goal of the decision making problem is placed to the highest level and the alternatives are placed to the lowest level. Then, criteria and sub-criteria are placed between them (Wang et al, 2007).

**Step 2:** In the second step, decision makers make pairwise comparisons. Firstly they compare the relative importance of criteria by using Saaty’s 1-9 scale given in Table 1. Then, pairwise comparison of alternatives under each criterion are made and pairwise comparison matrices are obtained. $n \times n$ pairwise comparison matrix $A$ based on the decision maker’s judgments can be given as in Equation (1) (Kundakci et al., 2015).

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & 1 & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & 1/a_{2n} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} (i,j = 1,2,\ldots,n) \quad (1)$$

Here, $a_{ij}$ indicates the decision maker’s evaluation of relative importance of criterion $i$ respect to criterion $j$ and $a_{ij} > 0$, $a_{ji} = 1/a_{ij}$, $a_{ii} = 1$ (Caputo et al, 2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensity of importance</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Equal importance</td>
<td>Two activities contribute equally to the objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Moderate importance of one over another</td>
<td>Experience and judgement slightly favor one activity over another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Essential or strong importance</td>
<td>Experience and judgement strongly favor one activity over another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very strong importance</td>
<td>An activity is strongly favor one activity over another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Extreme importance</td>
<td>The evidence favoring one activity over another is of the highest possible order of affirmation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2, 4, 6, 8</td>
<td>Intermediate values between two adjacent judgements</td>
<td>When compromise is needed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step 3:** The principal eigenvalue and the corresponding normalized right eigenvector of the comparison matrix give the relative importance of the various criteria being compared. The elements of the normalized eigenvector are termed weights with respect to the criteria or sub-criteria and ratings with respect to the alternatives (Bhushan and Rai, 2004) and this weight vector can be given as in Equation (2).

$$W = [w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n]^T i=1,2,\ldots,n \quad (2)$$

The elements of the weight vector are computed as the average value of the rows in the normalized pairwise comparison matrix $A$, as seen in Equation (3) (Caputo et al, 2013):

$$w_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j} \left( \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum a_{ij}} \right) \quad i,j = 1,2,\ldots,n \quad (3)$$

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Step 4: In this step, the consistency of the comparison matrices are evaluated and if they are inconsistent, decision makers re-examine their pair-wise comparisons. To search for consistency, firstly consistency index (CI) is calculated as in Equation (4):

\[ CI = \frac{\lambda_{\text{max}} - n}{(n - 1)} \]  

where \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) is the maximum eigenvalue of matrix A. Then the consistency ratio (CR) is calculated by using Equation (5):

\[ CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \]  

where \( RI \) values are the average value of CI for random matrices and obtained using the Saaty scale and given in Table 2. The comparison matrix is accepted as consistent if \( CR < 0.10 \).

Table 2. \( RI \) values (Saaty, 1987; 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>6</th>
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<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RI</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Step 5: A normalized relative rating \( b_{ij} \) is computed for each \( i \)th alternative respect to any criterion \( C_j \) in comparison with the other alternatives (Caputo et al, 2013).

Step 6: The rating of each alternative is multiplied by the weights of the sub-criteria and aggregated to get local ratings with respect to each criterion. Then, the local ratings are multiplied by the weights of the criteria and aggregated to get global ratings (Bhushan and Rai, 2004). A ranking score \( R_i \) is obtained for the \( i \)th alternative as given in Equation (6);

\[ R_i = \sum_j b_{ij}w_j \]  

The final ranking of the alternatives are determined based on these ranking scores. Alternatives are ranked in descending order of their scores.

OCRA Method

The OCRA (Operational Competitiveness RAting) method is a relative performance measurement approach based on a nonparametric model. OCRA is firstly developed by Parkan in 1994 and it is a very useful and simple method for analyzing different sectors and comparing different decision units. In addition, the ability to compare and monitor the performance of a decision unit over time is another important feature of this method.

OCRA is a non-parametric efficiency measurement technique and firstly it was proposed for solving performance measurement and productivity analysis problems. Later this method has been also used to solve various MCDM problems. In the literature there are studies that apply OCRA method to different fields. Parkan (1996a) evaluated the operational competitiveness profile of the hotels with OCRA method. Parkan (1996b) used OCRA method to measure the service performance of a subway system. Parkan and Wu (1996) used TOPSIS and OCRA methods to help a semiconductor manufacturer for selecting a process among four alternatives based on their operational benefits. Jayanthi et al. (1996, 1999) proposed an approach based on OCRA method for competitive analysis of manufacturing plants in the U.S. food processing industry. Parkan et al. (1997), proposed to use OCRA method to measure the operational performance of the application software development teams of a large bank in Hong Kong. Parkan and Wu (1998) solved a process selection problem in a manufacturing sector with TOPSIS and OCRA methods. Parkan and Wu (1999a) analyzed the relative operational performance of Hong Kong's manufacturing industries period from 1987 to 1993 with OCRA method. Parkan and Wu (1999b) used TOPSIS and OCRA methods for robot selection problem. Parkan and Wu (1999c) constructed performance profile of a bank with OCRA method and compared the obtained results with the results of Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA). Parkan and Wu (2000) applied OCRA method to process selection problem and also compared the
obtained results with the results of AHP and DEA to understand their similarities and differences. Parkan (2002) evaluate the performance of a public transport company with OCRA method. Parkan (2003) measured the relative performances of the drugstores by using OCRA method and analyzed whether the drugstore operations improved significantly after the deployment of a new electronic point of sale system. Tóth (2005) used OCRA method to analyze the performance of the Hungarian food industry. Parkan (2005) compared the operational performance of two hotels located in a large city by using OCRA method. Bakucs et al. (2011) obtained technical efficiency scores of farms in Bulgaria, Estonia and Hungary with Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA), DEA and OCRA, based on the data of national Farm Accountancy Data Network (FADN). Chatterjee and Chakraborty (2012) applied four preference ranking-based MCDM methods for solving a gear material selection problem. These methods are EXPROM2 (Extended PROMETHEE 2), COPRAS-G (Complex Proportional Assessment), ORESTE (Organization, Rangement Et Synthese Des Donnes Relationnelles) and OCRA methods. They also compared the ranking performance of these methods with the results of the past researchers. Chakraborty et al. (2013) solved facility location selection problem with grey relation analysis, MOORA (Multi Objective Optimization on the basis of Ratio Analysis), ELECTRE II (ELimination Et Choix Traduisant la REALité) and OCRA methods and obtained a final ranking with REGIME method to resolve disagreement in the ranks obtained by the four different MCDM methods. Chatterjee (2013) proposed to use eight preference ranking-based methods for decision-making in manufacturing applications. These methods are EVAMIX (Evaluation of Mixed Data), COPRAS, COPRAS-G, EXPROM2, ORESTE, OCRA, ARAS (Additive Ratio Assessment) and PSI (Parameter Space Investigation). Chatterjee and Chakraborty (2014) selected flexible manufacturing system by using six different preference ranking methods; Evaluation of Mixed Data (EVAMIX), COPRAS, EXPROM2, ORESTE, OCRA and ARAS. They also compared the obtained results. Darji and Rao (2014) proposed to use four MCDM methods for material selection in sugar industry. They compared the results obtained with extended TODIM (an acronym in Portuguese of Interactive and Multicriteria Decision Making), ARAS, OCRA, EVAMIX methods. Gbegnin and Gürbüz (2014) compared OCRA with operating margin. Madić et al. (2015) selected the most suitable nonconventional machining process for a given machining application with OCRA method. Özbek (2015a) measured the performances of foreign-capital banks by SAW (Simpel Additive Weighting), MOORA and OCRA methods according to six criteria; deposits, capital, labour, loans, interest income and non-interest income. Özbek (2015b) combined AHP and OCRA methods to evaluate the performance of public banks in Turkey. Özbek (2015c) used SAW, MOORA and OCRA methods to measure the performances of foreign-capital banks. Tuş Işık and Aytaç Adalı (2016) proposed an integrated approach based on SWARA (Step-wise Weight Assessment Ratio Analysis Method) and OCRA methods to evaluate the hotel alternatives and select the best one.

The steps of the OCRA method can be summarized as follows (Parkan and Wu, 2000; Chatterjee and Chakraborty, 2012; Tuş Işık and Adalı Aytaç, 2016):

**Step 1:** Decision matrix $X$ is formed as in Equation (7). In the rows of the decision matrix alternatives are placed, and in the columns the criteria are placed. In this matrix, $x_{ij}$ indicates the performance of alternative $i$ under criterion $j$.

$$
X = [x_{ij}]_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix}
x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\
x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn}
\end{bmatrix} \quad i = 1, \ldots, m \quad j = 1, 2, \ldots, n \quad (7)
$$

**Step 2:** In the second step, preference ratings with respect to non-beneficial criteria (cost criteria) are determined. Here, the performance values of the alternatives for the criterion to be minimized are calculated only and the beneficial criteria are not taken into consideration. The total performance of the alternative with respect to non-beneficial criteria are calculated with the help of Equation (8):
\[ \hat{I}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{g} w_j \frac{\max(x_{ij}) - x_{ij}}{\min(x_{ij})} \quad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \quad j = 1, 2, \ldots, g) \quad (8) \]

\( \hat{I}_i \) indicates the relative performance of alternative \( i \) and \( x_{ij} \) is the performance value of alternative \( i \) under non-beneficial criterion \( j \). Here \( g \) is the number of non-beneficial criteria (cost criteria) and \( w_j \) is the importance degree (weight) of criterion \( j \). \( w_j \) is used to increase or decrease the impact of the difference on the rating \( (I_i) \) with respect to criterion \( j \).

**Step 3:** In this step, linear preference rating of each alternative for non-beneficial criteria are calculated with the help of Equation (9).

\[ \hat{l}_i = \hat{I}_i - \min(\hat{I}_i) \quad (9) \]

Here, \( \hat{l}_i \) indicates the total preference rating of alternative \( i \) for non-beneficial criteria.

**Step 4:** In this step, preference ratings with respect to beneficial criteria (benefit criteria) are determined. For beneficial criteria the alternatives having higher value are more preferred. The total performance rating of alternative \( i \) for all beneficial criteria is calculated with Equation (10)

\[ \hat{O}_i = \sum_{j=g+1}^{n} w_j \frac{x_{ij} - \min(x_{ij})}{\min(x_{ij})} \quad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \quad j = g + 1, g + 2, \ldots, n) \quad (10) \]

Here \((n-g)\) indicates the number of beneficial criteria and \( w_j \) is the importance weight of beneficial criterion \( j \).

\[ \sum_{j=1}^{g} w_j + \sum_{j=g+1}^{n} w_j = 1 \] equality must be ensured. In other words, the sum of the weights of beneficial and non-beneficial criteria must equal to one.

**Step 5:** In this step, linear preference rating is calculated for beneficial criteria with the help of Equation (11).

\[ \hat{O}_i = \hat{O}_i - \min(\hat{O}_i) \quad (11) \]

**Step 6:** In the last step, the total preference value for each alternative is calculated by using Equation (12) and least preferable alternative will take the value of zero.

\[ P_i = (\hat{l}_i + \hat{O}_i) - \min(\hat{l}_i + \hat{O}_i) \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, m \quad (12) \]

Alternatives are ranked according to their total preference value. The alternative with the highest total performance value is in the first rank.

**Application**

A high school located in Denizli, Turkey, decided to use tablet computers in the lessons as an education tool and the school management aimed to determine the most suitable tablet computer to give their students. For this aim, firstly criteria for evaluating the tablet computers are determined by the decision makers from school management. These criteria are \( C_1 \) Screen Size, \( C_2 \) Storage Capacity, \( C_3 \) Memory (RAM), \( C_4 \) Processor Speed, \( C_5 \) Battery Capacity, \( C_6 \) Camera Resolution, \( C_7 \) Brand Reliability, \( C_8 \) Weight, and \( C_9 \) Price. Later, pair-wise comparisons are made for these criteria by the decision makers by using Saaty’s 1-9 scale given in Table 1. These comparisons are given on Table 3. Then criteria weights are determined by using AHP method.
Table 3. The pairwise comparison matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>C2</th>
<th>C3</th>
<th>C4</th>
<th>C5</th>
<th>C6</th>
<th>C7</th>
<th>C8</th>
<th>C9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/6</td>
<td>1/6</td>
<td>1/4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/4</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1/5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1/4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CR = 0.03

Calculations are obtained with the help of Expert Choice software. Consistency ratio of the pairwise comparison matrix is calculated and it is less than 0.10. So the importance weights are accepted as consistent. The weights of the criteria obtained from the computations based on the pairwise comparison matrices are shown in the Table 4.

Table 4. Weights of the criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>C2</th>
<th>C3</th>
<th>C4</th>
<th>C5</th>
<th>C6</th>
<th>C7</th>
<th>C8</th>
<th>C9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weights</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.081</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After determining the criteria weights with AHP method, tablet computer alternatives are evaluated with OCRA method. To form the decision matrix, firstly alternatives are determined by the decision makers of the school management. There are various tablet computers in the marketplace. After a preliminary investigation, they identified 10 alternatives that would best meet the demands of the school and the students. Then the decision matrix is formed as in Table 5. In the rows of this decision matrix 10 alternatives are placed, and in the columns 9 criteria are placed. In this decision matrix, the data for C7 is qualitative data and the others are quantitative data. These quantitative data were obtained from the website of an electronic retailer. To obtain the qualitative data, decision maker evaluated the alternatives by using 5 point scale in which 5: Excellent, 4: Very good, 3: Good, 2: Fair, and 1: Poor. On the other hand, some of the criteria have to be maximized and the others minimized. As seen in Table 5, criteria between C1-C7 are maximization criteria (beneficial criteria) and criteria C8, C9 are minimization criteria (non-beneficial criteria).

Table 5. Decision Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Optimization Direction</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criteria</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td>C5</td>
<td>C6</td>
<td>C7</td>
<td>C8</td>
<td>C9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternatives</td>
<td>(Inch)</td>
<td>(GB)</td>
<td>(GB)</td>
<td>GHz</td>
<td>(mAH)</td>
<td>(MP)</td>
<td>(GR)</td>
<td>(Euro)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After forming the decision matrix, according to OCRA method the performance ratings $\tilde{i}_i$ with respect to non-beneficial criteria ($C_8$, $C_9$) are calculated by using Equation (8). For instance $\tilde{i}_i$ value for $A_1$ alternative is calculated as:

$$\tilde{i}_1 = 0.027\left(\frac{770 - 314}{314}\right) + 0.081\left(\frac{200 - 185}{156}\right) = 0.0470$$

Then, linear preference ratings ($\tilde{\pi}_i$) of each alternative for non-beneficial criteria are calculated with Equation (9). For example, $\tilde{\pi}_1$ value for $A_1$ alternative is calculated as: $\tilde{\pi}_1 = 0.0470 - 0.0005 = 0.0465$. For other alternatives $\tilde{i}_i$ and $\tilde{\pi}_i$ values are calculated and given in Table 6.

**Table 6. Performance ratings for non-beneficial criteria**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>$\tilde{i}_i$</th>
<th>$\tilde{\pi}_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_1$</td>
<td>0.0470</td>
<td>0.0465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_2$</td>
<td>0.0581</td>
<td>0.0576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_3$</td>
<td>0.0437</td>
<td>0.0432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_4$</td>
<td>0.0211</td>
<td>0.0205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_5$</td>
<td>0.0232</td>
<td>0.0227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_6$</td>
<td>0.0427</td>
<td>0.0422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_7$</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_8$</td>
<td>0.0572</td>
<td>0.0567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_9$</td>
<td>0.0374</td>
<td>0.0369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_{10}$</td>
<td>0.0345</td>
<td>0.0340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, preference ratings with respect to beneficial criteria (benefit criteria) are determined by using Equation (10). For instance, $\tilde{O}_i$ value of $A_1$ is calculated as:

$$\tilde{O}_1 = 0.167\left(\frac{8 - 7}{7}\right) + 0.039\left(\frac{16 - 8}{8}\right) + 0.247\left(\frac{1.5 - 1}{1}\right) + 0.247\left(\frac{1.2 - 1.2}{1.2}\right) + 0.116\left(\frac{4200 - 3000}{3000}\right) + 0.020\left(\frac{5 - 2}{2}\right)$$

$$+ 0.056\left(\frac{5 - 2}{2}\right) = 0.3467$$
Then linear preference ranking is calculated for beneficial criteria with the help of Equation (11). For example, $\overline{O}_1$ value for $A_1$ alternative is calculated as: $\overline{O}_1 = 0.3467 - 0.2096 = 0.1371$. Later, for other alternatives $\overline{O}_i$ and $\overline{O}_i$ values are calculated and given in Table 7.

**Table 7. Performance ratings for beneficial criteria**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>$\overline{O}_i$</th>
<th>$\overline{O}_i$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_1$</td>
<td>0.3467</td>
<td>0.1371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_2$</td>
<td>0.2158</td>
<td>0.0062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_3$</td>
<td>0.4795</td>
<td>0.2699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_4$</td>
<td>0.2717</td>
<td>0.0621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_5$</td>
<td>0.5451</td>
<td>0.3355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_6$</td>
<td>0.2096</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_7$</td>
<td>0.8415</td>
<td>0.6319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_8$</td>
<td>0.3065</td>
<td>0.0969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_9$</td>
<td>0.2124</td>
<td>0.0028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_{10}$</td>
<td>0.6941</td>
<td>0.4845</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lastly, the total preference value $P_i$ for each alternative is calculated by using Equation (12) and least preferable alternative will take the value of zero.

For example, preference value for $A_1$ alternative is calculated as $P_i = (0.0465 + 0.1371) - 0.0397 = 0.1439$. For other alternatives $P_i$ values are calculated and presented in Table 8. Total preference values of alternatives are ranked in descending order. By this way the ranking of the alternatives is obtained as seen in Table 8. According to these values the best tablet computer alternative is $A_7$. It has been proposed to buy this tablet computer to the school management and they have found the results satisfactory and decided to buy $A_7$ alternative.

**Table 8. Total preference values of alternatives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternatives</th>
<th>$P_i$</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_1$</td>
<td>0.1439</td>
<td>$A_7$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_2$</td>
<td>0.0241</td>
<td>$A_{10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_3$</td>
<td>0.2734</td>
<td>$A_9$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_4$</td>
<td>0.0430</td>
<td>$A_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_5$</td>
<td>0.3185</td>
<td>$A_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_6$</td>
<td>0.0025</td>
<td>$A_6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_7$</td>
<td>0.5922</td>
<td>$A_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_8$</td>
<td>0.1139</td>
<td>$A_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_9$</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>$A_6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A_{10}$</td>
<td>0.4787</td>
<td>$A_9$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

Tablet computer selection is an important decision for the schools as it is costly and time consuming. In this study, to evaluate the tablet computer alternatives and select the best one for a high school, an integrated approach based on AHP and OCRA methods is proposed. After determining the criteria to be considered in the evaluation process, the criteria weights are calculated with the help of AHP method. Criteria weights are determined by using Expert Choice software, and “memory” and “processor speed” criteria have the highest importance degree with 0.247. They are followed by “screen
size" with 0.167, "battery capacity" with 0.116, "price" with 0.081, "brand reliability" with 0.056, "storage capacity" with 0.039, "weight" with 0.027 and "camera resolution" with the lowest weight 0.020. After determining the criteria weights, tablet computer alternatives are evaluated with OCRA method and the ranking is obtained as A7 > A10 > A5 > A3 > A1 > A8 > A9 > A2 > A6 > A9. As the best alternative is A7, it is advised to the school management to purchase this tablet computer alternative for their students. By this way, the school management has been guided in this decision making process.

In OCRA method, different rankings can be obtained if the weights of the criteria vary or the performance values of the alternatives change. OCRA method does not contain complex calculations and it is easy to understand. So this method can be applied easily to different MCDM problems. In the future studies, the tablet computer selection problem can be solved with different MCDM methods and the results can be compared. In addition, criteria weights can be determined by different methods like MACBETH, SWARA and entropy weight rather than AHP. It is also possible to use proposed integrated method to solve other MCDM problems.

Acknowledgements
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References


Financing Higher Education in the Islamic World Through Waqf (Endowment)

Dr. Mohamed Ibrahim Negasi

Abstract

This study shows the meaning of waqf (endowment), its rule, pillars, and its classifications. Then it discusses in detail the contemporary application of the waqf in the financing of higher education from the Islamic point of view. The contemporary applications of waqf, assimilate cash Waqf (Waqf al-nuqood) that are used to finance the establishment and maintenance of higher education institutions, as well as providing the study and research materials for students and lecturers. It is also applied for endowment of books and software program that are relevant to the research and study. Also the endowment of libraries and equipment needed by laboratories, labs and libraries, as well as endowment of the rehabilitation research centers. The study uses the descriptive, the inductive and the analytical method. Based on the discussions and analyses, the study concluded that Waqf plays an effective and influential role in providing funding for higher education.

Keywords: Financing Higher Education in the Islamic World Through Waqf (Endowment)

Introduction

Waqf was known to ancient civilizations even prior to Islam. For example, the pharos used to allot some money to utilize its dividend for serving the gods, temples, graveyards, and for providing income for priests and servants. Ancient Greeks and Iraqis were also familiar with the Waqf. The Arabs also used Waqf prior to Islam. They were accustomed to having some of their moneys dedicated for clothing the Kabah. In Islam Waqf became known after the Hijrah of the Prophet (S.A.W) to Medina. It is worth mentioning that there is no disagreement among the scholars on this issue. Waqf is considered one of the most important economic sources in Islam, and historically it had played a very significant role in funding educational institutions such as Qur’anic schools, Islamic studies, medicine, history and so on the types of Waqf for these institutions included services such as providing the schools with the educational needs, for example, payment of salaries for the staff, housing, health care and other daily expenses for the students. These services were rendered to the poor and the rich, males and females alike. However, the role of Waqf in the 20th century to provide funds to education in many Muslim countries declined as a result, the educational institutions lack funding nowadays. Therefore, there is a need to revive the role of the Waqf to bridge this gap. This can be done through immovable such as properties and movable assets and cash Waqf, then this Waqf is invested in Shariah compliant investments. The profits of such investments are then spent on high educational institutions in the form of grants for students, salaries for lecturers and administrative staff, as well as establishing new universities and their maintenance, as well as covering other educational needs.

This study, therefore, deals with Waqf in details as well as its practical application in funding Islamic high educational institutions. Finally the study proposes some approaches for overcoming the obstacles that may face this project.

The Concept of Waqf

waqf linguistically means to withhold and to restrict.¹ As for the technical meaning, the jurists have differed in defining it. This difference is due to some issues related to the rulings (akhām) of waqf. This study covers the most important scholarly definitions of waqf:

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Abū Ḥanīfah defined *waqf* as, “withholding a subject matter (asset) to be under the exclusive ownership of the endower (*wāqif*), and to give in charity its usufruct or dispose of its usufruct to a party chosen by the endower.”

Ibn ‘Arafah defined it as “Giving the usufruct of an asset throughout the duration of its existence with the compulsory requirement of it remaining in the ownership of the benefactor even if symbolically.”

The author of *Mughnī al-Muhtāj* defined it as “the restricting of wealth that can be used to derive benefit from it while it remains in its original form in order to restrict its disposal to a permissible avenue.” Al Bahwati Defined *waqf* as “An outright owner restricting the usage of some of his wealth that is productive while the original form of the wealth remains intact and at the same time the owner’s right to dispose of that wealth is terminated.”

Monzer Qahf is one of the modern scholars who defined it as, “A permanent or temporary dedication of some form of wealth with the aim of benefitting from it or from what it produces on a repeated basis and channeling such benefit to any form of private or public charity.”

After the presentation of these definitions of *waqf*, it can be said that the appropriate definition that the author is inclined to is the one that comprises of all the core elements which *waqf* can be defined by. The core elements are as follows: The endower of the *waqf*, the beneficiary of the *waqf*, the subject matter of the *waqf*, and the objective of the *waqf*. The definition that the author is inclined to is the definition of Dr. Monzer Qahf but with some minor adjustments. Therefore, *waqf* is the dedication by the endower a portion of his wealth in order to benefit from it or from what it produces in one of the many forms of righteousness.

**The Ruling in Regard to Waqf**

The majority of jurists from Ḥanafī, Mālikī, Shāfi‘ī and ʻĀshārī schools of jurisprudence have concluded that *waqf* is permissible and encouraged. Its permissibility has been established in the Qur‘ān, Sunnah and Ijmā‘. In the Qur‘ān they referred to general verses that encourage charitable giving, volunteering, spending money and doing good. As for the Sunnah, many aḥādīth have been narrated that clearly indicate and prove the permissibility of *waqf*. Moreover, it has been accurately recorded that the ʻĀshāhī (companions) and Tābi‘īn (followers) made *waqf* from their wealth, and none of them condemned the action, so this constitutes a consensus (*ijmā‘*) on the permissibility of the *waqf*.

**The Pillars of Waqf**

The majority of jurists have agreed that *waqf* has four pillars. They are the endower of the *waqf* (*wāqif*), the beneficiary of the *waqf* (*al-mawqūf al-ʿalābiḥ*), the wealth/ asset being endowed (*al-māl al-mawqūf*) and the format (*ṣīghah*).

**The Classification of Waqf**

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5Qahf, Monzer, Contemporary juristic issues concerning Islamic endowments, p. 21.
7Ibid., Vol. 8, p. 392.
8Al-Jamāl, Ahmad Mohamad, (1428) the role of the Islamic *waqf* system in contemporary economic development, al qāhirah: Dār al-alsālah, p. 41.
9The Ḥanafīs are of the opinion that *waqf* has one pillar only, which is the form.
10Al-Bahwātī, *Kashf al-Qinā‘*, Vol. 4, p. 239.
\textit{Waqf} is classified into three types based on the differences between certain factors that must be considered:

First: In terms of the aim of the \textit{waqf}: This type consists of three sub-types: ¹

1. Family \textit{Waqf}: This sub-type of \textit{waqf} is dedicated to the endower himself or his offspring or a combination of the two, or a specific person. Besides that it could be used for any philanthropy purpose.
2. Charitable \textit{Waqf}: This sub-type of \textit{waqf} is established for charitable purposes such as building schools, mosques and hospitals.
3. Combined/Multi-purpose \textit{Waqf}: This sub-type of \textit{waqf} is established for a combined purpose of serving offspring and philanthropy at the same time. This happens in a situation where the endower allocates a portion of the \textit{waqf} wealth/asset for his children and at the same time, he endows a portion for the purpose of philanthropy.

Second: \textit{waqf} in terms of its location: ² This branch has two sub-types:

1. \textit{Waqf} of real estate (immovable assets): This sub-type of \textit{waqf} refers to the endowment of wealth/asset that is immovable and non-transferable from one place to another. ³ An example of this sub-type is land that has or has not been constructed upon. \textit{Waqf} of real estate is permissible according to all Muslim jurists.
2. \textit{Waqf} of movable wealth: This sub-type of \textit{waqf} refers to anything that is movable and transferable from one place to another without causing a change to its shape and form. ⁴

Third: \textit{Waqf} in terms of its time duration: ⁵ This type has two sub-types:

1. Permanent \textit{Waqf}: has no specific time duration it is intended for an indefinite purpose. It is permissible according to the consensus of the Muslim jurists.
2. Temporary \textit{Waqf}: is when the endower of the \textit{waqf} has a specified amount of time during which the wealth/asset is endowed. After the specified time ends, the wealth/asset returns to the ownership of the endower.

\textbf{Contemporary applications of \textit{Waqf} in financing higher education:}

The financing of education in general and higher education in particular is one of the biggest problems that are faced by the Islamic world due to the high costs of education and the expansion of higher education, owing to the increase in the number of enrolled students in higher education. In fact this has resulted the lower quality in educational institutions due to the high number of students and lack of adequate and appropriate preparations for teaching and research, such as: laboratories, teaching aids, libraries with books and databases, and the non-alignment of outputs to the needs of the institutions.

The main reason for the funding crisis experienced by the institutions of higher education in the Islamic world is that the state is the one that provides the bulk of funding for the high educational process, while the possibilities of the countries of the Islamic world are very limited in which that they do not meet the needs for education, and hence there must be alternative sources of funding that should meet the need for high education, the \textit{Waqf} can contribute to the provision of a large part of the funding for higher education. This alternative is available only through \textit{waqf}, and the \textit{waqf} practice can contribute to the provision of a large part of the funding for higher education. There are many contemporary experiences of university endowments more especially the famous universities around the world, particularly in developed countries such as Harvard University, Yale in USA. Cambridge and Oxford in Britain, Kyoto University in Japan and Melbourne University in Australia.

The higher education institutions in the Islamic world could benefit from the experiences of Western universities in relying on the \textit{Waqf} to provide a large part of funding in the educational process.

¹ Al-Mahmadi, Ilaif Mohamad yousouf, (1422) understanding \textit{waqf} and its types, paper presented to the first \textit{awqāf} conference organized by Umm al-Qura university, Mecca, p. 155.
⁴ Ibid., p. 7.
⁵ Al-Jamal, the role of the Islamic \textit{waqf} system in contemporary economic development, p. 26.
The higher education institutions can be funded through the following methods:

1-Cash Waqf

The technical meaning of cash is, "any physically existing thing that can possibly serve the purpose of being a medium of exchange, and a measure of value, and a store of value at the same time. The scholars have differed in terms of the legality of the cash waqf in two opinions:

The First Opinion: The Hanafī and Malikī jurists have ruled that cash waqf is permissible.¹ Those who hold this opinion draw evidence from the Sunnah, ‘urf (customs) and logic.

The Second Opinion: The views of Abū Ḥanīfa, Abū Yusuf, al-Shāfi‘ī, and Ibn al-Ḥājib and IbnShās from the Malikit school of jurisprudence, considering cash waqf impermissible because benefit cannot be gained from it except by depleting it completely. This is because there is no benefit that can be gained from it except by utilizing it and this contradicts the principle of waqf, which is permanence of the endowed asset². Those who held the opinion that cash waqf is impermissible depended on logical sources of evidence.

The waqf institute can choose one of the following two methods in financing higher education:

The first method: The waqf institute can grow all the cash it has collected by utilizing the various investment modes that are Sharī‘ah compliant, such as muḍāraba, mushārakah, ijārah and other modern and contemporary investment modes that have been developed by the Islamic banking sector. The expenses of the beneficiaries will be covered from the profit of the investment only, while the capital of the waqf would remain protected and undiminished.³ It is important to note that when investing the waqf funds especially when such funds are in the form of liquid assets, certain investment parameters that have been proposed by some studies, which dealt with the issue of investing the waqf funds should be followed. These parameters are as follows:⁴

a) The investment mechanism must be Sharī‘ah-compliant.
b) Conducting feasibility studies for the selected investments.
c) Weighing the economic benefit and the social benefit of the investments.
d) Weighing between the risk and return of the investments.
e) Weighing between direct investment and investment through others.
f) Diversification of investment.

The second method: The waqf institute can divide the endowed funds into two portions; a portion that would be invested using the modes of investment mentioned in the first method to ensure the continuity of the waqf, while the second portion would be allocated for the financing of the higher education.⁵ The current study will attempt in the following sections to discuss some proposed practical mechanisms for the financing of Islamic schools. In this regard, the waqf institute can implement one of the following two mechanisms in financing higher education⁶:

The first mechanism: Donations

The waqf institution has the option of allocating certain amounts to be donated to the higher education in the form of scholarships. These scholarships should be given to the needy segment of the student population such as the destitute,

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³Al-Zarqā, temporary waqf for the financing of small projects for the poor, p. 15.
⁴Al-Thamālī, cash waqf, p. 33-36.
⁵Al-Zarqā, temporary cash waqf, p. 4-5.
⁶ʻUmār, the mechanisms of Islamic financing of small projects, p. 52.
poor and orphan students in addition to overachieving students. These scholarships can cover the tuition fees, housing and living expenses, medical costs and all the teaching necessities. As for the private donations that target the establishment of universities, they should be directed to areas where higher educational institutions are few in number or to areas where they are nonexistent due to the lack of human resources or marginalization arising from political, religious or ethnic conflicts. As for the financing of existing higher educational institutions, it can be done with the aim of enhancing and developing such institutions. For example, the wasf institution can donate an amount of money to build a students' hostel or lecture rooms or computer labs, or constructing new universities or maintaining the hostels, computer labs and lecture rooms. Donations can also be directed towards supporting and financing research and studies that can facilitate the development of higher education.

The second mechanism: benevolent qard

The wasf institution may not have adequate financial resources to finance the higher education via donations. Therefore, it may resort to financing through the mechanism of benevolent qard for the individuals and institutions that are willing to do that. Financing through the mechanism of benevolent qard differs from the mechanism of financing through donations. Therefore, the wasf institution should follow certain procedures to ensure the full payment of the qard.

2-waqt of books:

This type of waqt is available for many people to participate because of the low cost of the book in this era, apart from this, it is easy to be found and disseminate. Thus, people can be encouraged to this type of endowment in a variety of ways; such as: Waqif buys a set of useful books, and then he sends certain copies to the libraries in the name of Waqf, or that the author makes an endowment for the copyrights of the book and publishing it to those who want to publish it free of charge, hence he would be endowed the incorporeal rights of the book1.

3-waqt of software related to research:

Some computer programs includes a large number of specialized books, and there is available search machine in these program that enables the researcher to access the information that is looking for accurately. For he who wish to endow this type of program to buy copies of the program, and then provide it to libraries of higher education institutions2.

4-waqt of libraries:

In this kind of endowment, Waqif is going to build a library and provide it with the books that the institutions of higher education need in different field, or the specialization determined by the waqif. As it can be equipped by the means that is going to serve and help the researchers, such as computers, Databases, and search machine3.

5-waqt of devices:

Waqif can endow the computers, or equipment required by the libraries, or specialized workshops, or materials and devices needed by researchers, which can be used by a sample to serve the researchers, and to develop a scientific research4.

6-waqt for the centers of rehabilitation of researchers:

At present, the centers of vocational training and administrative development have emerged significantly. In addition, the higher education institutions need specialized centers in the rehabilitation of researchers in all kind of knowledge to support

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the educational institutions, and provide the researcher with all skills in the method of contemporary scientific research, technical skills, creative and innovative thinking skills. These centers are funded by endowments.¹

Conclusion

Based on the discussion of the subject, the study concluded that:

- **Waqf** is “the allocation of property (whether moveable and immoveable assets) by the owner for the purpose of benefiting others from it or from its proceeds in any kind of good deeds”

- **Waqf** had and still has significant role in supporting the field of education and its development in the Muslim world.

- The study is more inclined towards the opinion that argues for the permissibility of cash **Waqf** and it is considered as contemporary form which can contribute to finance the higher education at the present time.

- It also concluded that **Waqf** institutions may opt for either of the following for funding higher education:
  1. Investing all the cash **Waqf** and then funding the higher education from the investment’s dividends and revenues.
  2. Dividing the cash **Waqf** into two portions, one portion to be invested as a backup and to ensure that continuity of the **Waqf**, and the other portion is earmarked for funding the higher education.

- Among the contemporary applications of the **Waqf** is; endowment of the books and computer programs relevant to the research, endowment of libraries and devices, as well as endowment of the centers of rehabilitation of researchers

- The study is more inclined towards the opinion that argues for the permissibility of cash **Waqf** and it is considered as contemporary form which can contribute to finance the higher education.

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¹ Ibid. p.9.


[16] Al-Zarqā, Mohamad Anis Mustafa, temporary waqf for the financing of small projects for the poor.

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The President’s Address to the Federal Assembly (Exemplified by the President Putin’s Speeches)

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Abstract

The political discourse is a complex linguistic phenomenon which attracts attention of many scientists from different fields, which shows its interdisciplinary character. The material for the present research was the President’s address to the Federal Assembly, one of the important types of modern Russian political discourse. It is a relatively new genre in Russia (first address was made in 1994). The aim of the speech is to inform members of the Parliament and citizens of Russia about the situation in the country and outline the plan of the development. The author analyzed President Putin’s speeches from 2002 and 2012 (the composition of the speech, its topics and linguistic features).

Keywords: Russian political discourse, V. V. Putin, president’s address, president’s speech

One of important genres of political discourse is the president’s speech delivered in front of the Federal Assembly (the address to the Federal Assembly). The address, according to the dictionary definition is “an official document addressed by a state or social activist (or organization) to another activist (or another organization) connected with an important question” (Кузнецов, 1998, p. 932). Despite its importance for the Russian political discourse, this genre has not been thoroughly examined yet, only a few Russian authors examined some aspects of the problem (Викторова, 2008; Гусев, 2010; Дроздова, 2007; Зорькин, 2011; Сафонова, 2009; Стекова, 2012). In accordance with the classification proposed by J.I. Sheigal (2000) - division according to the nature of the intention - it belongs to ritual genres. The message is of institutional nature: the speaker acts as a representative of a certain public institution and as a person of a certain social status, which determines compliance with the established norms of the status, norms of the roles acted and situational-communicative status (Чудинов, 2012). It is a relatively new discursive genre in the Russian political stage. Its appearance is probably connected with the tradition of delivering reports at party congresses by the General Secretary, as well as the influence of the western political system. The first speech of this type was delivered in 1994 by B.N. Yeltsin (On the Consolidation of the Russian State (the main directions of domestic and foreign policy) and since then it has been delivered every year. In the period 1994-2002 the addresses had their names. Since 2003 they have not been named. The president is obliged to address the Federal Assembly by the Constitution of the Russian Federation (Конституция Российской Федерации, п.д., article 84). The address is delivered in Kremlin (before 2008 in Marble Hall, since 2008 in St. George’s Hall) in front of invited guests: members of the Federal Assembly, members of the government, members of the State Council, the chairmen of the Constitutional and Supreme Courts, the prosecutor general, the chairman of the Central Electoral Commission, the head of the Accounting Chamber, representatives of the Russian Civil Chamber, the leaders of the country’s main religions. The event is of a considerable importance and is broadcast live by the state television and radio.

Certainly, it is commonly known that the texts of official speeches of the head of state, including the texts of addresses to the Federal Assembly, are not written by presidents themselves but by a group of specialists. A.P. Chudinov (2012) underscores, however, that the president takes responsibility for their contents, delivering them (or signing, if the document has a written form). Those who listen to the address perceive its text as belonging to the speaker and expressing his views.
The aim of an address to the Federal Assembly is to present by the head of state the assessment of the situation in the country and to outline the priorities of the internal policy to follow, in the President's opinion, by the government and the Parliament. This analysis is based on two sample speeches: in 2002 and 2012. They are relatively large texts; the selected speeches consist of, respectively, 7,364 and 12,211 words (the data refer to the English version, in Russian they are, respectively, 5,686 and 9,652 words). Communication between the speaker and the recipients of the speech takes the form of oral monologue (even though with certain elements indicating attempts to establish a dialogue with the audience), stereotypical because of its form, official, institutional with an informative dominant. The analyzed speeches have the same structure: greeting or addressing the participants in the celebration, introduction, main body, conclusion and acknowledgements. On the basis of the comparison of the analyzed speeches with other speeches delivered by the Russian presidents it is possible to state that it is a structure characteristic of the particular discursive genre, although not every speech contains all the elements.

The first element of the structure of the address to the Federal Assembly is greetings or/and addressing the present. In the case of the speech of 2002, the president expresses both greetings (“Good afternoon, dear friends”) and addresses the audience (“Respected chairmen of the chambers of the Federal Assembly, Respected deputies of the State Duma, members of the Federation Council”); in the speech of 2012 greetings do not occur (“Citizens of Russia, Federation Council members and State Duma deputies”). It is important to note the addressees of the speeches. Undoubtedly the basic addressees of the speeches are the members of the Federal Assemblies gathered in the hall, members of the government, presidents and members of courts of law etc. The evidence of this is the very name of the genre (address to the Federal Assembly) as well as the expressions used at the beginning of the address (“Respected chairmen of the chambers of the Federal Assembly, Respected deputies of the State Duma, members of the Federation Council”, “Federation Council members and State Duma deputies”). Simultaneously, in the considerable majority of this type of speeches (addresses of V.V. Putin without the years 2002 and 2007, all addresses of D.A. Medvedev), the president also addresses the citizens of Russia. This is probably connected with the fact that the speeches are broadcast on the television and the radio, so beside the direct addressee appears a mass addressee, representatives of the people, who observe the political life thanks to the media. This allows us to speak about the theatrical nature of this genre (Weiāran, 2000). The applied rhetoric is also a method to underscore the unity of the recipients: all (the president, the representatives of the authorities present in the hall and the viewers in front of their TV sets) are citizens of the same state. In turn, calling the participants “friends” probably aims at an emotional impact on the listeners, as well as the use of the adjective “dear”.

Another element of the speech structure is an introduction. In the introduction to the speech of 2002, the president presents the purpose of the celebration: “We have gathered in this hall once more to sum up the results of the past year, and set tasks for the period ahead” (in 2012 this element was omitted). In both, then he sums up the previous year of work. In the speech of 2002, V.V. Putin concentrates on accomplishments in the domestic economy (“Last year, economic growth continued. We were able to create new jobs. The number of unemployed dropped by 700,000. Citizens’ real income increased by almost 6%. (...) the budget has made a profit for the second year in a row. (...) There is progress in the development of market infrastructure, in consolidating guarantees of private property. (...) I note the passing of the Land and Labour codes, packages on pension and legal reform, the debureaucratisation of the economy, and the improvement of the tax system”) and foreign economy (“We are paying off foreign debt in time (...) Export of non-raw materials has begun to increase. Supply of machines and equipment abroad has increased by a quarter over the last year. After a ten-year break, we have returned to the second place in the world in volumes of oil production, and to first place in the world in trade of energy resources”). In addition, he refers to particular quantitative data confirming the successes (“The number of unemployed dropped by 700,000. Citizens’ real income increased by almost 6%”). The speech of 2012, the country’s achievements are presented in far more general and casual terms (“Some of them are already being implemented, for example raising teachers’ wages and some other tasks. We have put together the required regulatory framework with regard to all other items on our agenda. The work has begun. (...) Today, in my first Address to the Federal Assembly since being elected President, I will not speak in detail about those plans. It is too early to talk about any
substantial adjustments but there are several points I would like to make in this regard. (...) The stage of national reconstruction and strengthening, which is enormous in its importance, has been completed”). Despite emphasizing the successes accomplished in the previous year, the president’s speech of 2002 also expresses dissatisfaction with the fact that not everything was achieved: “There are achievements here, albeit small ones. (...) However, another thing should also be admitted: political stability and a favourable economic situation are not fully made use of to improve the standard of living for the citizens of our country, and to gain Russia a worthy place in the international economic system. Are we satisfied with what has been achieved? Our answer is no, of course not, not at all”. The president also presents very briefly the directions of the development of the state: “Our goals are unchanged: the democratic development of Russia, the establishment of a civilized market and state of law. And most importantly, to raise the living standard of our people” (2002), “Our task now is to build a rich and prosperous Russia” (2012).

The main body of the address is dedicated to the Russian domestic and foreign policies. This part also has its internal structure; the president presents the information according to the scheme: description of the current situation (difficulties with which the state struggles), causes of the difficulties, description of the assumed results of the authorities’ actions, determination of the task for the future.

Accomplishments are presented not only in comparison with the previous year (“Last year economic growth continued”; “last year saw a record number of students in Russia”; “Supply of machines and equipment abroad has increased by a quarter over the last year”), the president also presents a longer time perspective (“the budget has made a profit for the second year in a row”; “After a ten-year break, we have returned to the second place in the world in volumes of oil production”; “A great deal has been achieved in the first twelve years of the new century”).

This part has its own internal structure. In the speech of 2002, in most of the cases the president presents information according to the plan: defining the problem which requires action on the part of the government (or a description of a current problematic situation), causes of the problem, determining tasks for the future (ways of its solving):

“The growth of extremism is a serious threat to stability and public safety in this country” (defining the problem)

“the police and prosecutor’s office often do not have sufficiently effective tools for charging the organizers and inspirers of these crimes” (cause of the problem)

“A draft law will soon be submitted to the State Duma concerning the war on extremism” (task for the future/way of its solving)

A variation of this information presentation structure and the scheme: defining the problem requiring action from the government (or a description of a current problematic situation), cause of the problem, the expected result of the actions, determining tasks for the future (ways of its solving):

“our economy should grow at much faster rates” (defining the problem)

“a favourable state of the foreign economy no longer ensures the necessary rates for the development of the economy and its competitiveness” (cause of the problem)

“the Cabinet does not expect higher growth rates” (cause of the problem)

“I believe that the main thing now is to create conditions under which citizens of Russia can earn money. To earn money and with benefit for themselves to invest in the economy of their own country” (the expected result of the actions)

“But to achieve this, it is necessary to remove the obstacles that still hinder people from living and working. And primarily, the actual work system of state institutions needs to be changed significantly” (task for the future/way of its solving)

The microstructure of the main body of the 2012 address is somewhat different. The president presents the information in the most cases using the simplified structure: defining the problem which requires actions from the government (or a
description of a current problematic situation), determining tasks for the future (ways of its solving). The speaker presents its position in a more decisive way, presenting the list of the tasks to implement:

“Poor government efficiency and corruption are major problems that everyone can see” (defining the problem)

“The following principles should be the key to the new model of public administration.

First. All parts of the state mechanism and all levels of government must be oriented towards a result that is measurable, transparent and understandable to the public.

Second. There must be extensive introduction of new forms and methods of control. Public opinion must become the main criterion for assessing the effectiveness of state bodies that provide public services as well as institutions in the social sphere.

Third. Effective motivation of municipal employees: competitive salaries, a system of moral, financial and career incentives to encourage continuous improvement in the work of state bodies. At the same time, personal liability must be increased dramatically, up to and including temporary disqualification.

Fourth. I ask you to support legislative proposals limiting the rights of state officials and politicians to hold foreign accounts, stocks and shares.

Fifth. Control over agencies exercising regulatory oversight requires special attention. I ask the Government Cabinet to submit proposals on ways to reshape the key functions of oversight agencies” (tasks for the future/ways of its solving)

In certain parts the president describes the steps already taken, and assures positive effects of the actions he suggested:

„I also want to particularly mention the social sector. The specialists working there are known as public-sector employees. (...) At the same time, in terms of their incomes, they are still beyond the middle class level and are unable to afford proper vacations or comfortable living conditions, and must constantly seek additional sources of income“ (defining the problem)

„I laid out my suggestions in detail in the executive orders I mentioned, as well as my pre-election articles. The executive orders signed in May set the parameters for wage increases for every category of workers in these sectors. I am asking the heads of federal and regional government agencies to mobilise all their resources to implement this goal“ (actions taken, tasks to implement)

„First of all, we will see a significant improvement in the quality of healthcare and education, because new, talented professionals will be drawn to these fields. (...) Second, the number of citizens who classify as members of the middle class will grow significantly – by a quarter. (...) Third, professional communities of medical workers, educators, scientists and cultural workers will gain a new impetus for development. (...) I am confident that growth of wages will attract top graduates to education, healthcare and science sectors“ (effects of the actions suggested)

In order to make the reception of the presented data easier for the listeners, the speaker applies several different means. One of them is turning to the addresses with phrases such as: “Dear State Duma deputies, members of the Federation Council”, “Dear Assembly”, “Dear colleagues”, “Dear friends”, “Dear colleagues and citizens of Russia”, “Colleagues”, “Friends”. This rhetorical means fulfills two functions. On the one hand, it helps to isolate small thematic blocs in a large text, on the other hand, it is a way to attract the addressees' attention. It is also a means serving to endow the speech with the dialogical qualities and, simultaneously, with the quality of emotional closeness to the listeners. It is important to note the phrases “Dear friends” and “Friends”. One may assume that they are directed not only to the people present in the hall but also to the mass addressee: the citizens of the country participating in the celebration through the mass media. Another means helping in the reception of the content of the speech is division of the information into thematic blocs and applying, within the particular blocs, language figures facilitating the logical organization of the information. The president, beginning discussing a new problem, uses phrases such as: “There is another important question”; “There is another very important topic”, “Another important issue”, “I would like to make another proposal”, “As for bankruptcy”, “As for the ownership of foreign real estate” “I would like to discuss the problems of small business separately”; “There are several points I would like to make in this regard”; finishing a particular thread: sums up (“And finally”; “To conclude this topic”). V.V. Putin applies
also enumeration: “First”, “Second”, “Third”, “Fourth”, etc. Another way to attract the listeners’ attention is also questions, to which the president then answers (“Are we satisfied with what has been achieved?”; “What do we need to do to achieve this?”; “Is Russia ready for this competitive fight?”; “What is the problem then?”; “Why do I think that this simply must be done in all important fields?”).

In spite of the fact that the address to the Federal Assembly is a genre of mostly informative nature (presenting the assessment of the situation in the country by the president), the imperative element (outlining the priorities of domestic policies for the government and the Parliament) plays here a very important role, which is clearly visible in the main body of the speech. The president, determining tasks for the future, applies lexical means of different degree of emphasis:

- requests or demands (“пожалуйста” – the address of 2002: 3 use cases, the address of 2012: 17 use cases): “I would ask you to pay attention to this issue”; “I would ask you to listen to the opinion of entrepreneurial associations attentively”; “I am asking the heads of federal and regional government agencies to mobilise all their resources to implement this goal”; “I am asking the Government Cabinet, jointly with the Presidential Executive Office, to put together suggestions on creating a system for publicly monitoring the quality of healthcare, education, results of academic research and the need for cultural institutions”; “I ask the deputies to pass these laws”;

- proposes, suggests (“предложение” – the address of 2012: 2 use cases; “предлагаю” – the address of 2012: 3 use cases): “I laid out my suggestions in detail in the executive orders I mentioned”; “I would like to make another proposal”; “In this regard, I suggest that we work with partners to promote (or rather to complete, since it has already essentially begun but needs to be finished) the process of creating an arbitration court for the Customs Union”;

- instructs and orders (“поручаю” – the address of 2002: 1 use case, the address of 2012: 6 use cases): “I already gave the according instructions to the Government”; “I am instructing the Government Cabinet to develop and implement a national system for evaluating the quality of professional training in the next two years”; “I am instructing the Government to make corresponding integrated proposals on this matter”; “I would instruct the Government to adopt a so-called road map for enhancing competition and to implement it next year”;

- determines what should be done (“надо” – the address of 2002: 44 use cases, the address of 2012: 13 use cases; “нужно” – the address of 2002: 22 use cases, the address of 2012: 62 use cases; “должен” - the address of 2002: 37 use cases, the address of 2012: 99 use cases; “следует” - the address of 2002 г. 7 use cases, the address of 2012: 2 use cases; “надо” - the address of 2002 г. 2 use cases, the address of 2012: 1 use case): “We need a court system that is respected in the country and outside it”; “We need a comprehensive system of measures to reverse the offshoring of our economy”; “An effective court system – I talked about this from the beginning – is needed”; “the Government should examine the possibility of further increasing the number of students”; “the daily work of our state institutions should be directed towards solving the according tasks”; “we should improve the improper elements in our own judicial system, in our law-making, in our law enforcement practices”; “The main thing that remains to be done is to give citizens the rights to control budget subsidies”;

- determines what is necessary (“необходимо” - the address of 2002: 23 use cases, the address of 2012: 15 use cases; “необходимость” - the address of 2002: 4 use cases, the address of 2012: 4 use cases; “нужно” - the address of 2002 г. 4 use cases, the address of 2012: 6 use cases): “But to achieve this, it is necessary to remove the obstacles that still hinder people from living and working”; “It is also necessary to clearly share the jurisdiction between arbitration courts and courts of general jurisdiction”; “I have already spoken of the necessity for administrative reform”; “A year ago I spoke from this tribunal of the necessity to establish order here”; “I want to stress that we have to examine in detail all aspects of Russia’s balanced regional development”; “I think that federal legislators must determine the structure of local self-administration”; “We must strengthen our position in space, nuclear energy”; “I believe it is crucial to support the idea of creating associations of student sports clubs”; “It is essential to introduce public reports by oversight agencies about the results of investigations, as well as the financial and human resources used to conduct them”; “Overall, it is imperative to come up with a set of measures to develop arbitration proceedings in Russia, at a qualitatively new level”; “It requires
a detailed discussion, consideration and analysis”; “Control over agencies exercising regulatory oversight requires special attention”;

- determines obligations and imposes accountability ("обязаны" - the address of 2002: 5 use cases, the address of 2012: 9 use cases; "обязательно" - the address of 2002: 2 use cases, the address of 2012: 7 use cases; "обязанность" - the address of 2002 р. 1 use case, the address of 2012: 2 use cases): “We are obligated to support this this type of attitude”; “they are obligated to consider jobs and ensure the economy’s growth rate”; “Meanwhile, the state’s direct responsibility is to create conditions for the development of economic freedoms”; “I appeal to the heads of the republics of the Russian Federation, to the governors and mayors of major cities. This is primarily your responsibility”;

- determines what he expects: “I am counting on the active work by the recently recreated Russian Historical Society”; “We expect much greater efficacy and professionalism from this institution”; “It is clear that the commission’s task is not easy. But we expect results from its work”;

- determines what he considers right and what inaccurate: “But to sign these agreements “behind the backs” of other Federation subjects, without preliminary discussion, without reaching a public consensus, is in my opinion not right”; “This is wrong and this situation is to be changed”;

- determines the weight of the tasks to implement: “I consider the organization of the census to be a top priority task”; “I expect that the development of the mortgage system should become a sphere of priority attention for both the federal Government and the regional authorities”; “One of the undoubted priorities is continuing military reform”; “I think this is the most important issue both for the Government and heads of the Russian regions”; “I believe it important that the changes have not just affected the organisation and work conditions of courts, but above all the procedures ensuring the protection of individual rights and accessibility of justice”; “Our key task is work on delineation of powers between federal, regional and local levels of authority”; “Essential changes in the structure of the economy, the launch of new industries and regaining leadership in traditional industrial sectors, as well as the development of small and medium-sized businesses are key targets”; “The following principles should be the key to the new model of public administration”; “Our major goal in foreign policy is to ensure strategic stability in the world”; “Our main goal – and we have talked about this a great deal, everyone knows about this – is to achieve inevitability of punishment, not its extreme harshness”; “That is precisely why issues of general education, culture and youth policy are so significant”;

- stresses the problems and tasks which he considers important: “I would like to remind you: reforms to the monopoly sector of the economy should be made in the country’s interests”; “I should also remind you: we still do not know the real volumes of the state sector”; “Corruption is not the result of a lack of repression – I want to emphasise this – but the direct results of limiting economic freedoms”; “I have talked about this many times but I want to emphasise it again”; “I want to point out that the Prosecutor General’s Office has now got the right to petition the courts to confiscate property that was acquired as the result of unlawful enrichment”; “However, I want to note something else: the norm in the international community, in the world today, is also harsh competition”; “I would like to note that the current organization of the state mechanism’s work, unfortunately, enables corruption”.

In the address of 2002, the president, determining tasks facing the country, does not mention the dates of their implementation at all. In this respect the speech of 2012 is completely different. V.V. Putin declares concrete dates of work completion embracing from one year to a few years ("I would instruct the Government to adopt a so-called road map for enhancing competition and to implement it next year"; “By the end of the first quarter of 2013, the Government must work out in detail its proposed measures, including tax breaks for so-called start-ups (new businesses), plans for the development of energy, infrastructure and so on”; “I would remind the Government that we must implement critical decisions relating to the so-called luxury tax already in the first half of 2013”; “We also emphasise that in 2013–2014 we will fully meet our obligations to provide housing to military personnel and war veterans, and make significant progress in relocating people from unfit housing”; “I also believe that as of 2014 regions should receive the right to tax real estate based on its cadastral value, and this would strengthen a given region’s tax base”; “I believe that beginning from no later than 2015 entry into Russia should only be possible for bearers of international passports”; “We have adopted a programme providing family (maternity) capital at the birth of the second child. It is being implemented successfully, and will continue to be implemented until the end of 2016. We will fulfil all our obligations under this programme”; “We have set the goal to create and modernise 25 million jobs by 2020. This is a very ambitious and difficult challenge, but we can achieve it”). In the speech of 2012, he also pays attention to a frequent use of quantitative data, which aims at convincing the citizens that the
solutions suggested by the president are based on correct premises and will certainly bring results, and the course taken by the government is correct, since it is difficult to discuss statistics prepared by specialists (“According to expert assessments, Russia’s inclusion in the group of 20 nations with the best business climate will allow us to add no fewer than 2.5 percent to the current GDP growth rate, and the additional growth will be primarily in the non-raw materials sector, through small and medium-sized businesses”; “The most important factor in economic revival is the quality of the work done by regional authorities. We already have regions that have no oil or gas but, as you all know, show GDP growth of more than 10 percent per annum. Incidentally, this is a good response to those who state that our growth rate can not be over 4 percent per year. Here you go, you can easily add another 2 or 2.5 percent to that, and end up with 5 or 6 percent growth”; “Using 1999 as a benchmark, our GDP per capita has almost doubled. Federal and consolidated budgets have increased, not by a certain number of percentage points, but by 2.6 times. Public debt in relation to GDP decreased almost tenfold. It went from more than 100 percent of GDP (I think it was about 120 to 125 percent) to 10 and some percent. Moreover, our external debt fell to 2.5 percent. The rate of inflation fell sixfold: in 1999 it was 36.5 percent and in 2011 6.1 percent. This year it will increase a little but remain less than 7 percent, at approximately 6.5 percent”).

It is worth noting that V.V. Putin, in his speeches, setting tasks for implementation, does not determine precisely the people responsible for their implementation. The addresses are the representatives of the authorities; the president, however, does not call particular names (“Thus, the Government should determine forms of state support of new technology”; “And the Government should examine the possibility of further increasing the number of students”; “I am instructing the Government to make corresponding integrated proposals on this matter”; “The Government should introduce programmes for replacing jobs with hazardous conditions and improving road safety”; “I would ask the Government to submit proposals concerning the future development of Kalingrad Region”). The lack of the agent specified by name is a trick that allows the recipient (the federal authorities) avoid responsibility (it is not known exactly, who should deal with the implementation of the particular aim). A similar function is fulfilled by the president’s use of the pronoun “we/us”. The speaker declares the implementation of the goal many times, but due to this pronoun it is not exactly clear who of the assembled is to deal with the particular question (“we should precisely and as quickly as possible deal with property that should be kept in state and municipal ownership”; “We must make the mechanism for carrying out the bankruptcy procedure and factory recovery transparent”; “we must create worthy social conditions for the military and their families”; “we must create a favourable environment for women”). In this context, numerous passive structures used in the both addresses also attract attention. The speaker does not place people responsible for the implementation of the aims as subjects in the sentences, due to which the recipients’ attention is focused on the sentence itself whereas the responsibility remains diluted (“They must be helped to find their place in the economic life of the country”; “an idea that receives public support, including via the Internet, must be considered”; “personal liability must be increased dramatically, up to and including temporary disqualification”; “the structure of executive power should be logically and rationally organized”; “reforms to the monopoly sector of the economy should be made”; “In connection with this, the concept and list of issues of “local significance” need to be specified legislatively”; “If necessary, changes to legislation need to be made”).

The speaker presents himself in his speeches in a double role. Presenting the state of the federation and determining the direction of actions in the future, V.V. Putin plays the role of the president of Russia. These parts of speeches are characterized by the frequent use of the pronoun “I” (“I want to thank the Federal Assembly and the Government of Russia, which cooperated constructively throughout this intensive period, and were often effective partners”; “As I said before, Russia today needs more ambitious goals”; in the articles written during the presidential election campaign and then in the executive orders signed in May 2012 I set out our position and our short and medium term plans”: “I have already talked about this, you know my opinion”). It is particularly visible in the parts of the speech where the speaker gives orders to the representatives of the government (“I am instructing the Government Cabinet to develop and implement a national system for evaluating the quality of professional training in the next two years”; “I am instructing the Government to make corresponding integrated proposals on this matter”; “I would instruct the Government to adopt a so-called road map for enhancing competition and to implement it next year”). In certain parts of the speech, V.V. Putin acts not as president but as a citizen concerned with the good of the country, which is emphasized by the use of the pronouns “we” and “our” (“our economy should grow at much faster rates. Otherwise we will keep losing out, and our capabilities in international politics and the world economy will be reduced”; “We are used to complaining about Russian bureaucracy, which is large and clumsy”; “We must make Russia a flourishing and affluent country, so that life here is comfortable and safe”; “we – as a country, a society, and citizens – can all overcome hardship and resolve significant problems”; “This is mainly the case only when we have problems with our own health”; “Our task now is to build a rich and prosperous Russia”).
The selection of topics in the main part of the speech is connected with their importance for the country and its residents as well as their importance in the priority system of the speaker himself. The fundamental thread comprises the tasks which the president appoints for the government (but also the citizens) to implement within a year. In his both speeches under scrutiny, V.V. Putin attaches the most considerable importance to the improvement of the economic situation of Russia, which probably results from the requirements of domestic and foreign policies. The president emphasizes the continuity of the action taken, and their long-term nature, referring to the previous speeches (“Our goals are unchanged”; “A year ago, we set a modest but extremely important task”; “In last year’s Address, I already gave the according instructions to the Government”; “A year ago I spoke from this tribune of the necessity to establish order here”; “we have talked about this a great deal”; “I have talked about this many times but I want to emphasise it again”). The topics discussed by the president in his addresses are: economic acceleration, the problem of small business, joining the WTO, administrative reform, judiciary reform, housing reform, problems of local governments, the federal structure, science, military reform, combat against terrorism legal system reform, cooperation with CIS countries, crime, management of the state property, combat against corruption, problems of public health system, strategic stability, bankruptcy of businesses, banking reform. Thematically, in both addresses under examination prevail problems of economic development of the country and judiciary reform. Therefore, the texts include numerous terms connected with these spheres (“economy”, “small business”, “market infrastructure”, “monopolies”, “state and private property”, “tax system”, “budget”, “subsidies”, “mortgage system”, “banking system”, “federal law”, “juridiction”, “arbitration courts”, “criminal legislation”, “punishment system”, “code” etc.).

The endings of both speeches differ considerably from each other. V.V. Putin finishes his speech of 2002 with another appeal encouraging to action (“We must make Russia a flourishing and affluent country, so that life here is comfortable and safe. So that people can work freely, and earn money for themselves and their children without restrictions and fear. And so that they strive to come to Russia, and not to leave it. So that they bring up their children here, and build their houses here”). In the 2012 address he expresses his unwavering certainty, that the established aims will be successfully achieved (“the time has come to drastically improve our situation. We are doing this and we can do it”). The addressee of the appeal rises certain doubts: the people thanks to the efforts of whom the aims will be achieved: “we” or “I (the president) and the government”, or else “we” or “all citizens of Russia”? In the main body of the speech the pronoun “we” is used many times, but it means the federal authorities or the speaking president and the government (“we need to modernize the system of executive power as a whole”; “we need to analyse the current functions of the state”; “we need to prepare a road map for the development of new industries”; “we must finish all work related to evaluating properties and verifying data about their owners”). At the end, the president, using the pronoun “we” means rather the citizens of Russia, the evidence of which is the part of V.V. Putin’s expression, commencing this part of the address: “But the main thing is that we – as a country, a society, and citizens – can all overcome hardship and resolve significant problems. And we must remember that we have accomplished this difficult journey in commendable fashion, and achieved our goals step by step”.

Concluding his speech, the president thanked the assembled for their attention (“Thank you for your attention”; “Thank you for your patience and attention”).

The president’s address to the Federal Assembly, even though relatively new at the Russian political stage, has already been called a traditional genre of political discourse (Викторова, 2008). T.I Steksova (2012) underscores that it is a complex genre, implementing many intentions, which combines the informative and imperative functions. The position of this type of presidential speech among other genres of the Russian political discourse, is undoubtedly connected with the pursuit of maintaining democratic principles, thus a certain transparency of the authorities’ actions. The obligation of delivering an address was even placed in the Constitution: “The President of the Russian Federation shall: (…) address the Federal Assembly with annual messages on the situation in the country, on the guidelines of the internal and foreign policy of the State” (Конституция Российской Федерации, п.д., article 84). Even though the purpose of the address is to present by the head of state the assessment of the situation in the country and to determine the priorities of domestic policies to be followed by the government and the Parliament (the direct addressee of the speech is the federal authorities), due to broadcasting of the celebration by the media, the president submits a certain kind of report to the citizens (mass addressee). The speech fulfills, on the one hand, its informative function (the president informs the citizens on the policies of the state and the situation in the country) but, on the other hand, it also shapes the attitude of the addressees towards the presented data and affects their assessment of the reality. The president also determines the priorities the government should follow in the future. It is important to note that V.V. Putin deals practically with the problems of internal policies only, the questions of foreign policies take very little space in his speeches. This probably results from the focusing on the mass addressee: citizens, who are more interested in solving domestic problems of the state. The selection of the subject of politicians’
Official speeches may be an element of implementing the manipulative function. V.Z. Demiankov (2002) underscores that in order to influence citizens, the politician should take into account different elements in his/her speeches: rapport with the addressee (the dialogical nature of the speech), knowledge of psychological needs of the addressee, compliance of his/her opinions and assessments with the addressee’s assessments, knowledge of topic and problems important for the addressee, skill of influencing the addressee both rationally and irrationally, etc.

The transfer of recommendations to the government is carried out in accordance with a transparent structure: “problem – cause – solution” (present – past – future) or “problem – solution” (present – future). In this respect the speeches under analysis differ considerably. It is possible to observe that the speech of 2012 is more directed to the mass addressee: citizens of the country. This demonstrates all the more the dialogical nature of the speech (which can be observed in, for example, the addresses to the listeners; in the 2002 speech the president addresses the members of the government and the Federal Assembly only, whereas in the 2012 speech also to the citizens, putting them first) and the frequent use of the pronoun “we”, meaning “all citizens of the country”. In this speech, the president also quotes more statistics (submits a report on the state of the Federation to the citizens). The tone of this speech is also definitely harsher; V.V. Putin presents a long list of tasks, which he orders the government to implement; he also presents concrete deadlines of their implementations. Such a presentation of the position of the head of state should undoubtedly convince the citizens (mass addressee) that the country’s future is in the right hands. They are rhetorical means serving the implementation of the fundamental intention of the address: the politician makes efforts to create an image of a strong leader of the country and gain the citizens’ support for his actions, through convincing them that the situation of the state is stable and the direction of development is correct. In this way also the manipulative function of the speech is implemented; as S.S. Rezinkova (2003) underscored, in politicians’ speeches, the purpose of the use of each expression is to influence the public opinion. However, in the case of the both addresses, it is possible to observe a kind of split between the informative and imperative functions and the ambiguity of the message, which can be detected. Establishing the priority directions of domestic policies is of purely declarative nature. A particular part of the speeches resembles a to-do-list but a fundamental element is missing: determining the accountability for their implementation, which allows the representatives of the federal authorities evade this accountability.

References


Unfolding Knowledge on Sexual Violence Experienced by Black Lesbian Survivors in the Townships of Cape Town, South Africa

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Abstract

Sexual violence is conceptualised as a hate or bias-motivated crime, and is recognised as a social problem of global proportion. However, the platform for this paper focuses on incidents of rape in South Africa, a country where the most progressive legislation concerning sexual minorities is enforced, including gender non-conforming people namely Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex (LGBTI). South Africa still must address rape inflicted on black lesbians residing in Cape Town townships, despite gender equality being granted on the basis of sexual orientation (Silvio, 2011). The same applies to same sex marriages, making South Africa the role model of other African countries yet to be included in the signatory to the 2008 United Nations Human Rights Council Resolution on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity. An alternative concept to categorising rape as a hate crime might be a more effective tool in the legislation to combat rape based on sexual orientation; justice will be served as a female homosexual enjoys equal citizenship as that of a heterosexual citizen. Preliminary findings show that some rape victims became mothers as a result of the rape. Rape victims discuss conception due to corrective rape and how this affects the mother-child relationship. Feedback from victims include coping mechanisms from religious beliefs to alcohol abuse. None of the rape-survivors interviewed in this study contracted HIV/AIDS as a consequence of the rape.

Keywords: stigmatisation, townships, HIV/AIDS, sexuality, rape, discrimination, gender, black lesbian, rape culture, hate crime, sexual violence

Introduction

Societal rape culture, an environment where sexual assault and abuse is underplayed and effectively normalised, “satirizes, lyricizes, justifies and excuses violence against women and in turn supports the concept that sexual violence is structurally integrated at all levels of society” (Buchwald et.,2005; Dines,2010; Katz,2006; Rose & Koss, 2001, p1296). They contend that sexual violence is an interrelated behavioral response thereby normalising it in many societies across the world; while the general consensus is that sexual violence is not gender-specific, children and women are more vulnerable to exploitation (World Health Organization, 2013; pg. 2)\(^1\).

However, men and LBGTI individuals are also targeted to fall victim to acts of sexual violence; in these instances women are known to assume the role of perpetrator. What is the connection between sexual violence and the societal rape culture? According to Buchwald et al, 2005\(^2\) the concept of rape culture derives from a particular set of ideas or beliefs that are justified within a given society, solely based on certain attitudes, beliefs, customs, rituals and ideologies its members securitised and sanctioned as acceptable and normal.

This claim was authenticated based on their extensive empirical analysis of the high incidence of sexual violence carried out across the world, consequently a culture that justifies sexual violence is normalised through a collective belief system


that validates sexism, misogyny and patriarchy; in other words, the common consensus within select societies is that sexual violence is a valid retaliation institutionalised through misconceptions that exercising power and control over vulnerable people is acceptable.

Fostering a rape culture that is synchronised through sexual violence is today an escalating global social problem. This phenomenon is not unique to South Africa; my research of what constitutes hate crime is ongoing and in this instance focuses on the people living in Cape Town townships, located in South Africa’s Western Cape Province. My research study poignantly examines the incidence of sexual violence within the global arena. The International Statistic on Rape per 100,000 people\(^3\) across the globe shows some gross facts about rape and rapists, and the individuals exposed to sexual violence and abuse.

However, these statistics are insignificant because the varied acts of sexual violence are difficult to measure; using a single source as a means to explain the provocation to commit a bias-motivated assault is not conclusive. It is also difficult to establish one coherent or holistic view on rape, which unlike crimes related to homicides sexual violence is culturally ingrained and normalised even in a country like Sweden where I call home.

The rape culture in Sweden tallies a frequency rate five hundred times higher than Pakistan (Karlin, & Reed, 2017)\(^2\); in the United State on average 321,500 reported cases are about victims aged 12 years and older who are raped and sexual assaulted every year (Victims of Sexual Violence: Statistics | RAINN*, 2017).\(^3\)

In another study on male perpetration of raping non-partner women and of men Fulu, Jewkes, Roselli, & Garcia-Moren (2013)\(^4\) reveal what the rape factors are from nine locations in Asia and the Pacific across six countries -- Bangladesh, China, Cambodia, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka. The research was conducted between January 2011 and December 2012 on males aged 18–49 years; the results show that rape perpetration has a high rate frequency, committed by males in the countries under investigation. A similar study was carried out in other countries, including South Africa.

The results of the analysis show that further in-depth research on rape perpetration is necessary; in particular sexual violence that is culturally motivated parallel to male gender norms that are driven by dominance needs to be addressed. However, the above sexual violence studies excluded LGBTI communities and gender non-confirming persons inflicted by male offenders. Because a rape culture society normalises sexual violence, such as spousal rape, which is not considered rape as the men believe they are entitled to have intercourse with their spouse whenever they want.

The conclusion of the research study speaks about multiple perpetrator acts of rape as cultural or subcultural practice; in South Africa it is referred to as streamlining (Wood, 2005, page 215; also see also Jewkes et al., 2009, Pg.215)\(^5\) which is a way of rationalising culturally connected norms embedded and rooted to sexual entitlement and sexual relationship. In addition, further investigation of the sexual relationship between husband and wife the study reveals that men commonly raped because “not only did they feel inclined to forcibly conduct intercourse, they also felt entitled to a violent sexual encounter as well as being entertained by the notion that rape is a “deserved punishment for women” (ibid).

The above study found similar responses from South African men when the same questions were put to them (ibid).\(^6\) The results were compared to the study done in South Africa whereby one out of four men (28 percent) stated that they had

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committed rape, in contrast with a non-partner whereby rape of women in marriage had a higher frequency than was the case of non-partner rape in South Africa (Fulu, Jewkes, Roselli, & Garcia-Moreno, 2013, page,214).

The results also show that a quarter of the male perpetrators brought to justice were jailed and legally charged for committing sexual violence; the conviction rate is higher than South Africa, whereby 32 percent of adult rape cases were reported and 4 percent of child rapes resulted in a conviction compared to the six countries investigated in the research study with the exception in Papua New Guinea. While these results are in stark contrast to South Africa the study showed the proportion of non–partners striking more than half (57.5 percent) were first time teenage rape perpetrators; the numbers fluctuated between 33 percent and 66 percent by country; this number shows lower compared to that of South Africa and the USA, which is 75 percent (Jewkes et al., 2009).

This study was carried out in nine cities in Asia and Pacific across six countries, Bangladesh, China, Cambodia, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka where the men in the studies believe they are entitled to sexual relationships; the results were compared with similar studies carried out in South Africa (Jewkes, R. (2012)).

Another study undertaken by Sigsworth (2009, pg. 18) uses the term 'rape culture' to describe a belief system that accepts sexual violence as normal, and the very act of rape is not viewed as a social threat or in any way harmful; in addition, rape is not regarded as a criminal offence by the police, court, perpetrator or society (pg. 18). Throughout the introduction chapter I demonstrated the link between rape culture and sexual violence using different sources to illustrate the interrelated concepts between a rape culture and sexual violence to explore the adverse influence hate crimes have on LGBTI people.

In this study I explored the prevailing corrective/curative rape phenomena as a form of rape culture within the townships of South Africa and contend that an alternative concept would be to label sexual violence against lesbian women as a hate crime. The above studies show that although LGBTI individuals, located within communities throughout the world, generally face homophobic attitudes, violence and discrimination from a wide cross section of members of society; these attitudes are however not universal (Nelson,2005). Gay and lesbian relationships are illegal in 80 countries around the world and in five of those countries it is punishable by death (Mieses 2009). It is common for homophobes in these countries to say that homosexuality is not natural within their particular cultures (see for example Hoad 2000 and Gunkel 2010).

Although evidence reveals that African men and women have engaged in same sex intercourse from pre-colonial to post-colonial eras (Xin Ling 2009;1, Murray & Roscoe 1998), African countries are generally intolerant of same sex relationships, with punishment including imprisonment and death penalties (Morgan & Wieringa 2005:65). These practices constitute “legally mandated homophobic intolerance” (Horn, 2006:7); the above studies show that LGBTI people living in countries that have a high frequency of homophobic attitudes and consequently have been discriminated against, and raped and murdered due to their sexual orientation. Sexual orientation must conform to strict cultural norms; religion is prescriptive and hard-core in regard to the acceptable definition of sexuality and sexual orientation. Accordingly, heterosexuality --

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sexual activity between male and female -- is considered to be the standard norm and only way to engage in sexual intercourse.

Research (Polders and Wells, 2004; Potgieter, 2004)\(^1\) conducted in Tshwane, South Africa on Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual people showed that 37 percent of the study sample population (N=487) experienced verbal harassment or abuse based on their sexual orientation (Polders and Wells, 2004), while 15 percent of the sample participants had been asked to leave their faith or religious communities because of their sexual orientation (Polders and Wells, 2004; Potgieter, 2004)\(^2\). The vast research on sexual violence against LGBTI people illustrates that homophobia is seen as an attempt to dissuade gender non-conforming goings-on, with the intention of preventing the systematic breakdown of normal gender socialisation. This approach directly challenges the LGBTI categories of men and women to understand the meaning and purpose of God’s creation of humankind. The Christian faith as taught in the Bible states that God created man and woman to populate the world within the union of marriage (Genesis) and that the norm of heterosexuality be considered divine and sacred.

A diverse body of research on homophobia and heterosexism speaks about the parallel between (Barrett, 1997; Coyle and Kitzinger, 2002; Dunphy, 2000; Paechter, 2000; Richardson and Seidman, 2002) sexual violence and gender-based relationships. Relevant studies explain that there exists a correlation between religion, cultural tradition and apartheid; they contend that these belief systems are the main culprits that manifest homophobia and stigma associated with sexual assault.

Bias attitudes toward women and LGBTI people, which even to this day remain unchallenged, allegedly stem from authoritarianism during colonisation and sexual victimisation of the perpetrator. However, research on how a rape culture is instilled is in short supply apart from studies by scholars engaged with sexual violence scripts in South Africa. Documenting the impact rape has on survivors is important knowledge for criminal and social justice as well as policymakers.

Reid (2010: 38) points out a serious gap between the “ideals of the South African constitution and reality”, while Hames (2007: 53) argues that “South African society is still deeply conservative, divisive, homo-prejudiced and racist.” In this light, legal policies fail to offer adequate protection for lesbians and gay men in South Africa (Gibson, 2010; Empowering Women for Gender and Equity, 2006). This is exemplified in Smith’s (2003:12) chilling claim that when lesbians are attacked there is rarely the same public outrage as that reserved for the abuse of straight women.

Gontek (2009) contends that many lesbians who choose to practise their non-conformist sexual orientation freely inevitably face economic discrimination, social isolation and cultural rejection. This discrimination is made worse by being vulnerable to physical violence. Gontek (2009) notes that lesbian women, especially those who challenge normative attributes of masculinity through their dress code, behaviour and appearance, have been subjected to sexual violence, including corrective rape, as a form of punishment. Research conducted by the Pew Research Centre (2013) reveals that 61 percent of South African adults are of the opinion that same sex relationships should not be tolerated in South Africa while 38 per cent are in favour. The younger generation, especially young females and well educated liberal and less religious people tend to be more in favour of and tolerant of same sex relationships. According to the HSRC Progressives Prudes report, homophobic attitudes are shared fairly equally among South Africans of different ‘race’ groups (HSRC 2016). The Progressive Prudes report (2016) investigates public attitudes toward homosexuality and other gender non-conforming persons; South Africa scores a lower percentage of ‘for and against’ votes, in contrast to other statistics cited following a survey regarding LGBTI homophobia attitudes done previously in South Africa.

According to the survey there was a drop between five and ten per cent, compared what was cited by various studies on homophobia attitudes. These studies were carried out statistically, which means different research studies produced different results; however, the report did not mention any marginal errors in their poll or in their studies. The survey was conducted face-to-face in private with select interviewees. It is the author’s opinion that although the feedback to the

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2 ibid
questions seemed to have had a positive conclusion, the survey questions lacked concrete variability in terms of ethnicity and race to allow analytic measurement.

If homophobia is seen as an un-African or un-Christian viewpoint in opposition to the traditional culture in South Africa then the survey question should instead have been worded more explicitly. "As a South African have you been sexually attracted to someone of the same sex?" In a society rape-culture is synonymous with the normalisation of sexual violence; as such we might expect a different result when the survey questions elicit a broad spectrum of responses. This study also reveals attitudes toward LGBTI individuals who were assaulted due to cross-dressing.

Literature Review

Minorities who are gay, lesbian or a gender non-conforming person are at risk of sexual abuse by perpetrators whose actions are motivated by a belief that the victim's sexual orientation is cured and corrected through rape (Phamodi, 2011). The concept of corrective rape emerged in the early twenties in South Africa; once this form of sexual violence became a frequent occurrence it became known as a phenomenon. This concept was coined by human rights organisations in recognition of sexual violence as a punishable crime.

Bringing persons intent on sexually assaulting non-conforming individuals to justice was placed on high alert (Phamodi, 2011) as well as persons driven by the purpose of raping individuals as a way of curing them of their unconventional sexual orientation (Lake, 2014). Large scale debate in both South African and international media ensued on the topic of sexual violence; in addition, contemporary public discourses and scholarly reports on anti-sexual violence encouraged earnest debate and research into the corrective rape phenomena taking place in South African townships (Msibi, 2011; Sanger, 2010).

Silvio (2011: 1471) has noted that some men “correct and cure lesbians and those of nonconforming sexual orientation through corrective rape”. Other scholars have made similar claims in their research about homophobic attacks in the form of corrective rape. Homosexuality is historically viewed as un-African (un-Indian-Muslim-un-British, un-Christian⁴); even today homophobic attitudes are directed at people practising same gender sexual orientation.

Alternative non-conformist sexual orientations are deployed within various cultural norms and traditions; different perceptions of sexual orientation are evident within moral, virtuous or political environments. Along with research studies undertaken by Silvio (2011) and other extensive scripts pertaining to research on sexual violence, the motive behind corrective rape is due to traditions, gender inequality, hate crime, male entitlement to sex, weak legal framework failing to prosecute perpetrators, sexual politics, poverty, apartheid history, structural discrimination and racism interlocks gender sexuality, sexual orientation, and sexual identity (Jewkes, 2002; Vetten, 2004 Coyle and Kitzing, 2002; Jewkes, Moffett, 2006; Posel, Vetten, Wood, 2005; Samelius and Wägberg, 2005, Sigsworth et al.)

The next section of this research study debates the concept of corrective/curative rape and discusses language barriers and problems associated with using such terminology in this study. Consequently an alternative concept that describes hate crime is deployed in this study, to not offend but rather to validate the seriousness of the criminal act. I provide justification of my decision to use alternative terminology to describe the phenomena of corrective/curative rape in my dissertation; this is in keeping with the work of Kruger (2006) who opts for the approach and use of the concept hate crime (corrective/curative rape) by exploring the trauma of sexual violence experienced by black lesbians currently living in Cape Town townships. Choosing terminology that aptly describes gender roles and social orders that are not only rooted but also dismantled within the gendered social institution, is critical.

Kruger (2006) discusses specifically corrective rape as a hate crime; she debates lesbianism including butch (masculine) lesbian sexuality. Rape or sexual assault is carried out to demonstrate that women are at the mercy of men to exercise full

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control of their lives. Corrective/Curative rape is motivated by the belief that lesbians are women who ‘pretend’ to be male and the forced sexual encounter is designed to ‘prove’ that they are women. “The idea that all lesbians need to convert to become heterosexual ‘thanks to’ heterosexual intercourse, making corrective/curative rape extremely prevalent in some communities in South Africa” (Kruger 2006: 13-16).

Kruger criticises homophobic attitudes and acknowledges that supporting legitimised heterosexuality as the natural order, whereby lesbians are subordinated (Moffett, 2006) by traditional gender roles. Along with Kruger (2006) Levin and McDevitt (2002: 240-255) who endorsed corrective rape as a hate crime and differentiated it from any other form of sexual violence as it is carried out to alter gender identity, and focuses on a specific group of people. Harris too points out (2004) that corrective rape is viewed as a hate crime which he calls a “message crime” in which lesbians are targeted to convey a message of homophobic intolerance.

While anti-sexual violence scholarship authors (Msibi 2009, Nel & Judge 2008) continue this line of thought, other scholars (Kruger, 2006; Levin & McDevitt, 2001; Harris 2004) argue that sexual violence aimed at lesbians is motivated by homophobia and that the perpetrator adopts an entitled expectation to exercise the power to control groups of women to intrude on their non-conforming gender identity. The criminal justice system in South Africa violates and contradicts its own laws on homophobia and human rights conventions, which take form through state institutions. Criminal justice and law enforcement, carried out by the police services, instils fear that victims may also experience secondary victimisation by justice system personnel upon entering the criminal justice system.

The re-traumatisation of the sexual assault, abuse, or rape victim through the responses of individuals and institutions is an example of secondary victimisation. Victims are made aware that sexual violence has a political agenda in that rape frequency fuels the spread of HIV/AIDS, a pandemic that is crumbling the South African public healthcare system. The flaws that are evident in the concept of corrective/curative rape is further debated by Gqola in her book Rape the South African nightmare; Gqola (2015) argues against the concept of ‘corrective rape’ and states that rape categories between heterosexual women and lesbian rape survivors are discriminatory against women because sexual violence against lesbian women seems too farfetched and presumed much more traumatic compared to sexual assault against heterosexual women.

Gqola takes a stand in her book that all incidents of rape should be considered equally, irrespective of whether the sexual assault is inflicted on lesbian women or heterosexual women. However, the author provides no evidence in her book that indicates whether any qualitative or quantitative studies were carried out to show that the account of the violent incident given by rape-survivors is universal. Moreover this fact would backup Elizabeth Spelman’s point of view about the dangers women face within a patriarchal sexually-biased society: “For essentialism invites me to take what I understand to be true of me ‘as a woman’ for some golden nugget of womaness all women have as women”. Furthermore, she did not provide substantial argument how LGBTI people, as sexual minorities and heterosexual women, are able to speak out to express an opinion and claim their agency in terms of them being targeted to endure rape and sexual violence.

The same applies to LGBTI people having to resign themselves to a life of prejudice and experience sexual assaults; as women we come from diverse groups of people from different economic systems and therefore make up a diverse social-cultural-political race consisting of a multitude of ethnic classes each with a distinctive gender identity. The very fact that

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6 Elizabeth V. Spelman, *Inessential Woman* (Boston: Beacon Press.1988), 159
all women, including LGBTI women have ovaries (my concept) does not necessarily mean all rape survivors interpret the assault as a bias-motivated sexually violent deed. However, other forms of gender-based violence are perceived as any act that is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women; threats include coercion or arbitrary deprivation of autonomy to live a life as gender non-conforming individuals. This is a universal attitude whereby women share their heart breaking stories of being raped and their life experiences.

I maintain that women and gender non-conforming minorities are vulnerable to sexual assault especially during times of war; the trauma brought on by rampant genocide creates a climate that legitimises mass rape, which is viewed by perpetrators as a weapon of war and genocide. However, I am not implying hate crime rape survivors are unique, yet according to democratic theory women and self-identified LGBTI people or other sexual non-conforming gender minorities must be respected for their individualism.

Gay men and heterosexual men have the right to speak about their sexual experiences so that they may express the trauma endured as a result of sexual assault and rape. In addition, by exposing perpetrators guilty of this crime victims facilitate justice being served. The State acts as a buffer when it comes to passing judgement for compensation sought by victims of sexual violence against women and sexual minorities, through judicial systems.

South Africa has an uncodified legal system consisting of various sources of law, including the Constitution, legislation (including statutory laws issued by national and provincial legislative bodies and subsidiary legislation), judicial precedent, customary law, common law (Roman-Dutch and English law), and international law. For the purposes of this article it is crucial to differentiate between material rape, intimate partner rape, date rape and sexual assault other than the type of gender-based violence on women; this would be difficult to prove with sufficient crime categories to monitor and implement policy framework and collecting DNA evidence in terms of prosecuting the perpetrator. Here the argument of categories Gqola discusses in her book become relevant – her argument is that all women whether their sexual orientation is lesbian or heterosexual -- are equal in terms of sexual violence categories.

That all women are equal might sound innocuous and vague although Gqola (2015) in her book discusses in general the raping of women in South Africa; she points out that statistics concerning South African women who have been sexually assaulted do not form part of a universal grouping. Feminist scholars consistently argue against the assumption that women should be viewed according to a universal standard whether they are categorized as LGBTI people or heterosexual. This opinion is sanctioned by Elizabeth Spelman (1998) who points out that while feminists resist accounts that define women as having certain features that are essential to their being women, feminists are also guilty of giving essentialism definitions: “For essentialism invites me to take what I understand to be a woman.” Because women are extremely diverse in their experiences, essentialism critics question whether a universal account of women can be given. Yet, even with diversity among women, they are oppressed by patriarchal structures such as rape, pornography, and sexual harassment (IBID).

Scholars who concede various anti-sexual violence disciplines argue that hate crimes have high-frequency rates in townships and are recognised as social problems experienced by black lesbians; sexual violence, and rape in particular, is considered the most under-reported violent crime. Reasons for individuals not reporting sexual assaults include fear of not being believed, insecurity, and fear of getting into trouble. Other reasons hate crimes are swept under the carpet are due to (1) normalisation of sexual violence by the society; (2) stigma and assimilation around black lesbian sexuality; (3) sexism and homophobia which are rooted in the socio-culture; and (4) South Africa’s apartheid history, poverty, sexual identity, gender, religion and hegemonic power.

Often when an outsider such as myself hears or reads about a black lesbian in South Africa being sexually assaulted because of her alternative sexual orientation, they feel compelled to develop a greater public awareness to change the common attitude within society that the crime is somehow justified. This is precisely how I became involved in the study of female black lesbian sexuality. However, most of the research undertaken about lesbian sexuality was interrelated with HIV/ Aids studies, which is a common dualism most scholars apply when developing a research study of this nature. Therefore, this study is an attempt to fill some important gaps in the study of Black lesbian sexuality; areas that are researched in detail include identifying various intersections pertaining to everyday life experiences of Black Lesbians living in the township.
Scholars that produce papers on anti-sexual violence rely on various disciplines to fully demonstrate their points of view. They argue that sexual violence has been conceptualised as a hate or bias-motivated crime, and that it has a high-frequency rate within townships. Sexual assault is viewed as a pervasive social problem experienced by black lesbians. These scholars validate their claims that incidents of sexual violence against black lesbians residing in townships is under-reported because (1) sexual violence is hugely prevalent that society accepts it as normal; (2) stigma and assimilation around black lesbian sexuality; (3) sexism and homophobia is deeply rooted within the socio-culture; and (4) South Africa’s apartheid history, poverty, sexual identity, gender and religion and hegemonic power.

Goal of the study

The goal of this study is to analyse life stories of a group of black lesbians who are rape survivors. The research group is made up of individuals who reside in Cape Town’s townships. The goal of the study is to break the silence of what it means to commit a hate crime and the judicial punishment for the perpetrator. The author of this study believes that by exposing the trauma of sexual violence will help savours the courage to heal and to improve the way and means perpetrators are prosecuted.

Feminist Methodology: Life history method and feminist analysis method

It is hereby acknowledged that feminism itself developed as a consequence of in-depth research methodologies and by way of interviewing feminists to gain their interpretations of relevant topics. The process of gathering topic-specific data meant questioning and challenging the traditional social science of feminism, grounded on rationality, objectivity and male privilege and by adopting social phenomena to facilitate the intended analysis methodology. As a result, the role of the unbiased researcher come under securitization; the approaches were questioned to validate the research using feminist methodology to underpin theories and relevant construction of women’s perspectives relative to oppression and consciousness (Holloway and Wheeler 2010).

Different feminist components contributed to collating different feminist methodologies because the gender aspect is the key principle and common denominator of social status; the male gender is the Alfa, representative of privilege and dominance compared to the female gender, which is deemed the second sex. The gender hierarchy was debated and concluded that the top position was owned by powerful (men) at the cost of (subordinate) women, thereby stating that men and women occupied different positions in terms of social status (Reinharz, 1983; Sarantakos, 2005; Parahoo, 2006; Holloway and Wheeler, 2010).

The concept of utilizing appropriate methodologies to differentiate the roles of men and women refers to a particular view of “how social investigation should be approached” (Ramazanoglu and Holland 2002, 11). In Harding (1987) reference is made as to theories and analyses of how a study should be carried out. Klein (1983) defines methodologies as providing the rationale to the application of a particular technique, investigation and analysis. However, Gloria Wekker states that methodology stems from the role of the researcher: “methodology provides information about the various ways in which one locates oneself—psychologically, socially, linguistically, geographically, epistemologically, sexually—to be exposed to experiences within a societal culture”(Wekker 2006,4).

In researching hate crime against black lesbian women residing in townships in South Africa I found that ‘gender’ became the key concept for feminist methodologies. Various feminist thinkers influenced my understanding of the sexual violence endured by these women; my interpretations are captured by documenting life experiences of those who are vulnerable to hate crime and feedback provided by rape survivors. Feminist-specific methodologies provided me with ethical fieldwork guidelines and my own role as a researcher in the process.

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The methodological approach applied to this research study is both feminist and qualitative because I will be working with documented rape-survivors’ experiences, discussing traumatic life experiences which are personal and private and which therefore require a caring and empathetic interview stance. The research focuses on life story narratives of rape survivors (Harding 1992:184-185). Listening to women’s stories will contribute to the production of knowledge and to generate new knowledge about a marginalized group (Smith 1992:2).

Capturing the voices of the participants in their own time and space will be important, because their stories will provide a better understanding of hate crimes toward black lesbians. Life stories of rape survivors provide information on social categories, such as gender and ethnicity, class and sexuality in their everyday lives.

Method

The study employed qualitative in-depth interviews that were documented via a MP3 device; the size of the sample is not large as it’s a qualitative method deciphering in-depth life stories. The collective case study comprises seven life stories of self-identified rape-survivors and interview feedback from two police officers (male and female); the male police officer is retired from the force. He had worked at the Khayelitsha township police station and held the position of chief of police for 30 years. The female police officer hails from Langa; the interview with her is a combination of feminism analysis technique and an interpretive method used to describe the participants’ experiences as a rape-survivor.

The research is still ongoing therefore I have not yet arrived at the final process analysis. Currently I’m in the 2nd stage of analyzing the transcription of the interview therefore I can’t predict the outcomes as to when the study will be finalized. I started my field work in 2015 in Cape Town and expect to conclude the fieldwork at the end of 2018. The participants are active members of the Triangle Project in Cape Town and Free Gender in Khayelitsha Township. Social workers at the Triangle project also had been interviewed along with the Manager of the Triangle Project.

Conclusion

I have arrived at a preliminary conclusion although I am at the 2nd stage of interpreting the interview materials. Out of the 7 rape-survivors that I interviewed the youngest participant currently attending university submitted a police report and took her case to the criminal court. She was victimised twice by different perpetrators in the township where she resides. Five of the rape-survivors’ claim to be able to identify their assailants, 2 of the perpetrators are family members. The age of the rape-survivors makes for significant outcomes; 4 of the women who were sexually assaulted were still attending school at the time the rape took place.

Three of the victims became pregnant as a result of the rape and describe the conception as very painful and emotional as the child was unwanted. The babies born post-rape were placed in the care of the maternal family; the child and mother have no connection with the father/perpetrator. I also determined that the township was established during the country’s apartheid system; the residential area is predominately occupied by low income groups of black people, most of whom are unemployed. The rape-survivors confirm that circumstances in the township are not ideal due to the high level of crime; their fear of being victimised multiple times is not conducive to strive for a better, safe existence. None of the hate crime survivors contracted HIV/AIDS as a consequence of the rape yet the practice of consensual sexual relationships puts them at risk of abuse in the townships.

Note- Do note cite this paper as it is on going PhD Project under the supervision of Supervisor: Michael Drewett; Rhodes University South Africa.

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The Algerian Post-Independence Linguistic Policy - a Recovery of National Identity

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Abstract
The Arabic language and education in Algeria faced hard times under the French occupation and witnessed the dramatic decline of literacy rate among the Algerian population up to independence (1830-1962). Indeed French determined and well-planned history of domination, systematic illiteracy, linguistic and cultural alienation and socio-economic deprivation had a significant impact on the form, pace, direction and purpose of educational strategy options in post-independence Algeria. Accordingly, the planned objectives of Algerian policy were to regain identity, ensure personality growth of the young Algerian generations and lay the ground for the learning of modern technologies in order to participate in the national development and cope with economic demands of the modern world.

Keywords: Post-independence, Algeria, National identity, Linguistic policy.

Introduction
Language is the expression of a Nation's culture as well as a means of communication between peoples. It is also a support for legitimacy in former European colonies. For instance, in the multilingual context of the Maghreb, several legitimacies have been associated with different languages. The legitimacy of modernity has been connected with the French language. The Algerian post-independence policy of Arabisation has remained an attempt to transfer this legitimacy to Arabic, the official language of Algeria. The latter had been a French colony for more than a century (1830-1962) and subject to the most aggressive colonial policy of assimilation.

During this colonial era, after she had demolished the Algerian traditional educational systems, France pursued a determined policy to spread the French language through the setting up of schools with competent teachers trained to promote French political and cultural ideas. She ignored the national language and patois of Algeria in her system of education and excluded native culture from curricula in schools. Thus, the educational system provided specificity of the conqueror, a destruction of Algerian personality and cultural identity.

Therefore, once independence, Algeria tried to recover her national linguistic and cultural identity as an Arab Muslim country in which the language of the coloniser, the French, was no longer the imposed official language and a new linguistic policy, “Arabisation” was adopted to allow the Arabic language regain its legitimate place.

The purpose of the present paper is to show how contextual, social constraints have exerted a significant influence on the establishment of the prevailing linguistic situation in Algeria. To what extent could the adopted linguistic policy, highly desired by policy makers and decision holders, be successful in the presence of multiple contextual variables that have marked the Algerian speech community individually and collectively?

I- Colonial Education and Algerian Cultural Alienation:
The relation between culture and education is, indeed, a close and even an organic one as British sociologists – among others – have demonstrated.¹ Through education as a whole process, culture can be transmitted to succeeding generations. Thus, wanting to make Algerians, for instance, heirs of French civilization, France had a complete control on the educational system in Algeria. After she had demolished traditional educational systems there, she imposed French education whose standards and curricula were the same as in France. This policy precisely meant the communication, transmission, acquisition of French knowledge, competences, beliefs, habits and ideals, a fact that would produce “French” Algerians, for

instance, in hope that loyalty to France and whose detachment from the local environment would be secured as Algerian culture was excluded from curricula in school. In the latter, Arabic was ranked as foreign language. Besides, the teaching in these schools made no reference to Algeria as an African country and concentrated on French civilization, history and grandeur. “The French system [of education] was much more concerned with persuading children of the virtues of the colonial system and French culture”.1

For instance, in conformity with the law 1883, France extended the virtues of the new schooling-system which emerged in France and with which the name of Jules Ferry was associated “l'ïaïcité, gratitude, and caractère obligatoire”.2 Moreover, the 1892 decree, forbade to the Koranic schools to accept children during class-hours. Added to this, an official authorization was prerequisite if these Koranic schools were to receive children before or after their school-hours. The teaching of Arabic was officially reduced to two hours and half per week, and in most cases, this was badly organized.3 In other words, Arabic was taught as a foreign language. This new schooling system was obviously aimed at complete destruction of the Arabic language and Algerian cultural identity. It was the main tool French colonial ideology used to perfect the establishment of French cultural heritage, through the conquest of the minds, in other words, through “the spirit” as advocated by Napoleon I in his twilight reflections at St. Helena.4

Thus, whenever possible, in their imperialist expansion and thereafter, French leaders adopted both force and cultural penetration. Despite their use of the sword, they never neglected the importance of cultural invasion in view of the lasting results this could ensure. As a French deputy asked his colleagues in the 1900 : “What political operations or armed invasions was ever able, with less expense, to produce such important and lasting results ?”.5 Having had as their ultimate objective the cultural and political integration of the Algerian people, the French were aggressive in this colony as were in all their colonies.6 Their policy was particularly guided by Napoleon III who realized after his defeat in the Franco-Prussian War the implications and potential involved in Napoleon I’s intentions as he became aware of the usefulness of the cultural component to spread influence.7 Thus, French education stood as a major channel through which culture could exert influence and allow the conqueror to achieve his ultimate goal, domination. In this context, the Governor of Algeria (1832-1833), Duc of Rovigo, declared that he saw in the propagation of education and the French language an efficient instrument to dominate Algeria.8

Thus, conceived as a threat to the Algerian own cultural and identity values, the French colonial imposed policy in Algeria met a strong opposition from the native population. For instance, parents refused to send their children to French schools, a fact that urged the French authorities to think of a more or less "flexible" policy to convince Algerian educated elite to cooperate as mediators between the French military authorities and the local population. For instance, in 1950, to achieve their control through education, the colonial power in Algeria reintroduced the pre-colonial model of Medersas (public schools) to train the Algerian preachers of the mosques, judges of the courts of justice and teachers of Arabic. However, within the colonial imposed education, the French language was introduced as a main subject. At that time, there were three Medersas in Algeria : one in the capital city of Algiers, the second one in the East of Algeria, Constantine and the third one in the West of Algeria, Tlemcen. All of the three public schools were under the control of the colonial power.

Such colonial linguistic strategy meant instruct in order to control. This colonial motto was embodied in the institution of bilingual schools ; hence, Arabic, French colleges. The latter’s number was 36 between 1850 and 1870. Therefore, in 1876, the administration of the public schools (Medersas) was delegated to civilians with close control to avoid the spread of awareness in concerns like equality, freedom and other human rights that were not respected by the colonial administration.

1 Ibid, p. 378.
3 Idem.
4 "I have been forced to conquer Europe by the sword, he who comes after will conquer it by the spirit. For the spirit is always more powerful than the sword". Quoted in P. H. Coombs, The Fourth Dimension of Foreign Policy : Educational and Cultural Affairs, New York : Harper and Row, 1964, p. 79.
5 Idem.
7 P. H. Coombs, op. cit.
This French fear of the spread of awareness was manifested by the General Governor of Algeria, Tirman who, in 1876, estimated that the hostility of the indigenous population (the colonised people) was measured to the degree of their instruction.¹

Thus, a colonial decree of 1895 made compulsory for all candidates to the function of preachers, judges and teachers to have training at the newly settled Medersas in which the French language learning was deeply consolidated. This imposed measure resulted in a gradual multiplication of bilingual institutions expected to prepare and train collaborators and mediators for the French colonial administration. Yet, this colonial imposed cultural model continued to be resisted by the Algerians.

II- The Algerian Resistance to Cultural Alienation:

By the end of the nineteenth century, the French cultural model continued to meet resistance from the Algerians. Some of the honourable families manifested their resistance by exile to the Middle East and the remaining majority preferred illiteracy rather than cultural alienation. Indeed, a harsh opposition and struggle was led by the Algerian educated elite against the French colonial educational policy. The majority of those elite were armed with pre-colonial education they acquired in Koranic schools and Medersas of the time. They were deeply nourished with their native culture, a fact that allowed them to manifest a constant resistance against the colonial system. The latter, thus, encouraged generalisation of schooling, guaranteeing job only to individuals having been graded from the colonial educational institutions. Yet, the local population continued to see in the colonial schooling system a real threat for their cultural values and uncertain professional future and social promotion.

This Algerian clinging to their language led the colonial power to review its attitude towards the Arabic language. The latter, in theory, was given a status through an official article in 1947. It stated that Arabic constituted one of the languages of the French union and the teaching of Arabic in Algeria was to be organised.² Yet, although the national movements gained some acknowledgement on behalf of the colonial administration, the French language remained outstandingly the main outcome of a long-established colonial system of education. As a matter of fact, many Algerian writers profited from their mastery of the French language and delivered their denouncem

Ill- Post-Independence Algerian Educational Situation and A New Linguistic Policy:

The resistance of Algerians to the colonial system of education increased illiteracy which reached ninety percent among the Algerian population at Independence in 1962. In 1969-70, sixty three percent of men and eighty five percent of the

¹ Quoted by M. Benrabah, ibid, p. 51.
³ Ibid, p. 67.
women remained illiterate. Indeed, the schooling rate had been very low because the consequences of the French colonialism and seven years of bloody war in Algeria were disastrous. Some of the major results of the Algerian 1954 Revolutionary War included "8,000 villages were destroyed; 1,000,000 dead; 2,000,000 displaced; 400,000 refugees; hundreds of thousands interned and prisoners". Moreover, the French massive withdrawal population had damaged the structure of the Algerian economy and administration. Indeed, "the hand-over of power was not carried out in due and regular order". The absolute break between the old and new administration handicapped the normal functioning of the country which lacked technical staff, equipment and, most important, trained administrators. Algerian leaders were conscious that industrialization could only be achieved through education. Thus, the latter received a quarter of the Algerian national budget and 11 percent of the investment programme under the Four Year Plan (1970-73). This recognition of the key role education enjoyed in the Algerian Four Year Plan allowed "an impressive rate of expansion at all levels.... For example, the number of secondary school pupils... more than doubled to a total of 420,000". In fact, the recovery of the Algerian identity remained a crucial issue to achieve.

Indeed, at Independence, the prevailing linguistic situation needed a strong will and a political commitment to know a new direction that reflects the Algerian cultural identity that the French colonialism eradicated by imposing the French language and culture. For instance, the French language was among the languages of daily use in the newly independent Algeria. While Algerian Arabic, Berber in some areas and French were daily used, the classical Arabic was only used in Medersas. Consequently, the eradication of the French language and the administration of the Arabic language as an important pillar foundation of the Arab-Muslim Algerian nation became an objective in itself, President Houari Boumediene (1965-1978) was determined to achieve. This political leader who studied at Zitouna (Tunisia) and Al Azhar (Egypt) was well-equipped with a strong personality, an Arabic and Islamic culture, and a political will to lay down decrees and orders for the uprooting of the foreign cultural and linguistic prints France deeply cultivated in Algeria during the colonial era. His claim had a purely an Arab-Muslim dimension. Indeed, the exclusion of what remained of the colonial era was strongly felt, particularly when the linguistic policy of Arabisation was established.

Language remains the symbol of social interaction and daily communication. Aiming at a more and efficient practical social control, the Algerian Government opted for the policy of Arabisation. Thus, the Ministry of Education's intervention in the process of Arabisation resulted in a direct redefinition of a linguistic planning. There were three main levels where the government's interference, of course through the Ministry of Education, was apparent. The first one was related to the teaching methods; the second one had to do with the institution of the Classical Arabic in a functional parameter ; the third level was embodied in the linguistic lay out, namely the technical spheres in which the language was structured.

In her post-independence struggle against ignorance and illiteracy in order to progress, Algeria made schooling compulsory. This, in fact, increased the number of schooling pupils. For instance, during the decade 1965-75, the schooling rate significantly raised. In primary level, the number of enrolled pupils doubled from 1,200,000 to 2,750,000; in secondary schools, the number increased from 100,000 to 450,000; and at university level, the number of students augmented from 7000 to 50,000. The educational system registered the Arabisation of the first years of the Primary school. In this context, the British Council reported: "complete Arabisation remain[ed] the long-term aim, but it [was] not being rushed through, and it [was] still only in the first two years of the primary course that Arabic [was] the language of instruction". The remaining years continued to receive instruction in the French language. This process had to be gradual to encourage Arabisation year after year and pave the way for the elimination of bilingual classes from primary and middle schools, then from the higher education levels. At the university level, this new linguistic policy was adopted in Humanities and other fields but met difficulties to be extended to the medical and scientific studies. Yet the Government carried on exerting pressure to impose this policy. For instance, the National Pedagogical Institute for Printing Books was instructed to favour the printing of books

3 Ibid.
written in Arabic to those written in French. This, in fact, aimed at the devaluation of the French language in an attempt to uproot what the coloniser planted.

In the same context, the post-independence administration took measures to weaken the status of the French language in the educational system. Thus, from 1962 to 2004, the Algerian pupils started to study the French language at the fourth year level in primary school. In addition to this, a new process named "linguistic cleaning" was started to change, whenever possible, terms and labeling from French to Arabic. By so doing, the Algerian administration consolidated the process of Arabisation. For instance, all the names of streets and important amenities the colonial administration imposed, during the colonial era, were changed into Arabic-origin names taken from the Algerian historical patrimony. As illustrations, Street Michelet became Didouche Mourad and Street Islý became Larbi Ben M'Hidi. This environmental and social context's Arabisation strengthened the position of classical Arabic. Yet, the proportion of francophone Algerian population remained significant. For instance, it was estimated to 49 percent (27.3 million inhabitants) in 1993 and was expected to reach 67 percent by 2003.1

Thus, despite the tremendous efforts Algeria devoted to make of Arabisation a successful process in the quickest possible time, the French language continued to exert an influence on the Algerian society. Several factors contributed to maintain that expansion. Among these one can refer to the number of Algerian emigrants in France. More than 800,000 emigrants in France, in tight relation with their families and relatives in Algeria helped the promotion of the French language. In the same context, the French Magazine, 'Esprit', estimated that 9 to 12 million Algerians were among the French TV channels (TF1, France 2, Canal +, ...) watchers.2

On the other hand, the colonial educational shaping of the educator, the text-book and the teaching model contributed to lower proficiency in the Arabic language. Post 1962 teacher lacked competence, academic training and motivation as well as academic qualifications in terms of pedagogy of teaching. Besides, the provided text-books were characterized by disparities. For instance, in 1966, the Ministry of Education reported that pupils at Secondary School level lacked the rudimentary components of a basis in classical Arabic. To remedy this alarming educational situation, it was conceived that Algerian teachers would better teach Algerian pupils, since they could understand pupils using their mother tongue, to reach the needs and interests of the Algerian population of learners. Besides this, their knowledge of the Algerian context could be instrumental. Hence, teachers from the Middle East were gradually thanked to leave their posts for Algerians. For instance, in 1969, there were 1500 Egyptian teachers in Algeria.

As to the problem of disparity in text-books, the option was to guarantee their uniformity. Yet, the absence of specified methods in the process of teaching Classical Arabic was a serious pedagogical problem in newly independent Algeria. In this context, in 1973, Taleb Ibrahimi (the then Minister of Culture and previously Minister of National Education in 1965) claimed that the Arabisation as a fundamental option constituted an objective that required precision.3 This lack of objectivity was the result of the post-independence ideological choice of Arabisation and political will that wanted to detach Algeria from France by distinguishing Algerian teaching from what it used to be during the colonial era.4

However, the favoured treatment Algeria has always manifested towards the educational field by devoting an important portion of her national budget was not enough to solve the shortage of teachers which the continually growing population made even more difficult. For instance, the population growth was up over 3 percent a year.5

Conclusion

The use of the French language has been historically, linguistically socially and practically an accepted reality among Algerians. In spite of the massive process of Arabisation, the proportion of the francophone population remained significant. The francophone population is in constant increase particularly as the current political administration does not block the private educational institutions, where the French language is taught even from the pre-school year, to grow and extend.

Thus, if Algeria succeeded to obtain her political independence after seven years of bloody war, her linguistic independence requires a longer time of deep, hard, professional, objective and scientific work.

Bibliography

Investigation of the Psychological Capital of Security Employees by Nationality and Status

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Abstract

The concept of psychological capital (PsyCap) recently has attracted a great deal of interest who has been studying on organizational behavior. Psychological capital can be defined as individual’s positive psychological state which contributes both personal and organizational aims and improves human performance. It is accepted that psychological capital has four components: self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency. The purpose of the present study is to examine the associations of psychological capital (PsyCap) of security employees by nationality and status. In this study a cross-sectional survey was conducted using a convenience sample of 336 security employees in a military organization to establish possible relationship between psychological capital and two of demographic variables (nationality and status). The data obtained by the survey was analyzed using the SPSS 21.0 package program. In statistical analyzes, T-test and variance (ANOVA) analyzes were used. The results of the data has showed that resiliency of civil employees differs significantly from officers and noncommissioned officers. The analysis has also showed that self-efficacy and hope of Turkey participants differ significantly from European countries participants. However, no statistically significant difference has been found in resiliency of participant countries.

Keywords: Psychological capital, nationality, status, security employees.

Introduction

Positive psychology issue has attracted attention since Martin E. P. Seligman stressed this concept in his speech after being elected as president of the American Psychological Association in 1998 (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Martin Seligman challenged the field to change from a preoccupation with what is wrong and dysfunctional with people to what is right and good about them. Specifically, it focuses on strengths rather than weaknesses, health and vitality rather than illness and pathology. In his recent book on Authentic Happiness, Seligman (2004) first asked the question of whether there is psychological capital, and if so, what it is and how we get it. He answered the question by suggesting that “when we are engaged (absorbed in flow), perhaps we are investing, building psychological capital for our future.” Luthans, Luthans and Luthans (2004:46). Peterson (2000:44) emphasized that psychology should be as focused on strength, as interested in resilience as in vulnerability and as concerned with the cultivation of wellness as with remediation of pathology.

The aim of positive psychology is to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities. (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000: 5) Although positive psychological has begun to draw attention throughout the years, it has only recently been proposed as a new approach focused on organizational behavior studies (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b; Luthans and Youssef, 2007; Wright, 2003).

The concept of psychological capital has emerged from the theories and researches within the field of positive psychology. (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000: 5) categorized positive psychology as individual and group level. While individual
level is about positive individual traits: the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom, group level is about the civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship: responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic. The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about valued subjective experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present).

(Luthans et al., 2006: 388) define Psychological Capital as “An individual’s positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success.”

Drawing from positive psychology constructs, four psychological resources which were termed by (F. Luthans et al., 2007) best meet the POB scientific criteria: self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience.

Self-efficacy, which is one of the basic elements of psychological capital, is most often defined as a person’s perception or belief of “how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). And self-efficacy was defined as “an individual’s conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998:66).

Hope has been identified as the most unique construct included in POB and although it has not been as thoroughly researched as self-efficacy. Snyder, Irving and Anderson (1991: 287) defined hope as “goal-directed thinking in which people perceive that they can produce routes to desired goals (pathways thinking) and the requisite motivation to use those routes (agency thinking)”. The pathways component of this definition refers to an impression of being able to generate alternative plans to meet goals when impeded, as well as positive self-talk about being able to find these routes.

A useful definition of optimism was offered by anthropologist Lionel Tiger (1979): “a mood or attitude associated with an expectation about the social or material future—one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his [or her] advantage, or for his [or her] pleasure”. An important implication of this definition, one drawn out by Tiger, is that there can be no single or objective optimism, at least as characterized by its content, because what is considered optimism depends on what the individual regards as desirable. Optimism is predicated on evaluation—on given affects and emotions, as it were (Peterson, 2000:44). Optimism can be viewed as an attributional style that explains positive events through personal, permanent, and pervasive causes and negative events through external, temporary, and situation-specific ones (Luthans and Youssef, 2007: 331).

Luthans (2002b) defined resilience as “the positive psychological capacity to rebound, to ‘bounce back’ from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress, and increased responsibility” (Luthans, 2002a: 702). Resilience is a topic that has received increasing attention in recent years and as characterized by positive psychology, involves positive coping and adaptation in the face of significant risk or adversity (Masten and Reed, 2002: 74).

In this study, it is aimed to examine the psychological capital of the security personnel in terms of different dimensions (self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience) according to nationality and status.

**Methods**

In this study a cross-sectional survey was conducted using a convenience sample of 336 security employees in a military organization consisting of seventeen countries: Turkey, U.S.A., Germany, Portuguese, Slovenia, Austria, Poland, Greece, Swiss, Ireland, Hungary, Romania, Croatia, Czech Republic, Sweden, Italy, Finland, Denmark, Norway, Britain,
Netherlands, Ukraine, Canada, Lithuanian, Bulgaria, Albania and Kosovo. Country-based assessment was not made because of the number of countries is large and the number of personnel in the participating countries varies considerably from each other. Instead, a four-zone grouping was used to categorize European countries. (United Nations E-Government Survey, New York, 2016, pp.219). The countries in Europe were categorized in the study as North-Western Europe and South-Eastern Europe. Descriptive statistics of participants according to nationality and status are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Participants According to Nationality and Status

<table>
<thead>
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<td></td>
<td>Civilian employee</td>
<td>36</td>
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</table>

To assess psychological capital, the recently developed (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007) and psychometrically analyzed (Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007) 24 items PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ) was used and free permission was gotten from Prof. Dr. Fred Luthans via e mail for research purpose. Ratings for the PCQ were based on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” This instrument has adapted 6 items each from published hope (Snyder et al., 1996), efficacy (Parker, 1998), resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993) and optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985) scales. Confirmatory factor analysis, conducted using Lisrel 8.80 version 17 was used to compare four competing models of the underlying structure of the PsyCap scales. Four items with a factor load of less than 0.32 were excluded from the analysis and the models tested with a four factor (self-efficacy with the six relevant items, hope with the five relevant items, resilience with the five relevant items and optimism with the four relevant items).

Results

The effect of participants’ nationality and on psychological capital was tested by t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results of the analyses are shown in Tables 2 and 3.

As shown in Table 2, the difference in self-efficacy ($F_{335}=1,03$, $p>0.05$), hope ($F_{335}=1,53$, $p>0.05$) and optimism ($F_{335}=2,34$, $p>0.05$) does not have significant effect on status. This result showed that status does not have any effect on self-efficacy, hope and optimism. In the resilience ($F_{335}=3, 53 p<0.05$) dimension, the difference was found to be significant. In order to find means that is significantly different from each other Tukey’s test was applied. It has been found that the resilience of civilian employees differs significantly from officers and non-commissioned officers.

Table 2. Anova Results by Status

<table>
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<td>Civilian Employee</td>
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<td>.86</td>
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<td>4,82</td>
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As shown in Table 3, the difference in self-efficacy ($F_{335}=5.642, p>0.05$), hope ($F_{335}=7.363, p>0.05$) and optimism ($F_{335}=3.777, p>0.05$) has significant effect on nationality. It has been found that self-efficacy and hope of Turkey participants differs significantly from European countries participants and optimism of Turkey participants differs significantly from North and Western European countries. In the resilience ($F_{335}=2.890, p<0.05$) dimension the difference was not found to be significant. This result showed that nationality does not have any effect on resilience.

Table 3. Anova Results by Nationality

<table>
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<td>Hope</td>
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<td>Resilience</td>
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</table>

Conclusion

The results of the current study indicated that nationality and status significantly differ psychological capital. In conclusion: (1) Status does not have any effect on self-efficacy, hope and optimism. (2) Resilience of civilian employees differs significantly from officers and non-commissioned officers. (3) The difference in self-efficacy, hope and optimism has significant effect on nationality. According to this, self-efficacy and hope of Turkey participants differ significantly from European countries participants and optimism of Turkey participants differs significantly from North and Western European countries. (4) The difference in resilience is not significant.
References

The Role of Demographic Factors in Predicting Organizational Commitment Among Security Employees

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Prof. Dr. Ramazan ERDEM
Suleyman Demirel University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences

Abstract

The construct, "organizational commitment" has been a subject of interest for a long time for the people who study the organizational psychology. Employees' organizational commitment is a complex matter and there are many factors which affect the organizational commitment of employees. Even though the organization has important role in it, demographic and individual characteristics of employees have also significant influence on organizational commitment. In this study a cross-sectional survey was conducted using a convenience sample of 336 security employees in a military organization to establish possible relationship between organisational commitment and important demographic variables (nationality, rank, gender, age, education, marital status, tenure). The data obtained by the survey were analysed using the SPSS 21.0 package program. In statistical analyses, T-test and variance (ANOVA) analyses were used. The results of the data showed that affective commitment of employees who had been working between 11-15 years was significantly differentiated from those of working years over 25 years. The results of this study also showed that officers had more normative commitment than civilians and the supervisors had less normative commitment than non-supervisors. The analysis also showed that males and younger employees differed significantly in normative commitment than their female counterparts and older employees. However, no statistically significant difference was found in education and marital status.

Keywords: Organizational commitment, demographic factor, security employees.

Introduction

Organizational commitment is at the forefront concept that has been extensively addressed since the 1950s in the literature of organizational behavior and it is more often associated with job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, burnout, motivation, and loyalty. Kelman (1958:53) expressed commitment concept it terms of changes in attitudes and actions produced by social influence may occur at different levels and distinguished three different process of influence as compliance, identification and internalization. (Buchanan, 1974:533) called commitment as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth and emphasized that commitment had consists of three components; (a) identification- adoption as one's own the goals and values of the organization, (b) involvement- psychological immersion or absorption in the activities of one's work role, and (c) loyalty- a feeling of affection for and attachment to the organization. According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986: 493) "organizational commitment is conceived of as the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization."
There are many factors that affect organizational commitment. At the end of meta-analyses Mathieu ve Zajac (1990: 175) divided factors that affect organizational commitment into five groups: personal characteristics (age, sex, education, marital status, position tenure, organizational tenure, perceived personal competence, ability, salary, protestant work ethic and job level), job characteristics (skill variety, task autonomy, challenge, job scope), group-leader relations (group cohesiveness, task interdependence, leader initiating structure, leader consideration, leader communication and perceived leadership), organizational characteristics (organizational size and organizational centralization) and role states (role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload). But Meyer et al. (2002: 28-32) proposed four groups: demographic variables (age, gender, education, and organization tenure), individual differences (locus of control and self-efficacy), work experiences (organizational support, role ambiguity and role conflict) and alternatives/investments.

When the studies on commitment are searched; Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment has become the dominant model for study of organizational commitment and has been used widespread in organizational behavior research. Meyer and Allen's (1991: 67-69; 1997: 11-13) three-component model of commitment has three different components that correspond with different psychological states: (a) a desire (affective commitment), (b) a need (continuance commitment), and (c) an obligation (normative commitment) to maintain employment in an organization. (Meyer and Allen, 1997: 61).

In this study, it is aimed to examine the organizational commitment of security employees in terms of various demographic characteristics (nationality, status, gender, age, education, supervisor, marital status, tenure).

Methods

In this study a cross-sectional survey was conducted using a convenience sample of 336 security employees in a military organization consisting of seventeen countries: Turkey, U.S.A., Germany, Portuguese, Slovenia, Austria, Poland, Greece, Swiss, Ireland, Hungary, Romania, Croatia, Czech Republic, Sweden, Italy, Finland, Denmark, Norway, Britain, Netherland, Ukraine, Canada, Lithuanian, Bulgaria, Albania and Kosovo. Country-based assessment was not made because of the number of countries is in large and the number of personnel in the participating countries varies considerably from each other. Instead, a four-zone grouping was used to categorize European countries. (United Nations E-Government Survey, New York, 2016, pp.219). The countries in Europe have been categorized in the study as North-Western Europe and South-Eastern Europe. Descriptive statistics of participants are shown in Table 1.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
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<td>222</td>
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In the study, based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997), the TCM Employee Commitment Survey was used to determine the organizational commitment of participants. Confirmatory factor analysis was applied to investigate the construct validity of the model and results suggested that three-component model of Meyer-Alen was valid. Nine items with a factor load of less than 0.32 were excluded from the analysis and the model was analysed with; 5 items related to Affective Commitment, 6 items related to Continuance Commitment and 4 items related to Normative Commitment.

**Results**

The effect of participants' demographic variables (nationality, status, supervising, gender, tenure, marital status, educational level and age) on organizational commitment was tested by t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results of the analyses are shown in Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7.

As shown in Table 2, the difference in affective commitment \(F_{335}=117, p>.05\) and continuance commitment \(F_{335}=382, p>.05\) does not have significant effect on status. This result showed that, status does not have any effect on affective commitment and continuance commitment. In the Normative Commitment \(F_{335}=8,322, p<.05\) dimension, the difference was found to be significant. It has been found that the normative commitment of officers and non-commissioned officer differs significantly from civilian employees.

**Table 2. Anova Results by Status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Commissioned Officer</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>2/333</td>
<td>.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civilian Employee</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>2/333</td>
<td>.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Continuance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
<td>2/333</td>
<td>.382</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 3, the difference in normative commitment ($F_{335}=,789, p˃,05$) and continuance commitment ($F_{335}=1,159, p˃,05$) did not have significant effect on tenure. This result showed that, tenure does not have any effect on normative commitment and continuance commitment. In the Affective Commitment ($F_{335}=2,900, p˂,05$) dimension, the difference was found to be significant. It has been found that the affective commitment of employees working in the organization between 11-15 years significantly from 25 years and over.

### Table 3. Anova Results by Tenure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,900</td>
<td>,022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,159</td>
<td>,329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td></td>
<td>4/331</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-24 years</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years and over</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Continuance Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,159</td>
<td>,329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
<td>4/331</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-24 years</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years and over</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Normative Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>4/331</td>
<td>,789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-24 years</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years and over</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, the difference in normative commitment ($F_{335}=92,578, p˃,05$) and continuance commitment ($F_{335}=10,337, p˃,05$) has significant effect on nationality. It has been found that the continuance commitment of Turkey participants differs significantly from European countries participants, normative commitment of Turkey participants differs significantly from all the countries soldiers and normative commitment of North American countries participants differs significantly from southern and eastern european countries. In the affective commitment ($F_{335}=2,649, p˂,05$) dimension the difference was not found to be significant. This result showed that, nationality does not have any effect on affective commitment.

### Table 4. Anova Results by Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td></td>
<td>3/332</td>
<td>,649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

267
As shown in Table 5, the difference in normative commitment $t_{(303)}=3.092; p<0.01$ has significant effect on gender. It has been found that the normative commitment of males are higher than females and differs significantly.

Table 5. T Test Results by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>-7.66</td>
<td>0.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>-4.02</td>
<td>0.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>3.092</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 6, the difference in normative commitment $t_{(222)}=2.700; p<0.01$ has significant effect on supervising. It has been found that the normative commitment of non-supervisors is higher than supervisors and differs significantly.

Table 6. T Test Results by Supervising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Supervising</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>-1.387</td>
<td>.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-supervisor</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.271</td>
<td>.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-supervisor</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.700</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-supervisor</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7, the difference in normative commitment $t_{(132)}=4.563; p<0.05$ has significant effect on age. It has been found that the normative commitment of 22-34 ages is higher than 35 and over ages and differs significantly.
Table 7. T Test Results by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>22-34</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>5,13</td>
<td>1,20</td>
<td>.295</td>
<td>.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35 and Over</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>5,11</td>
<td>1,19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment</td>
<td>22-34</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4,13</td>
<td>1,13</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35 and Over</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4,04</td>
<td>1,20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment</td>
<td>22-34</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4,18</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>4,563</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35 and Over</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4,14</td>
<td>1,11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between educational level and marital status of participants. As a result of the analysis, the educational level and marital status of participants did not seem to have a significant effect on affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Conclusion

The results from these study indicated that the demographic factors; nationality, status, supervising, gender, tenure and age significantly differ organizational commitment except marital status and educational level. In conclusion: (1) Normative commitment of officers and non-commissioned officer differs significantly from civilian employees. (2) Continuance commitment of Turkey participants differs significantly from European countries participants, normative commitment of Turkey participants differs significantly from all the countries soldiers and normative commitment of North American countries participants differs significantly from southern and eastern European countries. (3) Normative commitment of males is higher than females. (4) Normative commitment of non-supervisors is higher than supervisors. (5) Normative commitment of 22-34 ages is higher than 35 and over age. (6) Educational level and marital status of participants doesn’t differ significantly.

This study showed that demographic factors have effect on different dimensions of organizational commitment. Most of the obtained results of the present study are in conformity with previous studies. But this study also shows contradictions with antecedents. For example, two meta-analyses – Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Teplitsky (2002) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) – find no effect of age, gender or education on either affective or continuance commitment. Organizational commitment of employees has always been important issue and should be taken into consideration for managers. However, there is no universal set of rules that can be applied in every organization and it should never be forgotten the importance of individual values in understanding commitment in the workplace.

References


Development of CALP through ICT and Lexical approach in second generation foreign students.

Elena Firpo
University of Genoa

Abstract

The public Italian School is a multicultural school: 51% of foreign students were born in Italy or arrived before starting primary school and their academic performance is lower than average, as verified by the Ministry of Education (MIUR 2015) and confirmed by a research group of Genoa University that assessed pupils’ prior knowledge in an elementary school. Consequently two research questions have been formulated: 1. A second generation foreign student has the same CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, Cummins 1979) as an Italian student? 2. Can the development of CALP both in Italian and Spanish give significant results? If so, which ones? The project LI.LO ( acronym of Lingua Italiana, Lingua di Origine) aims to study relations between heritage language and second language acquisition in CALP. It also has the purpose to build bilingualism programs in the public middle school by using ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) in order to improve academic proficiency and study skills in both languages. This paper wants to show the two basic phases of the project: in the first phase the researchers collected data about students’ linguistic prior knowledges and skills, showing a better competence in the section of the pre-test related to the lexicon. The analysis of the first phase was used to consider aims and guidelines for the bilingual course LI.LO. The method has been the Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993, 1997). Secondly the researchers opened the course on a platform CLAT/Clire, in which they put materials in both languages. ICT were used in many activities. In the contribute it will be shown analysis, results and further perspectives of the project.

Keywords: Development of CALP through ICT and Lexical approach in second generation foreign students.

Introduction

The Italian school system, based essentially on the provision of education by the State, is experiencing significant changes determined principally by the global economic crisis and the increase in the number of pupils coming from outside Italy, such as from other EU Member States, but above all from countries outside the EU.

According to statistics published by Italy’s Ministry of Education, Universities and Research in 2015, the number of non-Italian students amounted 805,800 (9,2% of total). The same year saw an overall increase in the number of foreign students due above all to non-Italian students born in Italy, who make up more than a half (51,7%) of the total number of foreign students. Whilst in previous years the increase in the number of foreign students in Italian schools resulted from immigration, more recently this increase is due to a rise in the number of foreign students born in Italy.

Before 2000, the vast majority of children starting school in Italy were Italians already with a communicative competence that enabled them to understand and use the Italian language in everyday situations. From this level of competence,
teachers could gradually introduce abstract language and varieties associated with specific subjects, special purpose terms, argumentative and expository texts, etc.  

With the new millenium however teachers had to integrate into their classes foreign children who were rapidly developing basic language competence and were approaching for the first time the language of study. Italian schools today are not only faced with students recently arrived in the country, but also those second generation born in Italy. This situation raises two questions:

1. A second generation foreign student has the same CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, Cummins 1979) as an Italian student?

2. Can the development of CALP both in Italian and Spanish give significant results? If so, which ones?

Definitions and key-concepts.

Before proceeding to discuss the issue, it is considered appropriate to define certain concepts relating to the present study, such as that of the academic language and fractional generation, a term used to identify the different age groups in which an individual, son of immigrants, has become part of a society. The first definition taken into account is that of fractional generation.

According to Rumbaut’s definition: “…By generation, 44% of immigrants are Us-born children of immigrant parents (i.e. the second generation or 2.0 generation), and 56% are foreign-born youths who immigrated to the United States before age 12 (i.e. the 1.5. generation)...” (1997, p. 29)

For the European Parliament, knowledge of the host country language is highlighted as a fundamental pre-requisite for integration into the mainstream education system. A majority of contributions emphasizes the need for powerful and early intervention for the acquisition of the teaching language, which should be followed by continuous support during the entire compulsory education phase.¹

Yet all of the measures prescribed by the EU were not actually implemented in the Italian classroom. It is not until 2012 that a ministerial directive would refer to Special Educational Needs (SEN). The Ministry specified that educational disadvantage does not just explicitly pertain to those affected by some form of disability, but covers a far wider spectrum. In all classrooms certain students may be in need of special attention for a variety of reasons: social and cultural disadvantages, specific learning and/or developmental disorders, as well as the difficulties international students may encounter due to their lack of knowledge of the Italian language and culture.

The bilingual education taken into account in this research refers to minority languages spoken by 2.0 generation students of the Italian Middle School. This seems to be a new approach in the Italian School system towards bilingual programs which are considered, by now, mostly as elite programs, for example the International Schools (Garcia, 2009) or the CLIL (Euridyce 2009). For the project of this study we prefer not to consider the term CLIL suitable, since bilingual education is concerned not only with the integration of language and content, as implied in the term CLIL, nor it is concerned only with learning another subject (or more) through the medium of a foreign language. Bilingual Education must primarily be concerned with a student’s entire education through two or more languages, including the gradual development of their sense of identity, society and culture.

The second definition taken into account in this paragraph is that of academic language. Dudley Evans and St John define EAP (English for Academic Purposes) “Any English teaching that relates to a study purpose” (1998, p. 34).

Italophone closely monodirectional According methodology language From The Methodological framework. 1997). Thus Italian since students. linguistic on and regard Communicative approach achieved a bilingual lexicon to the emerging relationship between the concepts and the L1, on the other there is a strong monodirectional relationship between L2 and L1. This scheme refers to the early stages of learning, where L1 is in close relationship with the conceptual system. On the contrary, this relationship does not exist with L2, but it is closely linked to L2 through the lexical system. In relation with this model and according to the research of this article, it's interesting to notice that the pre-tests given to all the students of a first-year Middle School class- which aimed to find out students' proficiency- showed that the scores reached by Hispanophone students were lower than those obtained by their Italophone classmates. Hispanophone students' competence in Spanish is for the most part oral, with a high level of hybridisation with Italian. Data emerging from this first phase of the project reveal a marked correlation in the section dedicated to lexis in both languages (Firpo, 2014). This result motivated a methodological approach that started from

1 Sybra/CLiRE of Centro Linguistico di Ateneo (CLAT, University of Genoa).
the learners’ strengths, i.e. lexis, to then focus on the weaknesses that emerged from the initial screening tests, i.e. comprehension and language use.

With regards to the language of study, the lexical approach provides valid methodological support. This approach is relatively recent, though Hymes had in some way already introduced it by profoundly changing the concept of competence and going beyond grammar by including “What is feasible, appropriate and actually performed” (Hymes, 1971). Hymes includes within the concept of competence the social dimension of language, including ability for use: “Competence is understood to be dependent on two things: (lact) knowledge and (ability for) use” (Hymes, 1972: 282). Although teaching has become oriented towards language as a means of and for communication rather than solely a system of rules, this has not been followed by sufficient focus on semantic-lexical aspects, essential in achieving communicative competence. As Serra Borneto (1999) points out, grammar has continued to play a dominant role in language teaching.

To arrive at a unitary vision of language that goes beyond the concept based on the grammar-lexicon dichotomy, we had to wait until Michael Lewis’ “Lexical Approach” (Lewis, 1993, 1997).

Of interest here is the application of the Lexical Approach within the framework of LI.LO. The principal aspects of the lexical approach that are present in the LI.LO project are:

- Prioritise authentic material and reject simplified input. The result is that material in one language cannot be identical to material in another despite the fact that the texts chosen are similar in type, content and lexis. What is identical are the language activities so as to balance the linguistic-communicative competence both in Italian and Spanish.

- Prioritise receptive abilities through exposure to authentic language. The validity of this strategy was confirmed by data produced by the project: students who followed the LI.LO course achieved significant improvements in comprehension in both languages.

- Encourage language analysis and comparison activities that highlight collocation and chunking. These activities were substantially identical in both languages despite texts that were not identical but similar only in content and lexis.

- Encourage student autonomy through content analysis and re-elaboration work. Comparison between the two languages, first in one and then in the other, focused on identifying semantic and lexical features.

Lewis’ lexical approach was found to develop the language of study and therefore can be effective within the LI.LO project. Attention is focused primarily on subject-specific lexis, without forgetting the subject’s rhetorical conventions so as to create a metalinguistic competence that can be used in LI.LO activities.

In this way, consistent with Cardona (2009), we move away from the traditional structurist teaching of vocabulary based on the ‘present/practise/produce’ paradigm, centred on deduction. Focus shifts to lexical items made up by entire grammaticalised phrases. The new paradigm is now ‘observe/hypothesise/experiment’, based on inductive techniques that create the conditions for lexical acquisition and future use.

**Bilingual education, ICT and blended learning: a balance between virtual and real classroom.**

In the last two decades the language teaching has seen an implementation of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and consequently, of the Network Based Language Teaching (NBLT). These areas, still relatively new and unexplored, but in continuous evolution, find their epistemological foundations in theories and approaches arisen within the discipline.

The selection and integration of technologies into a language course is a complex issue and it depends on many factors (Guichon, 2012). However, several factors influence integration for students and teachers.
The context of this study is the middle school. The first factor taken into consideration is the young age of the pupils and their potential difficulty against an e-learning model; these two factors could have caused a strong dispersion.

Since the modern teaching methods insist on the figure of the teacher facilitator of knowledge (Trentin, 2004), this figure, in the blended model, seemed the most suitable to the age of L.I.L.O's students (11-12 years). In fact, the blended model "mixes" the online activities with the face-to-face ones. By using a combination of digital instruction and one-on-one face time, students can work on their own with new concepts which frees teachers up to circulate and support individual students who may need individualized attention. Furthermore, proponents of blended learning argue that incorporating the "asynchronous Internet communication technology" into higher education courses serves to "facilitate a simultaneous independent and collaborative learning experience (Dreambox 2013).

In L.I.L.O the choice of blended mode was successful, firstly because pupils of the middle school need to have in front of them a teacher to guide them towards learning, selecting content, activities and times of the lesson. This happens especially in a context of lessons in a computer lab, where not everyone has the same experience of using the computer and the same cognitive level. Thus the teacher ought make sure that all the students start and begin activities. In order to help the rhythm of the lesson it is useful to introduce a collaborative learning, so that students can help each other, share ideas, speak both languages and build their knowledge together.

Another point of great importance concerns the flexibility of the materials and the teacher's initiative. It is necessary that the teacher has in mind that the time of the lesson can often be slowed due to technical problems (hardware failure or network connection). When this happens, the teachers ought to have flexible material, which means they have to be ready to switch digital materials into books, paper and pencil.

Another fact of slowdown regards the explanation to students about the computer programs. In this case, students can cooperate with the teacher and between them by exchanging information and competence. Learning a computer program alone can be very frustrating, but learning the same computer program with a friend can be very exciting and motivating.

Therefore for all the reasons above, the blended learning has been considered the one that could better meet the needs of both learners and those of the teachers.

According to Nacamulli (2003), blended learning is expressed in a cyclical process divided in three stages:

1- The assisted autonomous learning, based on the usage of online or offline materials.

2- Face-to-face training, seen as an opportunity for discussion and collaboration among students who can go into more detail of the topics proposed by the materials of point 1 (see above).

3- The distance activities through an e-learning platform. In addition to enjoy the online material, students can use tools that encourage active learning.

As regards models of effective learning environments, it seems appropriate to refer to HPL model (How People Learn, Bransford, Brown e Cocking, 2000 cit. in Pandolfini 2010). In this model the learning environments are those centered on knowledge, assessment and community. As regards this model Pandolfini (2010) states that:

— The central role of the student is based on activities that need to be focused on goals, desires and interests of the learners. The best results in terms of learning are achieved when students recognize the usefulness of the knowledge and give a meaning to what they are learning (Bransford, Brown and Cocking, 2000);

— The central role of knowledge is obtained through a blended learning environment that is structured by adopting different teaching strategies, encouraging students to "do" the work, fostering a better understanding rather than memorization of notions of discipline and promoting thus the development of new skills (Shea, 2007);
The focus of the evaluation is implemented by helping students to make visible their thoughts, providing constant feedback and revisions, which are given not only by the teachers and tutors, but also by other students involved in the learning process;

The comparison between peers is the key to meet the central role of the community, within which lie the other aspects;

All the above elements are found in blended LI.LO model in which:

- Knowledge is based on task based activities that need to be focused on task based activities made by the teacher. They are based on the analysis of needs, and ought to respect the needs of learners and their interests.

- Knowledge is achieved through the adoption of different teaching strategies encouraging students to “do” the work, fostering a better understanding rather than memorization of notions of discipline and promoting thus the development of new skills (Shea, 2007);

- Knowledge comes through cooperation between the students, the exchange of ideas, mutual help in carrying out tasks. The teacher should encourage the cooperative attitude and discourage competition between individuals and between groups; the learning process becomes not only a technical type of teaching, but it is built also through inclusion and sharing processes.

In conclusion it’s possible to say that the LI.LO methodological aspects are varied and it is not possible to categorize them into one model. They are indeed taken into account purely linguistic models (such as the Lexical Approach, Lewis 1993) together with other methodological aspects (CLIL, Content and Language Integrated Learning, Coonan 2014); the whole was assisted by operating models, such as the blended model of LI.LO.

Findings and Discussion.

The LI.LO project is divided into two phases: in phase one, before defining the course objectives, data had to be collected on the basis of the linguistic and communicative abilities put into use at school by students of non-Italian origin. These students typically cannot be classed as immigrants that have recently arrived in Italy. Two tools were used: a language test and linguistic biography. The tests were given to all fifth-year primary school students at I.C. Sampierdarena in Genoa during June 2013. The qualitative and quantitative analysis in phase one enabled us to design the LI.LO course according to the learners’ needs.

In phase two and three (the first and the second edition of the course, school years 2013/14 and 2014/2015), the quantitative and qualitative analyses were repeated at the beginning and end of the course. The LI.LO language test (Firpo 2014) was used both to assess students' entry knowledge as well as to monitor the progress of those who had taken part in the first edition of LI.LO, comparing the sample of the Hispanophone students that had followed the course with the sample of Italian students. Linguistic biographical data helped to provide a picture of learners' school and language history and sociolinguistic background. The language tests were taken by all first-year of middle school students at I.C. Sampierdarena. As regards the qualitative analysis, at the beginning of the course students completed their linguistic biographical profile and at the end of the course questionnaires concerning their views on the course and the progress made.

Although qualitative and quantitative research approaches were adopted, we will focus here on a global view of the data. Detailed discussion of the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the linguistic biography, course objectives and the use of teaching technologies can be found in E. Firpo 2016, E. Firpo and L. Sanfelici, 2016.

As regards language, the first phase of the LI.LO project showed that the mean linguistic-communicative performances of Italophone students were higher than those of their Hispanophone counterparts. Nevertheless, for Hispanophone students Italian as a language of study is the language in which they recorded the highest scores. The greatest
difficulties lie in comprehension in Italian and more precisely in writing. This result supports the hypothesis that the students for which data has been analyzed are not balanced bilinguals, who use their language of origin in the family context but do not have competence in it as a language of study. Hispanophone students perform best in lexis ('language forms'). On the basis of these results, therefore, the objective of the course is to develop study skills and the language of study. The strong point of lexis that emerged in the screening process justified a lexical approach linked to a contrastive methodology with the aim of working on comprehension and written production skills. The results that emerged in the second and third phase showed that the LI.LO course helped develop the language of study through heightened ability in comprehension in both languages and in use of the language, particularly in Italian.

In addition to an analysis of the effectiveness of the course, as part of the LI.LO project attendees were given a post-course assessment and self-assessment questionnaire covering the following areas:

— Teaching.
— Equipment and resources.
— Students' perception of their linguistic identity.

The methodological approach adopted can be called exploratory and non qualitative as the methods of collection (investigation) and analysis (descriptive statistics) are fundamentally quantitative (Arthur, Waring, Coe, & Hedges, 2012; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2014).

The questionnaire has five sections:
1) Quality of the work done.
2) Quality of the tools and arguments.
3) Self-assessment of the course.
4) ICT.
5) Global evaluation. In the post-course questionnaire there were 25 respondents.

The five parts of the questionnaire included thirty-nine items used to measure the quality of the activities made during the course, the type of ICT / Web 2.0 used in the classroom as a way to promote metalinguistic awareness. Furthermore part 3 and 5 ask the students to reflect on their learning process by answering questions about improvement of competences that include both linguistic and study skills. Despite the 30 students attending LI.LO, only 25 answered the questionnaire since the participation was voluntary.

Most of the questions attributed a score measuring levels of satisfaction from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5. For instance, in the section dedicated to the quality of the work, on average 76% of students gave a rating from 4 to 5 regarding satisfaction with personal progress made, usefulness of the activities carried out (80%) and quality of classroom management by teachers (76%).

As for the quality of equipment and subject areas studied, scores between 4 and 5 were given on the following topics, with percentage of respondents in brackets: instruments/equipment used (80%); subjects (80%); support materials (68%); satisfaction with platform (82%).

The general assessment of the course (85% of responses assigned a score between 4 and 5) was positive. The areas of study in order of satisfaction level are: use of language (58%); knowledge of lexis (26%) and comprehension (16%).
Scores between 4 and 5 were also recorded in the self-assessment questionnaire. They are as follows: 79% believed that the course helped to improve self-esteem; 64% thought that the course had raised interest in the subject; 53% felt that they had improved their self-study skills and knowledge of the subject in general. Self-assessment of language-related progress revealed a perceived improvement in use of the language (42%), knowledge of lexis (32%) and in comprehension (26).

Finally, on the question of the response by families to the questionnaire, only 23% of student families completed and returned the form. This would appear to suggest that these students’ families take little part in their children’s school life, a fact that is confirmed by teachers, who point out the lack of parent participation. However, those who did complete the questionnaire expressed their satisfaction with the LI.LO project along with the hope that the language of origin be maintained.

**Conclusion**

LI.LO can be considered an instructional-educational model which aims to strengthen the channels of communication and collaboration between school and territory. From one side the Program wants to build a more open school community. On the other side it aims to open a more sensitive social context to the educational urgencies.

As regards language, the results that emerged in the final analysis of data showed that the LI.LO course helped develop the language of study through heightened ability in comprehension in both languages and in use of the language, particularly in Italian (Firpo e Sanfelici 2015).

As regards computer, however, it is possible to observe how the use of technologies for the construction of multimedia products has revealed a successful choice. The participation of the students was very active and this can be considered one of the most important elements for the linguistic appropriation. The task of transformation, which is a typical activity that develops the CALP, has been made more motivating from the use of computer programs for the production of content.

In fact, ICT and Web 2.0 tools provide a variety of different approaches as well as learning styles that might reinforce the material delivered in other formats. Also the enjoyment and the motivation is very much a part of the effective learning (Stevick, 1990).

Shezer and Warschauer (2000) state that the web can support the computer-mediated communication tools and language teachers to integrate web resources into the language classroom. Furthermore ICT can captivate learners’ interest, increase personal discovery, generate enthusiasm and the desire to learn (McDougald, 2009). The Web offers a very big amount of authentic materials for language learning (texts, videos, images, sound recording etc.), allowing the teachers and the learners to cross borders without even leaving their country. During geography lessons, for example, LI.LO’s students could virtually travel to their countries of origin simply by using Google Maps or Google Earth. They had found their relatives’ homes and this, for example, was an excellent motivation to search more information and to share findings and ideas with the community.

The final data, therefore, allow to follow two future research paths. The first one is related to cognition, and it concerns the activities used for the development of CALP. The second, more interesting from the point of view of language learning, involves the validity of the paradigm that sees the use of technologies for the production of content as a motivating tool, even in the long term.

In conclusion the use of ICT has changed our conventional way of learning and proposes the need to rethink education in terms of a more current context. According to the previous statement LI.LO wants to be an experimental research-action addressed to minority languages and, generally, disadvantaged students.

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On the basis of our findings, it is to be hoped that foreign language teaching moves towards the development of linguistic-communicative abilities in the language of study and a more balanced bilingualism both for non-Italophone students and, in the future, for all students in Italian schools with the objective of creating schools – and the citizens it produces – that embrace plurilingualism and inteculturalism.

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Tipología De La Novela Histórica Contemporánea

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Abstract
The present study investigates the variability of the historical literary genre with special reference to two contemporary novels: Vázquez Montalbán’s Galíndez, and Eduar El-Jarrat’s The Road of the Vulture. At face value, both works can be considered poles apart: both works are written in two different languages, Spanish and Arabic, belong to two different cultures, and each has undergone a social-historical development inspired by literary theory and a new critical vision. Therefore, both authors are unified by their innovated literary vision: they have created two novels which transcend the frontiers of literary genres following definite principles, and "personal" aesthetics

Keywords: Historical novel, El camino del águila, Galíndez, modern story.

Introducción:
La razón del siguiente trabajo puede buscarse en la gran variedad del género histórico cuyo auge, en muchas literaturas, ya viene conformándose desde hace décadas. Aquí, se abordan dos obras, que son fieles exponentes, de al menos dos variantes de la novela histórica actual propiamente dicha: Galíndez ¹ de Manuel Vázquez Montalbán y El camino del águila ² de Eduar El-Jaraat.

La presentación y el análisis de estos dos textos me van a permitir ahondar, aunque de modo somero, en la naturaleza y tipología de este subgénero narrativo.

A simple vista, un tipo de trabajo de esta naturaleza plantea más de un escollo. Primero, porque se trata de dos obras escritas en dos lenguas el castellano y el árabe, pertenecientes a dos países diferentes (España y Egipto) que, durante más de un siglo, han tenido, por separado, una evolución histórica, cuando menos, agitada por revoluciones y grandes pasiones.

Sin embargo, no es menos cierto que según la teoría literaria y la visión crítica innovadora, es posible enfocar los textos elegidos desde una perspectiva bastante concreta. Para ello voy a guiarme por criterios reflejados por Celia Prieto en Historia y Novela ³.

Asimismo, ayuda mucho que ambos escritores fueron coetáneos. Pero, al tiempo que los separan unos años, los une una visión literaria innovadora que tiene su reacción en un sinfín de lecturas y estilos. Por lo cual, es persistente la idea de que escriben un relato moderno, transgresor de géneros, límite de otros subgéneros y conscientemente transmisor de ideas claras, de principios definidos y de determinadas y personalísimas estéticas.

1. La novela histórica contemporánea:
Según Celia Prieto la novela histórica, desde las últimas décadas del siglo XX, se distribuye en dos líneas básicas:

a] Una, de corte tradicional, es decir, novela histórica que guarda el respeto a los datos de los acontecimientos historiográficos y el afán de enseñar historia al lector. Pero esta novela lleva a cabo innovaciones tanto temáticas como
formales que radican en disolver los límites temporales entre el pasado de la historia y el presente de la enunciación; y "la concentración en la subjetivación de la historia".

Aquí, el lector no percibe la distancia de los siglos que le separa del narrador porque reconoce en él ideas, actitudes y planteamientos contemporáneos. De las novelas que reflejan más esta tendencia citamos Memorias de Adriano de Margarite Yourcenar, Extramuros y Cabrera de J. Fernández Santos, El bobo ilustrado de José Antonio Gabriel y Galán, En el último azul de Carmen Riera, entre otras.

b) Otra, que se denomina nueva novela histórica o novela histórica posmoderna. En este tipo de novela histórica se alteran los rasgos del tipo anterior, y se proyectan las nuevas teorías sobre la Historia, la ficción y la narración. Asimismo, "se altera consciente, voluntaria y manifiestamente las versiones generalmente aceptadas de los hechos, las características de los personajes históricos sus actitudes y motivaciones, el decurso o el resultado de los acontecimientos".

Así pues, la historia admite diversos relatos informativos y comentarios narratoriales que interrumpen la trama. Se forma así un lector implícito que acepte el juego con la acumulación o distorsión de citas, del tiempo y del componente histórico que altera lo narrado.

La distancia entre el presente y el pasado se anula ya que los lectores se mueven a través del tiempo convertido en textos, alusiones o referencias.

Se nota, además, una recuperación del valor de la historiografía pero adquiriendo nuevas tendencias, una historiografía "despojada de sus ínfulas de objetividad y orientada tanto a investigar lo que ocurrió cuanto a detectar y analizar los sistemas de creencias y los criterios interpretativos a través de los cuales las sociedades y los individuos de las distintas épocas construyen su realidad historiográfica".

Así vemos que el interés por saber lo que ocurrió se ha dirigido hacia el quién y el cómo lo contó, también hacia el quién y el cómo lo lee y lo interpreta.

De lo que no cabe dudar es de que la metaficción se constituye en el eje temático y formal de la nueva novela histórica, pues ésta "se muestra como un género metalingüístico y metahistórico, que ironiza sobre sus mecanismos de escritura y sobre sus Fuentes".

Nos encontramos pues con una novela histórica que manifiesta su carácter de comentario, su dimensión metanarrativa e hiper textual, lo que quiere decir, que la nueva novela histórica afronta el problema del anacronismo y se anula la distancia entre los tiempos y por consecuencia "se postula una imagen de la similitud de todos los tiempos en un solo tiempo; el pasado y el futuro habitan el presente".

En suma podemos decir, que se trata de dar, al hilo de la narración, una reflexión acerca de la verdad histórica y de las formas de construirlas, amén de contra historias, que se han contado desde otros puntos de vista y de otra manera. Las novelas históricas contemporáneas reescriben las narraciones que funcionaban culturalmente como verdaderas, como históricas.

2. Galíndez:

2.1. Galíndez como novela de tinte innovador:

En un nuevo ciclo narrativo dentro de su producción novelística, Manuel Vázquez Montalbán escribe una trilogía sobre la "ética de la resistencia", Galíndez es la segunda novela de ella.

Lo innovador que aporta Montalbán en esta novela es el de compaginar el nivel de la narración con el de la novela negra norteamericana. O sea, el autor intenta ajustar la investigación policiaca que se aplica a crímenes imaginarios de la novela negra con la investigación histórica aplicada a un verdadero crimen del pasado y representarlo por medio de la ficción. De
tal manera, el hilo conductor del relato aparece en su forma más común de intriga, persecuciones, ambientes de torturas, que están ligados a los hechos históricos y a su interpretación.

Galíndez es una obra realista, que compagina lo novelesco con lo histórico, que el autor lo denomina «revelador»18. Es un realismo que implica desvelar aspectos del entorno que permanecían ocultos e iluminar zonas oscuras de una realidad siempre compleja.

Así, Montalbán recupera y rescata del olvido la figura histórica del nacionalista vasco Jesús Galíndez Suárez y reivindica la memoria de este tipo de gente que, según él, son los que han propiciado los cambios históricos; por lo cual se profundiza en la historia española pasada, indagando por los senderos de la memoria histórica y el olvido colectivos, y lo vemos “mediante diversas voces, de varía condición ideológica y moral, complementarias y contradictorias, escrita en la memoria española pasada y la vida presente, la condición y la ética del exilio y de la resistencia […]”19.

Pero, ¿por qué fue Galíndez específicamente quien eligió Montalbán para ser protagonista de su novela?20. La razón radica en su complejidad ¡su manera poco clara!—como lo veremos a continuación— que le convierte en un personaje dialéctico desde el punto de vista histórico, humano y literario.

2.2 Galíndez: la realidad 21 y la ficción

En su testamento 22 Galíndez apunta:

«Me declaro cristiano y vasco. Como tal, quiero ser enterrado en la fe y en la tierra de mis antepasados cuando esto sea posible. Y ruego a quienes se hagan cargo de mi cuerpo y bienes, que mis restos sean llevados a Amurrio, en la provincia de Álava, Euzkadi, para ser enterrados allí. Quisiera que fuese en la finca de mi padre en Zaraobe, en la parte alta, desde donde se divisan las montañas de mi Patria. A este efecto se reservará la parte de mis bienes que sea necesaria».

Jesús Galíndez era abogado, escritor, nacionalista, demócrata, jurista, humanista, y era ante todo “un complicado ser humano, con sus virtudes, defectos y contradicciones”23. Desde muy joven se interesó en temas relacionados con el País Vasco y en 1932 se ingresa al PNV. Al estallar la Guerra Civil se incorpora al servicio del Comité–Delegación del PNV de Madrid y se convierte en el ayudante del ministro de Justicia, el nacionalista vasco Manuel de Irujo. Así vemos que en Galíndez se encarna “toda una generación de vascos que entre 1936 y 1960 apostaron por lo que ellos creían única vía para conseguir derrocar al régimen dictatorial de Franco. Apostaron por la democracia y la libertad”24.

En 1939 cruza la frontera francesa y viaja hasta la República Dominicana, donde reside hasta 1946. Desde su llegada a la isla se fundió en la colonia vasca, y al poco tiempo “«movilizaría» a toda la minicolonia del país”25, y a sus 25 años se convierte en uno de los exiliados más activos de la República. A finales de 1940, asume el mando de la Delegación Vasca, y ésta empezó a colaborar con el Agregado Militar de la Embajada Americana a partir de 1942.

En la isla, Galíndez trabajaba como profesor de historia y literatura en el “Instituto Cristóbal Colón” en la “Escuela Diplomática y Consular”.

Durante su estancia en la República no expresó, de manera alguna su repudio al régimen o comportamiento del dictador Trujillo, pues Galíndez sentía un fuerte agradecimiento a este país que le permitía escapar de Europa, esto lo asegura diciendo: “mientras estuve en el país cumplí lealmente mis cargos técnicos, y no me inmiscuí en política ni para bien ni para mal, (aunque recibí los desahogos personales de las figuras del régimen trujillista en contra del dictador que se ven forzados a adular, no repetiré nombres). Salí del país normalmente en enero de 1946; y sin recato alguno comenté de palabra la situación de la República Dominicana a cuanto querían saberlo”26.

Con la llegada de 1946, sale de la isla camino a Nueva York, y a los pocos meses de su llegada, rompió su atadura moral con el Gobierno de Trujillo tras un tropiezo con la maquinaria represiva del dictador: “[…] Ese insulto y ruín zarpazo me liberó de todo escrúpulo; y desde entonces me he considerado libre para hablar y escribir en defensa de la libertad dominicana” 27, por lo cual figura en las “listas negras” del país, y llega a estar bajo el punto de mira de la represión dominicana. Y se convierte Galíndez en uno de los más fuertes luchadores contra las dictaduras. En Nueva York, llega a
ser representante del gobierno vasco del PNV ante el Departamento de Estado y en la ONU, y cursa la carrera de Filosofía en la Universidad de Columbia.

¿Cómo pensaba Galíndez? ¿Cuál fue su ideología?

La primordial meta de Galíndez era volver a Euskadi, a un Euskadi demócrata, viene después la defensa de los derechos humanos. Además, era un anticomunista, pero opuesto al anticomunismo norteamericano y distinto al franquista y al dominicano, que se practicaba por parte del régimen trujillista y que, según él, sólo servía para el desarrollo del comunismo.

Durante casi doce años, colaboraba Galíndez con el FBI con el sobrenombre de «Rojas» y el código en clave «NY507».

A partir de 1954 empezó a escribir su tesis doctoral sobre Trujillo: La era de Trujillo (Un estudio casuístico de dictadura hispanoamericana), y más aún, como no había podido dar rienda suelta a todo su odio por el dictador en la tesis, decidió escribir una novela cuyo título El camicero del Caribe.

Muchos han recomendado a Jesús, incluso el FBI, que dejara de escribir la tesis sobre Trujillo. Pero el Delegado, por lo menos al principio, no creía que su libro le provocaría la muerte y seguía su trabajo por que “contaba con una baza a su favor. Sabía que era una persona muy conocida en Nueva York y profesor de una de las universidades más prestigiosas del mundo, y era, en teoría, prácticamente imposible que Trujillo intentara atentar contra él”28. Trujillo, por su parte, amenazaba con matarlo, y desde entonces andaba Galíndez con muchísimo cuidado.


Sobre esta base histórico–documental construyó M. Vázquez Montalbán su novela.

Hay que señalar, desde un principio, que el relato de Montalbán no consiste en componer una biografía, ni una novela histórica convencional, ni tampoco de espionaje –aunque tenga rasgos de cada una de ellas- sino en hacer una novela crónica en la que se mezclan la realidad y la ficción, los personajes reales e inventados y esto lo indica diciendo: “He tratado de buscar lo que llamaría el efecto Zelig, como en la película de Woody Allen, es decir, alcanzar un nivel en el que lo real pueda parecer ficción y la ficción parecer real”29 con el fin -como se ha dicho- de escudriñar la historia española pasada y la vida presente. “Frente a la crisis de los saberes del s. XX, Galíndez trata el dramático declinar de las ideologías con un discurso no argumentativo que reemplaza artísticamente los conceptos por las imágenes”30.

En consecuencia afirmamos que esta historia es subjetiva, lo que quiere decir, se privilegian ciertos hechos y se ocultan otros, además la cuestión de la Guerra Civil y la lucha por un País Vasco autónomo se limita solamente como un mero trasfondo.

Y, como surge Galíndez de la combinación de la Historia con la novela, el papel de protagonista lo tiene Muriel Colbert, el ejemplo de Galíndez, y no él. En la novela se cuentan los avatares, las interceptaciones y presiones que sufre esta investigadora norteamericana, becada y momona renegada, que 30 años después de la desaparición de Galíndez en Nueva York, prepara una tesis doctoral sobre: La ética de la resistencia: el caso Galíndez.

Muriel emprendió su trabajo recorriendo todos los lugares donde estuvo Galíndez. Durante este recorrido, que empezó de una forma estrictamente académica y acabó convirtiéndose en vital y la llevó a la expiación y a la muerte, se enfrentó a muchos problemas y obstáculos; amén de caer bajo fuertes presiones: primero, de parte de Norman, su director de tesis, cuando quiso reorientar su trabajo, luego de don Angelito -por encargo de la CIA- tratando de convencerla de abandonar su investigación.

La figura de Galíndez le atrajo la atención y su apariencia contradictoria le ha entusiasmado para su trabajo. Así que, en busca de una identidad más de acuerdo con su ideología, y para lograr la dignificación personal, ella, en su entusiasmado rastreo, busca “todos los Galíndez posibles” (p.47)31, pero se decide por un sólo Galíndez, aquel que fue asesinado en defensa de sus ideales. De tal modo intenta Muriel recuperar su biografía y reivindicar su memoria.
«Muriel se había tomado el caso Galíndez como una cuestión personal» (p.47).

Esta toma de postura suya es la que devuelve a este hombre, Galíndez, su dimensión individual, o sea, lo vuelve a escala humana y no a un mero personaje símbolo de libertad, de justicia y lucha contra la dictadura:

"La trama, entendida como res gestae y como historia rerum gestarum se repite, o mejor dicho, se refleja"32. Lo que quiere decir, que ambas historias -verdadera y ficticia- están fundidas la una en la otra, borrando rasgos característicos del original y de la copia, y, de una manera llamativa, se nota la similitud entre las existencias de Muriel y Galíndez y las frecuentes coincidencias entre las biografías de ambos: la desaparición de los dos en Santo Domingo, él por haber escrito una tesis sobre el dictador Trujillo, ella por preparar una tesis sobre Galíndez.

Huelga aquí afirmar que, a lo largo de la novela en todas las partes protagonizadas por Galíndez o Muriel se entremezclan las palabras del primero y los pensamientos de la segunda. Según, Pitarello se atribuye esto a la representación del desdoblamiento autobiográfico. He aquí el comienzo de la obra donde los versos del vasco se mezclan con los pensamientos de la investigadora:

«En la colina me espera...en la colina me espera...» El verso te da vueltas por la cabeza, como si fuera un surco rayado de un Viejo disco de piedra. «En la colina me espera...en la colina me espera...» «Y volveré... volveré o me llevarán ya muerto... a refundirme en la tierra...» Ni siquiera eso fue posible, Jesús, musitas y te parece hablar con ese extraño compañero enquistado que desde hace años llevas dentro de ti. El viento limpia el valle de Amurrio y te levanta las faldas sobre esta colina de Larrabeode, la colina escogida como si fuera la colina, exactamente, la colina que esperaba a Jesús de Galíndez. Tienes frío y los huesos aguados por el viento que pule el pequeño monumento funerario dedicado a Jesús de Galíndez y por la humedad retenida en el depósito que se ciere sobre el valle con su amenaza, promesa de agua. La estela de piedra parece ridícula y amedrentada por el colosalismo del depósito, poco más que un pretexto para no perder del todo la memoria, una memoria, un homenaje residual y probablemente incómodo (p.9)».

Muriel, amén de su apasionado rastreo, no tiene la intención de descubrir toda la verdad, ni de encontrar a los asesinos, sino quiere llegar a entender el “dilema moral en la encrucijada histórica”33 en la que se encontraba Jesús de Galíndez, esto lo que ella advierte desde un principio:

«Galíndez era un nacionalista vasco... Pero eso no me interesa. No quiero saber toda la verdad sobre el caso Galíndez, sólo quiero saber una verdad [...] Quiero saber... Tal vez, por qué se lo jugó (p.24)».

Y por ello intenta ocupar los espacios habitados por él y a revivir «la atmósfera que rodeó a Galíndez en sus últimos momentos» (p.294).

Al final, Muriel pudo traspasar a su propia vida el sentido de la ética de la resistencia que buscaba en la memoria reivindicada de Galíndez. Además, encontró al «hombre entero» (p.328), el hombre de su vida aunque sea «profeta impuro» (p.317), pero esta impureza es lo que le humaniza. Y se convierte Galíndez, para ella, en un modelo a seguir y que en su tierra encontró el sentido de su existencia. De este modo, afirmamos lo que dijo C. Bértolo34 de que lo que une los destinos de ambos personajes es la misma resistencia ética a no resignarse, a no perder ni, sobre todo, perderse en tiempos de derrota.

A lo largo de la novela van apareciendo recortes del cuerpo historiográfico del caso Galíndez. El motivo por el cual se exhibe esta cadena intertextual es la revelación de las perspectivas subjetivas de las presuntas verdades.

De estas llamadas intertextuales nos encontramos con memorias personales, entrevistas, cartas, tratados, refutaciones, documentos como el propio libro de Galíndez, su tesis, el de Manuel de Dios Unanué, y también libros en los que se inscriben historias contrarias que figuran el caso Galíndez como el de Antonio Bonet35.
Toda la novela está basada sobre el juego de la doblez, y Montalbán nos presenta diversos personajes destruidos, llenos de dobleces, que «a menudo nunca fueron lo que aparentan ser» (p.344).

El núcleo central de la obra está formado en torno a la doblez moral de Jesús de Galíndez. Tras su muerte empezó a revelarse su condición de doble agente, Galíndez era un activista del PNV y también trabajó de manera cubierta para el FBI y CIA; pero este doble papel suyo estaba justificado por su compromiso con la causa vasca y por la recuperación de la libertad de su País Vasco. Otra vez aflora las diversas facetas del enigmático personaje de Galíndez.

Muriel en su doble papel maternal/investigador intenta comprender la toma de postura de Galíndez, sin acusar ni justificar su doble papel, «...daba risa la condición de doblez en la que todos vivíais mientras hacíais proclamas públicas de unicidad y entereza hasta la muerte. [...] Tú proclamabas que el fin no justifica los medios, pero sabías que te mentías» (p.59).

En el transcurso de la trama emana la doble actuación de los agentes secretos de la historia. Tal es el caso de Martínez Jara, alias el cojo, el emisario de Trujillo «que había sido agente doble de todos desde la Guerra de España agente de Franco y de la República, matón en México, conspirador a favor y en contra de Trujillo» (p.59).

Asimismo, la novela desarrolla el doble juego del gobierno norteamericano hacia España tras la Guerra Civil.

Hay aquí que anotar que, en el transcurso de la novela deducimos que Muriel es el disfraz que adopta Montalbán con el fin de darnos su visión de los hechos.

Montalbán, en su constante preocupación por recuperar la memoria histórica y su deseo de indagar en la historia y de seguir haciendo preguntas sobre el pasado y el presente, se pregunta en boca de Muriel: «¿Acaso el olvido de Galíndez no es consecuencia de esa voluntad de ahistoricismo que lo invade todo, que quiere liberarse de la sanción moral de lo histórico?» (p.77). Así como, la devolución de Muriel al delegado de su dimensión individual y la postura que ella adopta hacia él, refleja la mirada que toma el escritor hacia este personaje: un profundo respeto humano.

2.3. Las técnicas narrativas:

La técnica constructiva de esta novela híbrida, donde se mezcla la historia y la memoria, lo culto y lo popular, está basada en la técnica del collage. Nos encontramos con documentos, recortes de periódicos, extractos de libros, diálogos, sin alcanzar, siempre, a determinar la frontera entre lo real y lo ficticio, lo que significa dar cabida a "una multiplicidad de voces recuperadas del olvido, de ahí el carácter de mosaico de textos fragmentados o de narración polifónica".

En cuanto a la focalización, no se adscribe la novela a una visión unitaria, particular de la historia, sino que la focalización consiste en un contrapunto entre tres enfoques de sus tres protagonistas. El primero, es la historia de Galíndez que se cuenta, la última vez que fue visto en Nueva York, su desaparición, su secuestro, tortura y al final su asesinato. El segundo, se trata de Muriel Colbert y su investigación sobre el caso, recorriendo todos los lugares donde estuvo él. El último, es el enfoque que concierne a Robards, el agente de la CIA que interviene en el trabajo de Colbert. Una intervención que lleva al asesinato de ésta.
Presentar la focalización con la intensificación de la credibilidad y aumentar la sensación de opresión, tiene como objetivo provocar una concienciación en el lector que va en paralelo con la de Galíndez y Muriel.

En cuanto a la técnica de construcción de la narración veo que es singular. Me refiero aquí al punto de vista. Galíndez es una novela descentrada con múltiples puntos de vista, por lo cual la obra oscila entre dos formas pronominales. La vivencia auténtica y fabulosa se funden, entonces a Muriel y Galíndez les concierne la misma perspectiva, el mismo punto de vista. Pero Montalbán no recurre a la primera persona cuando habla la protagonista o el delegado, sino a la segunda persona, lo cual quiere decir que el tú (sea de ella o de él) supone un yo locutor sin identidad fija. Los tiempos verbales, en este caso, están en presente y abundan los monólogos interiores.

La elección de Montalbán de la segunda persona para su narrador, implica que este escritor crea un relato inhabitual en el que no finge la voz de las víctimas, ni tampoco cuenta desde fuera y, además, renuncia a las convenciones de verosimilitud, típicas del género de la novela histórica tradicional.

En cuanto a la tipología del narrador, es un narrador omnisciente, pues sabe todo lo que piensan e imaginan los demás personajes, y abarca todas las situaciones posibles.

Esta fusión de la segunda persona y de la omnisciencia origina un continuo vaivén entre la voz de Galíndez y la de Muriel, o sea, entre quien es narrado y quien narra, el ejemplo más representativo es la escena de tortura que sufre Muriel llegando a un momento en que se diluye la voz de los dos, sin poder distinguir si la tortura la está sufriendo ella o él.

Cuando en el discurso no se trata ni de Muriel ni de Galíndez, aparece la tercera persona derribando el muro entre ficción y realidad y “descargando la tensión creada por el tú y calienta la introspección de Muriel y Galíndez” 39. Los tiempos verbales, en este caso, están en pasado, y las descripciones de las situaciones están detalladas y se produce un vaivén entre los discursos directos e indirectos.

En esta novela, la complejidad de la galería de personajes-desintegrados, que no son lo que aparentan ni de una pieza, no está trazada al azar ni es un puro divertimiento y podría según Michel Santiago, revelar una teoría del comportamiento.

Muriel es el personaje positivo de la obra, que no encuentra entre los vivos un modelo a seguir, tampoco encuentra entre ellos una vía para manifestar su oposición frente al sistema. Para Robards y don Angelito ella es una de los «pobres inocentes» de «Los santos laicos» (p.265). Ella encarna, según Montalbán, la conclusión de la novela: “Cada generación hace frente a sus desafíos y aún queda una raza de inocentes dispuestos a asumir riesgos éticos”.

Robards, «el hombre cúbico» (p.51), el agente de la CIA, y don Angelito, el sicario, son dos ramas del árbol de la derrota. El primero, amante de la poesía y buen lector de T.S. Eliot, para él no cuentan los sentidos, prefiere controlar la realidad. Robards se nos presenta como un individuo dotado de vida propia.

Don Angelito, que se define como “ciudadano del mundo y libre pensador” (p.137), es el personaje brillantemente diseñado y uno de los mejores logros de la novela pues, a diferencia de Robards, ejerce desde los sentidos. Es el verdugo que se convierte en víctima. Angelito –llamado también Voltaire- representa el arte del engaño que está en condición de interpretar en cada situación su papel adecuado: “Construirse en trampa mortal es la jerarquía superior de su juego vital” 41.

Por otra parte, nos encontramos con Radcliffe, el profesor de ética que dirige el trabajo de Muriel. Es un personaje en conflicto, un cobarde que vende su conciencia por su bienestar, es, además, «una asquerosa basura» (p.109) como lo califica Robards.

Ricardo, el amor de Muriel en Madrid, es el personaje dinámico por excelencia. Al principio se presentaba como un ser inoperante, con tendencia a la normalización, al espejismo occidental, en una especie de Limbo lúdico posible gracias a la ausencia de compromiso con la realidad 42, pero cuando su amor advierte la injusticia se cambia totalmente y es capaz de...
romper con todo y, emprendiendo la investigación de la desaparición de Muriel, renueva el ciclo elaborado por Galíndez y Muriel, llegando a ser el siguiente eslabón de la cadena Galíndez.

En lo que concierne al desarrollo del tiempo, diremos que es una narrativa descentrada. La fragmentación espacio-temporal adopta una estructura quebrada que ordena la acción al revés de su cronología histórica, así que se inicia la acción en 1986, con el trabajo de Muriel, se vuelve treinta años atrás, hacia 1956 la última vez que se vio Galíndez en Nueva York, y se retrocede una vez más hasta 1946 cuando estuvo éste en Santo Domingo. Debido a esto, abundan los saltos retrospectivos que frustran la linealidad temporal, predominia, asimismo, el flash-back. Los monólogos interiores, el estilo indirecto libre abundan en el contrapunto entre el agente del CIA, Muriel y Galíndez.

En el mismo plano, los paisajes no son un mero telón de fondo, sino juegan un papel importante intercambiando con los personajes y participando en su construcción cumpliendo lo que se ha dicho, que la persona es producto de su relación con el mundo, a condición de que tal persona sea responsable de sus propios actos.

Llama la atención los lugares y paisajes detenidamente detallados y que son producto del recorrido del propio autor por todos los lugares recorridos por el propio Galíndez: “Me he detenido ante la casa en que vivía en la calle Lovatón [...] También he paseado por el parque donde se reunía con su contacto de la embajada americana”.

En cuanto al lenguaje es adecuado, ceñido, que oscila entre lo culto y lo popular.

Se nota en la novela el uso de las palabras extranjeras, los dialectos latinoamericanos, los versos vascos que están al servicio de la trama. Hay en la obra una mezcla de tonos: desde el más duro, manifestado durante las torturas, al más tierno, representado en la conversación de don Angelito con sus gatos y en las escenas familiares del País Vasco. Montalbán utiliza los procedimientos del periodismo de investigación para construir su ficción.

Es imprescindible prestar atención al paratexto.

El título juega un papel muy importante en la definición del tipo de la obra, y, por consiguiente, en la creación del lector implícito. Así, lo ve Charles Grivel: “El título manifiesta la naturaleza del texto y por consiguiente el género de lectura que le conviene”.

Ahora bien, como estamos ante una nueva tipología de novela histórica, los prólogos y epílogos, cuya función era informar al lector de las fuentes historiográficas utilizadas para la elaboración de la obra y que aparecían en ella, ya su función metanarrativa se desplaza al interior de la trama, asumida por el narrador o los personajes. Pensamos, por ejemplo, en las cartas, informes, extractos de libros, etc.

En cuanto el epígrafe, la novela empieza con una dedicatoria a la señora Rosa, la madre del escritor, que falleció unos meses antes de la publicación de la novela.

En seguida, encontramos una cita interpolada: La palabra encadenada de Joaquín Balaguer, secretario de Trujillo y posteriormente presidente de la república, “esquizofrénico ejercicio de reescritura de su propio pasado, en forma de auto-confesión y descargo de conciencia”. Es como una especie de resumen de la obra.

Por debajo de la primera cita, Montalbán eligió unos versos muy representativos de Charles Baudelaire que describen un estado de desesperación.

Al final del libro el autor hace referencia geográfica “Villa Analisa”, a la casa de quien él considera uno de sus mejores amigos, el cantante Raimon.

Antes de terminar hay que aclarar que el trabajo no tiende a decantarse a la visión pesimista de Pittarello acerca del “amargo final de la obra que no deja lugar a la esperanza”, porque se plantea cierta esperanza encarnada en el personaje de Ricardo, exponiendo la repetida lucha contra el silencio que envuelve a los crímenes políticos y que, tarde o temprano, tendrá resultados menos tristes.
Concluyo aclarando que Galíndez pertenece a la nueva tipología de la novela histórica postmoderna, lo prueba la fragmentación de lo histórico, como la de la narrativa que es característica de la condición posmoderna.

Galíndez atrae la atención de los tranquilos lectores para que tomen postura hacia los mecanismos sociales. Y ahí reside el papel del lector, su tarea, para codificar el doble relato de la historia a la manera de la parábola cinematográfica de Rashomon:

«En la película se cuenta un mismo hecho mediante distintas apreciaciones de diferentes testigos y el espectador ha de hacer el esfuerzo de elegir una de las versiones o ir reuniendo elementos de una y de otra» (p.89).

Por lo cual, se puede decir que la palabra la tiene el lector, el lector cómplice, investigador e intérprete característico de la novela histórica posmoderna.

3. El camino del águila (Ṭarīq al-nisr):

Introducción:

Si en Galíndez, intenta Vázquez Montalbán conciliar el nivel de su narración con el de la novela negra, en El camino del águila, Eduar El-Jarrat compagina su trama con la novela autobiográfica, pues la obra reivindica personajes y lugares reales, amén de inspirar acontecimientos vividos por el propio autor, algo que aclara El-Jarrat diciendo: “Desde los albores de mi juventud participé activamente en los actos políticos, en la política revolucionaria antimonárquica, a la que me entregué completamente y, al final, fui detenido por dos años o un poquito menos durante el reinado del rey Farouk en los campos de concentración de Abu-Kir en Alejandría, El Huckstep en el desierto cairota y en El-Toor en el desierto del Sinaí” 47.

Pero, con una lectura atenta, nos enteraremos de que el relato está fuera del ámbito autobiográfico, ya que el autor no se limita a retratar minuciosamente a sus compañeros o a reivindicar lo ocurrido, sino que abre un gran espacio al sueño y a las meditaciones, por lo cual, la trama narrativa se interrumpe constantemente con reflexiones y comentarios del autor sobre la mayor o menor fiabilidad de los testimonios que recoge, y sobre la inevitable ficcionalidad que implican la escritura y la narración. En lo que concierne a este punto dice El-Jarrat: “No es una autobiografía, porque a pesar de que conlleva hechos reales, tiene, al mismo tiempo, acontecimientos completamente imaginarios. En ella, además, se ha alternado los papeles de algunos personajes, o se ha reivindicado la memoria de otros. Lo mismo ocurre en cuanto a los acontecimientos: se trata de jugar con la realidad y no obedecerse a ella” 48.

El camino del águila es una novela crónica, de pocos acontecimientos, cuyo soporte temático es el pensamiento, planteamientos y aplicaciones del socialismo en Egipto. Es una especie de registro y documentación de los debates y discusiones ideológicos y el estilo de trabajo de cada círculo. Pero el autor da importancia, sobre todo, a las razones por las cuales los personajes eligen la revolución como camino a seguir en la vida.

La obra, en el hilo de su trama artística y narrativa, lanza una serie de preguntas - acerca del destino de la patria, del valor de los actos revolucionarios y del martirio; así como bucea en la infraestructura del movimiento revolucionario en Alejandría, representando el estallido de las manifestaciones, la formación de las organizaciones y los círculos revolucionarios clandestinos y oficiales. Asimismo, presenta las luchas de las ideologías en Egipto a finales de los años cuarenta, amén de analizar las contradicciones de las corrientes políticas de aquellos años:

«Sabía que iban a llegar. Llegarán esta noche sin lugar a duda. Pero, ¿qué puedo hacer?» (p.7) 49.

Así empieza la novela con la espera del protagonista de la llegada de los agentes de la policía secreta para llevarlo a un destino desconocido, es decir, se inicia con el acontecimiento primordial en el pensamiento del narrador: su detención. La detención que duró veinte meses, la noche del 15 de mayo de 1948 -fecha crucial pues coincide con la primera Guerra de Palestina- hasta febrero de 1950, es la experiencia que representa el eje en el cual El-Jarrat teje la trama de su obra:
«En esta noche, el 15 de mayo 1948 me arrestó el gobierno de El Noukrashi, la noche de la primera Guerra de Palestina, con cientos de personas de toda clase: “peligrosos” o “sospechosos” políticos, de los más derechistas a los más izquierdistas ...» (p.238).

Luego empieza Youssef, narrador-protagonista, a revelar la sucesión de acontecimientos y en un salto retrospectivo -técnica muy frecuente que trataremos más adelante- cuenta la formación de su célula revolucionaria, y cómo se formó en su inicio con unos cuatro o cinco amigos, pero poco a poco se le iba juntando otra gente de diversas clases y cargos hasta que se formó una Célula muy bien organizada y que gozaba de buena reputación y posición en los ambientes universitarios y colegiales.

En este círculo revolucionario, se distribuía el trabajo por grupos entre los miembros, pero, al final, todos obedecían al mismo plan. Nos explica el narrador, también, que se adoptaron dos corrientes entre los miembros: una hacia el anarquismo y, otra, la del compromiso con el texto marxista trotskista. Pero, pese a estas contrariedades, fue una Célula muy bien organizada y que gozaba de buena reputación y posición en los ambientes universitarios y colegiales.

Asimismo, nos informa de las huelgas de los estudiantes universitarios, de las manifestaciones contra el rey y los ingleses, de las conversaciones y charlas que circulaban entre los miembros de la Célula, sobre La Primera Internacional y sobre la dogma de Marx y la anarquía de Bakunin.

Charlas acerca de Trotsky y su rival Gorki, sobre la intención de una adaptación entre el socialismo y la psicología de Freud. Discusiones entre quienes piden quemar etapas y quienes piden el compromiso de la graduación en cuanto a la vocación de la República Comunista:

«Me distraía recordando mi discusión candente de ayer con “Fatouh El Khafas” acerca de la lucha en La Primera Internacional entre Marx, con su autoridad, aplicación y su fe en la prioridad de sus sugerencias, y Bakunin, el liberal de mente abierta hacia las posibilidades y su inocente fe acerca de la eliminación del Estado, pues es un mal cualquier que sea este Estado, su constitución o su punto de partida... » (p.37).

También presenta continuos debates sobre cuestiones políticas, sociales y psicológicas.

En este mar de debates, el narrador menciona a diversos líderes, filósofos y profesores: Trotsky, Bakunin, Freud, Hegel, Kropotkin, Ramsis Younan, Salama Mussa, entre otros. Hace referencia, además, a una copiosa lista de libros: El anarquismo, La guía de la mujer inteligente hacia el socialismo de George B. Shaw, La Cuarta Internacional, entre otros.

El 15 de mayo detienen a Youssef y lo llevan a la prisión de “Karmouz” donde lee El dragón dorado, antología de la poesía inglesa. Al llegar al campo de concentración de “Abu Kir”, continúa, sigilosamente y con mucho cuidado, su actividad política con sus compañeros. Ahí, juntos, publican un periódico mural, traducen la obra teatral Los bajos fondos de Gorki que se estrenó por los prisioneros; también aprende el francés y trata de aprender el alemán y el ruso. En las cartas a sus familiares pide libros, como las traducciones inglesas de Apuntes del subsuelo y Recuerdos de la casa de los muertos de Dostoevsky, La tierra virgen de Turgenev, La evolución creadora de Bergson y otros.

Al trasladarse al campo de concentración de “Al Toor”, se encuentra con un conjunto variado de hombres –de los más derechistas a los más izquierdistas y los del medio-. Personas que representan la noblez, el coraje y la paciencia, otras la deslealtad, la hipocresía y la cobardía.

En medio de todo esto y en el transcurso de la novela, el protagonista no deja de hacer todo tipo de preguntas, hasta poder decir que la novela es un conjunto de interrogaciones. Éstas no están a un solo nivel, sino que están, como lo denomina Maher Shafik, a nivel del microcosmos y del macrocosmos.

Al nivel del microcosmos de la novela, o sea su pequeño mundo, nos preguntamos: ¿llegarían o no los agentes de la policía secreta en esta noche para llevar al narrador?, ¿Acaso hay un sentido metafísico en este acto revolucionario en el cual se incorpora?, ¿Sería “Helmy El Raiss”, su amigo, quien denunció a sus compañeros al Servicio de Inteligencia?,

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siendo el único que estaba enterado del lugar y de la hora de la cita. Además se preguntaba si acaso había desaparecido el anhelo de justicia y se la liberta, la música juvenil llena de esperanza y fuerza?, y muchas otras.

En cuanto al macrocosmos, su mundo más grande, tenemos preguntas como: ¿desde cuándo era la lógica el criterio en la revolución o en el arte? ¿cuál es la relación entre lo relativo y lo absoluto, y entre sueño y realidad?, ¿acaso los fines justifican los medios?.

Suscita la novela, también, preguntas acerca de la lealtad y la tradición y responde el protagonista: “No encontré ninguna respuesta: ¿acaso nunca he encontrado respuesta a ninguna pregunta?” (p.334)54.

Todo eso nos hace saber de que estamos ante un narrador intelectual, izquierdista y revolucionario, afiliado al “pequeño y pobre círculo revolucionario, tan pobre hasta la nada” (p.7)55.

Estamos ante un joven al que le interesa tanto la literatura como la filosofía, que ha participado en los actos revolucionarios “no solamente bajo el emblema del socialismo o el anticolonialismo y la explotación, sino que insiste en que la libertad sea la del individuo y de la sociedad, y que éstas van intimamente emparejadas con la justicia” (p.13)56. Es, además, un crítico, funcionario, escritor, traductor, hombre de debate, comprometido con las doctrinas socialista y marxista, pero al mismo tiempo las crítica. Es un egipcio, copto y ortodoxo, en quien arde la llama de la revolución como las del cuerpo. Todo esto se nos revela, como hemos dicho, a la manera de la autobiografía, pero una biografía de la sociedad y de la masa al mismo tiempo.

3.1. La identidad del texto:

Como ya hemos dicho, a pesar de que en los pliegues de El camino del águila hay muchos rasgos que muestran que esta obra se inspira en acontecimientos vividos por el autor, sin embargo la obra se aleja de la autobiografía, puesto que el texto se apoya en la ficción y la imaginación. Dar a la imaginación un lugar primordial, es una de las estrategias de Eduar El-Jarrat.

En esta novela, lo que mueve al autor es tratar a la par el componente histórico y ficcional, fundir el uno en el otro por medio de vestir lo histórico con ropaje ficticio, y viceversa.

Convien aquí hacer hincapié en el tratamiento del componente histórico/ficcional, pues el tratamiento del autor está al compás de las tendencias de la nueva novela histórica, o sea, con la metaficción historiográfica 51, donde se borra la frontera entre lo real y lo ficticio, lo certero y lo novelesco.

El narrador-autor, por su parte, afirma que muchas veces recurre a la imaginación, a la invención o a la ficción:

«Claro que puedo inventar las razones y falsificar las circunstancias –todas y de una manera muy convincente- como hago a veces dentro de este texto cambiante lleno de los sucesos a medias y los semi recuerdos, amontonado con hechos reales y vuelos de la imaginación. Sin embargo no lo haré, por lo menos ahora…” (p.195) 58.

Estamos ante un relato que trata de captar un yo metamórfico, variante. El escritor, después de más de cincuenta años, intenta reivindicar sucesos que formaron un punto crucial en su vida, sin embargo, no los relata ordenadamente en una linealidad ascendente, sino que abre el camino a la imaginación, tomándose a sí mismo como el foco para reivindicar estas relaciones y moldearlas en palabras y diálogos que puedan llegar a ser muy parecidos a lo que realmente sucedió, mas es a través de su memoria que disponemos de las voces de los demás personajes.

Así pues, esta escritura no se ocupa de coincidir con un suceso histórico o con una referencia exterior, sino que pretende iluminar aspectos del yo múltiple con sus incesantes e inestables preguntas acerca del destino y de la existencia, de su relación con el otro, con la sociedad y con la Historia; la búsqueda de respuestas a tales preguntas pasa a través de la
autocicación que entremezcla las cartas y los espacios, como, también, elimina el abismo que separa la conciencia intelectual, lógica y la absorción de la intuición y el desvelamiento poético.

En consecuencia, decimos que estamos ante una novela autoreflexiva y autoficcional donde la diégesis está ligada al yo y a su laberinto.

3.2. La estructura del texto:

En lo que atañe a la estructura de El camino del águila hay que aludir a que esta novela dista del modelo de la novela clásica que asciende gradualmente de un ayer, a un hoy y a un mañana, de un suceso a otro que le sigue o de una novela con principio, medio y fin.

En la novela, los sucesos, las fechas, los tiempos y los espacios se funden con la fantasía y la imaginación. No obstante, esta mezcla no altera la estructura narrativa, al contrario la libera y la refuerza. La obra, además, no la envuelve un sólo género expresivo, sino que lo que dice este texto nos llega a través de múltiples vías con elementos formales comunicados. Esto lo afirma El-Jarrat diciendo: “Era un aventurero y sigo siendo uno. Un aventurero que sobrepasa las técnicas, los límites y los géneros literarios hasta llegar a la amplitud del texto con su estética ilimitada, alejándome de los moldes acuñados”59.

En consecuencia, decimos que El-Jarrat, en su constante esfuerzo para alejarse de las técnicas de la narración tradicional, recurre a la transgresión literaria por medio de artículos, entrevistas, resúmenes de libros, etc., con los que se amontona la novela.

3.3. Las técnicas narrativas:

3.3.1. El punto de vista:

La novela es una sucesión de imágenes narradas desde la conciencia del narrador. Está narrada en primera persona, el protagonista es un Yo testigo. Este protagonista está lejos del estereotipo, como lo explica Abdel Fatah Rizk 60: “la maestría del autor radica en el juego con las reacciones, hasta formar una visión íntegra del tratamiento con los personajes, suceso tras otro”.

Es, además, selectiva y omnisciente. Selectiva porque el autor selecciona a determinadas personas para informarnos de los hechos; y omnisciente porque nos encontramos con más de un punto de vista.

La primera voz que hayamos es la del narrador. Ésta está envuelta con la imaginación, la fantasía y la autoficción, mientras que la otra, la del autor, asegura una vivencia, una realidad sin considerar lo que dice como una violación a las normas de la novela:

«Vuelvo pronto al hilo de la narración que parece ser natural y habitual – a pesar de que no me gusta y seguiré violando siempre su supuesto territorio sagrado-. Sí, es mi pura y propia voz, que no está confundida con la del narrador que combina su imaginación, su realidad y sus fantasías con la dureza de los recuerdos: Él tiene todo el derecho a ello, como imagino que yo también tengo todo el derecho de hablar con mi propia e inconfundida voz» (p.84)61.

Hay que señalar la afinidad entre Galíndez y esta obra en cuanto a la intervención del autor en el texto.

En ésta, este fenómeno ocurre cuando se hace referencia a los verdaderos luchadores, intelectuales o compañeros, también cuando hay documentación o registro histórico o historiográfico.

En Galíndez sucede lo mismo, el autor se introduce en el relato cuando quiere opinar acerca de algo, salvo una sola diferencia, que en esta obra se introduce el escritor por medio de la voz de Muriel como disfraces del propio Montalbán.

3.3.2. Tiempo:

Abordando la técnica del tiempo en esta obra, notamos que está elaborado no de un modo somero, sino con maestría y dominio.
El camino del águila, al igual que Galíndez, lejos de ser una narrativa ordenada, es una narrativa con grandes saltos de tiempo y lagunas que frustran su linealidad; así como, la fragmentación espacio-tiempo que adopta una estructura quebrada ordenando la acción al revés de su cronología histórica.

El tiempo exterior o del relato, está limitado a poco menos de dos años, sin embargo, la obra en su totalidad es un cuadro panorámico político, psicológico y social que abarca decenas de años de la vida del protagonista y de los demás personajes.

La novela, asimismo, bucea en épocas más remotas de la historia de la patria, en los tiempos de glorias y derrotas.

Y como hemos dicho que la novela se apoya en la ficción e imaginación, entonces estamos en el tiempo de Youssef, el narrador, que considera que la «revolución – sea en política o en el arte- es irrupción y violación y no adaptación a las circunstancias» (p.101)62.

Es el tiempo del narrador que lee libros en todas partes, libros sobre los revolucionarios y los anarquistas: Libros de Maximov, de Freud, de Tolstoi, Marx, Hugo, Baudelaire o de T.S. Eliot.

Del hombre que trata de buscar un equilibrio entre el yo, el otro y el yo supremo. Del narrador que según dice “entiendo concientemente que mi odio a la violación individual –con lo que lleva de brutalidad- se debe a mi herencia copta, lo escondo detrás de una nueva fe en la violencia popular colectiva que es la única justificada, inocente y determinante para enfrentarse a la violencia del Estado Capitalista y a la ocupación “ (p.33)63.

Y por ser, también, la novela de las verdades, la historia y la historiografía, estamos, pues, ante el tiempo del autor, de Eduar El-Jarrat. El autor intelectual, el líder, el fiel a la doctrina marxista y al materialismo dialéctico. El adorador de las ideas y, al mismo tiempo, quien las critica, el hombre recto, varonil y sincero.

Es el tiempo del autor de los años cuarenta con su grupo de amigos: Antoine Jairalah, Kassem Ishak, Kamel El Sawi, Zeinab y Gamalat. Estamos en la Alejandría de los revolucionarios, con sus cafés escondidos de los agentes de la policía secreta, con sus trenes y metros. Tiempo de las cárceles y los campos de concentración.

Pero, estamos en el tiempo de la redacción de la obra, o sea, con El-Jarrat después de más de cincuenta años, hacia el 2000, en los años en que «el país está sometido al poder de los intermediarios, los estafadores de bancos, los contrabandistas de divisas, el extranjero bajo el pretexto de la privatización y globalización, los sobornados, los traficantes de armas, los falsificadores y los emperadores de la droga […]

La distancia entre las clases sociales llega al punto de que en una noche uno gasta siete millones y medio de dólares para celebrar una boda, mientras que la renta per cápita del 80% de los egipcios no sobrepasa a un dólar diario, uno solo» (p.74)64.

A la luz de lo dicho, vemos que El-Jarrat yuxtapone el presente con el pasado. Su contraposición de tiempos heroicos del pasado y tiempos pragmáticos del presente trae al primer plano de la narrativa la transformación y el cambio, la adaptación posibilista y la pérdida de los ideales.

Destaca esta obra por el uso de la técnica posmoderna, donde se funde el tiempo de la escritura de la novela con el tiempo inventado y desaparece el abismo que separa una fecha de otra y un protagonista con su pasado.

El ritmo narrativo de la novela es lento. El autor lo consigue mediante los diálogos, las descripciones, los monólogos interiores, los recuerdos y los sueños. Hay que afirmar que la presencia de los monólogos interiores aquí, reflejan el sentimiento de confusión y ambigüedad.

El autor presta gran interés a las descripciones. La obra bucea en un relato descriptivo, que se muestra con gran naturalidad y viveza. El narrador repite y vuelve a repetir los sucesos, los debates, los diálogos en diversas formas y con múltiples detalles. Nos describe minuciosamente todo: las calles, los callejones, los metros, los trenes, los muebles, los vestidos, los muros, las escaleras. Nos retrata los personajes, sus facciones, su forma física, color de la piel, o sea, los pormenores. Hasta nos describe las voces y los olores. El- Jarrat nos hace ver, no leer.

En cuanto al espacio, la novela no deja lugar alguno de la Alejandría de los años cuarenta sin describirlo detalladamente. Además de El Cairo, las cárceles, los campos de concentración.
Todos estos cuadros van pintados por el autor con pinceladas de un lenguaje ceñido y adecuado al servicio de la trama. Es obvio el interés del autor por un lenguaje caracterizado por el estilo impresionista y las expresiones poéticas filtradas. Es un lenguaje realista dominado por la naturalidad, algo que notamos, por ejemplo, cuando se describa los detenidos haciendo sus necesidades al aire libre.

El lenguaje oscila entre lo vulgar, cuando nos transmite conversaciones callejeras, entre los obreros en las fábricas o en las casas entre las mujeres; y lo culto, cuando el protagonista discute con los responsables o con los encargados de la seguridad.

De lo anteriormente mencionado, podemos destacar técnicas posmodernas tales como:

3.3.3. La intertextualidad:

- La primera, que nos presenta está al comienzo de la obra. Es una cita del Antiguo Testamento, Libro de Proverbios 30 (18-20):

  “Hay cuatro cosas que ignoro:
  La senda del águila en los cielos,
  La senda de la serpiente en la roca,
  La senda de la nave en los mares,
  La senda del hombre en el seno materno,

tal es también el camino de la mujer adultera, la cual después de haber comido limpiándose la boca dice: yo no he cometido mal alguno”.

Esta cita puede ser la clave para el entendimiento de la obra y la senda que ha elegido el autor para colocar su obra.

- Como en su novela anterior Las rocas del cielo (Sojur al samaa), se empeña Eduar en escribir las cartas enteras que mandó o que le han mandado sus familiares.

- También, es costumbre suya, recurrir a referencias de otros textos suyos, por lo que nos encontramos con muchas de estas alusiones, cuando habla, por ejemplo, de la inalcanzable, lejana y magnífica fortaleza de “Kaitbay” nos remite a su cuento “Frente al mar” (p.122) de su colección Altas paredes. De la misma colección hace, el autor, referencia a doña “Dawlat”, protagonista de su cuento “Una aventura amorosa”.

- El Jarrat que es un intelectual que ha leído obras literarias universales, de Oriente y de Occidente, recurre, por ello, a la intertextualidad de textos ajenos, por ejemplo, cuando menciona la librería Schwartz en la calle de Safía Zaglul en Alejandría: “Esta librería era un lugar limpio, selecto y bien alumbrado” se recuerda el cuento de Hemingway “Un lugar bien alumbrado”.

3.3.4. La digresión:

El autor recurre a la digresión para volver a formar momentos de la subconciencia, que aparecen de repente, para construir el espacio memorativo. Estas digresiones tienen como fin relacionar los espacios y los sucesos lejanos, igual a como sucede en las pinturas. Un ejemplo muy claro, es cuando habla el narrador de su sueño revolucionario, entonces recurre a espacios divergentes:

«…he visto la muchedumbre rodeando el Palacio del Sultan Fouad en la plaza de Al-Azhar, gritando por la caída de la tiranía y he oído ecos reclamando la República en todo Egipto” (p.43).

3.3.5 El collage:

El collage, abunda en la obra. Y al igual que Montalbán, El- Jarrat extrae recortes de periódicos y de revistas de la época, artículos y ensayos de escritores famosos, canciones, cartas, versos de poetas nacionales e internacionales, etc.
«He leído en Al Ahram de ayer, antes de dirigirme a la Facultad, “La catástrofe del valle” estrenado por Garir Garison y Gregori Beck, una película en el cine Metro en El Cairo, el primer cine con aire acondicionado…» (p.98).

“Hemos leído en “Al Ahram” el día siguiente que se ha detenido a un marinero francés en un café de los «Bárbaros»” (p.89).

“En la calle he oído tocar la última canción de Om-Kolzum […]:

¿Por qué me languideces y eres toda mi vida?
¿Qué ha pasado en el amor entre tú y yo?
Y la posibilidad de tu ausencia es lo imposible” (p.212).

3.3.6. El epitexto:

En el epitexto se encuentra el título de la obra. Este título está inspirado en la cita, anteriormente mencionada, del Antiguo Testamento.

Esta cita refleja, según Fathy Abu Rafiaa, cómo ha terminado la experiencia de El-Jarrat:

“Una experiencia confusa, donde es imposible conocer su límite. Una experiencia que pone al narrador, y sus interminables preguntas, en busca continua del significado de las cosas”.

Y si la novela empezó con la falta de fe, pues termina con cierta fe, cuando el protagonista está convencido de que el trabajo y la rebelión hacia el cambio son el camino de la liberación del ser humano, y es al mismo tiempo, el camino del águila que no acaba nunca por mucho que nos penetremos en los cielos del conocimiento:

« ¿Acaso ha terminado aquí el camino del águila, o a lo mejor se prolonga sin fin? […] Pero por muy lejos que se aleje el horizonte, le tiendo la mano, cojo su borde hiriente» (p.430).

Concluyendo, El camino del águila es una novela de los actos políticos, de los conflictos ideológicos en Egipto a finales de los años cuarenta, pero es, al mismo tiempo, una novela filosófica sobre la relación del yo con los otros y con el mundo que le rodea y sobre los sueños de la utopía. La obra abarca este período con pinceladas de un artista y no con las herramientas de un historiador.

De lo que no cabe duda, es que el mayor logro de Eduar El-Jarrat en esta novela es haber aplicado y compaginado, con este tema tan egipcio e histórico, el cultivo de las técnicas narrativas posmodernas.

Conclusión:

A la luz de este trabajo y a pesar de las divergencias (diversidades) intelectuales, lingüísticas y de espacio entre Manuel Vázquez Montalbán y Eduar El-Jarrat, hemos encontrado puntos de encuentro en las obras de ambos escritores en cuanto al tema, su forma de abordarlo y el uso de técnicas posmodernas:

1.- Las dos novelas son históricas, pues articulan elementos históricos dentro de una trama estructurada como es una investigación realizada por un personaje-narrador. Se basan, además y en primer plano, en pintar el carácter de un activista en una situación política crucial de la historia de cada país. Amén de llevar cada obra un profundo análisis político así como de los personajes y situaciones.

2.- Las dos presentan el característico proceso de construcción de la historia –novelas metafictionales- y alteran diversas perspectivas y voces en la trama, abriendo un haz de referencias sobre el personaje y los acontecimientos históricos que constituyen el eje del relato.

3.- Las dos están dotadas de una gran carga autoreferencial y a la vez se mueven entre la crónica y la memoria.

4.- Tanto Galíndez como El camino del águila, utilizan una forma característica posmoderna de pensar y narrar el pasado, no nostálgicamente sino confrontando críticamente pasado y presente.
5.- Tanto Montalbán como El-Jarrat por medio de la metaficción historiográfica, ahondan en la relación entre ficción e historia. Puesto que la metaficción historiográfica hace especial hincapié en la historificación de la narrativa y la narrativación de la historia 72.

Este proceso se traduce en ambos escritores en la inserción de la memoria individual en la historia y la inserción de la memoria histórica en la narrativa.

6.- En las dos obras se entrelazan dos vidas, una verdadera y otra ficticia, la del narrador y la del propio autor. Así como conviven en ellas personajes reales.

7.- Tanto Montalbán como El-Jarrat escrutan la historia pasada y la vida presente.

8.- Las dos novelas pueden leerse como “reescritura de la historia”, pues las dos son novelas crónicas.

9.- Tanto Galíndez como El camino del águila atraen la atención de los tranquilos lectores para que tomen postura hacia los mecanismos sociales.

10.- Los dos autores evocan personajes y sucesos de otras obras suyas dejando al lector preguntándose dónde ha leído este párrafo o este nombre. Además, ambos escritores están habitados por sus personajes.

11.- Los acontecimientos, la cronología y la temporalidad referencial de la historia entran en las novelas a través de la memoria y la meditación emocionada del narrador, de modo que lo histórico/narrativo se disminuye a favor de lo lirico o lo filosófico.

12.- Sus usos de técnicas posmodernas como el collage, la intertextualidad, la digresión, etc.

Notas:

[15] Parte central de este ciclo es la utilización de la memoria como material y estrategia narrativa de resistencia frente a la historiografía oficial.
[16] Esta trilogía empieza con El pianista, Barcelona, Seix Barral, 1985, y termina con Autobiografía del General Franco, Barcelona, Planeta, 1992. En esta trilogía, además, se lleva a cabo una reflexión acerca del papel del intelectual en la sociedad y la postura del escritor frente a la sociedad, materia que preocupa mucho a Montalbán.
[17] La ética de la resistencia es el nombre que eligió Muriel, la protagonista, para su tesis doctoral.
[20] Montalbán a sus 17 años, en la Universidad de Barcelona, se enteró por la prensa de EE.UU de la desaparición del Profesor Jesús de Galíndez en Nueva York. Entonces comenzó acumulando textos, fotos, cartas y documentos dice: “Han pasado 30 años y he convivido con Galíndez en la recámara de mi imaginación hasta que, reunidos materiales y seguridades en mi propia escritura, me he decidido a dedicarle una novela en la que


[25] Ibid., p.102


[27] Ibidem.

[28] Ibid. p.462.


[31] A partir de aquí lo que va entre paréntesis corresponde al número de página de la novela: Galíndez.


[36] Colmeira, José, op. cit.

[37] Colmeira, op. cit., p.244.


[40] Ibidem.

[41] Ibid. p. 75.

[42] Ibid. p. 76.


Bibliografía:
Using Movies in EFL Classrooms

Ramazan Goctu

Abstract

This research examines the attitudes and awareness of foreign language (EFL) learners to the integration of English movies in their classes in terms of improving their foreign language skills. 25 intermediate level students studying English in Faculty of Education and Humanities in Philology Department at International Black Sea University, Tbilisi, Georgia, participated in this study. Students watched the movies at home and films were analyzed at the lectures. After analyzing the films, 7 various questions were asked to students in order to obtain their awareness towards the use of films in ELT classrooms. The findings of the study indicated that students have positive attitudes towards the use of movies in their classes in terms of improving their language skills. Until quite recently, it was difficult to find pedagogically sound film material to help students improve their language through watching film, and teachers had to spend many hours creating their own materials. However, with the advent of the internet there is now a wealth of online resources for both language teachers and their students. This study is remarkable for teachers who are willing to use movies in their classes as a tool to improve their learners’ foreign language level.

Keywords: Movies, EFL, awareness, implication, motivation.

Introduction

Movies are an invaluable way for students to practice and listen to authentic conversations and be exposed to different accents. EFL teachers can use countless movies to introduce discussions about a certain topic, a historical event, a time period or the culture of a foreign country. Bringing popular movies into EFL lessons, shows students how they can learn and practice English when watching movies in their own time. Films in video format should not be regarded as only a secondary in a listening class; on the contrary, they can function as the main content and become an integral part of the curriculum (Sommer, 2001). In listening classes, having traditional listening excerpts is not as effective and beneficial as authentic materials like movies, TV serials, short film trailers and some other authentic videos. Course books and CDs offered in English classes turn out to be artificial and not very pleasing for students. One way of bringing variety into the classroom is the use of movies in EFL teaching. This paper analyzes the effects of using movies in the EFL classroom. It reveals its effects on developing students listening and communication skill.

Literature Review

Movies attract students’ attention, present language in a more natural way that found in course-books. Movies also offer a visual context aid which helps students understanding and in order to improve their learning skills. Nowadays teaching English has become more challenging than ever. In order to help the learners’ mastery (enhance the proficiency) of language skills, language teachers have to provide quality teaching materials that will be engaging, interesting, up-to-date while simultaneously being a tool that will ensure that the students learn. There are numerous studies on the use of videos in developing particular language skills, especially listening comprehension (Gruba, 2006; Suvorov, 2008).

According to (Ismaili, 2013) movies are an enjoyable source of entertainment and language acquisition. For this reason, many researchers and EFL practitioners prefer to watch the movie adaptations of famous and current novels as a supplementary source to the reading. Practice has shown that reading an entire book can be tiresome and boring while an audio-visual experience can be more entertaining and engaging to students.

As King (2002) indicates in his work, movies are such invaluable and rich resources for teaching because they present colloquial English in real life contexts rather than artificial situations; a chance of being exposed to different native speaker voices, stress, accents, and dialects.
Listening is the predominant skill among other integrated skills in presenting movies in EFL classes whether the movies chosen are presented with subtitles or not. Hence movies can provide an opportunity for extensive listening, “listening for general pleasure or interest, usually to longer stretches of discourse” (Flowerdew, J. Miller, L., 2005). However, to make the practice of listening tasks more useful, the movies may be presented without subtitles depending on the learners’ language proficiency level.

Findings from previous studies provide support for students wanting to have more video materials (i.e., video clips) embedded in their classroom (B. Goldstein, P. Driver, 2014).

Different types of video material are easily accessible with mobile devices or smart phones via internet and teachers can pick up from a rather varied set of materials depending on the learner’s age and language proficiency.

Movies are being used for pedagogical purposes in order to motivate language learners and they are easily available and popular entertainment form of teaching tool in English teaching as a foreign language, for students particularly in recent years. Based on this idea, the present paper attempts to explore some learning activities designed to improve EFL learners’ active listening skill as well as other integrated skills. It is assumed that the language spoken in the movies, but also presented in the proper cultural context can be a valuable by means of increasing more appropriate use of language (Chapple, L. & Curtis, A., 2000).

**Methodology**

In this study, 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire was implemented in order to find out what extent the students believed watching movies could help them to improve their language skills and their awareness the integration of movies in their classrooms.

**Participants**

The participants in the study were 25 upper-intermediate level students studying English in International Black Sea University, Faculty of Educations and Humanities, Philology Department. The participants’ ages between 19 and 21 years old. Students were from different nationalities; Georgian, Turkish, Azerbaijani.

**Procedure**

Students in the present study sacrificed thirty minutes of their four-hour English class to do the movie activity over a period of six weeks. They watched four movies during that period. Movies were chosen by the researcher. Names of the films are: Cast Away (Zemeckis, 2000), The Pursuit of Happiness (Muccino, 2006) Akeelah and the Bee (Atchison, 2006), Paper Planes (Connolly, 2014). Students watched the films at home, however, the watched movies were analyzed at the classroom. In order to reach the optimum implications, films were analyzed in terms of three various aspects, literary aspects, cultural aspects and language aspects. Following steps were implemented during the course:

1. **Literary Aspects**
   - Who are the characters in the film?
   - What is the film’s setting?
   - What are the main plot elements?
   - What is the theme of the film?

2. **Cultural Aspects**
   - Cultural quotations and conversations
   - The socio-historical background of the film
   - The ideology, the trends and characteristics of the society at the time of the production

3. **Language Aspects**
   - Language of the film (how the forms of communication are used in the film)
   - Memorable quotes in the film; metaphors, symbols, ellipsis, contrast etc.
   - Use of the setting in communication
Questionnaire

After analyzing of 4 aforementioned films, 7 different questions were asked to students in order to obtain their awareness towards the using films in EFL classrooms.

Table 1. Survey Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do you think watching movies in the classroom makes it easier for you to learn English?</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Are you interested in learning English and participating in classroom discussions if the teacher uses movies as teaching materials?</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Do you think watching movies in English has a beneficial effect on improving your English language skills?</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you agree that watching movies motivates you to learn English?</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>%4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Do you agree that watching movies help you to comprehend listening activities better?</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The integration of movies in the EFL classroom decreases your anxiety in language learning?</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Do you agree that movies can help in improving your vocabulary acquisition?</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the Survey

The responses given by the students displayed on an overall level that; students considered the integration of movies in the classroom as effective and beneficial in terms of learning foreign language. Thirty-six percent of the students strongly agreed and more than half of the participants agreed that movies in English could facilitate the learning of English language. Seventy-six percent of the participants strongly agreed that they are more motivated and interested in learning English if their teachers use movies in the classrooms. The majority of the participants found movies to be useful in developing their language skills as well as keep them engaged. Approximately fifty percent of the students agreed to the statement that, the use of movies in their lessons reduce their anxiety in learning English. Eighty percent of them also agreed that movies can help improve their vocabulary acquisition. All participants either strongly agree or agree that, watching movies help them to comprehend listening activities better.

In general, students’ responses indicated that the advantages of using movies to teach productive and receptive skills, increased learning interests and motivation. From the students’ responses to the questions concerning the development of all skills in the questionnaires revealed that students have positive approach toward this method.

Conclusions

Using films in the classroom can provide opportunities for learners to evaluate the very medium that they use in their daily life. Films comprises authentic daily conversations also present parts of real life, and as such, they add fun and involvement to the language classroom. The results of the present study indicated that movies are important tools that can help in developing students’ language skills. The participants in the study have positive attitudes towards the integration of movies in their classrooms in order to improve their English. The study also showed that using movies in EFL classroom could enhance the students’ motivation to learn the language. They also considered that films are helpful for them to improve their vocabulary acquisition not only the words but also variety of vocabulary and colloquial expressions, phrasal verbs, verb phrases. It is worth to note that, selecting appropriate movies for learners is also one of the remarkable factors in
terms of reaching the expected objectives. The research confirmed that using movies in English teaching with appropriately designed activities and tasks were not only a valuable for the EFL learners, but also, they enhance students’ self-motivation, and provided an enjoyable, educational experience for students.

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Classifications of People Addicted to Work, Treatment and Measurement of Workaholism – A Case Study

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Abstract

The paper presents the typologies of persons addicted to work, with the description of three case studies. At the end, information has been provided concerning treatment and measurement of workaholism. The classifications described in the paper are presented after Szpitalak, (2012, pp. 61-67). In accordance with the definitions concerning the functioning of workaholics, provided in literature sources, it is worth pointing out that such a person experiences specific emotions, thoughts and behaviour, typical for addiction. A common feature of psychological pattern of workaholic functioning is the compulsion, experienced and expressed in actions, as well as the excessive, and not controlled by the person’s will, involvement of a person in work, beyond reasonable time limits, and the compulsion to subjugate and execute all actions in the person’s life to professional activity only. A workaholic may reveal various profiles of psychological traits that determine her/his actions in a work situation and continuous thinking about work. Work situation becomes paramount in determining and motivating the direction of all life’s actions. In literature, it is possible to delineate several typologies of psychological traits for people labelled as workaholics.

Keywords: workaholism, addiction to work, treatment, measurement, case study

Introduction

1. Typologies of persons addicted to work – theoretical background.

The first typology of workaholics was the typology developed by Oates (1968), who describes five types: the so-called dyed-in-the-wool or perfectionists, who treat work as the most serious thing in their lives; the second group being the “converted” one, that is those who dropped the addiction and adhere strictly to working hours, and are able to take advantage of their free time; “situational workaholics” constitute the third type, motivated by external factors, yet characterized by increased professional activity, typical for workaholics; “pseudo-workaholics” constitute the next type, and are motivated solely by the desire to hold a high professional position; the last type are “escapists” who escape to work from their unhappy family.

The second, historically speaking, typology was developed by Naughton (1987), who distinguished two dimensions: obsession-compulsion and commitment to work, thus he was the first to describe workaholics committed to work and involved in it who do not reveal features of obsession-compulsion, which results in high level of performance. The other
type he described, is the compulsive one, obsessively thinking about work and showing compulsive behavior, which results in reduced efficiency of the activity.

The typology developed by Robinson (1989) is another one which distinguishes five types of workaholics: relentless, bulimic, with attention deficit, savoring, and caring ones. The first of those is a stereotype of a workaholic, working incessantly, whose behavior is compulsive, who acts in a rush and takes no rest. The bulimic type, as in bulimia, undergoes alternate cycles of involvement in work and lack of interest in professional activities, that is delaying, related to fear of non performing the task or duty professionally enough, until the ultimate time pressure comes. The third type of workaholism is characterized by low tolerance to dullness and substantial need for external stimulation, experiences, and risky behaviors. Such workaholics are creative persons and add much innovation, not being afraid of new solutions.

The author of another typology is Fassel (1990). He distinguishes the group of compulsive workers, constituting of stereotype workaholics, periodic workaholics in cycles during which they are devoted to work, workaholics in disguise who hide their excessive activity from the community in which they function, and the fourth group of “anorectic” workaholics, who alternate the cycles of commitment and avoidance of work.

Another typology has been prepared by Spence and Robbins (1992) who distinguish six types of workers, of which two types refer to workaholics: non-enthusiastic workaholics and enthusiastic workaholics. The remaining categories are: work enthusiasts, relaxed workers, unengaged workers, and disenchanted workers. The workaholic types are related to compulsory work and much involvement in work; enthusiasts – as the name indicates – get satisfaction from work, whereas the persons from the other category are characterized by low level of satisfaction with life, experiencing high level of stress. Both those types of workaholics are more prone to perfectionism, unwilling to delegate responsibilities, and experiencing somatic disorders. What distinguishes enthusiastic workaholics from work enthusiasts is the compulsion to work, which the former experience.

Yet another typology has been developed by Scott, Moore, Miceli (1997). They stress, for diagnostic purposes, the unit of time spent on professional activities as the most important one, which disorganizes other spheres of life. An additional diagnostics criterion is the continuous focusing on thinking about work. The authors (ibid.) distinguished three behavior patterns for people addicted to work: compulsive-dependent, perfectionist-obsessive, and achievement-oriented. Persons belonging to the first of those types do not control the time they devote to work, thus they work a lot, have strong withdrawal symptoms, their social relations are disturbed, they experience strong somatic symptoms, have unrealistic standards concerning the execution of tasks, which reduces their efficiency at work, and experience strong anxiety. Type two, as the name indicates, focuses mainly on perfect execution and actions. Everybody is subject to control of execution standards: the workaholic herself, as well as persons from the work environment, regardless the relation – persons reporting to her, co-workers, etc. It is characterized by rigid thinking and focusing on unimportant details, such people are also permanently dissatisfied with the activities performed. The third category, the achievement-oriented, is about striving for power, leadership, high positions, high level of remuneration; such people have no problems with delayed gratification, they can stop working without withdrawal symptoms. The last type is characterized by the lowest level of negative consequences for the workaholic and her/his family.

The typology developed by Peiperl and Jones (2001) distinguishes four groups of workers. The first of them includes people who overstrain themselves with work, get involved in professional activities for a longer time, with tendencies to rationalize. The second group comprises collectors of benefits, focused on their own gains, with minimum involvement of own resources. The third group contains workers who avoid work, who are characterized by low engagement in work. Finally, the fourth group contains workaholics who engage a lot of effort and time in their work. As can be seen, there is a conviction related to the amount of effort and time the subject engages in work, which makes the person classified in a specific group of workers.
One of the most contemporary typologies, considering the presence of differentiated psychological traits in the description of workaholics, was developed by Killinger (2007). The author distinguishes three types of workaholics: controller, narcissistic controller, and pleaser. The first of them include independent and ambitious individuals, highly motivated, impulsive, impatient, with incessant energy, modest demand for sleep, high endurance, they often hold managerial positions or run their own business activities. The second group contains more abnormal persons, who attenuate negative emotions, are narcissistic, are unable to show sincere feelings, manipulate their social environment for their own gains. The last type (pleaser) contains individuals who are ambitious, sociable, depending on approval from other people, unwilling to take risks, over-sensitive to criticism, who can hardly control their emotions and incessantly experience the feeling of inferiority.

2. Case study description.

In order to illustrate the typology provided, it is worthwhile to make reference to an example, illustrating the short description of each workaholic type distinguished by Killinger, paying particular attention to the psychological profile that contains the traits of the controller, narcissistic controller and pleaser types of workaholics. The three short psychological characteristics, presented below, of persons who have been defined as addicted to work (workaholics) have been constructed on the basis of three randomly selected histories of individuals who came to treatment centres in order to get medical and psychological assistance because of various neurotic manifestations experienced, and lasting in time. The source data concerning the case descriptions provided are derived from clinical experiences of one of the authors of this paper, who performs the role of a clinical psychologist and psychotherapist. On the basis of medical documentation, information has been obtained which, first of all, confirms the medical diagnosis of the type of disorder for the person described, as well as indications concerning the need of applying pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy, due to the manifestations of disorders of neurotic type. Second of all, the analysis of medical documentation enabled to obtain data concerning the psychological diagnosis of emotional, cognitive, and behavioral functioning, in the context of pathological signs reported for each person presented. The clinical history presented in the medical documentation, as well as autobiographical data allowed also to distill the profile of dominating traits that confirm or reject the hypothesis about the existence, in the patient with a defined type of neurotic disorders, of indicators that confirm the presence of features of a specified type of workaholic. The data has been collected observing fully the principle of professional secrecy, and protection of the so-called sensitive personal data, in the process of writing the scientific paper. Each person gave consent for using data for research purposes. Due to reasons of data protection, only such personal information was used in the publication, which allowed to present the outline of psychological type of the person addicted to work, at the same time showing a neurotic disorder diagnosed in ICD10 as F.4.2 – obsessive-compulsive disorders, F.4.2. (controller type of workaholic) - other nonpsychotic mental disorders F48 (case of a workaholic narcissistic controller), and F45 – somatoform disorders (case of pleaser type of workaholic).

2.1. Workaholic of the controller type – psychological characteristics (description of a case)

Mrs. B., 37 years of age, university education, graduate of law, living in a city for many years, married for 10 years, with no children. Mrs. B has had her own business for 10 years, without interruptions, providing legal services to many firms. She has been – as she herself stated – a renown person, considered extremely perfectionist in her work. Mrs. B came for help to the medical centre because of obsessive-compulsive manifestations (with features of fear fuelled obsession, and increasing avoidance of social situations, also those related to professional activities). Mrs. B also reported depression symptoms accompanying those of fear-based obsession. Fear fuelled obsessions (fear of losing the job, of being unable to support the household and family, of maintaining her own health and the health of her close ones) had started 5 years earlier and – with time – caused substantial deterioration of the feeling of mental and physical well-being, the consequence of which were the difficulties in performing professional duties, and social alienation. Mrs. B, having increasing emotional and social problems in her family and social life, and – above all - in her professional life, came for medical and psychological assistance. At the moment of turning for help she was not aware of and did not connect the emotional problems experienced with the significant role of addiction to work. Mrs. B underwent pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy. As a result of treatment she was subject to (including long term psychotherapy), Mrs. B gained insight into the psychological
mechanisms of neurotic disorders and became aware of the role played by her workaholic attitude in the process of developing mental disorder and obsessive-compulsive manifestations. The description, obtained on the basis of documentation, of Mrs. B’s psychological functioning would confirm her being a controller workaholic type, as it indicated clearly that over the years the pattern she developed for personal, social, and professional activities, and which dominated, was based mainly on the need of perfect performance of all activities and actions. Explaining the workaholic pattern of approaching work situation, developed in Mrs. B since the beginning of her professional career, as well as the obsessive-compulsive manifestations, which aggravated over the last years, it is worth pointing also to the context of environment in which Mrs. B. had been brought up, and the present one, regarding the workaholic attitude in one of the parents.

Characterizing the pattern according to which Mrs. B. functioned in life (family situations, relations with co-workers, subordinates, or employers, attention should be paid to the pattern of behaviour and establishing relations, which is based on: excessive control of actions taken, behaviour, and social relations; rigid thinking and focusing on unimportant details, as well as dissatisfaction with activities performed, connected with permanently experienced frustration and criticism of one’s actions. The above reaction pattern employed by Mrs. B. in the social situations encountered was in relation to the features stressed in her self-portrait (inadequate in relation to the needs and possibilities of being gratified and satisfied with the actions): excessive independence and ambition, extremely high motivation, substantial impulsiveness and impatience (demonstration of boundless energy, despite co-occurring manifestations of disease), limited need for sleep (frequent sleeplessness), high endurance and execution of tasks without feeling the need to rest. Mrs. B., describing her professional activities and social relations from the beginning of her professional activities, herself indicated that she always followed the pattern of thinking and emotional experiencing which read “work is action, which fills the emptiness and kills time”. The lack of conscious need to have free time and “escape into work” became the regularly applied adaptation mechanism in the life of Mrs. B.

In the professional relations and in contacts with employers, Mrs. B. invariably assumed the managerial attitude and controlled the decisions taken in the firms she co-operated with. Because of the nature of her profession (a lawyer), in contacts with managerial staff of those firms she had decisive or crucial influence upon the decisions taken. Since the beginning of her professional career, and in particular after getting married, Mrs. B. regularly extended her working hours, and in a few years’ time she reached the regular working hours that started at 8 in the morning and ended at 20/21 hours, without taking breaks, and not claiming the need to rest and return home from work. When providing the motivation for that, Mrs. B. said: “I had a loan to pay, I was required to work a lot, I had to tidy the documentation, I had court cases, I kept doing things all the time as it was needed to work from morning to evening”. Mrs. B. was not aware of the destructive nature of her actions, and she often employed the psychological mechanism of rationalization and denial of the existing situation. As years went by, and emotional difficulties increased, along with the aggravation of neurotic symptoms (depression, fear driven obsessions), although she had already paid the loan and her living conditions improved, Mrs. B. continued to apply the workaholic attitude to work. Describing her experiences Mrs. B. indicated that her ambitions and the desire for continuous verification of her perfection in professional role, she indicated ever more often the aggravating impression of low self esteem. In the course of psychological therapy, Mrs. B. defined that condition as “killing the emotions of depression and emptiness with work”. Mrs. B. also pointed out that work became, for her, the only source of satisfaction, that is fulfilling ambitions, the need of being socially recognized (as the best), full control of emotions, which intensified the experienced compulsion of remaining constantly in work situation. It was work that, for Mrs. B., constituted the source of necessary control over the negative emotional conditions experienced: depression and anxiety. As a result of the psychotherapy, Mrs. B. obtained insight into the psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, also those related to her workaholic attitude to professional activities, which to a large extent demonstrated features of functioning labeled as “controller”.

2.2. The „pleaser” type of workaholic – psychological characteristics (case description)

Mrs. A., 34 years of age, secondary education, living for years in a city environment, married for 15 years, and bringing up a 10-year-old daughter with her husband. She has been working for 10 years as education administrator in an institution of education. Since the beginning of her professional career she has held positions connected with “being subordinated and
Mrs. A. was brought up in a generation family, where the dominance patterns and submission were in use for bringing up and parent behaviour. It results from the interview and autobiographic information that Mrs. A. had an internalized pattern of emotional reactions in social situations, on the basis of features of relations that are established between the victim and aggressor (domination-submission and total subordination). The above pattern developed as a result of emotional and social relations with parents and child minders in childhood and adolescence. Mrs. A. came to receive psychological assistance due to intensifying neurotic symptoms of depression, also in somatic form (weakness, apathy, sleep disorders, dysorexia). The onset of psychosomatic symptoms dated back 5 years earlier, and concerned dysorexia. Mrs. A. underwent pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy. In the past, Mrs. A. was also treated for anorexia. When the symptoms recurred in adult life, Mrs. A. also had bulimic symptoms, at the same she was going through alternate cycles of excessive involvement in work (despite complaining that she was treated as a victim there) and lack of interest in professional activities (fear of going to work as she might not perform the tasks there perfectly enough). Mrs. A. worked without controlling her attitude to work or work time, or avoided work escaping with a sick leave, issued due to disease symptoms. Mrs. A. often had strong bulimic symptoms, having ever more disturbed social relations, experiencing strong somatic symptoms, having unrealistic standards of task execution, which reduced her efficiency at work, and aggravated fear, dependence on others, excessive submission and functioning in accordance with the pattern for establishing relations that was dominance – excessive submission (scapegoat). Mrs. A., as a result of undertaking and continuing the long term psychotherapy, gained a partial insight into the psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, also those connected with her workaholic attitude. Mrs. A. recognized, in her behaviour pattern regarding the relations with other people in work situations, the type of workaholic reaction referred to as “pleaser”. Mrs. A. requires further psychotherapy, to improve her insight concerning psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, comprising the area of dysfunctions going beyond the workaholic attitude in the life she lived so far.

2.3. Narcissistic controller type of workaholic – psychological characteristics (case description)

Mr. C, 40 years of age, with university education, living in a city, in a partnership relation for 3 years, with no children. Working for 15 years. From the beginning of his professional career in managerial positions. The social and psychological functioning of Mr. C. can be defined as typical for a person with narcissist feature. The medical diagnosis of the complaints reported by Mr. C. when he came for medical assistance is coded as F48 - Other neurotic disorders. As a result of treatment and extension of medical and psychological diagnosis, narcissist personality feature has been recognized in Mr. C.. Mr. C. demonstrated a low level of tolerance to frustration and boredom, and revealed the need to experience stimulation and risky behaviours. Mr. C. was perceived in his environment as a creative person, taking new challenges, not being afraid of...
searching for and dealing with difficult new tasks. Because of that, Mr. C. was entrusted by his superiors with a growing number of new tasks, which he fulfilled, increasing his sense of omnipotence and desire to maintain it. Mr. C. reported obsessive thoughts concerning work and the need for perfect execution of tasks entrusted with, as well as the significant role of ambition in fulfilling new tasks. In social functioning (family, work, personal life), from his childhood (especially in adolescence and youth) he had the need to be the most important one, taking special tasks, being continually praised, which coupled with strong frustration when the prize (praising) was missing. In the pattern of emotional functioning in relation to other people, the dominating features included suppression of emotions and impulsiveness in exploration of frustration, low empathy, poor ability to extend positive feelings to others, manipulation with others in order to reach the goal, at the expense of other people, being in relation with Mr. C. In work situations, superiority attitude dominated along with the need of being admired as the best, with demand of being appreciated by others. That aspect of Mr. C.’s activities gradually became the cause of problems at work, and of changing jobs ever more often. Conflicts at work (particularly with authority figures and bosses), the manifested superiority towards subordinates, on the one hand caused frequent changes of jobs, whereas on the other hand Mr. C. would spend all his time at work, to fill the emptiness he felt inside. In order to execute his tasks and meet responsibilities better than others, to find fulfillment and to meet his ambitions and the need for omnipotence he stayed at work ever longer, sacrificing his family life. He focused in his actions mainly on perfect execution of tasks, in order to get better and better, to be the best, he controlled the standards according to which tasks were to be executed in his work environment, regardless the relations he had with others – subordinates or co-workers. Mr. C. demonstrated rigid thinking and focusing on unimportant details, he was constantly dissatisfied with the performance of official duties. In his professional activities Mr. C. often focused upon striving for power, leadership, holding high positions, getting substantial remuneration; he was able to cope with his responsibilities despite the work burden and conflicts at workplace.

Due the fact that Mr. C. is in the initial stage of the psychotherapy process, he gained only partial recognition and awareness of the fact that in his professional and social life he has been unconsciously using the workaholic behaviour pattern labeled “narcissistic controller” in relations with other people (especially in workplace situations). Mr. C., due to the specificity of his personality structure and domination of the narcissistic feature in it, requires continuation of psychotherapy, towards deepening the insight in psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, comprising the dysfunctions reaching beyond the workaholic attitude in his life.

3. The treatment of workaholism

Moving on to the topic of treatment of workaholism, one should begin with the social support of the close ones, which is extremely important, as in any therapeutic process. Upbringing focused on values, that is teaching the balance between work and family life proves to be helpful (Kalinowski et al., 2005). The role of parents in the upbringing is crucial, in particular the adequate requirements set for the child, as well as allowing to make mistakes or to suffer defeats, so is the development of positive self-evaluation. According to McMillan et al. (2001) psychotherapy for workaholics may start at early adulthood, due to the personality traits developed and tendencies to engage in purposeful activities, which the person becomes addicted to. Also Robinson (1996) suggests treatment of workaholism as an addiction, in parallel to other addictions that occur.

Contacts with the therapist are usually initiated by a relative or an MD whom the workaholic sees due to somatic symptoms (Kalinowski et al., 2005).

In such a process, as in case of any addicted person, the motivation for undertaking treatment is reinforced. The therapeutic process itself is conducted on the basis of therapeutic procedures typical for a given method employed, different in psychodynamic psychotherapy, different in cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT), existential therapy, or humanistic therapy. Usually, however, the self-esteem is reinforced, the patient recognizes her/his own emotional states, learns to set realistic
goals, to build constructive relations with the surroundings, to plan work and free time (Johnson, 1993; Robinson, 1996; after: Szpitalak, 2012, pp. 70-71).

Robinson (1996) stresses also the important role that therapy has for family members of the workaholic – partners, children. Becoming aware of what workaholism is about, learning to deal with a workaholic, and fighting co-dependency is the key for all addiction therapies. The surroundings learn to refuse justification of the workaholic’s absence from home, and to abstain from substituting the workaholic in household duties.

**Conclusion. Research tools for measuring workaholism.**

To conclude, the methods used for measuring workaholism are presented, after Szpitalak (2012, pp. 73-78):

There are several tools to measure workaholism. There is the WorkBAT scale, developed by Spence and Robbins (1992) based on the concept of workaholic triad: compulsion to work, commitment to work, satisfaction with work. The reliability of subscales amounted to: Cronbach’s alpha from 0.67 to 0.81 for work compulsion subscale, Cronbach’s alpha from 0.85 to 0.86 for satisfaction with work subscale, Cronbach’s alpha from 0.67 to 0.71 for commitment to work subscale, respectively. Two types of workaholics can be distinguished: enthusiastic and non-enthusiastic ones. The shortened version was developed by McMillan et al. (2002). The authors of the Polish adaptation are Malinowska et al. (2010).

The WART (Work Addition Risk Test), developed by Robinson and Philips (1995) is composed of five subscales: compulsive tendencies/overloading with work, self-worth, control/perfectionism, self-absorption/impaired communication, inability to delegate. The groups of clinical symptoms that have been considered: compulsion control disturbances, dysfunctions in social relations. The questionnaire reliability, expressed by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is 0.85 – 0.87. The WART scale was translated to Polish by Mieścicka (2002). The adaptation of the test to Polish reality was prepared by Wojdyło (2005), who showed a factor structure analogous to the primary one: the obsession/compulsion dimension, activation/perfectionism, overloading with work, focusing on result, self-worth.

SZAP developed by Golińska (2008) in co-operation with M. Pasik, considering workaholism as an addiction, contains questions referring to diagnostics criteria: compulsion to use, rigid schemes, system of beliefs, lack of success in quitting/withdrawal, increased tolerance, interpersonal costs, withdrawal symptoms, beliefs that support involvement in work, difficulties in limitation and control of work-related behaviour, manifestations of rational defense, the role of work in coping with emotions. The retest reliability amounted to r=0.53.

The scale used for investigating tendencies to workaholic behaviour, developed by Mudrack and Naughton (2001) serves the purpose of studying the inclinations to be involved in work that is not demanded, having work high in personal hierarchy, provision of high quality work in substantial quantity. The second tool those authors proposed is used to study the tendencies of the subject to control the work of others, and to get involved in its performance, in order to make it more perfect. The authors stressed the aspects of workaholism that are neglected, in their opinion, such as: thinking about work in the time not meant for it, involvement in professional activities in free time, lack of assessment of the volume of work to be involved in, in relation to the actual demand for work the employer has. These are the three determinants of workaholism, defined by Scott et al. (1997). The method reliability assessed by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is 0.74 for the not demanded work subscale; 0.80 for the subscale for controlling others.

The work load questionnaire (Kwestionariusz Obciążenia Pracą – KOP) developed by Homowska and Paluchowski (2007) is based on the WART questionnaire, developed by Robinson and Philips (1995) and Spence and Robbins scale (1992). Five factors have been selected: symptoms or causes of losing control, social consequences of workaholism, involvement in work, personal consequences of workaholism, mood at work that favours workaholism. On the basis of the factors listed, four were left in the ultimate tool after factor analysis: loss of control over work, perfectionist work style, general views concerning work, perceived oppressiveness of the organization. The scale reliability according to Cronbach’s alpha is from 0.72 to 0.88.
DUWAS (Dutch Workaholism Scale) by Schaufeli, Taris, Bakker (2004) understands workaholism as inner compulsion to work. The questionnaire contains two sub-scales: overload with work and compulsive work. The reliability of the former, according to Cronbach’s alpha is 0.77, for the latter - according to Cronbach’s alpha – 0.85. That questionnaire also allows to measure the overwork variable, by means of several items.

UWES (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale) developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) serves the purpose of measuring work engagement. Work engagement is described by the following notions: vigor (high levels of energy, experiencing pleasure from the activity, high mental resilience), dedication (strong identification with work, experiencing a sense of significance with professional activity), absorption is also referred to as being increased (engrossed) in one’s work (involvement in work with being fully concentrated on it, unwilling to stop or detach oneself from work). The reliability of the first (sub)scale mentioned is expressed by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.83, second scale – 0.92, third scale – 0.82. The reliability of the entire tool, measured by Cronbach’s alpha, amounts to 0.93.

The Multidimensional Questionnaire for Assessing Workaholism (Wielowymiarowy Kwestionariusz Oceny Pracoholizmu – WKOP) developed by Malwina Szpitalak (2012) assumes that workaholism may be treated not only as an addiction, but also as a disorder affecting habits, a personality disorder. The questionnaire contains the following dimensions: value, conscientiousness, impairment of alternative activities, stress and anxiety, stimulants, anti-delegation, disturbed social relations, enthusiasm, destructive perfectionism, need for predictability, absorption, coercion to work. As a whole, the questionnaire was assessed as highly reliable— the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the entire tool is 0.92. The tool has been used in the further empirical part, analyzing workaholism in persons working under flexible work schemes.

Bibliography:


External Debt and FDI in Kosovo, Stimulating Growth

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Abstract
My work is based on statistical analysis of annual data for GDP, FDI, Infrastructure and External Debt for Kosovo. They show that there was a delay in GDP growth by inappropriate trajectory configuration of positive and negative increase or decrease of economic components, some of which are included in the analysis, FDI, Infrastructure and External Debt. FDI has a positive reflection on GDP growth but it presents no statistical significance. Even the CBK statistics for FDI inflows in Kosovo show the lowest level especially after 2007, with minor improvements these last two years. While, considered as an important factor in the GDP growth, Infrastructure is represented by cellular telephone lines which cover 98% of the territory of Kosovo. Our empirical results suggest that external debt has had a negative impact on economic growth even though the coefficient is low, the evidence shows that the external debt is increasing and this has important implications for the economy and public policies in Kosovo.

Keywords: FDI, GDP, external debt, Infrastructure, Republic of Kosovo.

Introduction
Kosovo is known as a country with low income, but it has been able to manage the public finances. The position of net international investment since 2007 - 2016 reaches a value of 3,036.1 million euro (2016 brought a reduced inflow of 215.9 million euro). A very low employment rate in Kosovo is a concern indicator which in 2012 was 25 percent, while the official unemployment rate was 30.9 percent, that can be even greater. Since during the period from 2000 to 2006 Kosovo had no external debt, it had a positive effect on taxes in Kosovo, because it did not promote the growth of tax rates, but on the contrary their reduction. This positively affects the perception of investors that there will be no tax increase in the future to cover the external debt. External debt (http://bqk-kos.org/?id=55) size reflects negatively on FDI flows. Although exports were lower in the period from 2000 to 2006, they were not directed to the coverage of external debt, since it did not exist. Financial position (2007 - 2013) expressed below shows that in 2007 it was positive with 27.1 million euro of inflows from exports in the country in relation with the external debt. While the financial position after 2006, where the first debts began, is not satisfactory with the small contribution of exports. Kosovo has the lowest external debt in the region of 1.5 billion euro in 2013 (MF 2015). External assets in debt instruments, that are 3.245.2 million euro, gross external debt is 2,012.2 billion euro in 2016, net external debt remains -1.230.9 million euro. As GDP % external debt in 2011 from 5.51% of GDP, in 2014 from 10.63% of GDP, while the debt continues to grow as % of GDP. The bloom of the telecommunications sector in the country through the major telecommunications operators: Post and Telecommunications of Kosovo (PTK), IPKO and Kujtesa. By the end of 2010, Kosovo had a penetration rate of 4.26 percent in fixed-line services, 72 percent in mobile communications, and 6.31 percent in internet services while in 2016 it covers 98% of mobile services. The reported penetration rates, especially for Internet services, show that there is still place for further investment in this sector.
FDI Theoretical Basing

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the effects of FDI on economic growth, as well as to identify the factors of external debt and infrastructure as factors that can stimulate the GDP growth. Since FDI and savings in developing countries at national-level are quite low (Anghion and Howitt (1992), this encourages the developing countries to seek for capital through expanding their markets. GDP growth is usually parameter to measure the economic growth of a country, even though it is not the only parameter. GDP includes the overall production within the country for the given period. Foreign Direct Investment is included in GDP and a lot has been done to discover the relationship between FDI and the growth. In the majority of studies, the "OLI" paradigm or Dunning's eclectic theory is used to prove the hypotheses related to this issue. Growth of per capita income within a country through increasing the level of current production is one of the main objectives of the economy. The close relationship between GDP, level of the current production, income per capita and FDI, has led the various researchers to find solutions to the key security concerns of the GDP growth. In other words, an increase in GDP, the market value of all products and services produced within a country each year in proportion to the population, is defined as the economic growth. Each country aims the economic growth, and if this is not available through the internal sources, then external capital in cash, capital markets and foreign investment, by creating a new branch, the purchase of the existing one, or through the reunification, is one of the means of closing the shortfall in capital (Seyidoğlu, 1999: 664, Kurtaran, 2005: 367, Yılmazer, 2010: 242). The relationship among FDI and GDP, domestic savings, stock of capital, use of advanced technology and its use (human capital) and amounts of investments are widely accepted as the main determinants of the economic growth.

The purpose of the Study - The purpose of this study is providing answer to the research question related to the impact of FDI and external debt on economic growth in Kosovo. This paper has the objective:

- To analyze the impact of FDI, infrastructure and external debt on GDP, through multiple regression and Pearson correlation.

Reference sources – The paper is based on annual data published by the Central Bank of Kosovo (CBK) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), considered as the secondary sources, the Kosovo Statistics Agency (KSA), PTT, IPKO, Kujtesa, etc.

Research objectives - Study of the FDI flow trends; overview on the stability of macroeconomic indicators in Kosovo, GDP, FDI and External Debt.

Research question: How have FDI, infrastructure and external debt affected the GDP growth in Kosovo?

Hypothesis: Impact of FDI and infrastructure and the stimulating negative effect of the external debt on the GDP growth in Kosovo are low.

The importance of the study - However, the importance of this study is its time horizon increase compared with the previous ones in terms of FDI impact, external debt and infrastructure on real GDP growth in Kosovo.

The research methodology

Methodology is very important background that helps to explain the procedures which lead to the results of the study for the reader to understand them. The model - research uses the OLS technique, a good measure (Kontsoyannis 1997) of objectives in such analyzes with more than one independent variable as in our case. Specification of the equation is done as follows:

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GDP_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FDI_{it} + u \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ ld
GDP = Per capita growth rate; FDI = Foreign Direct Investment; BJ = External debt; INF = infrastructure; u = the error term. \( \beta_0, \beta_1 \) are the parameters to be estimated.

The economic criteria help us whether coefficients of the equation will have positive values or not, while the statistical criterion checks the T value and statistical significance of the F test. While \( R^2 \) will be used to determine the explanatory variables. Whereas econometric criteria are assessed through tests to assess whether at the Linear Regression method are violated the assumptions on autocorrelation (Durbin-Watson), multicollinearity between variables and heteroscedasticity. Selection of the OLS model is suitable for testing our specific hypothesis that aims measurement of economic relations’ nature (Gurajati, 2004). Macroeconomic indicators of an economy are considered as key factors for FDI inflows to a country (Kosmidou, K, 2008). Use of GDP (Lopes et al. (2002); Ivanov. S. and Webster. C. (2007), Malul. M, et al (2008), is of great interest in our case. Focus group (at the secondary data) selected the variables, FDI, GDP, Infrastructure and external debt. – The program SPSS, 19, has served for statistical processing of paper records. To achieve the objectives of the study, the analysis of simple regression and Pearson correlation is conducted, using the important econometric techniques. So the simple regression analysis was used to identify major variables (determinants) that have impact on GDP. The coefficient of determination \( R^2 \), Durbin - Watson statistics \([D-W]\), standard error of the coefficients, t-statistics, F-ratio, and other important econometric tests have been conducted to evaluate the relative importance and judgment reliability of the model parameters.

**Study results**

Since there are restrictions on the number of observations, this is completed through the used model, which has great significance in comparison with other models. The first tests we will perform to prove the accuracy of the model are:

- Test \( R^2 \) at least \( R^2 > 60\% \), but \( R^2 \neq r \) of correlation; for, \( k \geq 2 \),
- Fisher (ANOVA) is simultaneous test on the variance \( \beta \), paving two hypotheses:
  - \( H_0: \beta = 0 \), so the relation does not exist,
  - \( H_a: \beta \neq 0 \), the relation exists
- Factic Fischer \( F < F_c \) Critical Fischer, end as the Hypothesis 0 wins, ie \( \beta = 0 \)
- T-student, on variance \( \beta \) (is performed for each coefficient one by one).
  - \( H_0: \beta = 0 \), so the relation does not exist,
  - \( H_a: \beta \neq 0 \), the relation exists

To variables, we have data about, since 2007-2016, is performed a simple regression analysis for each dependent variable. The dependent variable, - the real GDP, while the independent variables are FDI, external debt and infrastructure.

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics from the time series (author’s work, data from CBK-time series 2007-1016).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GDP in million Euro-€</th>
<th>External Debt expressed in million Euro, in the period 2007-2016</th>
<th>FDI - 2007-2016, which are expressed in million Euro-€</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA (Mean)</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS (Std.Deviation)</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBK, 2016, time series, author’s work

The second best variable from distribution, after the annual GDP, is the logarithm of FDI having an average of 1.42 units with a distribution from an average of 2.46 units, indicating that even in this case the distribution is concentrated during our period of analysis. At the Eternal Debt, the distribution of values is 1.11 units from average of 7.4 units. At the Infrastructure, the distribution of values is 1.13 units from average of 2.3 units. This indicates that these variables have concentrated distribution throughout the analysis period (2007-2016).
Evaluation of FDI impact on real GDP, with no time delay

The R value represents simple correlation that is .0241, which shows a low degree of correlation. $R^2$ value ("R Square") is the Fraction of total variation that is explained by regression; $R^2$ is a measure of the model explanatory power which shows how far the variance of the dependent variable can be explained, in our case - GDP - with the independent variable, -FDI 2004-2013. In this case 5.8% can be explained, which is very small. The next table is ANOVA, which reports how well the regression equation fits the data (ie, predicts the dependent variable). This table shows that the regression model does not predict the dependent variable in a statistically significant way. Why is that so? Look at the "regression" line and see the value of "Sig." which shows the statistical significance of the regression model. In our case, $p = .503$ is more than 0.05, and shows that the regression model does not statistically predict the result.

Table 2: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>8.593E8</td>
<td>058</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), FDI - Inflows for the years 2004-2013, that are expressed in Million Euro- €.

b. Dependent Variable: GDP

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>3.639E17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.639E17</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td>.503a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>5.908E18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.385E17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.272E18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), FDI - Inflows for the years 2004-2013, that are expressed in Million Euro- €.

b. Dependent Variable: GDP

Table "Coefficients" provides us with the necessary information to predict GDP from FDI for the years 2004-2013, as well as to determine whether FDI statistically contributes significantly to the model (by looking at the "Sig."). Moreover, we can use the values in the "B" column under the "Unstandardized Coefficients" column, as shown below, to present the regression equation:

Equation 1: GDP = 3.619 + 1.410

Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.619E9</td>
<td>1.410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent variable: GDP

Evaluation of the Infrastructure impact on real GDP growth

The R value represents simple correlation that is .979, which shows a high degree of correlation. $R^2$ value ("R Square") is the Fraction of total variation that is explained through regression; $R^2$ is a measure of the model explanatory power which...
shows how far the variance of the dependent variable can be explained, in our case - GDP - with the independent variable, Infrastructure 2007-2016. In this case 95.9% can be explained, which is very big.

The next table is ANOVA, which reports how well the regression equation fits the data (ie, predicts the dependent variable). This table shows that the regression model predicts the dependent variable in a statistically significant way. In our case, p = .000 is less than 0.05, and shows that the regression model statistically predicts the result.

Model Sumary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>979</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>1.394E8</td>
<td>2.708</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Infrastructure as % of population
b. Dependent Variable: GDP - according to the actual costs after the correction in billion Euro

Anova

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.254E18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.254E18</td>
<td>115.922</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.723E16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.945E16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.351E18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Infrastructure as % of population.
b. Dependent Variable: GDP - to the actual costs after the correction in billion Euro

Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.812E9</td>
<td>2.437E8</td>
<td>7.435</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Infrastructure as % of population</td>
<td>31.5912</td>
<td>28.259</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>10.767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: GDP - to the actual costs after the correction in billion Euro

Table "Coefficients" provides us with the necessary information to predict GDP from Infrastructure for the years 2006-2016, as well as to determine whether Infrastructure statistically contributes significantly to the model (by looking at the "Sig."). Moreover, we can use the values in the "B" column under the "Unstandardized Coefficients" column, as shown below, to present the regression equation:

Equation 2: GDP = 1.812 + 31.5

Evaluation of the external debt impact on real GDP growth

Model Sumary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>0.895</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>8030</td>
<td>2.461</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model Sumary
a. Predictors: (Constant), External Debt expressed in Million Euro, in the period 2007-2013  
b. Dependent Variable: real GDP

Anova

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>27.376</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27.376</td>
<td>42.456</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>3.224</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>645</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30.600</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), External Debt expressed in Million Euro, in the period 2007-2013

b. Dependent Variable: Economic growth / Real growth rate after correction / To actual costs

The R value represents simple correlation and it is 0.946 which shows a high degree of correlation. R^2 value ("R Square") is the Fraction of total variation explained by regression; R^2 is a measure of the model explanatory power which shows how far the variance of the dependent variable can be explained, in our case - GDP - with the independent variable, External debt 2007-2016. In this case 89.5% can be explained, which is very big. The next table is ANOVA, which reports how well the regression equation fits the data (ie, predicts the dependent variable). This table shows that the regression model does not predict the dependent variable in a statistically significant way. Look at the "regression" line and see the value of "Sig." which shows the statistical significance of the regression model. In our case, p = .0.01 is less than 0.05, and shows that the regression model statistically predicts the result. Table "Coefficients" provides us with the necessary information to predict GDP from FDI for the years 2007-2016, as well as to determine whether External debt statistically contributes significantly to the model (by looking at the "Sig."). Moreover, we can use the values in the "B" column under the "Unstandardized Coefficients" column, as shown below, to present the regression equation or:

Equation 3: GDP = 10.803 - 5.193

Coefficient

a. Dependent Variable: Economic growth / Real Growth rate after correction / To actual costs;  
b. Constant variable: External debt in million euro

Conclusion

This paper examines the impact of FDI, External Debt and Infrastructure on GDP growth in Kosovo during the period 2007 - 2016. The general conclusion is that the infrastructure affects positively and significantly to GDP growth and FDI attracting. From all the above analysis on the effect of various determinants on GDP growth, we can conclude that FDI inflows in Kosovo, measured out "separately" without time delay, have insignificant effect but not negative. When the model proves external debt as determinant of GDP growth, there is seen the negative effect with a coefficient of -5.193 with the value of significance p=0.01<0.05. This is proved by the simple correlation R (0.946) and determination coefficient R^2 (0.845) that are much higher than 84.5%. F-statistic (61.685) is also high compared with t-student (F-critical 2.678). While the table also
reports that the model is significant (p-value e= 0.001<0.05). Meanwhile the opposite occurs, the impact of infrastructure on GDP growth is important p=0.00 <0.05 with a positive coefficient. This is confirmed by the simple correlation R (97.9%) and determination coefficient $R^2$ (95.9) are very high. This means that the services sector is especially dominant in Kosovo and its contribution to growth is much higher than that of other sectors gathered all together. As a general conclusion we say, the findings suggest that the GDP growth is not directly related to FDI inflows. This means that a statistically significance of FDI would mean a better performance of the Kosovo economy which in our FDI case has shown no statistical significance. While, external debt represents a statistical significance but with a negative coefficient, infrastructure has a positive impact in terms of economic performance growth (GDP growth). Statistics show that there is an increase in the economy of Kosovo and this is attributed to the infrastructure, represented by variable telephone lines (mobile). Selecting the determining factors has a great importance in the results of GDP growth, and even statistically FDI are low, which have already entered more in the form of mergers and acquisitions than Greenfield. Policy recommendations based on the findings, propose to encourage and improve the FDI flow in Kosovo. The government should provide a legal framework and suitable policy for external businesses in Kosovo, a prerequisite for attracting FDI. It is also necessary that Kosovo government formulate appropriate policies for local businesses in order to meet the lack of flows from abroad. Given the causal relation between FDI, GDP and external debt, favorable policies of external debt must be reformulated. Each foreign company that decides to enter any country previously, certain resources of the host country and resources of the host firms how competitive they are, and risk arising if they invest in that country. Therefore it is important for Kosovo that government reformers make the right choice of internal reforms and incentives, creation of prerequisites for foreign investors to enter without hesitation in Kosovo. Despite the contribution increase of the primary sector of services to GDP growth in Kosovo, the economic and fiscal policies must be changed in favor of increasing the contribution of other primary and secondary sectors, effects on long-term growth of the services sector has no strong basic expectations.

References


The Impact of FDI on the Structure of the Kosovo Economy

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College AAB, Pristina, Albania

Abstract
This study has addressed the impact of domestic investment and FDI net flow from the services sector on economic growth for a period of 10 years. The data are taken from CBK, in annual periods, using the technique of Pearson correlation and multiple OLS regression, conducted with the statistical program SPSS 21.0. FDI attraction by the services sector is found to be greater than by the other sectors. This becomes more evident by findings from econometric analysis, where the services sector has a strong impact on economic growth in the country. Meanwhile, the "crowding out" effect has happened, indicating that local investment (local firms) has a modest level of technical and managerial changes, since increasing effect is estimated to be negative. According to this study, the economy of Kosovo has grown with an average rate of 4% for 16 years and the biggest contributor is the services sector with 56% of GDP, which includes financial services, insurance companies, construction, telecommunications, real estate, trade etc. This pace still continues to be a model of economic growth in Kosovo and continues to be supported by certain economic policies, while other sectors lag behind. This result clearly shows that, although the level of FDI inflows in Kosovo is low, the sector specification shows positive trend of incoming flows in the services sector. This is due to dominance in market of the financial sector and that of insurance with foreign capital as the only financing source of the local businesses.

Keywords: FDI, GDP growth rate, Domestic investment, Services sectors, Kosovo.

Introduction
Perceptions about Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), for over half a century have mostly varied, never reaching a common consensus on the impact, effects and their role in economic growth. FDI is considered as the main driver of economic growth in the last three decades and today it is considered as one of the most actual topics. Economic growth represents the rate to which the real GDP increases; it is the basis for meeting the increasing needs of people. The IMF defines the foreign investment as "direct" when an investor holds 10% or more of the assets of an enterprise abroad, enough to give the investor a measure of control over its management. FDI is permitted through financial partnership, private equity and joint venture. Even the FDI contribution towards economic and industrial development of Kosovo has been less important. FDI in Kosovo, though increased for about seven times from 440.7 million euros in 2007, which is also the FDI peak for 17 years in Kosovo, to 151.7 million euros in 2014, whereas 308.8 million euros in 2015, and 2016 brought only 215.9 million euros, or for 10 years in total 3.036.1 million euros, it has failed to meet the capital, technology and knowledge gap, furthermore the growth of population welfare. Although it continues to be a cost-competitive country for FDI in the manufacturing, mining, electricity and low wages sectors, it has failed to attract serious investors. The services sector in Kosovo (the banking, insurance, real estate, tourism and commerce sector) has benefited the most. Successful banks are commercial banks Pro Credit Bank or PCB by the merger of international companies, Raiffeisen Bank or RBKO from Austria, Bank of Ljubljana or NLB from Slovenia, National Commercial Bank. Contribution to economic growth is attributed to these sectors helped by consumption, remittances and too little by exports.
The purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is providing answers to research questions related to the impact of FDI, services sector and local investment on economic growth in Kosovo. This study aims the following objectives:

- To study the trends of FDI flow (descriptive analysis);
- To rate the effect of FDI net inflows, services and domestic investment sector on economic growth (through multiple regression and Pearson correlation);

Reference resources

This paper is based on secondary sources for the period 2007-2016. The main sources of data are from Kosovo Agency of Statistics (KAS), Central Bank of Kosovo (CBK).

Methodology followed to conduct the study

Since the study deals with the FDI issue in the theoretical aspect, there has been used the meritorious (methodology) that treats the impact of FDI on economic growth seeing the relation between them and its determinants. To explain the empirical research these tools have been used:

- The secondary quantitative data were collected mainly through the time series of the World Bank. Variables were found in relation to GDP as standard in the literature.
- SPSS program has served for statistical processing of study data.
- The technique of the least squares or ordinary least squares (OLS) is used.

Used methods and models are:

- Descriptive presentation, through description of questionnaires, assessments have been made as part of the conclusions.
- The technique of multiple regression, Pearson and Spearman correlation.

OLS model (Ordinary Least Squares) by the following equation:

\[ \log_{10}{GDP_{pc_{it}}} = a_0 + \beta_1 \log_{10}{FDI_{serv.secto_{it}}} + \beta_2 \log_{10}{Dom.Inv_{it}} + \epsilon_{it} \]  

\( GDP_{pc} \) = Annual GDP growth rate per capita; \( FDI \) = Foreign Direct Investment % GDP; \( Do.Inv. \) = Domestic Investment % GDP; \( \epsilon_{it} \) = Standard error

Multiple regression analysis has been used to identify major variables (determinants) that have impact on FDI and economic growth. The coefficient of determination \( R^2 \) (Brown, 2007), Durbin - Watson statistics [D-W], standard error of coefficients, t-statistics, F - ratio, and other important econometric tests have been conducted to evaluate the relative importance and credibility of evaluation of model parameters.

Research questions: How has the FDI net inflow, from local services and investment sector, influenced on the growth of GDP per capita in Kosovo?

Hypothesis: FDI and local investment in Kosovo positively affect the growth of GDP per capita.

Possibilities and Limitations

The study focus is to verify whether Foreign Direct Investment has contributed towards economic growth in Kosovo, and how much FDI other determinants have attracted in the period covering the years 2007-2016.
Apart from the contribution that this study offers, there are limitations:

- The sample size in the secondary data has not included a wide range of variables.

**Importance of Study**

Kosovo lacks capital, and this capital can be more easily collected if the country has advancement in the use of technology and knowledge (which are hardly measured in Kosovo). If the selected variables in the study as determinants of FDI and economic growth are positive or negative, but not zero, then it is an important prognosis to guide government policies pro or against these macroeconomic variables. It is also important to become familiar with the local investment, to find obstacles and opportunities to advance, though modest, the technology and management of human resources. However, the importance of this study is to increase the time horizon of the study compared with the previous ones.

**Overview of Literature**

This section presents different views on the impact of FDI and other determinants on economic growth, summarizing the arguments and counter arguments based on theory and empirical evidence. Literature offers no clear predictions about the FDI effects on economic growth and development. Providing conditions for FDI expectation by the host country must be one of the main activities as investment incentives, their promotion, etc. Through their control, foreign investors achieve the goals, but despite their interests for profit, FDIs in developing countries bring new managerial techniques, training, capital, create new jobs, higher salaries, improved employment conditions, and development of industrial sectors. Analysis of the theories of commercial activities with abroad on both macro and micro levels, and in particular the Dunning "OLI" theory have dealt and continue to deal with the issue of FDI (the most actual phenomenon of 20th century). Neoclassical theory predicts increasing the availability of capital per capita instead of maximizing the growth of FDI. Economic growth is associated with significant fluctuations of relative sizes of economy sectors. Authors and relevant institutions such as Chenery and Strout (1996), Dunning (1970), Todaro (1982), Kruger (1987) and World Bank (1993), prove that FDI continuously promote growth of GDP. Neoclassicists point out that savings, i.e. accumulation of capital is the main engine of economic growth. Supporters of this economic theory who have worked in that field like; Reuber (1973); Kojima (1978), Bergten, et al. (1978); Chu (1989); Antonelli (1991); Kennedy (1992); Lall (1993); Sornarajah (1994); Seid (2002), Narula (argued that FDI increase competition and improve productivity. This advantage of competition will lead to better resource allocation, better capital exploitation, efficient management and efficiency increase in the market. However, the empirical literature has left behind (there is not a consensus reached yet) and there were a lot of problems to identify advantages in practice.

**Data analysis and study results**

The descriptive analysis in table 1 is conducted to examine the trend of FDI inflows, their origin and structure in the global economy and in Kosovo. This study in particular includes the FDI determinants in Kosovo, emphasizing the investment period since liberalization of the economy (1999-2014) until now. This chapter focuses on three issues:

- Firstly, it deals with descriptive analysis (Jaagi. S,. 2003:1-18), of FDI statistics according to the structure of the economy;
- Secondly, of great interest is the impact of determinants of GDP growth such as FDI from the services sector and local investment with conclusive analysis of regression and correlation.

First, the model concludes that the values of the variable logarithm of annual GDP growth per capita (log_2GDPgro.pc) on average are more concentrated than other variables because the distribution of values is 1:39 units from average 3:28 units, this distribution is the lowest.
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics from the time series (author’s work, data from CBK-time series 2007-1016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Log2 GDPgpc% annual</th>
<th>Log2 Domestic Investment %GDP</th>
<th>Log2 IHD- services sector %GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA (Mean)</td>
<td>3.28720675730</td>
<td>3.774187772E8</td>
<td>6.98536020570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS (Std.Deviation)</td>
<td>1.397918487361</td>
<td>1.7964851405E8</td>
<td>3.374697562467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBK, 2016, time series, author’s work

The second best variable from distribution, after the annual GDP growth per capita, is the logarithm of domestic investment having an average of 3.77 units with a distribution from an average of 1.79 units, indicating that even in this case the distribution is concentrated during our period of analysis. At the Foreign Direct Investment, the services sector (FDI services sectors), the distribution of values is 3:37 units from average of 6.98 units. This indicates that these variables have concentrated distribution throughout the analysis period (2007-2016).

Dependent variable: Log2 Annual GDP growth per capita. Independent variables: Log2 Domestic Investment % GDP and Log2 FDI services sector % GDP.

Table 2, the value R represents the multiple correlations and it is .802 which shows a high degree of correlation. The value R^2 ("R Square") is the Fraction of total variation which is explained by regression; R^2 is a measure of the explanatory power of the model which shows how far the variance of dependent variable can be explained, in our case - annual GDP growth per capita – with independent variable, domestic investment and FDI in the services sector in the period 2007-2016. In this case, 64.3% can be explained, which is very high.

Table 2: Model Summary^b

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square (R^2)</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.802^a</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>947080225853</td>
<td>2.443</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), 2LogFDI- entries in the services sector for the years 2004-2016, expressed in %GDP, 2Log Domestic Investment. b. Dependent Variable: log2 Annual growth of GDP per capita

Table 3: ANOVA^a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.309</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.654</td>
<td>6.304</td>
<td>.027^a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.279</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>897</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.588</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: Predictors: (Constant), 2LogFDI- entries in the services sector for the years 2004-2016, expressed in %GDP, 2Log Domestic Investment.

b. Dependent Variable: log2Annual GDP growth per capita

Table 3, is ANOVA, which reports how well the regression equation fits the data (ie, predicts the dependent variable). This table shows that regression model predicts the dependent variable in statistically significant way. See the "regression" line and see the value of "Sig." which shows the statistical significance of the regression model. In our case, p = .027^a is less than 0.05, and shows that the regression model statistically predicts result.
Table 4: Coefficients*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(2log_Constant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2log_Domestic Investme(Dom.Inv.)</td>
<td>-1.474E-8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2log_FDI Services sectors</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>1.824</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Dependent Variable: log2_Annual GDP growth per capita. (Source: CBK, 2016, time series, author’s work).

Table 4, “Coefficients” provides the necessary information to predict log2_Annual GDP growth per capita from independent variables 2log_FDI services sector and 2log_Domestic Investment for the years 2004-2013, to determine whether GDP growth per capita has contributed to the statistical model (looking at “Sig.”). Moreover, we can use the values in the "B" column under the "Unstandardized Coefficients" column, as shown below, to present the regression equation: Annual growth of GDPgpc = C0 - 2logDomestic Investment + 2logFDI services sector

\[
\text{Log2 GDPgpc} = 3.507 - 1.47 + 0.75
\]

Table 5: Correlations (Source: CBK, 2016, time series, author’s work).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>GDPgpc, annual %</th>
<th>Dom.Inv. % GDP</th>
<th>FDI sec.r ser. %GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log2_GDPgpc %</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.238</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log2_Dom.Inv %GDP</td>
<td>-.238</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log2_FDI services sector %GDP</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig (1-tailed) Log2_GDPgpc, Log2_Dom.Inv FDI services sector</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td>.386**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

I.e. Domestic Investments have had a negative impact on economic growth due to the "Crowding-out" effect, while the FDI services sector measured at time delay 2log has contributed to annual GDP growth per capita in Kosovo.

Whereas Table 5 presents the correlation between three variables and this relationship is strong positive p= 0.000 < 0.05 between FDI services sector and local investment, the link is also positive 0.386* between FDI-services sector and economic growth and too important p= 0.012 > 0.05. Meanwhile the relation between economic growth and local investment is important and negative -0.238*.
Table 6 also presents and diagnoses collinearity between variables.

Table 6: Collinearity Diagnostic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Dimension</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Condition Index</th>
<th>Variance Proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model Dimension</td>
<td>Dimension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>2.870</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.02 .00 .00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 1</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>5.018</td>
<td>.98 .04 .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>13.464</td>
<td>.00 .96 .95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBK, 2016, time series, author’s work.

Conclusion

This paper issued; as a finding the FDI effect from the services sector and local investment in the growth rate of GDP per capita (all variables have been measured with a time lag of two years -log2. The results show that the lack of impact of local investments on growth depends on technology and its modest management in local companies and competition from foreign firms. The “crowding-out” effect on local investment proves such a thing. A powerful finding in the model is considered the positive effect of attracting foreign investment by the services sector, considered to dominate in Kosovo. We have found that the statistical explanatory power of the independent variables included in explaining the changes in the dependent variable, the rate of GDP growth per capita exceeds 64.3 percent, as shown by the $R^2$ values. We also say that Durbin Watson turns out to have no autocorrelation problems. So the statistical significance of results obtained by regressions is good. Since the research covers the period 2007 - 2016, the outcome with the OLS method has shown that at domestic investment ($\beta_1 = -1.47$) is presented the negative effect on economic growth or the phenomenon of “Crowding-out” effect mentioned above, while the FDI services sector ($\beta_2 = 0.75$) seems to have a positive impact on growth, but this relation is distributed positively even between local investments through partnership. Therefore it should be focused on improving the capital performance and management of the local businesses to catch the “spillovers effects” of foreign firms, so that the local firms become more competitive. The government should try to promote transparency in all macroeconomic issues in sectors of the economy. The policies in the country should aim at macroeconomic, institutional and political stability to make the country more attractive to foreign investors. The country’s performance in terms of GDP, is an important factor to promote investor’s confidence, the government must find ways to promote local production.

References


Self-concept as a Factor in Academic Achievement

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PhD Student, Autonomous University Chapingo

Abstract
This research presents a description of the results of the Piers-Harris Self-concept Assessment Scale (1984), applied anonymously among 300 students at a Technical Junior High School in Mexico City, for comparing with academic achievement or grade averages. To interpret the results, the questionnaires were grouped according to similar grade averages and total scores on the scale. As a result we got four sets of questionnaires, or four possible forms of perceiving academic self-concept related with grade averages. In agreement with the interpretation of the subtotal scores and items, generally talking it is possible to express that the need of social interaction; the obedience to hierarchical figures as the teacher; the vision that luckiness is related with learning; and a probable sense of helplessness or futility; mixed with political, economic, and social circumstances have influenced the attitude of Mexicans toward learning and their perceptions of academic self-concept.

Keywords: Academic self-concept, average grades

Introduction
Some Mexico City students in mandatory junior high school who are rejected by their peers or have poor grades do not appear to be concerned with school or the approval by their teachers. This study observes these carefree students whose life aspirations are totally disconnected from any educational institution. Failure to pass their subjects or even obtain their junior high or high school diploma does not appear to affect their academic self-concept or images of themselves based on their academic performance and the academic skills that determine it (González, 2005).

So if students are unconcerned about their grades or the school they attend, what is the relationship between academic self-concept and grade average?

Background
Self-concept has been a well-researched topic in secondary and university students given the important role it plays in academic performance. As González-Pineda & Núñez (1993) point out, the results found by the work carried out in the last three decades on the relationship between self-concept and academic performance lead to a differentiation of four possible patterns or models of causality between self-concept and academic performance.

Pattern 1. Grade average determines self-concept, experiences of academic success or failure significantly affect student self-respect and self-image, which could be explained by the role of evaluations of significant others (Rosenberg, 1979) or the theory of social comparison (Rogers, Smith and Coleman, 1978; Marsh, 1987, 1990; Marsh and Parker, 1984).

Pattern 2. The levels of self-concept determine the degree of academic achievement, a point of view maintained by self-consistency theory (Jones 1973) and self-respect theory formulated by Covington (1984).
Pattern 3. Self-concept and academic achievement are mutually influencing and determining. Marsh (1984) proposes a model of reciprocal relationships between self-concepts, attributions, and performance, with the particularity that a change in any of them produces changes in the others in order to restore initial balance.

Pattern 4. It is possible that outside variables are the cause of both self-concept and performance, as Maruyama, Rubin, & Kinsburg (1981) propose.

We can infer that in the relationship between of academic self-concept and school performance, self-concept in some studies influenced school performance, while in others it was the reverse; in still other investigations the relationship was reciprocal or unrelated.

According with these findings, most quantitative studies have not looked into the contexts which surrounds the relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement. A case study is necessary that takes into account historical, social, political, and community circumstances on the perception and relationship between academic self-concept and grade averages.

This descriptive study aims to describe the relationship of academic self-concept and academic achievement in its natural context of Technical Junior High School 66 in the Cuchilla-Pantitlan neighborhood on the east side of Mexico City. Variables were the student’s academic self-concept understood as the student’s own conceptualization of his- or herself in the academic field, and the average grade in all subjects, (understood as their academic achievement per ANUIES, 2002). The subjects were 300 students of 11 to 13 years of age.

The technique used for this research was the survey. The instrument for the anonymous survey was the adapted and standardized Piers-Harris Self-Assessment Scale for adolescents (Piers 1984). The Piers instrument is grouped into six subscales that assessed behavior, academic achievement or intellectual status, appearance and physical attributes, anxiety, popularity, happiness, and satisfaction as perceived by the adolescent.

Results and Discussion

The first range or grouping of questionnaires was separated by virtue having scores of 350-320 total points in the instrument with grade averages of 9 and 10. Another group of schoolchildren had 330-300 total points on the instrument, with grade averages of 6, 7, and 8. This created the total four ranges of grouping or organization of the questionnaires by internal similarities of each grouping, as detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Ranges of data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total score in Piers-Harris Self-Assessment Scale</th>
<th>Grade average from elementary school and achievement in junior high</th>
<th>Number of questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 350-320</td>
<td>9 and 10</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 330-300</td>
<td>6, 7, and 8</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 260-230</td>
<td>8 and 9</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 225-215</td>
<td>6 and 7</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Averages or means of the partial scores of the questionnaires were obtained for subscales of each range or grouping of questionnaires. The results have been described from highest to lowest score for the average in each subscale in each academic achievement range with similar total score on the questionnaire, and then from highest to lowest average score for the same subscale in each of the four ranges. The analysis of results arises from comparing of averages of the questions by subscales by average grades according to Piers the signification, of the relation to the theoretical framework, the authors, the context, and the Mexican community. Afterward a brief conclusion of each range is detailed in the same order.

Average grades for ninety percent of teens dropped in the transition from elementary school to junior high. It is considered a high score in the Piers scale because it shows about 80% of the total score, and at the same time is considered a low score because it accounts for about 50% of the total score.
Table 2. Relationship between the two variables: grade average with self-concept score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average academic achievement</th>
<th>8, 9, 10</th>
<th>6, 7</th>
<th>8, 9</th>
<th>6, 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of students</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total surveys</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total score in Self-concept</td>
<td>350-320</td>
<td>330-300</td>
<td>260-230</td>
<td>225-215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale 1 behavior</td>
<td>average: 69.3</td>
<td>average: 45.3</td>
<td>average: 47.4</td>
<td>average: 28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibility: 75 total points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale 2 achievement</td>
<td>average: 64.3</td>
<td>average: 53.3</td>
<td>average: 48.4</td>
<td>average: 36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>academic feeling: 75 total points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale 3 Attitude</td>
<td>average: 56.2</td>
<td>average: 58.3</td>
<td>average: 44.2</td>
<td>average: 34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical leadership: 60 total points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale 4 Nervousness</td>
<td>average: 58.5</td>
<td>average: 54.4</td>
<td>average: 50.7</td>
<td>average: 45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 total points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale 5 Popularity</td>
<td>average: 43.3</td>
<td>average: 54.6</td>
<td>average: 27.8</td>
<td>average: 29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 total points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness : 55 total</td>
<td>average: 54.1</td>
<td>average: 54.8</td>
<td>average: 40.6</td>
<td>average: 31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>points satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results from highest to lowest average score of subscales of the same range

First range

A total of 152 students had high scores on Piers’s overall scale of self-concept (approximately 350 to 320 total points), with high grades in all subjects in the third grading period, as well as from primary school (averages of 9 to 10 on their transcripts).

We can say that the first range are active students who are in the process of becoming autonomous and have an internal locus of control. The behavior subscale of this first range had the highest average of the total sample, 69.3 average. These students, with high academic achievement and high scores on the scale of self-concept, may have achievement based on a perception of personal competence and goals directed toward the realization and mastery of a given task. High motivation positively affects their academic behavior because they acquire an elevated academic status reflected not necessarily in greater knowledge and skills, but more than anything else in grades, which is almost always the most important aim for students of the first range.

On many occasions, due to the tendency of traditionalist learning, the student with good grades understands that a large part of getting good grades resides in proper classroom behavior, which means being quiet, attentive, and obedient to the teacher. Thus, the filial character and obedience in the adolescent which takes root over time and necessitates the presence of authority for learning (Díaz Loving, 1982), in contrast to Argentine adolescents, for example, who esteem being smart and cultured rather than getting good grades.

Adolescents therefore do not generally find sense in many activities, yet their high sense of obedience and responsibility guide them to accomplish all their activities to achieve their priority: high grades. These students with high grades have developed a sense of altruism toward school and demonstrate good behavior that have a positive impact their academic achievement.

The second highest score in this first range was in the subscale of academic achievement, with an average of 64.3. In this regard, Piers states that the self-concept is not innate in the manner it arises, develops, and organizes, but rather it is built...
and defined throughout development due to the influence of significant persons in the family, school, and social environments, in interaction with their own experiences of success and failure.

Thus when the students in this first range are trying to solve some school task or to comprehend some new learning, the social environment, particularly that of the family, plays a central role in the evaluative process that underlies their self-concept.

Piers (1984), also states that the self-concept fulfills a mediating function that facilitates or prevents the person from performing a task (in accordance with their self-assessment), i.e., conditions and feeds back the behavior in the same way as parents and teachers say they are encouraging these students and these learners are, in turn, represent a positive feedback to progress. As James (1890) put it, our self-concept is in proportion to what we desire to be, and what we are or feel we can become.

Through the comparison of the responses in this subscale for the first range, we can say that these students usually identify difficulties or obstacles in learning or schoolwork and feel the confidence or need to continue trying until they achieve the assigned task or learning.

Similarly, Creoles in the colonial times of New Spain knew of their intellectual performance because they received education and felt independence as power and autonomy for the purpose of using their knowledge to advance; these individuals therefore perceived their locus of internal control (Rotter, 1966).

The grades of these students in the first range seem to be generally synonymous with intelligence-academic status, something common in Mexico City where most adolescent students have no activity outside school. This is a situation opposite to the Argentine case where the status is socially granted for being cultured, intelligent, and within the stage of adolescence for being thoughtful, critical, and creative. Therefore returning with adolescents of the first range, success or failure in school is related to central aspects of their self-assessment and, in turn, this academic self-assessment influences their successes which ripple out to all aspects of her life, since school and family are the two most significant, or at times sole, contexts.

The lowest score in this first range was in the subscale of popularity where an average of 43.3 was obtained out of a 55 total points. The responses from these subjects indicated that popularity is not perceived as among their priorities, but the consequence of their qualifications and good academic achievement usually become suitable friends for the rest of the class.

Feelings of academic efficiency — central components of self-concept — motivate them to organize study activities and the use of learning strategies, which leads this type of adolescent to be natural leaders, with the consequence that they give less importance to popularity.

They are adolescents who are often sought out by the rest of the group and supported as leaders in various activities due to their academic and personal efficacy. In some cases these teens desire like less popularity than they already enjoy.

With regard to popularity in junior high school, in many cases having prestige as a student does not imply being cultured or very intelligent for broad, rapid comprehension diverse types of knowledge, but rather on obtaining good grades.

This is also congruent with Valdez’s studies where, compared to Argentine adolescents, for most Mexican students it is more important to obtain good grades than to be intelligent or cultured (Valdez Medina, 2005). This often leads Mexican students to be filial and feel happy in groups of schoolmates because of good grades. In some cases these persons are followed by their companions because of their high averages since excellent qualifications are sometimes synonymous with being intelligent. It is important to note that it is not that these students with high scores on the Piers scale and excellent grades are very socially skilled — they are also sometimes shy — but generally are very convenient classmates to have and are followed by the rest of their classmates.
Respondents to 101 questionnaires reported high scores overall for self-concept (approximately 300-330 total points), and with low academic achievement in the third grading period and in primary school (an averages of 6 and 7). The highest score in the leadership subscale was an average of 58.3 in this second range.

Their highest scores were in leadership, popularity, and satisfaction because of what these subscales of Piers’ instrument evaluate, it may be affirmed that they are adolescent leaders with positive feelings toward school. The scores on the subscales indicate these adolescents do not generally feel useful, nor motivated to study junior high school although they have a positive self-concept. ACADEMIC knowledge or grades are not useful to these adolescents, but rather obedience and belonging to a social group in their community.

The highest scores these students had their on the leadership subscale was nearly 60 points, which places them as skillful and socially entertaining students. Because of their need for belonging to the school group, these students often interrupt class with comments that identify them as fun, carefree, and astute.

This may also be due to the fact that, in Mexico City the lack of credibility in certain authorities, the certainty of competitiveness, mastery of skills or knowledge are not the only mechanisms to social advancement, which is why some students explain their expectations for future accomplishments on the basis of their social relationships, luck, chance, or affiliation.

These students of low academic achievement and high scores on the self-concept scale generally have relatives who are in sales, underemployed, or in the United States and under their influence have their expectations placed in commerce, a position, or migration. This is why the study of this junior high school is not an attractive or useful option for them. This above is confirmed by the sense of filiation, which Diaz-Loving refers to, because membership in the family-social group guides these adolescents to focus their aspirations on being recognized in such environments.

According to Santos (2010) individuals believes would appear numbered in each person by the multiform conourse of his or her particular circumstances. Like some indigenous and mestizo people as well as contemporary students perceive their realities to be unique because they have not experienced and lived in other contexts with distinct circumstances, realities, and needs. When this is transferred to the school environment, it would appear that a unique academic reality exists for
Mexican adolescents in the second range where progress via study, or where knowledge as the basic skills for life development, are not in their control but rather in the control of government, climate, religion, etc., make it useless to strive for something that offers no profit or utility in daily and future life.

The second and third highest average scores within this second range were for the subscales of happiness and popularity, with 54.8 and 54.6 points respectively. Because the interaction between the individual and his or her culture-community has the force of an axiom (Díaz-Guerrero, 1979), the previous scores show an interrelation between the popularity of their school or community and the happiness perceived by these adolescents with low academic achievement.

The communities of these students tend to be considered high risk for their crime rates. Insofar as these students' personality characteristics, some are very talkative or extroverted, and in their community-neighborhoods the most socially valued people are fun, cheerful, carefree, and engaged in commerce (possibly licit or not), so that study is not very common nor socially very esteemed. The average for anxiety was the third highest average with 54.4 points in this second range. The lowest score within this second range was in the behavior-responsibility subscale with only 45.3 points. They are students who in effective concordance with the Piers questionnaire; they can be counted on for any physical or extracurricular activity such as dance and civic ceremonies. They are the life of the group and the most difficult for the teacher to discipline.

Graphic 2: Subscales in the second range

Third Range

There were 20 respondents with low scores (260-230) on the global self-concept scale and with grade averages for all subjects in the third "bimester" (a period of two months in Mexico for evaluating in basic schools) and elementary school (averages between 7 and 8). The highest average was in the subscale for anxiety with 50.7 points. This is probably due to the strong sense of obedience as a duty, which is implicit in the sense of religiosity and the sense of vulnerability since the period of the Spanish Conquest.

It may be that the self-concept among these adolescents is no more than a mirror reflecting what the student believes others think of him or her. It is congruent with the fact that the highest score was on the subscale for anxiety, taking second place in anxiety among the four ranges.
The second highest score was in the subscale for academic achievement or feeling with an average of 48.4 points. When analyzing the responses regarding the relationship with their parents, it may be deduced that these youth often manifest the great pressure they receive from their guardians. They feel they cannot let their averages fall, even if they do not feel capable or proficient, perhaps due to various causes such as not comprehending the knowledge, overwhelming fear of being discovered, mistreatment by their parents and teachers who introjected the idea they are less capable or deserving if they do not obtain good grades.

Piers (1984) agrees with this by recognizing that some aspects of the child’s self-assessment may represent internalizations of judgments from important others, whether family, friends, or teachers.

The lowest average in this range was in the subscale of popularity with an average of a mere 27.8 points. It may be inferred that expression of affiliative obedience and resignation described by Pérez-Lagunas & Díaz-Guerrero (1992) (cf. Andrade, 2008), since these categories refer to sacrifice and to care for others before oneself, as well as to following traditional norms set by the culture and in the social systems.

Probably due to his worldview of dependence on nature and religion, luck, and physical beauty, these adolescents use their intelligence to its fullest in the academic field because, even if they could succeed, religious, political, economic, and even natural circumstances may change everything. Thus it is useless striving for something beyond one’s control, such as studying in junior high school.

Graphic 3: Subscales in the third range

Fourth Range

The fourth range of scores was a set of 27 questionnaires with low scores in the self-concept scale (225-215 total points) and low grade averages in the third grading period and primary school (averages of 6 to 7). The highest score in these was on the subscale of anxiety with an average of 45.6. They may be naïve youth, non-autonomous regarding the opinions of others. Rogers (1981) held that children acquire an external locus of appreciation in the search for love from others, endorsing the value judgments of others and taking them as their own.

The second highest score was found in the second subscale of academic achievement and feelings toward the school. In coping with daily or academic problems, the majority of adolescents with low academic achievement and low self-concept scores do not desire or do not believe there is much they can do to resolve an academic conflict, as if the problem were beyond their control.
Adolescents with low academic performance and low self-concept scores characterize themselves with adjectives such as introverted, with features of authoritarianism, more lazy, frustrated, and sad. This set of traits poses a problem linked to their temperament and personality.

Perhaps due to their low self-esteem, beyond introversion or their antisocial behavior, these adolescents are considered outmoded, sometimes losers or "misfits." Phillips (1984) names as the illusion of incompetence the fact that otherwise capable children do not have a positive perception of their own abilities.

According to the questionnaire responses, these teens in the fourth range feel more insecure relative their goals, more dependent on everyone to achieve of their expectations, and do not enjoy competitive or team work. This signifies that their vision of the future is very unclear, a very obscure conception of tomorrow and the possibility of setting or meeting possible goals. Most of them think they are very confused about how to succeed.

Of these students have a concept of past and future supported to a great extent by an external locus of control, or a possible external control over their own lives. They have a vision of life where luck and fate, along with the personal characteristics of being likable, sympathetic, and obedient, are more important than effort for personal progress and development.

These students in the fourth range, as may be appreciated, had very low popularity ratings with 29.3 points. Self-esteem is related to behavior and social adjustment insofar as their tendency to approach or avert from the group, to resist initiating social contacts and, with that, provoke rejection behavior in others. This concurs with how adolescents see themselves and how they believe others perceive them.

The lowest score was on the behavior subscale, with an average of only 28.7 points. These students have not developed positive feelings toward the school; they present behavioral problems. In the surveys among students with low academic achievement, a number of similar factors were identified, associated with lower interpersonal trust and related to poor academic achievement. According to the questionnaire, we could say that in most family relationships, these children involve themselves less in resolving everyday or academic problems.
Conclusion

The 152 Mexican adolescents in the first range have a positive academic self-concept and high academic achievement, and are characterized by obedience and filiation. They are students who are in the process of becoming autonomous, with a locus of internal control.

The students belonging to the second range of data do not necessarily obtain higher academic achievement, there is a greater positive academic self-concept, nor a lower academic achievement, and there is a low or negative self-concept. The 101 students belonging to the second range consider themselves to be and demonstrate their ability to learn, even when they did not have a high grade average (result, achievement, or good grades) they could obtain it if they set themselves to it. However they are not interested in this because they do not perceive it to be useful for their future work life, entertaining or enjoyable.

In the third range, with 20 students, the generally passive character (which is also generated by school overpopulation) and dependent personality of Mexican adolescents surveyed maintains its grade averages between 7 and 8 due to obedience, status, fear, and membership in a school, social, or family group.

These are passive students with a locus of external control (perhaps due to a state of helplessness that goes back to times of the Spanish Conquest, although the contemporary defenselessness manifests itself in a lack of perception of skills in producing knowledge, also related to a worldview of dependency), so that they may not feel a need for new experiences of autonomous learning outside of their school, religious, family, and, social contexts.

The fourth range had 27 students surveyed with low self-concept and low grades. It is noteworthy that poor academic achievement is perhaps the result not only of the pupils perceiving themselves with the skills necessary for achievement or consider their use beneficial or not, but rather find in the family, social, and school contexts the cause or motivation to “deploy” such capabilities. In some families and cultures, such as the Mexican, competitiveness is often considered negative.

We may also conclude that possessing minimal documentation to enter the working world, difficult economic situation, abuse (since the Spanish Conquest), and corruption have modified negatively the perception of academic achievement and academic self-concept, because learning in and of itself is not very useful, (“Why know academically if foreigners are the ones who know, those that are worthy in the production-research of new technologies?”). In addition to being beyond the control of some other adolescents who need the presence of authority to learn or to work (also dating from the Spanish Conquest), where high or minimally passing marks and not learning are perhaps of greater value. In large classroom groups of 50 students, they must be seated and quiet in order to have vision-control over all the students and be able to hear somebody or give them instructions.

References


Innovation in International Business

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Abstract

Nowadays, international business has a relevant role in the global economy. This is due to the connection that international business has with globalization. Also, innovation has a key role in the development of international business. Innovation is considered like the basic dynamic of today economy development. The role of innovation can be evaluated, by other stakeholders who operate in the same market, as an important factor of increasing the company’s value. A country that is interested to has his own innovation in order to develop his national economy, has to establish research and development centres, research institutes, universities, etc. Globalization development is associated with the development of basic rights for the protection and the development of "global products". Different countries vary in the extent to which they protect intellectual property and enforce intellectual property regulations. The presence of strong, enforceable, consistent property rights serves to make the world flatter. However, as long as significant differences in property rights exist around the globe, the world will be far from flat with respect to innovation. In this paper, we will focus in intellectual property. We will explain what the intellectual property is, and what are the types of intellectual property. Further, we will see the differences in legislation that different countries have in the protection of intellectual property. At the end of this paper we will focus at the innovation of the business in Europe and in Albania.

Keywords: international business, globalization, intellectual property

Introduction

1. The importance of research and development in International Business.

Communications and other technologies are flattening the world in regard to innovation, enabling innovation activities to be located anywhere, while the absence of legal property rights protections in some areas work against this flattener. The function of international R&D is to increase the speed and effectiveness with which a firm can innovate. Innovation is considered as the basic dynamic of today economy development. Nowadays, innovations can be considered as one of production factors against the other factors such as workforce, capital(equity), etc. The role of innovation can be evaluated, by other stakeholders who operate in the same market, as an important factor of increasing the company’s value.

Today, companies labelled as ‘global companies’ would not survive for a long if they do not have the R & D department, which enable them to invent new products or services. Although, the high cost that the R & D department has, it is a necessity of time.
The most important companies are those who produce wisdom or create new value. These are companies that in the most of time invest in the research and the development of new products. These companies invest 5% to 20% of their budget for R&D.

At the beginning governments have played a large role in the inception of R&D, mainly to fund research for military applications for war efforts. Today, governments still play a big role in innovation because of their ability to fund R&D. A government can fund R&D directly, by offering grants to universities and research centres or by offering contracts to corporations for performing research in a specific area. Governments can also provide tax incentives for companies that invest in R&D. Countries vary in the tax incentives that they give to corporations that invest in R&D. By giving corporations a tax credit when they invest in R&D, governments encourage corporations to invest in R&D in their countries. Finally, governments can promote innovation through investments in infrastructure that will support new technology.

2. Intellectual property and intellectual property types.

Companies, that increase investment in research to gain financial profit through innovations, must have legal protection for these inventions. The system of law related to R&D and innovation is referred to as intellectual property rights. Different countries vary in the extent to which they protect intellectual property and enforce intellectual property regulations.

**Intellectual property** refers to creations of the mind— inventions, literary and artistic works, and symbols, names, and images used in commerce. The term *property* connotes ownership that’s exclusive, but the owners have the right to license or sell their IP. Under intellectual property law, owners are granted certain exclusive rights to the discoveries, inventions, words, phrases, symbols, and designs they create.

**A patent** is an exclusive right granted for an invention, whether a product or a process, which must be industrially applicable (useful), be new (novel) and exhibit a sufficient “inventive step” (be nonobvious). A patent provides protection for the invention to the owner of the patent. The protection is granted for a limited period, generally twenty years from the filing date.

**A trademark** is a distinctive sign, which identifies certain goods or services as those produced or provided by a specific person or enterprise. The system helps consumers identify and purchase a product or service because its nature and quality, indicated by its unique trademark, meets their needs.

**A trademark** is a distinctive sign that identifies certain goods or services as those produced or provided by a specific person or enterprise. A trademark uniquely identifies the source of the product. The system helps consumers identify and purchase a product or service because its nature and quality, indicated by its unique trademark, meets their needs.

**Trade Secrets** are any confidential business information which provides an enterprise with a competitive edge can qualify as a trade secret. A trade secret may relate to technical matters, such as the composition or design of a product, a method of manufacture or the know-how necessary to perform a particular operation. Common items that are protected as trade secrets include manufacturing processes, market research results, consumer profiles, lists of suppliers and clients, price lists, financial information, business plans, business strategies, advertising strategies, marketing plans, sales plans and methods, distribution methods, designs, drawings, architectural plans, blueprints and maps, etc.

**A copyright** is the body of laws which grants authors, artists and other creators protection for their literary and artistic creations, which are generally referred to as “works.” A closely associated field of rights related to copyright is “related rights”, which provides rights similar or identical to those of copyright, although sometimes more limited and of shorter duration.
2.1. Intellectual Rights protection

The US government’s Office of the United States Trade Representative (USTR) monitors intellectual property rights around the world and fights IP theft because IP theft impacts the 18 million Americans whose livelihood depends on IP protection. The USTR evaluates countries and rates them according to how those countries enforce IP rights. Report is an annual review of the global state of IPR protection and enforcement issued by the USTR. The worst offenders are put on a “Priority Watch List.” The countries on the 2010 Priority Watch list are China, Russia, Algeria, Argentina, Canada, Chile, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Thailand, and Venezuela. China, which has been on the Watch List before, continues to be on the list not only because of IP theft and counterfeiting but also because of government practices that severely restrict the market for foreign goods while giving favored treatment to “indigenous innovation. The Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland were all removed from the Watch List because they took significant steps to clamp down on piracy and counterfeiting.

The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations that works to harmonize the intellectual property laws of countries around the world. Although the roots of the WIPO go back to 1883, WIPO became an agency of the United Nations in 1974, with a mandate to administer intellectual property matters recognized by the member states of the UN. In 1996, WIPO expanded its role and further demonstrated the importance of intellectual property rights in the management of globalized trade by entering into a cooperation agreement with the World Trade Organization (WTO). Today, WIPO seeks to harmonize national intellectual property legislation and procedures, to provide services for international applications for industrial property rights, to exchange intellectual property information, to provide legal and technical assistance to developing and other countries and to facilitate the resolution of private intellectual property disputes.

2.2. The protection of intellectual property in Albania

The main institutions responsible for administering and monitoring the rights of industrial and intellectual property in Albania are:

- General Directory of Licenses and Brands: the mission of this institution is to strengthen the protection of industrial property inside the Albania territory through the recognition and/or registration of these rights and through the creation of conduct sheets of applicable rights and laws in Albania. Since 2009, the General Directory of Licenses and Brands uses database system for industrial property, IPAS (Industrial Property Automated System), installed from WIPO in 2006, is used in order to register the international applications for the registration of brands in an electronic way according to the Treaty of Madrid and the Protocol Of Madrid. The implementation of IPAS has accelerated the processing of applications and has improved the accuracy of the data in connection with the subjects of industrial property, and this is important for the processes developed before the General Directory of Licenses and Brands, the public in general and the implementation of industrial property rights in particular. It also provides an electronic circulation of data in support of the publication of the Bulletin in an electronic version in the webpage of the General Directory of Licenses and Brands.
- Albanian Office of Copyright: it is a central institution, a legal and public person, assigned by the Ministry of Tourism, Culture, Youth and Sports to fulfill the obligations of Albania in the field of copyright. This office is created as a result of the immediate need to fight piracy and the violation of intellectual property that exists in Albania. The duties of the office are focused on:
  - Raising the awareness of public into the general matters of copyright and other rights connected to it, in collaboration with a number of organs of the central government.
  - The monitoring of the protection of copyright and other rights connected to it.
  - The creation of an appropriate system of collective administration of copyright.

The General Directory of Licenses and Brands and The Albanian Office of Copyright are the main responsible institutions, engaged directly with the matters of industrial property, intellectual property and copyright in Albania. They collaborate with a number of other institutions, which support their work. These institutions are: General Directory of State Police and General Directory of Customs.
General Directory of State Police. The structure inside this directory, responsible for the cases of copyright, is The Directory Against Financial Crime, which deals penal acts in the economic sector, regulated by the Penal Code. Practically, the directory faces a lot of difficulties regarding copyright in Albania. Unfortunately, the Albanian market is filled with forged goods, mainly imported and only a small part produced in Albania. Legislation may be considered as a major problem regarding the treatment of forged goods and brands. Currently, the Penal Code does not provide any appropriate measure which can be taken for these actions. Until now, the police have been trying to react based on act 109 “Falsification of seals, stamps and forms” and act 288 “Illegal production of industrial and food products”, but none of the mentioned provisions can be used in the case of forged products. The reason is that act 109 is usually not applied and act 288 is only applied if production happens. This is the reason why no measure against the violator can be taken and this violator can’t be punished or imprisoned, because in most of the cases forged goods and brands are not produced in Albania and no factory of production is found in the country. However, the involved institutions have proposed concrete changes of the Penal Code(act 147,148,149 are in particular dedicated to falsification and fraud in works of art, culture, publication of somebody else’s work under your name, production of a work without the authorization of authors.) and the Code of Penal Procedure(act 59 and 284). The changes are part of the legislative framework of Ministry of Justice for 2010. The changes must help the police to efficiently protect the rights of intellectual property in Albania.

General Directory of Customs. Albania Customs Administration has a legal obligation to control all products, means of transport and the passengers that pass the border in any territory under the sovereignty of the Albanian state. Currently, through this directory, customs authorities have the right to:

- React based on the formal request of the owner of the copyright
- React based on ex officio
- Block the products
- Take temporary measures in the cases when the owner of the copyright is able to prove the violation of intellectual property rights
- Destroy pirated and forged products

The two mentioned institutions, regarding the object of their work, have a weak connection with the subject of the General Directory of Licenses and Brands. As a matter of fact, functional schemes of the Sector of Fight against Economic Crime and the Directory of Intellectual Property Defense do not have an integrating structure with the functional processes of the General Directory of Licenses and Brands and the Albanian Office of Copyright.

3. Innovation in the businesses in Europe

A dynamic business environment is essential in promoting and spreading innovation. The real challenge is about using the research and development (R & D) through ventures and creativity to encourage innovation and economical competition. Therefore, the measures that aim the spreading of knowledge and absorption of ideas and innovations, for example, through the creation of technological markets and licensing schemes, are as important as the investments in knowledge.

Almost half of the enterprises in EU contribute in the activity of innovation. (Fig.3.1)

The intellectual ownership is mostly developed in the European region, because of the fact that a lot of European businesses have created their brands. The creation of different brands has brought the innovation in the international business. European companies have applied for international patents because they require protection for all the ideas, products or services that they have launched and developed. The European companies have developed many brands, which helps in developing the rights of the intellectual ownership. Another innovation that had an impact in the development of the European businesses is the creation of departments of research and development. They have played the main role in the development and success of the European companies, thing that is witnessed by the statistical data (Fig.3.2).

It is noticed that from year to year there is an increase in applications for trend and brand protection. In 1997 there was a decrease of the applications and in 1998 there was a gradual increase. There was also a fluctuation during the years 2000-2003, but then it was followed by a continuous increase after 2004.
3.1. The European investments in the Research-development department

The indicator called “gross domestic expenses in the department of research-development” indicates the percentage of the gross domestic production (GDP) dedicated to the research and development. It is referred as the “intensity of research-development” and it mirrors the degree of research and innovation undertaken in a country in the aspect of resource contribution.

The data in the following tables show a prolonged stagnation of the internal gross expenses in research and development (R & D) in about 1.81% of the gross domestic product (GDP) for the period 2002-2007. From 2009, in the start of the economical crisis, R & D was increased in 1.94%. From 2011 it has continued with a small increase, with a stability in 2.03% in 2013 and 2014. One of the reasons for the increase in the middle of 2007 and in 2009 is the decrease of the GDP faster than the general expenses of research-development R & D (see the Report of Competition Union Innovation 2011). Between 2007 and 2009, GDP fell by 5.1% in EU-28, while the R & D expenses decreased with only 3.4%. The actions taken by the individual member states to increase the investments in R & D during the low increase of the GDP helped in increasing the intensity of R & D in that period. In 2009, many member states had a nominal increase in the expenses of research and development to object the impact of crisis in the private investments (see the Report of Competition Union Innovation 2013). Although the increase of public and private research and the expenses for development in the period 2007-2014, EU moved in its accomplishment 3% of the objective. The evaluations show that for 2020, R & D must be accomplished; the annual rate of growth of R&D of the EU must be increased more than three times comparing to 2007-2014 (the period -6.7% vs 1.9%), (see Science, research and innovation Performance of EU). In global level, EU is still behind other players, as the United States, Japan and South Korea. (Fig.3.3)

The following table shows the leaders of innovation in Europe (Fig.3.4)

4. Innovation in businesses in Albania

The Albanian government was maximally engaged in reforms that aim the creation of a proper environment of fair competition. In July 2016, the Council of Ministers approved “the National Strategy for the Intellectual Ownership”, 2016-2020. This strategy is an intersectional document that crowns one of the efforts of the government in establishing a comprehensive dialogue between different actors, to create suitable conditions for respecting and protecting the intellectual ownership.

In a specific way, the strategy aims the promotion of the Albanian economy towards an innovative economy based in knowledge. A part of this strategy is ensuring the rights of the Intellectual Property, the proper function of the justice system, as well as the modernization of the institutions involved in the system.

4.1. The increase of applications for the products and services of the intellectual ownership in the last three years

From the statistical data, the number of the object registrations of PI that come from the membership in conventions and agreements over the Industrial Ownership, are increasing in the last years. This shows that the Albanian territory is becoming more and more attractive for the foreign companies who show interest for expanding the protection through registration in Albania. If we refer to the statistics, about 97.5% of all registered patents in DPPM are patents issued by the Office of European Patents (OEP) and have expanded or have become valuable in Albania.

In the list of 20 first places that had the right for patenting in Albania during the period 1997-2015, are multinational pharmaceutical and chemical foreign companies. These companies own about 40% of the patents registered in the republic of Albania. It is important that in the period 2013-2016 the number of applications for patents from Albanian inventors has risen year after year. An increase is seen also in the applications from the international agreements about the patents, concretely 25% comparing to 2015, 59.8% comparing to 2014 and 90% comparing to 2013.
The following table (Tab.4.1) shows the number of applications and the total of the patents from Albanian citizens, European patents and the patents from the treaty of cooperation about the patents.

For the applications for the protection of the brands in Albania we can say that in the year 2015, DPPM accepted 3492 brand applications, having a considerable increase compared to the year 2014, when there were only 3319 applications accepted and 3282 applications accepted in 2013. There was an increase in the number of the Albanian applications that till November 2016 it was 561 compared to 509 applications in 2015, 421 in 2014 and 376 applications in 2013. From the agreement and the Madrid Protocol till November 2016 have been deposited 2124 applications, 2555 applications in 2015, compared to the year 2014 when were deposited 2414 applications and 2507 in 2013.

In the increase of the number of the national applications the most impactful factors were the economical growth, the increasing of the number of the registered new local businesses, the empowering of those existent, the increase in the range of the products that they produce and also the work of the employees of DPPM in spreading the awareness among the businesses about the importance of the registration of their brands. From the number of applications from foreign owners, we notice that in total there is an increase in the number of the foreign applications from 2898 in 2014, in 2984 in 2015, so 86 more applications than in 2015. This is because many people who make business for the first time in different countries have found it more reasonable the international way of application for registration, because the Agreement and the Madrid Protocol provides more facilities; from the application method (through the application in many countries at the same time), to cheaper fee, using only one foreign language eliminating the need for more authorized representatives.

The following table (Tab.4.2) shows the number of the requests from Albanian applicants, the number of the requests from foreign applicants and the number of requests for registration in the Agreement and the Madrid Protocol in the last 3 years.

There are three ways for registering patents in Albania:

- Applications for patents that appear directly in the DPPM as a national application;
- Applications for patents through the Treaty of Collaboration for the Patents (TCP);
- Patents issued from the European Office of the Patents (EOP) and that require extension of protection in Albania.

Almost all the patents valid in Albania are patents granted in EOP and have effect in Albania according to the EOP agreement or according to the European Convention about the Patents (ECP).

About 97.5% of all patents registered in DPPM are patents issued by the Office of European Patents (OEP) and are extended or made valid in Albania. This means that almost all the patents in power in Albania are given by the OEP and are part of a big family of patents that are protected even in other countries members of ECP.

From 1997 to 2015, have only been 68 applications for patents by Albanian applicants directly in DPPM, which is 1.16% of the total applications.

The applications from the universities and research institutions represent a little more than 2% of the applications for patents in DPPM. The low number of applications for patents from the universities has been constant the whole time. Universities and research institutes which apply for the protection of patents in Albania, are mainly located in the countries of EU and USA and their applications are mainly focused in applications for pharmaceutical and chemical patents.

Most of the foreign companies, which have their patents protected in Albania, do not have their brands registered.

Conclusions

- The function of international R&D is to increase the speed and effectiveness with which a firm can innovate.
- Innovation is considered as the basic dynamic of today economy development.
- Today, companies labelled as ‘global companies’ would not survive for a long if they do not have the R & D department, which enable them to invent new products or services.
- Governments play a big role in innovation because of their ability to fund R&D.
Governments can promote innovation through investments in infrastructure that will support new technology.

- The system of law related to R&D and innovation is referred to as intellectual property rights.
- Intellectual property refers to creations of the mind—inventions, literary and artistic works, and symbols, names, and images used in commerce.
- Types of intellectual property are: patents, trademarks, trade secrets and copyrights.
- The US government's Office of the United States Trade Representative (USTR) monitors intellectual property rights around the world and fights IP theft.
- The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations that works to harmonize the intellectual property laws of countries around the world.
- The main institutions in Albania responsible for administering and monitoring industrial and intellectual property are: General Directorate of Patents and Trademarks, Albanian Office for Copyrights, General Directorate of State Police and General Directorate of Customs.
- Intellectual Property is very developed in Europe, this is due to the fact that many European businesses have created their brands and they have developed their R&D departments.
- Albanian government is very committed to reforms aimed at creating an enabling environment for fair competition.
- For the period 2013-2016 the number of patent applications from Albanian inventors has noticeably increased year after year.
- Also, applications from international agreements on patents have significantly increased, namely 25% compared to 2015, compared with 59.8% in 2014 and 90% compared with 2013.
- Also, there is an increase in the number of foreign applications from 2898 to 2014, 2984 to 2015, then 86 more applications in 2015.

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Tab. 4.2: The number of applicants for the registration from the Agreement and the Madrid Protocol during the last 4 years.

Fig 3.1: Enterprises according to the type of innovation, Source: Eurostat 2012

Fig. 3.2: The number of applications for brand and patent protection in Europe and in the world. Source: WIDO 2015

Fig.3.3: The Gross domestic expenses in R&D, Source: Eurostat 2015
Fig. 3.4: The leaders of innovation in Europe,

Source: Eurostat 2015
Abstract

Nowadays, women involved in working life with the industrial revolution provide their labor as much as men and are affected by the risk factors in the workplace as much as men. Women are more affected by the psychosocial risk factors because of gender roles and they are also more affect society because of important central role in the family. Psychosocial risks that is one of the occupational health and safety risk factors affect employee attitude and performance to work at least as much as the other risk factors. In this study, researchers aim that reveal awareness’s about psychosocial risk factors in their workplace in metal industries in Turkey. In addition, negative attitudes of workers about occupational health and safety practices will be examined with attribution theories in social psychology. In this study, we used qualitative method. Data were collected with focus group study at eight different groups in two different days from woman member of Turkish Metal Union in Bursa city in Turkey. Totally 155 employees participated in the focus groups study. Job satisfaction, job stress, wellness, the relationship with coworkers and managers were evaluated in this study. This study was supported and funded (Project USIP (İ) 2014/7) by the Scientific Research Projects Commission of Uludag University cooperated with Turkish Metal Union. According to the obtained results, work stress emerges as an important psychosocial risk factor. In addition to, stress and lack of communication are important factors causing job dissatisfaction.

Keywords: Occupational Health and Safety, Psychosocial Risks, Women Workers, Metal Industry, Attribution theories.

Introduction

Women, who participated in workforce with the Industrial Revolution, engage today in labor and get affected by workplace risk factors at least as much as men do. They are influenced more by psychosocial risks, which are among the occupational health and safety risk factors, due to their duties arising from gender and cultural practices. In return, they also influence the society more since they form the core of the family.

Psychosocial assessments first appeared in the 1950s. With the rise of working psychology, the effect of psychosocial aspects of working environment on health gained prominence. Psychosocial risk factors affect workers’ health through stress to a considerable extent, either explicitly or implicitly (Korkut, 2014:3).

In a guide prepared by the Psychosocial Risk Management Excellence Framework (PRIMA-EF) Consortium created by the World Health Organization for the identification and prevention of psychosocial risk factors, work-related psychosocial risks are handled under ten categories (Leka ve Cox, 2008:2). These risks are: Job Content, Workload and Pace of Work, Work Schedule, Control, Environment and Equipment, Organizational Culture, Interpersonal Relationships at Work, Career Development, Role in the Workplace, Home-Work Interface. In addition to these; stress, violence, bullying and harassment at workplace are also considered psychosocial risks.

Psychosocial threats have a negative impact on workers’ physical as well as social health either implicitly or explicitly. The subject threats might lead to workplace stress; and workplace stress, in turn, might result in physical or psychological
diseases (Vatansever, 2014:126). Psychosocial risks that workers face reduce their quality of life and as a consequence, both their job satisfaction and work performance are affected negatively (Çakmak et al., 2012:56).

It can be suggested that handling occupational health and safety subject in terms of engineering aspect alone will not suffice. Considering the fact that most occupational accidents stem from human-related factors, such issues as workers’ violation of some occupational health and safety rules due to their prejudice or again workers’ perception of causes and risks of accidents in different ways can be explained with the help of psychology (Seçer, 2012:32).

According to results of studies by National Safety Council, which carries out significant research in the USA, 18% of occupational accidents occur due to mechanical factors while 19% and 63% of the accidents result from individual reasons and from mechanical and individual factors combined, respectively. According to data from the Department of Labor and Industry of the State of Pennsylvania, 3% of the accidents stem from mechanical factors and 2% from factors related to workers while the remaining 95% are the result of the combination of these two factors (Camkurt, 2013:70).

In Turkey, some research has been done to reveal the reasons for occupational accidents. Of this research, in Haksöz’s study (1985) unsafe behaviors and not using personal protective gear were cited as the reasons for 95% of occupational accidents while technical reasons were named as the cause of 5% of the accidents. On the other hand, Çelikkol (1977) indicated production instruments/equipments and unfavorable environmental conditions as the reason for the 20% of the accidents. He named human factor as the cause of the remaining 80%. According to Kepir (1981), on the other hand, 2% of the accidents were beyond human control while 10% were connected to mechanical shortcomings and 88% to human factor. As these findings suggest human factor holds the first place in occupational accidents (Camkurt, 2007:81).

If occupational health and safety is addressed in relation to risk factors, it is seen that psychology is utilized for the assessment of workers’ behaviors. Attribution theory, a social psychology theory, offers an understanding of the reasons for occupational accidents (Seçer, 2012:32).

According to Heider, who is regarded as the founder of the attribution theory, there exists a general theory by which individuals explain their behavior. He calls this “naïve psychology”. Humans satisfy two needs by means of attribution (ascription): attaining a consistent view of the world and gaining control over their surroundings. The goal of these needs is being able to foresee how people will behave (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010:248).

As it is also shown in Figure 1 on general attribution process, internal or external stimulus is reorganized by beliefs and structured by cognitions. In the end, the subject cognitions shape behavior.

![General Attribution Process Diagram](https://example.com/attribution_diagram.png)

**Figure 1: General Attribution Process, Reference:** Glendon et al., 2006:86
According to Heider, human attributions are made in two forms namely internal and external. **Internal attribution** is the explanation that assumes the cause of a given behavior is the internal characteristics of an individual. Here, internal characteristics refer completely to personal characteristics such as the personality, attitudes, abilities, efforts, mood of the individual. **External attribution** is the act of explaining the cause of a given behavior through situations, other people or behaviors which are beyond the control of the individual. For example, other people’s behaviors, fate, luck, the circumstances an individual is subject to, the equipment and material used etc. (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010:248-249). Kelley (1967) analyzed the process of making internal and external attributions in Heider’s attribution theory based on details and multiple observations and developed the “Covariation Model”. In this model, he indicated that people rely on three main categories for the causes of behaviors or actions when explaining a social occasion. According to this, people seek the causes in the actor, stimulus or in a given situation or circumstance (Hogg et al., 2014).

Attribution theory is crucial for understanding what the problem stems from in occupational safety practices and for taking more efficient measures. If occupational health and safety is analyzed within the framework of attribution theories, internal and external attributions appear in the causal explanations of occupational accidents. Indeed, if the relevant literature is reviewed, it is noteworthy to see workers usually tend to make external attributions while managers prefer making internal attributions (Secer, 2012:40). Table 1 shows the internal and external factors in workers’ causal explanations concerning occupational accidents.

### Table 1: External and Internal Factors in Causal Explanations for Job Accidents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Factors</th>
<th>Internal Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low wages</td>
<td>Lack of qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saving time</td>
<td>Professional arrogance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excessive workload</td>
<td>Loss of attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defective equipment</td>
<td>Abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate training</td>
<td>Lack of comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pressure of administration</td>
<td>Being a victim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors of colleagues</td>
<td>Risky business behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentration loss</td>
<td>Inexperience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational procedures</td>
<td>Carelessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect assignment</td>
<td>Flaunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad luck</td>
<td>Do not care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious Belief</td>
<td>Feeling of job security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor management</td>
<td>Mood, having a bad day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty of task and uncertainty</td>
<td>Fatigue and burnout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No suitable equipment</td>
<td>Deliberate neglect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reference:** Gyekye, 2010:408.

In social psychology, studies on how we interpret and explain the events in the world defined three types of errors that affect our attributions and explanations. Attribution is regarded as a rational process. Here, an observer tries to identify the causes of events or behaviors in a rational framework. However, individuals have difficulty maintaining objectivity when evaluating the causality of success or failure, that is, they tend to behave in a biased manner. Behavior occurs as a result of the interaction between individuals’ personal characteristics and external factors. Yet, we tend to explain the reasons for a given social behavior on the basis of personal characteristics instead of situational characteristics. This is referred to as **fundamental attribution error** (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010:255; Gross, 2016; Moran et al, 2014:570).

Another attribution error is observer-actor bias. In this respect, individuals tend to explain their own behaviors through environmental factors while they tend to explain the causes of others’ behaviors through those individuals’ personalities. Another type of error refers to **errors that are about the self**. These are addressed as self-serving biases. That is individuals tend to assign the cause of their success to internal factors while they attribute their failures to external factors. The bias as a result of which individuals tend to think that others share the same opinion with them is also an attribution error (Kızgün et al., 2012:66; Berry et al. 2015:47).

**Material and Method**
In this work carried out in cooperation with Uludağ University and Turkish Metal Union (Research Project (BAP-USIP (İ) 2014/7), data were collected by means of focus group research method, a qualitative data collection method. Results from these data were compared to the results of the data which had previously been collected for a project via survey method, a quantitative method.

Focus group studies refer to a data collection method in which attention should be devoted both to both participants' statements and the social context of the statements in accordance with the instructions set before the procedure and by giving particular importance to the personal subjectivity of participants. Focus group method, in this regard, is a research method that explores the behaviors a set of groups or subgroups engage in consciously, unconsciously or semi-consciously, while also aiming to inquire their psychological and socio-cultural traits and to understand the reasons for their behavior (Çokluk et al., 2011:97-98). Focus group research is a qualitative data collection method that is carried out in accordance with a list of instructions which are set before the procedure. This method requires one to give particular importance to the personal subjectivity of participants and to devote attention to both participants' statements and the social context of these statements. And in doing so, the logic behind the subject method should be given due consideration (Çokluk et al., 2011; 99).

In this method, interviews are conducted by a person who is competent in the research topic, with the help of questioning and summarizing techniques for obtaining information about participants' opinions and experiences. Next, a synthesis is made using the assessments, concerns and opinions which are identified in the analysis of the resultant data (Güzel, 2006:2). Questions used in the interviews are open-ended and allow free interpretation. As to the linguistic style, questions are in the form of conversation and use daily language (Arlı, 2013:175).

The study group consists of female workers who are members of Turkish Metal Union. Total number of female members organized by the Bursa Branch of Turkish Metal Union is 2599. The study used purposive sampling method. Purposive sampling methods have completely evolved as part of the qualitative research method. Purposive sampling allows a thorough investigation of situations that are believed to offer bulk of information (Yıldırım et al., 2006). In this sampling method, criteria that are considered significant are set and the sample is selected in accordance with those criteria. The resultant sample is believed to represent all the properties of the research population (Tavşancıl et al., 2001). Thus, in the current study, purposive sampling method was adopted and focus group interviews were conducted with the study group. Interviewees were selected, with the help of the union representatives, on a voluntary basis from among female workers employed at different enterprises. It was ensured that they came to the recreational facility of the union after working hours so as to attend the interviews. A total of 155 participants were asked questions about their opinions.

An “interview form” was developed by the researchers in order to ask opinions of blue collar female workers in the metal industry regarding their risk awareness on occupational health and safety at workplace. In the preparation of the interview questions, the survey form “risk awareness concerning occupational health and safety”, which is also an area of interest of the current research and which was used formerly for a quantitative survey study with female workers at their workplace, was utilized.

In the study, data were obtained through focus group studies which were conducted on two days with groups of 8-10 involving female workers employed in the metal industry in Bursa province and 2 researchers. Data were recorded in written form by interviewers of each group. In the first place, participants were informed about the objective of the study. After they introduced themselves, interviews began. Female workers were asked the following questions:

Do they consider occupational health and safety training offered at their workplaces sufficient?
Do they use protective gear in line with OHS? If so, do the materials really ensure protection?
How do they evaluate their relationship/communication with their colleagues and managers at workplace?
What are the sources of occupational or workplace stress for them?

The interview form consists of open-ended questions. According to Kuş (2009), open-ended questions bring in flexibility to the interview process, allow interviewees more opportunity to talk and help researchers obtain more detailed information.
In the interviews, which were based on questions and answers, the questions were about occupational safety training and practices at workplace, perceived risks of occupational safety, use of personal protective gear and problems associated with them, communication at workplace, work-related stress, mobbing, time pressure and workload.

**Results**

In the study, each participant’s speech was analyzed using the researchers’ records from the focus group interviews and the respective codes for each category were defined. At first, it was checked which of these codes was emphasized by a given participant. The study addressed the clearest and most similar statements instead of all the statements by participants. Participants are encoded as P1, P2 and P3.

In the focus group interviews, workers tended to use mainly external attribution factors. It was claimed that the administration provided either no training, which is actually crucial for occupational safety, or little training in order not to disturb the flow of production. Some of the answers to the relevant questions in the focus group interviews are as follows:

**Q1. Do you consider occupational health and safety training offered at your workplace sufficient?**

**P1.** We are aware of the importance of occupational safety, but our company either doesn’t offer any training or offers only limited training in order not to hinder the workflow. Therefore, we do not think it is sufficient.

**P2.** Training activities are not frequent. Even more, once we were asked to sign a document stating “I have received training” although we hadn’t. I refused to sign and therefore, was asked to write a statement of defense. And so did I. I wrote I did not want to sign any document about a training I hadn’t received. After some time, I was called for an interview with the administration and they said I was right.

**P3.** God saves us from occupational accidents. Otherwise, we do not get any proper training.

**Q2. Do you use protective gear in line with OHS? If so, do the materials really ensure protection?**

Work-appropriate clothes and equipment’s are among the primary components of a safe workplace and safe working conditions. As it was the case with the training questions, workers tended to use mainly external attribution factors in their answers to this question, as well. It is emphasized in their responses that work clothes are not attached due importance and are designed completely for a male’s body type. They do not believe these materials can provide protection because they think their employees cut corners.

**P1.** Knitted gloves that are given to us are short. Thus, as you can also see, my arms have been burnt. (The participant rolls up her sleeve and shows the burn mark on her arm).

**P2.** Our shoes are renewed every 6 months and we get the same type of shoes for all seasons. Thus, particularly in summer, our shoes don’t let air in and our feet get really uncomfortable.

**P3.** In the unit I work, we have to wear gloves all the time. Our gloves are renewed once a month, but actually they get punctured in around a week. Even if we demand a new pair in such cases, they do not accept. Although, under normal conditions, I have to wear gloves on both hands, if one is torn, I turn the one on my less-active hand inside-out and use it that way.

**P4.** We need to use snap-off knives; but, the one they give is too heavy and thick. It doesn’t fit in our hands. Therefore, we get more practical snap-off knives for ourselves. In times of inspection, we hide them and work using the ones that we should actually be using. After the inspection is done, we continue to use our own knives; because what they give is not appropriate for our work. It is not possible to finish the product with these knives within the time they expect us to finish.

**P5.** I had a really bad experience and I can say that it taught me a lesson. Although I have to wear protective glasses, I didn’t. I also wear prescription glasses and I didn’t want to wear two pairs of glasses at a time. While working, a cable, I don’t know how, flew into the air and scratched my eye. Prescription glasses saved my eye. If I had not been wearing them, I would have lost one of my eyes. It was a great lesson for me. Now, I always wear my glasses and warn colleagues who do not wear theirs.

It is seen that P5 tended to make internal attributions as she had a near miss experience.
Q.3. How do they evaluate their relationship/communication with their colleagues and managers at workplace?

If both the internal and external attribution factors are taken into consideration, we encounter "lack of communication" and as a result, the concept of "stress", which is a psychosocial risk factor and affects workers’ performance negatively. Yet, healthy communication with colleagues and managers at workplace would actually influence workers' job satisfaction and increase their organizational loyalty. According to the study findings, workers were found to lack healthy communication means at workplace and to fail building healthy communication with their senior management. Some of the responses workers provided to the questions on communication are as follows:

P.1. We have communication problems with our supervisors and senior management. When we express a complaint, we might be assigned harder tasks or our shift might get changed. This is the way we get punished.

P.2. There was a problem in the engine when manufacturing fuses. Although our colleague in the manufacture line notified them about this problem, they ignored the warning. And so, our colleague greased the engine and kept on the manufacturing process. Later on, a problem occurred in the engine and 20,000 cars were withdrawn. And our colleague in the manufacture line was held responsible and was punished.

P.3. They ignore our warnings and do whatever they want.

P.4. Near miss cases are not reported and recorded.

Q.4. What are the sources of occupational or workplace stress?

Stress emerges as the major psychosocial risk factor that directly affects workers’ performance and job satisfaction. In general terms, these are the factors that lead to workplace stress: excessive or insufficient workload, time pressure, monotony, poor working environment, organization of the workplace, career problems, organizational communication issues, conflicting roles, obscure duties, unfairly low payment and mobbing. It is concluded from the statements from the focus group interviews that stress sources center around the “excessive workload, time pressure and mobbing” factors. Workers are expected to finish a duty they are assigned in a shorter time than it is possible. If this decision/expectation is challenged, workers face mobbing. Some of the responses workers provided to the questions on this topic are as follows:

P.1. We certainly feel time pressure when working. We are expected to work more than we can. For example, they expect us to complete 150 units while the highest possible number that can be achieved is 120 units. I sometimes cannot have a break or I return to work early after lunch breaks as I have to work. Even in this case, it might not be possible to get the entire job done. It reflects on daily life and home. I feel so tense sometimes that I cannot even sleep because of the work-related stress. I wake up unhappy when I have to go to work.

P.2. We suffer from time pressure as they use chronometers to measure time. They expect us to reach maximum production scores. They might even question how many times we go to the restroom.

P.3. We do not have a full-time occupational safety expert at our workplace. Inspections are done every two or three days. Before the inspectors arrive, we are notified and some improvements are made in the working environment. All this job is also done by the workers. With this job and the production duty combined, we are obliged to work faster and therefore experience excessive stress.

P.4. In her remark reading “Whenever we express dissatisfaction with something problematic at work or complain the job is tough, they say if we cannot handle it, the way to the exit is over there.” She mentioned both the inadequate occupational safety practices and time pressure and even the stress caused by psychological pressure.

In the attributions, it is seen that participants sometimes make attribution errors. An observer tries to identify the causes of events or behaviors in a rational framework. Individuals have difficulty maintaining objectivity particularly when evaluating the causality of success or failure, that is, they tend to behave in a biased manner. They attribute success to themselves whereas they attribute failures to external factors. Or else, individuals make fundamental attribution errors as they tend to explain the reasons for their behavior on the basis of situational factors while they prefer to explain others’ behaviors on the basis of personal characteristics. In the present study, workers attribute their safe behavior to the inspection and pressure by the management while they ascribe any occupational accident that might result from unsafe behavior to fate or to employee negligence/management shortcomings.
Discussion and Conclusion

In conclusion, it is noteworthy that in the focus group interviews with female workers from the metal industry, attributions were based mostly on external factors. In relation to this, they stated that senior management doesn’t value human life and that equipment’s are cheap, of low quality and do not meet women’s ergonomic needs. According to their statements, they also suffer from such occupational diseases as low back pain, cervical disc hernia and varicose veins and their occupational physicians do not help them. In other words, equipments, insufficient training, lack of communication, excessive stress, that is, external factors are considered to be the causes of any occupational accident that they might experience. Personal reasons for accidents are not mentioned. As to the lack of communication, there is consensus regarding the fact that OHS related problems are the responsibility of their supervisors, chiefs and managers and that employees are not notified of these issues. Findings also suggest that they are subject to pressure by their managers and that most of this pressure comes from female managers, which in a way is a form of psychological harassment. Apart from these, overwork, workload, problems related to the family and home dilemma resulting from gender roles as a woman, lack of confidence in managers emerge as the factors that increase workplace stress.

As can be understood, workers’ occupational health and safety culture is still to be promoted and workers have not yet internalized safe behavior. It is worth attention that workers attribute occupational accidents mainly to the unsafe attitudes of employees or management.

Another important point is that the former study which was administered in 23 enterprises (with 2599 participants) using quantitative (survey) method and was conducted as part of this project undertaken in cooperation with Uludağ University and Turkish Metal Union reached contradictory findings. In the former study, which adopted quantitative (survey) method, all the survey questions were distributed in envelopes to the participants at their workplace by the union officers, for which prior permission of the managers was asked. Envelopes were returned the next day. In that survey; safe behaviors, risk awareness regarding the sufficiency of measures to ensure occupational health and safety at workplace, and risk perceptions of female workers were evaluated. In general, female workers emphasized that health and safety measures were taken, their awareness increased, managers provided support with all the equipments to reduce occupational accidents and that they were aware of the threats and risks and if safe behavior was not present, this would mostly be their own faults. In other words, they made internal attributions. It was claimed that particularly in corporate companies, occupational health and safety measures were in line with the ones stipulated by the law no. 6331 and other legal regulations. It was also argued that female workers’ risk awareness constituted the basis of safe behavior and that this safety culture was reflected even on home-family lives of female workers (Akalp et al. 2015). In the qualitative (face-to-face/focus group) method, participant female workers came to the recreational facility of the union after working hours and they were asked questions face-to-face in the focus group interviews which were carried out in the form of conversation. As a result of the focus group study, it drew attention that female workers emphasized their managers’ indifference, work-related pressure, workload as well as the fact that they worked under stress and any occupational accident to occur would result from insufficient and poor equipment. In other words, they explained their unsafe behavior by making external attributions.

As it is obvious from the above, problems that are inherent in field research have occurred in the present study as well. Participants’ responses in the qualitative and quantitative studies differed from each other due to the effect of the environment and face-to-face interaction. This indicates that the setting in which qualitative and quantitative studies are carried out as well as the method adopted for these purposes have an effect on participants’ perceptions and responses. In the future, further studies on this topic will need to be undertaken.

References


The Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Psychological Well-being with the Moderating Effects of Mindfulness: A Study of International Students in Taiwan

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Abstract

According to Ministry of Education of Taiwan, numbers of international students studying in Taiwan gradually increased. However, studies showed that their learning outcome is significantly influenced by their psychological well-being (PWB). Therefore, this study examines the factors affecting PWB. In this study, cultural intelligence (CQ) is seen as a potential predictor for PWB. CQ is defined as the ability to deal with different cultural context, and it includes four dimensions, namely cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ. Besides, as people pay more attention to unfamiliar exotic things when being abroad, their consciousness on the present moment, so-called mindfulness, plays an important role for their well-being. Therefore, mindfulness is examined as a moderator in the relationship between CQ and PWB. Quantitative approach is applied in this study. The samples are 110 international students studying in Taiwan. The self-report questionnaire composed by Ryff’s 18-item scale, Cultural Intelligence Scale and Mindful Attention Awareness Scale is distributed on-line. The collected data go through descriptive analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. Results show that metacognitive CQ and PWB has a significant relationship with an $R^2$ of .231. Besides, motivational CQ is positive related to PWB with an $R^2$ of .142. According to the statistic result of this study, future research can put efforts on how to enhance metacognitive and motivational CQ, like designing related cultural program courses before students’ departure, in order to better international students’ PWB.

Keywords: cultural intelligence, psychological well-being, mindfulness, international student

Introduction

The development of technology and the progress of the public transportation have facilitated the mobility of people around the world. Moving across nations becomes easier than before. It causes more and more interactions among people from different countries in different fields. From the educational perspective, more and more students decide to apply for studying abroad program. Take international students in Taiwan for instance, according to Ministry of Education in Taiwan, the statistical numbers of international students studying in college in Taiwan is increasing year by year. In 2011, there were 55463 international students in Taiwan, as time goes by, the number of international students studying in Taiwan went up to 110182 in 2016. Meanwhile, research on international students also become noteworthy nowadays.

Tseng and Newton (2002) indicated that it is worthwhile to find out what and how to make international students’ life abroad better. Some researchers reported that students studying abroad expect to learn languages, experience adventures, gain cultural refinement, develop intercultural competence and learn about themselves (Bowman, 1987; Hoffa, 2007). A study whose participants are 551 international graduate students found out that among them, 44% responded that their academic performance was affected by emotional or stress-related problem during their life abroad (Hyun, Quinn, Madon, & Lustig,
2007). That is to say, a student’s psychological feel is related to determine the condition of their studying abroad life. Therefore, this study aims to examine what might be the potential factors that could positively relate to psychological well-being (PWB) which was defined as an individual’s positive mental state and his or her feeling of functioning well personally and interpersonally (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryff & Singer, 2008).

When going abroad, adjusting themselves to get adaptive to new environment is an important issue individuals need to deal with. Stepping into a different country refers to experiencing a different culture. The ability individuals possess to deal with different cultural context and to get themselves adaptive to new cultural environment is called Cultural Intelligence (CQ; Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ consists of four dimensions: cognitive CQ – knowledge and understanding of culture and how things done in cultural contexts, metacognitive CQ – an individual using his or her understanding of culture to plan, motivational CQ – an individual’s interest and confidence in adjusting oneself into different cultural environment, and behavioral CQ – the ability to behave in different culture. The ability to adapt is related to academic outcomes, and non-academic outcomes as well, including class participation, school enjoyment, life satisfaction, and sense of meaning and purpose, etc (Martin, Nejad, Colmar, & Liem, 2013). Therefore, this study considered CQ a potential antecedent of psychological well-being. On the other hand, people tend to be curious about the unfamiliar and exotic things when studying abroad, and thus they will pay more attention to what is happening at the exact moment, which is called mindfulness – individuals keep their consciousness on the present moment (Hanh, 1976). A study indicated that mindfulness-based interventions are able to improve well-being (Gu, Strauss, Bond, & Cavanagh, 2015). And thus, this study also considers mindfulness a potential moderator in the relationship between CQ and PWB. In short, in order to find out the potential factors that improve international students PWB; meanwhile, to achieve the goal of improving their academic outcomes and their life studying abroad, this study examines the relationship between CQ and PWB and the moderating effect of mindfulness in the relationship between CQ and PWB.

Literature Review

Cultural Intelligence and Well-Being

Between adaptability and well-being, a positive correlation exists. (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massodi, & Rossier, 2013). In addition, adaptability serves as the antecedent of well-being has also been discussed in several research (Mackey, Ellen, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2013; Stoltz, Wolff, Monroe, Mazahreh, & Farris, 2013; Wang, Zhan, Mccune, & Truxillo, 2011). In terms of adaptability, specifically, Kelly and Meyer (1995) defined the adaptability of different culture as cross cultural adaptability – the ability to not only adapt oneself into but also function well in different cultural context. It is divided into four dimensions including Emotional Resilience (ER), Flexibility/Openness (FO), Perceptual Acuity (PAC), and Personal Autonomy (PA) when individuals’ cross cultural adaptability is assessed by Cross Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI). There are two studies using CCAI to assess international students cross cultural adaptability. One study discovered that ER and FO were associated with psychological and sociocultural adaption problems, while PAC and PA were related to fewer sociocultural difficulties. And in the second study, ER was discovered to be the strongest predictor of psychological well-being and PAC was an important main factor in sociocultural adaptation. The results turned out that cross cultural adaptability is related to psychological and sociocultural context (Ward, Bemo, & Main, 2000). Similar with cross cultural adaptability, Early and Ang (2003) defined cultural intelligence as the capability to function effectively in different countries, in other words, in different culture so that this study views cultural intelligence which can also predict an individual’s cross cultural functionality as a similar concept with cross cultural adaptability. Therefore, due to the similarity which is shared between cultural intelligence and cross cultural adaptability, this study builds hypothesis listed below:

Hypothesis 1

Students’ cultural intelligence is positively related to their psychological well-being when studying abroad.

The Role of Mindfulness as a Moderator
Kabat-Zinn (1994) defined mindfulness as the way an individual pay attention to the experiences at the present moment non-judgmentally. It contains five attributes which are experience of being present, awareness, acceptance, attention and transformative process (White, 2013). Researchers pointed out that cultivating mindfulness is positively related to good psychological and physical results (Kabat-Zinn, 1990; Shapiro, Schwartz, & Bonner, 1998). LeBel and Dubé (2001) made an experiment about two groups of participants eating chocolate in different situations. Group which focused on the sensory experiences of eating reported that all participants were more enjoyable than the other group which simultaneously needed to work with other tasks. In addition, flow activities, which was defined as an operating mental state where participants pay attention to and fully engage with what is occurring were also reported bringing considerable joyfulness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

There were also studies related to mindfulness and cultural intelligence. Elizabeth (2014) demonstrated that an individual becomes more culturally sensitive through increasing mindfulness in predeparture sessions for introducing cultural competence model.

As above, mindfulness may play a moderating role which results in the enhancement of cultural intelligence and well-being. On the other hand, on account of mindfulness, the relationship between cultural intelligence and psychological well-being may be influenced. Therefore, this study builds the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2
Mindfulness moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence and psychological well-being.

Methodology
Research Framework and Hypothesis
The research framework was developed according to the relevant literature review. Cultural intelligence (X) serves as independent variable, while psychological well-being otherwise serves as dependent variable (Y). The study first examines the relationship between X and Y. In addition, mindfulness, as moderator (MO), is used to examine the moderating effect of the relationship between X and Y. Figure 1 shown below illustrates the framework for this study:

![Diagram](image-url)

Figure 1. Research Framework of this Study
Besides, research hypotheses built by the previous session are also illustrated in figure 1.

H1: Students’ cultural intelligence is positively related to their psychological well-being when studying abroad.

H2: Mindfulness moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence and psychological well-being.

In addition, age, gender, and previous international experience are considered control variables for this study.

**Research Sample**

The sample population of this study are international students who are currently studying in Taiwan, including bachelor degree students, master degree students, and doctor degree students. Convenience sampling and snowball sampling are used to reach the sample population. A total of 110 participants filled online self-rated questionnaires.

Two criteria are set for data collecting process. First, students need to be currently studying in Taiwan. Second, selected students have all been studying abroad for at least six months, namely they might have gone through honeymoon and culture shock stages and were experiencing adjustment stage which resulted in a more stable condition according to U-Curve Theory (UCT; Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

The requirements of the participants are described clearly in the questionnaire at first to make sure the participants meet the criterion of this study. For example, I am currently studying in Taiwan and I have been studying in Taiwan for at least six months.

**Research Instrument**

**Psychological Well-Being**

Psychological Well-Being scale consists of 18 items developed by Ryff (1989) is used in this study. 18 items are all examined with Cronbach’s alpha value of the collecting data .72. After reading through the item statement, participants answer the questions from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree) according to their current condition.

**Cultural Intelligence**

Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Koh (2008) is used to measure participants’ cultural intelligence. It is a 20-item scale that measures four dimensions of CQ as mentioned: cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ with 6 items, 4 items, 5 items, and 5 items respectively. A 7-point Likert type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) is used for participant assessing their current condition based on the item statement. The Cronbach’s alpha value of the collecting data for the overall CQ is .87 and for four dimensions, cognitive CQ, metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ, are .86, .81, .83, and .82.

**Mindfulness**

Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS), a psychological self-survey developed by Brown and Ryan (2003), is used to assess participants’ mindfulness. It was created to capture attention and awareness in daily life specifically (Brown & Ryan, 2003). In this questionnaire, 15 descriptive questions with Cronbach’s alpha value of the collecting data .84 are examined. And the participants answer from 1 (almost always) to 6 (almost never) based on the level they think corresponding to their current condition.

**Data Collection**

An online questionnaire composed by all the items and demographic survey questions is made in advance. A clear research purpose description and target participants’ requirements are stated in the very beginning of the questionnaire. And it is distributed online to participants. After all the data collection, the complete responses were analyzed through the way discussed in the next session.
Data Analysis

This study uses “IBM SPSS Statistics 23” to analyze the collecting data. The analyzing process goes through descriptive statistics analysis to describe the frequencies of the demographic data, correlation analysis to see the relationship between the independent variable, cultural intelligence and the dependent variable, psychological well-being, and hierarchical regression analysis to see the causality between the independent variable, cultural intelligence and the dependent variable, psychological well-being.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

This study contains a total number of 110 participants. The age ranges from 18 to 51 years old with the mean 27.57. There are 47 female respondents (43%) and 63 male respondents (57%). Their studying program in Taiwan are 2 exchange students (1.8%), 29 bachelor degree students (26.4%), 46 master degree students (41.8%), 32 doctor degree students (29.1%), and 1 high school student (0.9%). Among them, 21 respondents (19.1%) had never had international experience before this studying program; 68 (61.8%) had had at least 1-time experience; and the other 21 respondents (19.1%) had had over 10 times international experience before.

Correlation Analysis

Means standard deviations, correlations, and Cronbach’s alpha value of each variable are listed below in Table 1. The results showed that the overall CQ is not significantly correlated with psychological well-being. However, further examining the four dimensions of CQ respectively, the results demonstrates that metacognitive CQ is significantly and positively correlated with psychological well-being (r= 0.26, p< 0.01). And motivational CQ is also positively and significantly correlated with psychological well-being (r= 0.36, p< 0.01). Regarding control variables, age and gender are positively and significantly correlated with psychological well-being (r= 0.26, p< 0.01; r= 0.22, p< 0.05 respectively).

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

This part further examines the relationship between metacognitive CQ and psychological well-being and between motivational CQ and psychological well-being. Besides, whether or not mindfulness serves as a moderator in this relationship is also examined. Table 2 and 3 below show the hierarchical regression analysis result of this study.
In Table 2, according to model 2, metacognitive CQ is significantly and positively related to psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.22, p < 0.05$) when controlling for age, gender, and previous international experience. Therefore, metacognitive CQ has a positive effect on psychological well-being. However, mindfulness does not moderate the relationship.

Table 2. Result of Regression Analyses for Moderating Effect of Mindfulness (N=110)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological well-being</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.23*</td>
<td>0.21*</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive CQ</td>
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<td>0.21*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Metacognitive CQ x Mindfulness</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
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<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.82*</td>
<td>4.35**</td>
<td>3.46**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta F$</td>
<td>3.82*</td>
<td>5.46*</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

In Table 3, according to model 2, motivational CQ is significantly and positively related to psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.34, p<0.001$) when controlling for age, gender, and previous international experience. However, mindfulness does not moderate the relationship.

Table 3. Result of Regression Analyses for Moderating Effect of Mindfulness (N=110)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological well-being</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.23*</td>
<td>0.20*</td>
<td>0.21*</td>
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<td>Gender</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>Step 3</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivational CQ x Mindfulness</td>
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<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
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<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
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<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
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<td>15.35***</td>
<td>0.99</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001
Implications

An individual with higher metacognitive CQ score is able to use cultural understanding to strategize his or her action in different cultural context. Besides, an individual with higher motivational CQ score has more interest in adjusting himself or herself into different cultural environment. According to the statistic result of this study, future research can further examine how to enhance this two sub-dimensions of CQ, like designing related cultural program courses before students’ departure, in order to positively increase international students' psychological well-being. By doing so, international students could have more positive outcomes during their studying abroad experience.

References


Tables

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliability

Table 2. Result of Regression Analyses for Moderating Effect of Mindfulness (N=110)

Table 3. Result of Regression Analyses for Moderating effect of Mindfulness (N=110)

Figures

Figure 1. The Research Framework of this Study
The Relationship between Job Stress Risk Factors and Workplace Well-Being with the Moderating Effects of Job Burnout: A Study of Substitute Educators for Early Childhood Education in Taiwan

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Chang, Wei-Wen
National Taiwan Normal University

Abstract

Nowadays, the employees’ well-being has been an increasingly relevant and necessary consideration in the workplace. However, little attention has been paid to the well-being of substitute educators in preschool. Working in early childhood education is stressful, and certain types of stress negatively affect physical and mental health. The participants in this study are substitute educators for early education in Taiwan. The substitute educators of preschools in the working environment are not stable and peaceful. In addition to engaging in the same teaching programs as the formal teachers, substitute teachers have to work for additional administrative assignments in schools. Furthermore, they were often viewed as the marginal role in the workplace, enduring discrimination from the unfriendly organization. Their working environment is full of pressure, contradictions, and conflicts. Substitute teachers often endure negative emotions and need to suppress their true feelings. Thus, the aim of this research is to examine the relationship among preschool substitute teachers’ well-being (Y), job stress risk factors (X), and burnout (Mo). Data was collected from a survey of 102 substitute educators at both public and private preschools in Taiwan. Among the six stress risk factors, good control, managerial support, colleague support, roles, and change were positively related to well-being, while the other two factors, demand and unfriendly relationship have a negative impact on workplace well-being. In addition, job burnout has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between job stress risk factor and well-being. Suggestions are provided for substitute educators’ well-being improvement.

Keywords: job stress risk factors, workplace well-being, job burnout

Introduction

Background

Nowadays, early learning for the development of social skills is important because it helps form the basis of life and contributes to the psychological and academic development of children (McClelland & Morrison, 2003). UK Essays (2015) published an essay which indicated that in the stage of early childhood, brain plays a role of absorbing stimulation from the environment and learning accordingly. Hence, adapting and reacting from the environment is one of the early preparation for child education. Preschool children see and act correspondently from social, emotional, cognitive, gross and motor skills in different environments. Those signals make preschoolers willing to learn more by getting close to new things. Recognizing the importance of early childhood education and its impact on personal life or children’s social development is crucial (Lynch & Simpson, 2010).
In the actual education scene of the preschool, the formal teachers often have to request a long or short leave of absence due to illness, personal affairs, marriage, parturition, serves in the army, attend a meeting, participate in a workshop, advanced studies and other factors. It is necessary to arrange substitute teachers to replace the formal teachers of the leave and take over their duties for the time being. However, although substitute teacher and formal teacher are both teachers, substitute teachers do not receive the same respect as the formal teachers from the social community. Substitute teachers in schools are the relatively weak group but they take an indispensable part of the education environment. They are like the fire-fighting team in the educational sector, always ready to replace the vacant leave of the teacher's position, complete the school's mandate and contribute to education.

Purpose of the Research

At present, the situation of low birth rate in Taiwan is becoming more and more serious, and the government's financial constraints are seriously affecting the employment of teachers which lead to the number of substitute teachers keep rising. In other words, the government control plays an important role on the supply and demand of teachers (Hendrick, 2011). The public kindergarten teachers in this environmental context, they have to experience recruitment and assessment of preschool teachers every year, and interact or get along with different children, teachers, other colleagues and parents, ultimately brought about negative emotions.

The substitute educators of preschools are extremely challenging in the working environment. In addition to engage in the same teaching as the formal teacher, substitute teachers have to work for additional administrative assignments in the school. This kind of situation can be described as equal pay for multiple works. In addition, they were often considered as the marginal role in the workplace, enduring discrimination from the organization and outsiders. Furthermore, because of the perception of the image of teachers in the society, the teachers must always suppress their true feelings. Whether it is real or intangible payback, the working environment presents so much pressure, contradictions, conflicts, substitute teachers must endure a lot of negative emotion. Thus, the aim of this research project is to examine the relationship among preschool substitute teachers' well-being, job stress risk factors, and burnout.

Research Questions

1. Is there any significant relationship between job stress risk factors and well-being?

2. Does burnout have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between job stress risk factors and well-being?

Literature Review

Workplace Well-Being

In the academic research journals, the workplace well-being gradually becomes a common topic (Cooper & Marshall, 1978; Danna & Griffin, 1999; Smith, Kaminstein & Makadok, 1995; Warr, 1990). In recent years, changes in the working environment, staff pressure on employees often affect the performance of individuals, therefore, the research topic of well-being increased significantly. Some scholars believe that the employees' well-being in the workplace refers to psychological well-being, including emotional happiness, job satisfaction, inspiration, burnout and anxiety and other factors (Daniels, 2000; Holman, 2002; Warr, 1994). Researchers who have worked hard in the field of workplace well-being in recent years have gradually found that only when employees are happy at work can lead the company to the higher competitiveness. The constructing of well-being has become a key issue in helping companies improve their internal staff competitiveness.

Researchers have conducted extensive research on teachers' well-being and organizational and social stress issues such as classroom management issues, management effort, and lack of managerial and team support (Borg & Riding, 1991; Burke & Greenglass, 1995; Greenglass et al., 1997; Kokkinos, 2007; Smith & Bourke, 1992).
Based on the above discussion, the workplace well-being of teachers in this study refers to the psychological satisfaction and the experience of pre-school educators that show their feelings of happiness in the kindergarten when they interact with chairman, director, colleagues, parents and children.

**Stress Risk Factors**

Work-related stress describes workers who are aware of their work requirements beyond their abilities and their physical, psychological and emotional responses (such as time, instructions and support) to do the job. It happens when they are aware that they cannot cope with the important situation they are dealing with. According to a number of factors, a worker’s reaction to work stress may be positive or negative for worker well-being. In the vast majority of cases, people adapt to stress and are able to continue to perform their normal job responsibilities. Although the stress itself is not a disease, it may lead to poor physical and mental health if it becomes excessive and lasting (Workplace Health and Safety Queensland, 2014).

In 2004, the UK Health and Safety Executive (HSE) proposed six key work-related stressors in the management standards' approach to work-related stress (Mackay et al., 2004). Workplace Health and Safety Queensland (2014) published an article that discusses the overview of job stress risk factors. The researchers sorted out the overview as follows:

**Demands**

Employees are able to cope with the demands of their jobs. While workers need challenging tasks to maintain their interest and motivation, and to develop new skills, it is important that demands do not exceed their ability to cope.

**Control**

Employees indicate that they are able to have a say about the way they do their work. If the job demands are high, the support from colleagues or supervisors is low, it will cause a low level of job control and may increase the likelihood of employee pressure.

**Support**

The colleagues and supervisors had sufficient information and support. The support provided by supervisors and colleagues can ease the pressure response that people may face in terms of job demands and think they cannot control them.

**Relationships**

Employees pointed out they are not subjected to unacceptable behavior, such as bullying in the workplace. The relationship with the boss, peers and subordinates can have a positive or negative impact on the worker's feeling. No matter where the team works together, there may be some conflicts will bring about now and then.

**Role**

Employees are aware of the roles and responsibilities of employees. A character conflict occurs when a worker is required to perform a role that violates his or her personal values or whose job is incompatible.

**Change**

Employees indicate that the organization organizes them when they are constantly experiencing change. Change is an unavoidable aspect of organizational life and is essential to the future. However, poor management of the change process may lead to anxieties and uncertainty about the workforce or the employment situation.

**Job Burnout**
Many domestic and foreign scholars have participated in the study of burnout. Kristensen and some scholars of National Institute of Occupational Health in Danish have developed Copenhagen Burn Inventory (CBI), which is currently the most commonly used measurement of job burnout (Kristensen et al., 2005). In this study, burnout was considered to be physical and psychological fatigue and exhaustion. The questionnaire was designed to measure three aspects of personal burnout, work-related burnout and client-related burnout, which is used in different areas.

Karakelle & Canpolat (2008) indicated that teachers with high burnout symptoms often strive to produce a variety of problem-solving methods that have a sentience of their careers that they cannot control them and experience burnout. In the field of early childhood education, job burnout is more likely to occur because the views and expectations of substitute teachers are beyond the original working characteristics of the current environment, coupled with low wages and social status.

Job burnout in this study refers to the fact that substitute educators are unable to load work stress and frustration because of heavy workload, which leads to personal physical and mental fatigue, and gradually lose the enthusiasm and motivation of teaching. Ultimately, substitute teachers have the intention to leave the job.

**Job Stress Risk Factor and Well-Being**

Occupational stress has a great impact on psychological well-being and is seriously taking into account the health consequences of this stress (Fletcher, 1991). Well-being refers to an individual's overall evaluation of one's quality of life (Brinkman, 2002); in the literature of stress, researchers have found that work-related stress to be negatively correlated with well-being (Fortes-Ferreira et al., 2006; Schabracq et al., 2003). Hence, reducing the negative impact of job stress has become an important issue.

In early childhood education, the working setting is characterized by unusual and long working hours, working pressure, and work overload. When a female employee faces this tense situation, she may be able to become nervous and worried, which in turn negative emotions that lead to dissatisfaction and ultimately reduce the well-being.

**Research Method**

**Research Framework**

According to the research hypothesis, this study examined the relationship between job stress risk factors (X) and well-being (Y). The moderating effect of job burnout (M) on the correlation between job stress factors and well-being was analyzed as well.
The variable \textit{Job Stress Risk Factors} includes six stressors, namely demands, control, managers’ and peer support, change, relationships, and roles. The research framework of this study is shown in Figure. 3.1.

![Research Framework]

\textbf{Research Hypothesis}

Hypothesis 1. The stress risk factor of substitute educators has a significant effect on their well-being.

Hypothesis 1-1. Good control is positively related to workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-2. Managerial support is positively related to workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-3. Colleague support is positively related to workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-4. The Role is positively related to workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-5. Change is positively related to workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-6. Demand has a negative impact on workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 1-7. The unfriendly relationship has a negative impact on workplace well-being.

Hypothesis 2. Burnout has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between job stress risk factor and workplace well-being.

\textbf{Sampling and Data Collection}

The research sample selected for this study are 102 full-time preschool substitute educators in Taiwan. " Substitute educators " in this study refers to two different kinds of positions in preschool, as substitute teachers and substitute educators. Researchers have chosen educators from regions all over Taiwan with different characteristics and background as participants in this study. This study was conducted by an online questionnaire. A convenient sampling technique was adopted for data collection. Researchers will distribute questionnaires to substitute educators through the researcher's personal network. Researchers send e-mails and post the online surveys to online communities and social networking websites such as Facebook and Line corporation for collecting information. The researchers also conducted snowball sampling to ask relatives and friends to help introduce other respondents who are currently working in kindergartens. In addition, respondents also provided assistance in forwarding the questionnaires. All questionnaires and responses are kept confidential and anonymous.

\textbf{Research Instrument}
The questionnaire is divided into four parts. The instrument consists of 3 variables with a total amount 88 questions. In addition to, there are 7 questions for demographics. The researchers decided to use the 5 point Likert scale for these 3 variables from part 1 to part 3 of the finished questionnaire to meet pertinent research demands. The respondents are asked to rate each item on the questionnaires from 1 to 5 (strongly agree to strongly disagree).

**Job stress risk factor.** The researchers used Health and Safety Executive Management Standards Indicator Tool to measure the effect, in order to understand whether employees understand their work in the organization, and whether they have working pressure. The index tool shows the acceptable reliability.

**Job burnout.** The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI), is a National Institute of Occupational Health (2005) questionnaire used in the study. The original scale consisted of 19 items and three dimensions, namely personal burnout, work-related burnout and client-related burnout. The original scale through 5 point Likert scale to measure the effect, and Cronbach value for full scale is 0.85-0.87. This study also used this scale, but only use sub dimensions which associated with the work-related burnout.

**Well-being.** A Previous study (Parker and Hyett, 2011) reported and organized a new workplace well-being questionnaire (WWQ), pointed out that these 4 factors constitute a lot of variation among 31 items (Hyett & Parker, 2015). This study also utilized 5 point Likert scale to gauge the preschool teachers' workplace well-being.

**Findings and Discussion**

**Pearson Correlation Analysis**

In this study, a correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationship between all variables. Table 4.1 presents correlations among the independent variables of all the dimensions of job stress risk factors, the dependent variable of workplace well-being and the moderating variable of burnout.

In the findings it can be seen that as stated in Hypothesis 1, for the independent variables, job stress risk factors (r = .206, p < .05), control (r = .289, p < .01), managerial support (r = .758, p < .01), colleague support (r = .274, p < .01), roles (r = .198, p < .05) and change (r = .579, p < .01) have significant and positive relationship with workplace well-being. Hence, this gives evidence that in most cases, people adapt to stressful situations and are capable of continuing to carry out their normal work responsibilities. However, demands (r = -.464, p < .01) and relationship (r = -.250, p < .05) have negative impact on workplace well-being. As Hypothesis 2, for the moderating variables, burnout (r = -.446, p < .01) also have significant and negative relationship with the dependent variable. People respond to work-related stressors in different ways.

According to the statistical result on the relationship between job stress risk factors and workplace well-being, it showed that a substitute educator's reaction to work-related stressors will be positive or negative for teacher workplace well-being.

**Table 4.1**

*Correlations for Job Stress Risk Factors, Burnout and Well-being*

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
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<td>-.049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 JS</td>
<td>.206*</td>
<td>.363**</td>
<td>.516**</td>
<td>.732*</td>
<td>.471**</td>
<td>.470**</td>
<td>.538**</td>
<td>.623**</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Linear Regression Analysis

According to correlation analysis, H1 was accepted, which indicated job stress risk factors positively related to workplace well-being. The researcher applied regression analysis to explore the relationship between dimensions of job stress risk factors and workplace well-being again in this section. Moreover, hierarchical regression was employed to examine the moderating effect of the moderators, burnout.

Dimensions of Job Stress Risk Factors

From Table 4.2, β value of control, managerial support, colleague support, role and change were positive numbers and all p values were less than 0.05, which pointed out that those five dimensions all have the positive and significant effect on the workplace well-being (control β = 0.289, p < 0.05; managerial support β = 0.758, p < 0.001; colleague support β = 0.274, p < 0.01; role β = 0.198, p < 0.05; change β = 0.579, p < 0.001). However, β value of demands and relationship were negatively related to workplace well-being (demands β = -0.464, p < 0.001; relationship β = -0.250, p < 0.05). In summary, among the six stress risk factors, good control, managerial support, colleague support, roles, and change were positively related to workplace well-being, while the other two factors, demand and unfriendly relationship have a negative impact on workplace well-being. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted.

Table 4.2

Results of Regression Analysis for Job Stress Risk Factors (N=102)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JS</th>
<th>Demands</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Managerial support</th>
<th>Colleague support</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Unfriendly Relationship</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>β</td>
<td>.206*</td>
<td>-0.464***</td>
<td>.289*</td>
<td>.758***</td>
<td>.274**</td>
<td>.198*</td>
<td>-0.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdjR2</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>△R2</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.426*</td>
<td>27.507***</td>
<td>9.135*</td>
<td>135.228***</td>
<td>8.112**</td>
<td>4.066*</td>
<td>6.695*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. Dependent Variable: well-being
2. JS = Job stress risk factors
3. The dimensions of job stress risk factors include demands, control, managerial support, colleague support, role, relationship and change.

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Moderating Effect of Burnout

This regression equation was conducted to examine Hypothesis 2. First of all, the researcher put the independent variable and moderator into the first step. Secondly, the interaction of two variables (independent variable x moderator) was placed into the second step. From Table 4.3, the result showed that there was a significant moderating effect of burnout (β = -.223). In other words, burnout is found to cause a weakening effect between job stress risk factors and workplace well-being. Hence, Hypothesis 2 was supported.
### Table 4.3

**Regression Analysis of Moderating Effect of Burnout on the Relationship between JS and Well-being (N=102)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1 JS</td>
<td>.424***</td>
<td>.575***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burnout</td>
<td>-.600***</td>
<td>-.591***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2 JS x Burnout</td>
<td>-.223*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdjR2</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR2</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>27.221***</td>
<td>20.069***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: JS = Job stress risk factors

* p<.05 ** p< .01 *** p<.001

### Conclusion

This study aims to explore the relationship among job stress risk factors, burnout and workplace well-being.

First, job stress risk factors are significantly related to workplace well-being. Job stress risk factors has six dimensions, including demands, control, managerial and colleague support, role, relationship and change. Based on the correlation and regression analysis in this study, among the six stress risk factors, good control, managerial support, colleague support, roles, and change were positively related to well-being, while the other two factors, demand and unfriendly relationship have a negative impact on workplace well-being. All of the substitute educators has a certain ability to work, if their capacity is overload and the work demand is exceeded, they may experience work pressure. Besides, colleagues and supervisors can be important sources of support but they can also be potential sources of work stress. Relationships with bosses, colleagues and subordinates can have a positive or negative impact on the feelings of a teacher, and it is possible that wherever a group of people works together, conflict exists from time to time.

In other words, the results indicated that when substitute educators stay at the friendly working environment, the work pressure will reduce. Furthermore, when they understand their role, obtain the emotional support and positive feedback from the director, have a right of decision making and be respected to have a communication before and during a change process at work, their workplace well-being will increase.

Second, burnout has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between job stress risk factor and well-being. It will weaken the relationship between job stress risk factors and workplace well-being. Within the preschool educational working population, long term stress and burnout in the workplace can result in a negative overall mood, physical ill health, job dissatisfaction and reduced the workplace well-being.

### Suggestions

Few domestic scholars and researchers engaged in research on the issue of substitute teachers, the quality and quantity of research are insufficient from the past and it is not a popular field of study in foreign countries. However, in this study, it is true that many related educational issues need to be addressed and resolved. First of all, the research sample can be included in the comparative analysis of substitute teachers of junior high school, elementary school and preschool. The future research can further collect the experience or process of substitute teachers in different educational stages, compares and analyze the status quo of education, emotional condition and the substitute experience, and explore whether
there are different problems in different stages. Secondly, the researcher can explore the substitute teachers who has been admitted to the admission exam or who has changed their profession successfully and have the understanding of their successful experience of the coordinate and transformation process. Future research can further invite people who once were the substitute teachers with practical action, and willing to face their own career dilemma in the past to rethink, criticize, question and change the action. Furthermore, those substitute teachers can analyze and share their opinions of their experience of coordinated and transformation to provide a large number of substitute teachers for improving the predicament and enhancing self-esteem and status as an important reference.

References


Assessment of the quality of products in tourism

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Abstract
This paper examines the issue of quality assessment of tourism products, as one of the key elements of countries' tourist offer in a rapidly changing digital and globalized world. Tourism product is a presentation of a broad cross-section of history, nature, archeology, living culture, ensuring that visitors taking part in the discovery will leave with a lasting impression of the diversity, complexity and beauty of the visited country and its culture. As such, it is a product of quite a particular nature, which derives from the coexistence of a series of different elements interlinked among each other. It is the combinations of interlinkages that enable destinations to offer an individualized “total tourism product” that meets the changing needs of various categories of tourists. Total tourism products are complex and are shaped in different offered through numerous and diverse specific products and services, which may be shaped in many different ways and for which demand exists on a combination of motives, often in conflicting mutual interlinkages. The assessment of the quality of tourism offers is a complex process, which focuses on the tourists. The concept of valorization of tourist sites and attractions is a useful tool in the quality assessment. The harsh completion in the field for tourism calls for application of the total quality management system, which improves the ability of the tourism sector to meet the needs and requirements of the tourists, at minimum costs. Creation and introducing quality standards would be an urgent task, which is the responsibility of both businesses and institutions alike.

Keywords: tourism, tourism products, valorization of tourism products, quality of tourism products, quality assessment, total quality management

Introduction
In today’s dynamic and rapidly changing digital world of all-round social changes primarily led by the scientific and technical progress, everyone needs time for rest and recreation. The tourism sector offers numerous and diverse opportunities. An individual’s selection of the type of holiday depends on their living standard and income, their living environment, the level of education and interest in culture, etc.

Contemporary tourism is fostered through modern social policies, which ensure the rights to paid annual leave for workers and the fundamental human right to use holiday. In fact, tourism is a dynamic phenomenon that has developed in parallel with the development of civilization and culture. Its growth has been particularly rapid during the twentieth century as a result of the overall social and economic development, improvement of transportation and communication infrastructure and means, furthering of legislation nd social policies in promoting the right to holiday, as well as the progress in art, education, science, sports, etc.
According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), a tourist is considered anyone who travels abroad, for a period of at least one night but not longer than one year and his/her aim is not to benefit economically. This includes all those who travel for: rest, amusement, relaxation, visiting family and friends, for business and professional reasons, for health reasons, faith, and pilgrimage.

**Problem definition**

Tourism product is a presentation of a broad cross-section of history, nature, archeology, living culture, ensuring that visitors taking part in the discovery will leave with a lasting impression of the diversity, complexity and beauty of the visited country and its culture.

In order to increase their tourism-based income, countries specialize in attracting educated, independent travelers and specialized groups of passengers. Often, their tourism strategies target individuals with income above average, as the demographic segment with a desire and ability to pay for unique products and whose spending patterns maximize the advancement of country’s development goals.

Another point of attention of a country seeking to strategically develop tourism, is creating value for tourists in a variety of geographic locations throughout its territory, which:

- offers a great variety of products, strengthening the range and diversity available to visitors;
- creates opportunities for diverse local cultures to express themselves, in particular the customs and traditions of different regions of the country; and
- allows inner-land and rural communities to participate in visits and tourism developments and take advantage of them.

**Methodology**

This paper has been developed by using the desk-top research method. The following documents were considered and analyzed:

a) secondary sources of information, such as available scientific literature, research studies on tourism and opinions and analysis of tourism strategic plans;
b) legal and planning documents in the field of tourism and related fields; and
c) scientific research, studies, etc. on general quality management and total quality management.

The management concepts and theories related to quality management were cross-examined with the characteristics of the tourism industry, thus thoroughly examining the meaning, importance and manner of introduction and improvement of quality of tourism products.

**Hypotheses**

The fundamental hypothesis that we seek to prove throughout this paper are:

- Development of tourism is defined first and foremost by natural, geographic, cultural and political characteristics, besides adequate development and commitment of the human factor.
- Tourist production constitutes the main instrument of marketing. If it is not properly positioned, other marketing tools cannot come to terms.

Fundamental hypotheses are followed by auxiliary hypotheses that are:

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Planning, development and placement of products should follow all elements of quality, differentiation and competitive positioning, and should have adequate commercial use in order to make up the commercial offer.

The more accurate product characteristics are defined (primary, secondary, additional etc.), the better for the optimization of the process of tourism development.

Tourist Product

Tourism product is a product of quite a particular nature, which derives from the coexistence of a series of different elements interlinked among each other. It is exactly the combination of the different elements and their interlinkage that makes up the complete tourism product. It is a compilation of goods and services that meet the demand of tourists during their stay away from their permanent residence. This product is always an "unfinished" one, in stark contrast to all other products, which are always marketed as final and ready-to-use products. Tourism products constantly seek to the versatile and diverse needs of consumers, and those needs cannot be met only by using a tourist service or purchasing a single product.

Form the very moment a customer makes the decision to enjoy tourism, until the moment of their return to their permanent residence, the customer seeks to receive a specifically tailored personal tourist product. These expectations refer to each and every time a customer enjoys tourism, i.e. tourists rarely desire the replication of a tourist product that they had bought and used previously. Seen from the perspective of the buyer, tourist product consists of a number of different special products. How many and which specifics products will be included in the overall comprehensive product depends on the needs, interests, preferences and wishes of buyers who make an individual choice.

Thus, tourist products can be seen from different viewpoints and defined in different manners: From the tourists' viewpoint, tourism products include various good and services from which they can pick from in satisfying their individual needs. From the point of view of tourism providers, the tourism product is their concrete product that they offer on the market, which, as explained above, in the eyes of the tourists is just an element of the overall comprehensive tourism product.

In other words, for the consumer, the tourism product is the "total product", with its more or less broad and complex structure, which depends on the following concrete conditions during purchase:

1. Operator's offer that is available;
2. The variety of existing different operators that offer not directly competing services, but rather alternative services that tourists could benefit from; and
3. A set of natural, social and cultural elements.

Thus, this paper uses the term "total tourism product" to denote the combination of all attractive components and factors at a tourist site, through which the customer satisfies their individualized tourist demand.

Products forms and content

Market development requires a continuous modification of the initial form of tourism products. This is because tourists continuously seek new types of goods and services, which merge into a single product.

There are five forms of tourist products:

1. Integrated tourist product – the entirety of special products united in a single product;
2. Single product – another form of tourist product found in the tourist market, where the product goes on the market as a certain amount of goods and services and for its producer is considered as unfinished product, intended for tourist consumption;

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1 Gorica Dr. K., “Marketing of the Albanian tourist market – Economic necessity (monographic study), Tirana 2003
3. Main tourist product – when a single producer releases a small amount of specific products on the market;
4. Partial tourist product – a tourist product which can be displayed as a form of a single producer,
5. Thorough tourist product – when a product is composed by a number of partial products.

The tourism potential of a country is determined on the basis of the provided offer of all the different types of tourism products.

Tourism product has a complex composition and comprises the following parts:\footnote{Gorica Dr. K., “Marketing of the Albanian tourist market – Economic necessity (monographic study), Tirana 2003}
- Travelling,
- Accommodation,
- Tourist resources (activities), and
- Services.

\textbf{Travelling} can be divided into international transport lines, national and local transport movements within the country. Internal movements are usually under the auspices of the local government units. Drafting and approval of the signal system, based on the traffic plan within the country, which need to ensure, among other, discipline of the transport (vehicles) flow and provide parking places.\footnote{Reilly R., Travel and Tourism Marketing Techniques: Merton House Publishing Co. V.1980} Investments in road infrastructure, rehabilitation or complete reconstruction of primary and secondary roads are of paramount importance. It is a fact that a good number of tourists travel without using a comprehensive organized package tour and as such they travel almost by the same means that other citizens use.

\textbf{Accommodation} is associated with the quality of services in a given municipality, such as water supply, electricity, telephone, internet service and debris removal.\footnote{Reilly R., Travel and Tourism Marketing Techniques: Merton House Publishing Co. V.1980} At local levels, accurate tourist census through accommodation serves as the basis to get the total number of tourists. A good reference point is the tax system, which follows and collects number related to hotel and other providers’ accommodation services. As a general rule, it is the obligation of the service provider to keep relevant documentation.

\textbf{Tourist resources and activities} is provided as a direct service. The natural and archaeological tourist resources with proper infrastructure can add to the cultural offer of a given country. Often, local governments encourage businesses and individuals to add to the “core” offer by providing of souvenirs and handicraft products (including silver, woodwork, embroidery, paintings, pottery, basketry, maps, photographs, postcards, etc.) as a reminder of the tourists for their visit.\footnote{M. Gashi : The main components of tourism functions in tourist receptive areas – Prishtina 1989}

\textbf{Services} – tourists get in touch with a very large number of service employees in hotels and motels, restaurants, shops, guides accompanying tourists and ordinary people in the country where tourists stay. These service employees live on the location where tourist products are consumed. Various services usually do not attract or lure tourists itself but the lack of them causes enormous damage. The low level of tourist services creates avoidance. The country can be very attractive but should the tourists not feel good, for example due to lack of hospitality from local people, it can be taken for granted that the tourists will leave or at least will avoid returning to that particular destination. This is an element that affects the growth or decline of tourism. At the same time, the tourist product contains a number of services which tourists may not directly get in touch with, but which indirectly influence the tourist service. Examples of such services include: finance sector, health sector services, the sector of wholesale and retail sales, the utilities sector, the public security sector, etc.
The service sector is crucial for tourism development taking into consideration both primary and secondary package offers are of crucial importance. In this regard it has to be mentioned that, generally speaking, rural are better than urban areas with regards to hospitality.

Illustration 1 presents the diverse specific tourism products that form the total tourism offer:

Planning specifications of tourism products

In comparison to other economic activities, the tourism industry is likely to have fewer opportunities for planning: Tourism product planning largely depends on natural and climatic conditions that are objective and beyond the influence of human will. The planning process is also significantly affected by various social factors, in particular of political and economic nature. Some other factors are:

1. Health circumstances in a country or region;
2. Irrational factors;
3. Administrative constraints;
4. Powerful tourist propaganda;
5. Prices system.

All these factors hinder accurate predictions of tourist operations and reduce the possibility of planning in tourism, compared with other economic activities such as industry, construction, transport, etc.

Product planning in general is possible only at the level of tourist country. Only such a level can fulfill all wishes of a tourist buyer related to their needs while staying in a particular country. It is the responsibility of the country to invest in tourism and attract tourists as purchasers of their natural, cultural, historic, etc. products.

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1M. Gashi: The main components of tourism functions in tourist receptive areas – Prishtina 1989
Designing and promotion of tourism products

Designing a tourism product starts with tourist evaluation. For qualitative and quantitative evaluation of tourist attractions these characteristics should be respected:

- personal activity element;
- geographical position; and
- tourist trade position.

The promotion, which highlights the attractive aspects of products, stimulates the demand and can have the following functions:

- an introductory function for new products;
- selective function, stimulating competition; and
- a function for expanding interests and strengthening affirmed products in the market.

In this regard, one has to stress the extreme importance of international promotion of a country’s tourism products.

Assessment of Quality of Tourism Products

Tourism development is determined primarily by natural and geographic, as well as cultural and political characteristics, complemented by adequate development and commitment of the human factor. Geographically, for example, the most important is the concentration of natural resources and the diversity of supply in a small geographic area.

Tourist production constitutes the main instrument of marketing. If it is not properly positioned, other marketing tools cannot come to terms; rather, they become counterproductive, generally speaking, because of the product itself.

Planning, development and implementation outcomes of the product should contain all the elements of quality, differentiation and competitive positioning, and should have adequate commercial use in order to make up the commercial offer. For this reason it is necessary that product characteristics should be defined more accurately (primary, secondary, supplements, etc.) and the process of development and management of products needs to be optimized.

Valorization

Valorization represents the determination or assessment of the value of tourist attractions and of their attractiveness. Subject of valorization may be objects, spaces and properties that have attractive characteristics for tourists and through which tourists can satisfy their tourist needs (cultural or recreational). With other words, in the scope of tourist assessment are all individual facilities, events and spaces formed by natural processes or human activities.

The objectives of tourism assessment are as follows:

- tourism value of all individual facilities of a country or area in general;
- estimation of possible tourist visits;
- possible activities in the field of investment by size and type of facilities;
- protection of the space in which we want to develop tourism;
- tourism organization;
- tourism marketing etc.

Key to understating the valorization, are two basic categories within tourism: attraction and value. Illustration 2 visually depicts the process of valorization:
attraction → valorization → value

The most important methods of tourist valorization are methods of combined qualitative and quantitative comparison. The basic principles of this method are:

- it can compare only the tourist attractions of the same type;
- elements upon which comparison will be made, must be defined;
- in the comparison system well known motifs and some other typical motifs should be included; and
- the principle of complementarity can be included in order to involve assessment of motifs of another kind.

A prerequisite for acceptance of tourism value is that a facility should have tourist characteristics, mainly property attractiveness (rare attraction, aesthetic, cultural or historic value, etc.). However, for the property to have a tourist value, it must be capable of meeting tourists’ needs.

After assessment of the tourist area, important information is obtained such as:

- what kind of tourism is more suitable for development in the valorized area;
- what is missing with attractive properties, facilities and spaces, so that they increase their tourist value;
- what should be built and how to equip the spaces provided;
- what construction standards should be used and for which customers.

**Process of tourist valorization**

For tourist assessment of cultural and historical monuments, the following elements are required:¹

- Geographical tourist position – position in relation to the hometown of tourists, position in relation to traffic and traffic access;
- Artistic value – refers to the evaluation of aesthetic qualities, monumental, rare (rarity) cultural and historical importance;
- Environmental tourist value – basic artistic value. Different kinds of geographical spaces, diversity, nature conservation and regulation of environment are evaluated;
- Tourist attraction and identity – the level of tourist attraction, as well as the level of tourist visits is assessed;
- Building and equipping the space – means the level of development of basic tourism and additional facilities;
- Inclusion in the tourist wealth – assessment of touristic values of complementary motifs of the same destination. This assessment is carried out to determine the comparative and competitive ability with other countries.

**Quality of the tourist product**

Quality in tourism or, speaking more widely, the quality in services differs from that of the manufacturing industry. For example, the guest has different requirements from the hotel with three, four or five stars, the top-class restaurant and the common one; therefore the quality in tourism in general means meeting the requirements and what is usually expected from guests². But, one thing remains unchanged, the effort to provide service of higher quality, such that will meet the needs of a modern tourist.

Today quality is defined in two ways:

- quality of a product and service, and
- quality in terms of the customer.

According to the ISO 9000 standard, quality is an entirety of attributes and features of a product and service upon which the ability to meet special or ordinary requirements of consumers. All these features of a product and service are standardized.

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¹Dr.F.Ukaj “Promocionidhesegmentetbashhkékohorpromocionalnëturizën”, Peje 2006
²Fatos Uka “Management of tourist organizations and destinations”, 2010
Quality classification is an indicator of grading and means specific properties and characteristics of a product or service to a certain category, e.g. services in hotels of various categories.

From this derives that:
- quality should be at the core of every activity at present or in the future;
- attempts should be made to introduce better quality for all products – services which constitute the total tourism product, as the only manner to make the total product more attractive and refined; and
- in business, there should be a standard which will summarize and standardize the quality of products – services that will help create the image of the tourist offer.

Creation and introducing quality standards would be an urgent task, which is the responsibility of both businesses and institutions alike.

**Total Quality Management**

The importance of quality production in contemporary action is vital for operation and existence of all economic enterprises.

Tourism sector is not an exemption in this regard; on the contrary, the competition is so significant and “ruthless” and market demands are increasing on daily basis. Therefore, the need to manage the overall quality is inevitable. Successful quality management techniques become imperative and achievement of qualitative production and service are the key to survival in the market.¹

The continuous goal is to advance the quality of production and service, through utilization of the Total Quality Management (TQM) system. The main idea behind this system is that the quality is not produced, but managed. For this reason, TQM is totally oriented to the market and is led by the guests, i.e. the tourists because the process begins and ends with them.

This is a cycle consisting of four main activities:
- quality planning;
- implementation of quality;
- assessment of achievements and its improvement; and
- the constant repeat of the process.

TQM techniques and methods of in hotel activities are as follows:²

1. Taking the responsibility for quality (this means developing organizational culture and therefore top-level management in the enterprise should be included).
2. Guest satisfaction should be of main priority (guests always prefer quality and the task of a hotel enterprise is to exceed guest expectations).
3. Control of the enterprise culture (senior management should be evaluated on the enterprise culture and TQM requirements; should the need be, corrections should be made).
4. The degree of individual responsibility and teamwork (TQM process is a bottom-up process and the staff should be educated to influence the management for the benefit of the hotel enterprise).
5. Survey on meeting the quality requirements (TQM process foresees the ability to evaluate efforts to increase individual service, bids, and subsequently the guest satisfaction rate. Precise and simple summary and analysis of the applied

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techniques will enable to design and implement changes in the organization. It should be noted that TQM relies more on rational choices rather than statistical analysis).

Prerequisites that must be met to ensure quality and establishing quality management system are:¹

- marketing-orientated organization;
- preparation of programs for quality;
- creation of logistics;
- streamlining overall operations; and
- computerization of work.

The goal of TQM is to achieve the quality of a product and service with minimum costs, to meet the requirements of guests. This requires overall cooperation by all employees.

Illustration 3 depicts the characteristics of the TQM system:

TQM framework application is:²

- values orientation;
- guest orientation;
- staff orientation;
- process and optimal composition; and
- quality control.

The task of TQM is to put guests’ requests to be at the center of all activities. In this regard, the central questions are what guests expect as high-quality service and how the company understands their requirements.

Criteria used by experts to define quality usually are:

- material criteria (are the guests satisfied from personnel appearance and equipment);
- criteria of devotion and correctness (for the service provided and the payment done);
- criteria of understanding and helping the guest (special care for each guest);
- willingness to help the guest.

The use of TQM system in the service and tourism sector is very important, considering that each and every hotel needs to improve service quality. However, quality management in the hotel sector does not only mean managing the quality of

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¹ Aslimoski B., Menaxmentnakvalitet, Fakultet turizam, Ohrid, 2005.
² Institute for Studies of Organizational-Applied Sciences “Pjetër Budi”, Prishtina
services regarding rooms (accommodation), food and beverages, but also providing other services, which adds to the complexity of the process.

**Conclusions**

Undisputed goals of tourism development incorporate the incline towards increasing tourists' pleasure, while simultaneously furthering the well-being of the hosts. The presumptions for successful realization of these goals are permanent consciousness about the ever-changing context on the side of tourism workers and industry, and their attitude to respond to those changes. A country which aims to develop tourism and has such potential should primarily address important general issues:

- ensuring stable economic and political position and improving the image internationally;
- recognition and following movements in the tourism market; and
- harmonization of legislation in line with key international standards.

More concretely, countries seeking to advance their tourist offer need to:

- create the basis for geographic linking of tourism with that of their neighboring countries;
- increase visibility and promote tourism development in provincial and rural areas, bringing development opportunities to a broader section of the population;
- permit development of complementary specialized markets for tourism (such as free movement of animals, climbing, diving, agriculture, hunting and fishing, archeology, existing infrastructure and proposed central products of tourism. Forest parks in Albania, for example, create very interesting environment and increase the interests of visitors who adore nature);
- develop local tourism in line with the global criteria and standards.

The destination represents is the primary reason for being interested to travel, whilst tourist products and services enable tourists to make a concrete selection. Due to the inherent nature of tourism consumption, the purchase is made where the holiday package is produced.

Meanwhile, the destination itself comes under pressure from visitors: the more tourists arrive, the greater the pressure upon the destination. To tackle this, careful professional management and destination planning are extremely important if tourism wants to preserve the destination valuable and distinctive elements in the long run, while at the same time preserving its visibility as an “acceptable” tourist offer.

The general characteristics of the tourist offer, the destination, "production" of the holiday offer and heterogeneity of elements are extremely stable. In other words, all destinations are combinations of fixed variables of factors and opportunities of tourist activities. If one of the factors is missing, then one cannot speak of a tourist destination. Destination problems mostly stem from the lack of coordination and response of various actors.

Tourist travel as a product is a complex product that is offered through numerous and diverse specific products and services, which may be shaped in many different ways and for which demand exists based on a combination of motives, often in conflicting mutual interlinkages.

This calls for careful application of the total quality management system in the tourism sector, in all aspects of the design, production, and marketing of a total tourism product as one of the key elements for attracting tourists and boosting tourism-related income.
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[3] Dr. F. Ukaj “Promotion and contemporary promotional segments in tourism”, Peja 2006,


Other sources:


2. www.visitkosova.org

3. www.kotas-ks.org

4. www.kosovundp.org

5. www.euinkosovo.org

6. www.rugovaexperience.org
Globalization and Language Use on Social Media in Pakistan

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Sabiha Mansoor
Research Associate, Professor of English

Abstract

This article examines the written comments of Pakistani students on the official Facebook sites of the public and private sector universities in order to study their English language skills and social networking systems of students and its implications for language policy in education. The study focused on the quantitative and statistical analysis and investigated the differences of Facebook users from the public and private sector in the light of educational background, regional variation, and gender. Results of the study displayed the dominant use of English and a significant difference between public and private sector students in their preference to use English. Results also showed that there is considerable differences in men and women representation on Social Networking Sites (Facebook) in some provinces of Pakistan. Findings of the study raise the issue of language discrimination between students of public and private sector universities, in terms of access and equity of the current language policy in Pakistan to meet language demands of globalization.

Keywords: Globalization and Language Use on Social Media in Pakistan

Introduction

This article presents a critical analysis of a corpus of Facebook comments by university students in context on official Facebook sites of both public and private universities in Pakistan. The aim of the study was to understand how this popular social networking site reflects the Pakistani graduate competency in English required for internet technology for local and global communication. The critical quantitative analysis of Facebook comments was used to investigate linguistic discrimination, if any, between students from public and private sector universities, various regions of Pakistan, and gender in terms of access and equity. The aim was to assess if the languages used by subjects reflected their ease in using the language and an assertion of their identity and culture; or conversely due to inadequacy to express themselves in written English.

This paper presents a pioneering study of computer-mediated communication (CMC) through comments of students posted on the fairly recent official social networking sites (Facebook) of a number of public and private HEC approved universities of Pakistan. The major aim of the study was to examine if the current language policy in education was preparing students to have adequate English language skills to meet the current and future demands of globalization for individual and national socio economic advancement.

Background: Language and Education in Pakistan

Pakistan is a multilingual and multicultural state with a population of around 182.1 million (World Bank, US Census Bureau 2013). The national official language Urdu though mother tongue of only 7.5 % of the population enjoys a high status as a symbol of national identity and integration. English as an international lingua franca, enjoys a high status. The 1973 Constitution of Pakistan (article 251) projected that Urdu would replace English as the official language within 15 years. However, due to a number of factors including lack of Urdu materials, English remains the ‘defacto’ official language and medium of higher education. Despite being the mother tongue of a small population; Urdu and English are regarded as ‘majority’ languages as they enjoy a high status and are used by the powerful institutions in Pakistan for official purposes and for education. The language policy has always encouraged these two languages at the cost of regional languages that are the mother tongue of the large majority of population in Pakistan.
Theoretical Framework

**Facebook and Language Change:** Internet, as the major influential means of communication in this globalized world, is constantly changing the way people communicate with each other. Social media has resulted in the increased usage of acronyms which are substituting long phrases on the internet. BRB (be right back), LOL (laugh out loud), ttyl (talk to you later) are few examples of how internet users tend to use acronyms instead of full sentences over the social media in order to save time. Mehmood. S & Taswir. T, (2013) explored the effects of social networking sites on undergraduate students at College of Applied Sciences in Oman and found out that around 58% of the student acknowledged the change in their language or style of discourse through social media. Media acts as a powerful driver that represents the bias in communication in such subtle ways that the reader and viewer imbibe the messages without even knowing it (Siddiqui. S 2014).

**Language and Culture:** Anthropologists around the world define culture in terms of day to day practices arising from normative attitudes of a group of people whose interactions are shaped by specific forms of social organizations. Social media has provided a platform where people from different cultures come together and interact with each other. Intercultural dialogue, and thus language especially English; is of great importance in our globalized world where different cultural backgrounds interact daily with each other through influential social media like Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and Viber. Saleem. N (2015) explored the effects of Social Networking Sites on family interactions and their roles in undermining family bonds along with face to face conversations. This study found out that there is a strong correlation between isolation and the time spent on a social networking site. Sawyer. R (2011) found out that social media is primarily used as a tool to integrate people into their cultures while adapting the new cultures. Her paper examined the effect of social media on the intercultural adaptation process. According to her, interaction and communication are the main tools that affect intercultural adaptation through social media.

**Language and Gender:** Studies that have discourse as their primary concept are becoming immensely popular in the field of gender and language over the past two decades. Gendered discourse is the term linked to Jane Sunderland’s (2004) approach that focuses on the identification of gendered discourses through traces in language use. This approach of Sunderland is related to the analysis called Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis (FCDA), which essentially links CDA and female linguistics. FCDA is primarily used where the critique is needed on the discourses containing patriarchal social order in them. This analysis looks into the unequal gender relations that are obvious in the language use, so as to emancipate and transform.

Keeping in view the scarce literature and paucity of research publications on the impact of globalization and social media from a linguistic point of view in Pakistan, this research study was designed to look into various features of the written discourse of university students through their comments on Facebook of their university website.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Universities</th>
<th>Private Universities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punjab – 45 students’ fb comments</td>
<td>Punjab – 30 students’ fb comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindh - 45 students’ fb comments</td>
<td>Sindh - 30 students’ fb comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balochistan – 5 students’ fb comments</td>
<td>Balochistan – 5 students’ fb comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber Pakhtunkhawa – 20 students’ fb comments</td>
<td>Khyber Pakhtunkhawa – 10 students’ fb comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamabad – 20 students’ fb comments</td>
<td>Islamabad – 10 students’ fb comments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method**

The present study adopted a combined quantitative and qualitative approach. Both descriptive and statistical analysis were used to find out if the differences were significant or not between students comments in terms of public and private sector universities, regional variation, and gender. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Chi Square tests were used to examine the statistical associations between these above mentioned factors.

The qualitative approach was adopted to understand the differences in students’ comments on Facebook keeping in view the context in which they were made.

**Sample**

In Pakistan, there are currently 129 universities in both public and private sector recognized by Higher Education Commission. To find an appropriate and reliable sample of subjects, a two-stage cluster sampling was used for this study.
In the first stage, 18 Higher Education Commission (HEC) recognized universities as listed in HEC 2015 ranking list of a total of 129 universities, were selected through purposive sampling on the basis of ratio in number, of public (11) and private universities (7) in Pakistan along with regional variation. Another consideration was size of population of universities and HEC ranking. (See Table 1 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Universities</th>
<th>Private Universities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punjab – 3 universities</td>
<td>Punjab – 2 universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindh – 3 universities</td>
<td>Sindh – 2 universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balochistan – 1 university</td>
<td>Balochistan – 1 university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyhber Pakhtunkhawa – 2 universities</td>
<td>Kyhber Pakhtunkhawa – 1 university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamabad – 2 universities</td>
<td>Islamabad – 1 university</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1: Sample of public and private universities

In the second stage, the students’ comments were selected randomly. As seen in Table 2, the study comprises around 220 students who posted on official Facebook university sites by the students in the provinces of Pakistan. Table 2: Sample of students FB comments.

The data was collected on an excel sheet developed by the researchers in collaboration with the statistical advisor. The data collectors were university students who volunteered to be involved with the study; were trained on how to fill in the excel sheet; and data was collected in the university computer center under the direct supervision of the researchers.

Quantitative analysis was used to determine the: (1) language(s) used in public & private university Facebook sites; (2) level of formality in language use in Public & Private universities; (3) area and topic of discussion; (4) percentage of FB comments by gender in public and private universities; (5)men & women as active Facebook users by region. The criteria for assessing the level of formality was taken from Pearce (2005) and a study by Perez Sabater et al. (2008). The corpus was analyzed using a 5 point scale, starting from ‘very formal’ to ‘very informal as seen below. An excel sheet was developed and used by data collectors through computers to analyze the data.

Results

Table 3: Language use in public & private university Facebook sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages used on Facebook comments</th>
<th>Percentages of Languages users</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urdu</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed (Code switching)</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Level of formality in language use in public & Private universities %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Formal %</th>
<th>Informal %</th>
<th>Neither formal nor informal %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dominant Language Used: The findings of the present study displayed English to be the most dominant and frequently used language by the Facebook users in public and private universities, with private university students showing a significantly higher preference for use of English (see Table 3).

The languages used in Facebook comments by students from public and private universities, around 44% of the comments on public university Facebook sites and 66% on private university Facebook sites were in English. Though Urdu comments were used by 25% of public sector students and 13% private sector students, they were written in English Roman transliteration. The regional languages of the provinces of Pakistan were seldom used in any of the Facebook comments.
by both public 1.5% and private sector 2.4% students. The comments in the regional language on Facebook were used by
the students in KPK and Baluchistan, who used Pashto; and the use of Sindhi by a few students from Sindh. There were
no comments in Punjabi by university students of Punjab. While posting comments on the university Facebook site, code
mixing and language crossing was used by almost a quarter of all students. The students from public university (28%) and
18% of students from private university used code mixing in their comments of English and Urdu, or English and regional
language, or all three languages.

Preference for English: As seen in Table 5, a significant difference between the public and private sector university students
in terms of preference for English.

Level of Formality and Context: Another important finding of this study was the difference in level of formality shown in the
comments in public and university Facebook sites. Table 4 exhibits the percentage of level of formality in public and private
Facebook university sites. The students from public universities (59%) were more informal in the written discourse while
posting comments than private university students (33%). Private sector students also made use of semi-formal comments
(20%) on Facebook, as compared to very few students (5%) from public sector.

Topic of discussion: Another finding suggested that the social context and topic of Facebook comments in public university
sites was largely university related (see Table 6). On the other hand, Facebook users on private university sites posted
comments which were both personal and university related, with percentage of personal comments being higher than
university related comments.

Table 6: Topic of FB comments in public & private university %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>University related</th>
<th>Personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public universities</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private universities</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The language used in terms of formality or informality was also dependent on the topic: Informal language was used for
personal context and formal language was used for university related issue.

Topics on complaints and religious matters usually were in informal discourse. The topics observed on both public and
private university Facebook sites were mainly related to institutional loyalty, advertisements, alumni discussions,
employment opportunities and humor and wit, and concern for admissions. Religious and political connotations were mainly
seen on public university Facebook sites; especially from Baluchistan and Khyber Pukhtunkhwa.

Language Change: Students from both public and private sector universities were seen to use acronyms and slangs in their
comments.

Table 5: Results based on Inferential Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Statistical Test</th>
<th>Results/Implications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Digital Divide in Public/Private Universities in use of Social Media Networking</td>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>No significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Norms of Social Media Networking</td>
<td>Nonparametric tests</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of University (public/private) &amp; preference for English</td>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Students/users of FB in private universities have statistically higher preference for English usage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of University (Public/Private) &amp; Preference for formal/informal language</td>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender norms of level of formality</td>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>Level of formality statistically independent with the gender ratios in different universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for English &amp; Preference for formal/informal language</td>
<td>Chi square</td>
<td>Preference of English found independent of the Preference for formal/informal language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association between preference for formal/informal language &amp; the feedback effect</td>
<td>Chi square</td>
<td>Statistically insignificant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of Feedback &amp; preference for English</td>
<td>Chi square</td>
<td>Weak causality between Ratio of Feedback &amp; preference for English</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Hopper (1998) views grammar as the product of interactive communication and not the cause.
Language & Identity: Comments posted on university Facebook site displayed that in KPK and Baluchistan some of the students used Pashto and only a few students used Sindhi in Sindh. Students from other provinces especially in Punjab preferred to comment in English or / and Urdu in Roman English transliteration. According to Cyber Atlas (2003), the advancements in the internet and technology have resulted in the emergence of English as the Lingua Franca in our globalized world. Thus, with technology and new social media, the impact of English on local languages has increased more than ever.

Language and Gender: Table 7 displays simple percentage of Facebook comments from public or private universities in terms of proportion of males and females posting the comments and regional variation.

Out of the total 220 student comments, 62% were male comments and 38% were female.

Table 8 shows gender norms on university Facebook sites in all provinces in Pakistan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Public universities %</th>
<th>Private universities %</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Punjab %</th>
<th>Sindh %</th>
<th>KPK %</th>
<th>Balochistan %</th>
<th>Islamabad %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindh</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPK</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Balochistan</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Islamabad</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Males are dominating the university Facebook sites with Punjab and Sindh showing relatively less difference in female and male university Facebook usage. On Baluchistan and KPK university Facebook sites, the difference between men and women as active Facebook users as observed in comments posted, is worth noting. In Baluchistan, with almost 90% of the male’s comments compared to 10% female comments, makes it evident that the females in higher education are invisible and silent. In KPK, the domination of males as active Facebook users is evident by their comments (63%) as compared to only 37% female comments. The comments show also how women make more use of emoticons and images to express their emotions as compared to men, who are generally expected to express less in our society.

Results and Discussion

Linguistic Discrimination: The study findings display that the importance of English has increased for university graduates in the modern world due to globalization and technology including Pakistani university students. It was also seen that the most frequent use of comments in English on the Facebook on the official website of their universities by both private and public students in universities of Pakistan, is the result of spread of English due to its high status and prestige; as well as being the most widely used lingua franca globally. In addition, fluency to English, is linked with power; and seen as a tool for empowerment. This study shows that the private sector students use English more than public sector universities and display a significantly higher preference for use of English have studied in English medium schools; whereas the public sector students make use of English along with code mixing due to their lack of ease in using English.

Language Change: The use of acronyms in comments by university students on Facebook displayed a language change often referred to as the internet language being different from the language used by students for written language in classrooms. Code mixing was more frequently used by public sector students even in comments for formal use. The ever-evolving nature of the communication on social media is continuously altered and regenerated.

Language and Gender: The study displayed more male as active FB users in Baluchistan and KPK. It was seen that the comments posted by the females were mostly in emotional vocabulary and their comments were mainly related to nostalgia, fashion, women moving ahead, diet and party arrangements. Gender polarization is the process that makes it easier to restrict opportunities and exclude women and girls from education, military and public platforms (Bing and Bergvall, 1996). Education and language tend to play vital roles in the construction and perpetuation of certain stereotypes against women.
and girls in public platforms. Educational system helps in constructing and magnifying differences in class and boundaries in our country mainly through favoring dominant language, dominant culture, and pedagogical practices (Siddiqui, S, 2014).

**Recommendations**

Based on the democratic principle, Pakistan must ensure equal opportunities to all its citizens so as to develop themselves personally and professionally. The results of this study display linguistic discrimination between private and public sector students that must be diminished by improving English Language Teaching (ELT) programmes of public sector schools and university, keeping in view the current and future English language skills required by Pakistani graduates for intra and international communication through Social Networking Sites.

The lack of participation of females in Facebook, especially in backward areas like Baluchistan and KPK, is a major concern for women development in Pakistan. It is important for the socio-economic development in Pakistan that the female graduates participate fully as active FB users so that they can be socially integrated in the educational institutions.

In terms of ethno-linguistic vitality of regional languages, state must enhance the status and role of these local languages, especially Punjabi, and strengthen them by integrating them into the educational process of Pakistani students. This would help result in Pakistani graduates emerge as additive bilinguals and not subtractive bilinguals.

Social networking sites have been affecting the social as well as cultural fabric of our societies and have been revolutionizing the pattern of our communication, socialization and interaction. Findings of this study underscore the need to investigate the language needs of university students for English for social media and the learner difficulties.

**REFERENCES**


The Acquisition of Language: Evidence in Syntax

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Abstract

This paper aims to discuss the two main approaches to language acquisition and present the main ideas behind the nativist and the usage-based account. The concomitant argument between the two sides has been present in linguistics ever since the proposal of innateness was provided by the paradigm of mainstream generative grammar (Chomsky 1965). In order to contribute to the ongoing discussion, we will attempt to outline the main challenges that the both theoretical strands are faced with and provide an overview of syntactic evidence provided by linguists whose work was devoted to understanding the mechanisms of language acquisition. Our goal is to analyze the insights provided by the phenomena such as syntactic bootstrapping, poverty of the stimulus, multiple argument realizations and non-canonical syntactic constructions and argue that integrating these findings into a usage-based framework (Tomasello 2000, 2003 & 2009) or various instances of Construction Grammar (Goldberg 1995 & 1996, Fillmore Kay & Fillmore 1999, van Trijp 2016, Steels 2011, inter alia) provides a more plausible and comprehensive explanation of the processes responsible for language acquisition.

Keywords: Acquisition of Language: Evidence in Syntax

Introduction

Although the origins and the complexity of language were discussed long before Chomsky’s entrance into the world of linguistics, it is only after his response to Skinner (Chomsky 1959) that the processes underlying the language acquisition have become the subject of intense linguistic debate. The mystery of the language acquisition that has puzzled psychologists, linguists and even philosophers (Skinner 1957, Chomsky 1959, Descartes 1984) was rooted in the fact that language appears to be reserved only for the human race. The diverging views on language acquisition between Chomsky and Skinner have retained a similar form until today and they stem from different accounts of mechanisms by which humans acquire language. The central problem in their disagreement was evident in the importance they ascribed to linguistic environment and the input to child speech. The analysis of evidence in syntax becomes interesting for our paper since it adequately reflects the relationship between input and speech. Naturally, the evidence put forward can sometimes be regarded as disputable or problematic, especially when approached from alternative theoretical paradigms. In the paper, we examine some of the familiar syntactic evidence (Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Pinker & Jackendoff 2005, Jackendoff 2007 & 2008, Tomasello 2009) and outline the main traits of two broad theoretical accounts of language acquisition: the usage based-account and the nativist account. One theoretical strain posits grammatical competence to be innate, capacity which is human-specific. The alternative approach to language acquisition puts emphasis on the children’s general cognitive processes and regards the process of acquisition as incremental development. The main goal of our paper is to assess the viability of theoretical arguments provided by both sides, especially those concerning the evidence in grammar, and to rule out those contentions which do constitute a sensible framework for the analysis of language acquisition. Of course, the final verdict on the adequacy of the theoretical alternatives remains to be reached by the linguistic community, which is why this paper aims only to acknowledge their work and offer a humble estimation of it. In section 1, we provide a summary of the main features of nativism and the central issues related to this standpoint. Section 2 deals with its theoretical opposition,
the usage-based approach, advocated by Tomasello (among many others), in which the acquisition of syntax is seen as a piecemeal process enabled by the children's analogical and inductive skills. In section 3, we turn to the evidence in input. The so-called “Poverty of the Stimulus” argument is examined with the focus on acquisition of verbs. The acquisition of verbs in regards to their transitivity characteristics is scrutinized in section 4, where the alternative reasoning to the one of syntactic bootstrapping is provided. The link between meaning and syntax is inspected in section 5, especially in relation to children’s concept understanding. Section 6 deals with the Construction Grammar and Parallel Architecture approaches to syntax-semantics mapping and provides challenges to the classical lexicon-syntax dichotomy. We also look at non-canonical syntactic constructions and their relevance for challenging the nativist assumptions. Section 7 contains he final discussion along with the conclusion.

1. The nativist approach to language acquisition

Noam Chomsky is undoubtedly one the most renowned names in the field of linguistics in general and one of the pioneers of the nativist approach to language acquisition. The discussion on mechanisms behind language acquisition dates back to Chomsky’s response to Skinner’s idea about children’s verbal behaviour being predictable because it is acquired via external reinforcing stimuli (Chomsky 1959). At the times, Chomsky’s response might have been considered radical, and yet today, the argumentation that there is something innate about our capacity to acquire and process language is considered legitimate in linguistic circles. One of its basic assumptions is that human language is overly complex for such an effortless process of acquisition that the child demonstrates. Simple perception of the environment and exposure to language cannot account for such rapid acquisition. Hence, grammar as a complex set of rules that govern the language use must be innate. One of the ideas behind it was that all languages share the fundamental underlying similarities, such as the presence of grammatical categories like nouns and verbs in all languages, which would surely be explained by genetic predetermination. The only way that one can challenge this idea of innateness is to offer a “general learning strategy” which would account for acquisition, which, according to Chomsky, has not yet been offered (2006: 183). Universal Grammar emerges as a theory that accounts for these “linguistic universals” (Cook and Newson 2007).

However, the notion of UG is not universally accepted by the linguistic community, as was recently reflected by, among others, Evans and Levinson (2009), Everett (2005), Müller (2013). Evans and Levinson (2009) present several aspects in which languages differ fundamentally rather than superficially¹ and one of the dissimilarities between languages that comes they mention is word order. Some languages have SVO order, other SOV order and there are even significant changes within one language through time. English, for instance, “has changed from a free-word order, highly inflected, topic-prominent language, as its sister German remains to this day, to a fixed-word-order, poorly inflected, subject prominent language, all in less than a millennium.” (Pinker 1995: 235).

As anticipated, languages differ at the level of phonology, morphology and semantics (Evans and Levinson 2009). Most of these differences are often characterized as superficial by the advocates of UG. Nevertheless, the grammatical variation across languages extends beyond different word-orders. Some of these apparent differences could hardly be classified as superficial. For instance, “many languages lack an open adverb class” (Evans and Levinson 2009: 434). Languages like Lao lack an adjective class. Word classes such as coverbs, classifiers, positionals or ideophones are not employed in English (or in the case of classifiers occur marginally). As Evans and Levinson further demonstrate, certain constraints that are found in English do not apply to languages such as Italian or Russian, which not only refutes the linguistic universals, but also points out the anglo-centric position from which Chomsky operated (Evans and Levinson 2009: 437). Most importantly, not all languages can be interpreted in terms of constituent structure. Evans and Levinson give an example of Latin sentence which would be represented better through a dependency module, since a tree diagram would appear

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¹ The reader should bear in mind that the ideas put forth in Evans & Levinson (2009) are often regarded as controversial. For a critical assessment of their claims, see, inter alia, Nevins 2009, Keenan & Stabler 2010, Abels & Neelman 2010, Reuland & Everaert 2010; for a counter-reply to criticism, see Levinson & Evans 2010.
senseless (due to the arrangement of words it would have crossing lines). As they postulate, “There can be constituent structure without recursion, but there can also be hierarchical relations and recursion without constituency” (Evans and Levinson 2009: 440).

If the nativists’ claims were taken to extreme, they could be taken to imply that children are linguistically competent from the earliest stages of their lives, but the lack of performance is obviously due to underdeveloped motor skills, practice, insufficient input and other performatve aspects of language use. Needless to say, the assumption of complete linguistic competence from birth challenges the functional bearing that general cognition ought to have in the language acquisition. According to the nativist paradigm, the input is only relevant in a sense in which it provides the child with something to apply its inborn grammatical categories and rules to. The supposed innate mechanism was ultimately named LAD (language acquisition device).

Within the faculty of language, two major components were defined – Faculty of language-broad sense (FLB), which encompasses the “conceptual intentional” and “sensory motor” systems, and the Faculty of language-narrow sense (FLN), (Hauser et al. 2002). Both of these systems constitute certain parts of general cognition. Nevertheless, FLB includes FLN, which is undeniably the controversial element in the scheme. “FLN is the abstract linguistic computational system alone, independent of the other systems with which it interacts and interfaces” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1571). Nevertheless, the fact that the two internal systems are exclusively attributed to human race is what is most emphasized in their work. As they put it, “although homologous mechanisms may exist in other animals, the human versions have been modified by natural selection to the extent that they can be reasonably seen as constituting novel traits, perhaps exapted from other contexts (e.g. social intelligence, tool-making)” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1572). The latter part of the quote was afterwards the target of most criticism, as it effectively states that the supposed faculty of language is completely autonomous and has no links to general cognition or intelligence, although this has been the central issue in previous discussions as well. Again, FLB is not as rigorously separated from cognition, which makes the theory a bit contradictory, but doubtlessly more bulletproof to further criticism. Notwithstanding, the nativist theory is rather clear on these points today and the intelligence part is taken out of the acquisition equation. By drawing an analogy with animals and “imbeciles” which acquire language, Chomsky indeed argues intelligence to be a separate mechanism (2006: 9). The argumentation put forward is that of special “device”, which evolution has resulted in, and which equips us with language and grammar from the point of birth. Although FLB is less restrictive to mechanisms shared with the rest of the animal kingdom, Hauser et al. maintain FLN to be a human privilege.¹

The existence of FLN is often justified by what is argued to be the property of all languages – recursion or “a capacity for discrete infinity” (Hauser et al. 2002: 1573). This would mean that humans have the capability of producing the infinite number of grammatical sentences. Jackendoff delineated this further by stating that “a set of rules is called ‘recursive’ if the rules can apply to their own output an unbounded number of times and thereby can produce an unlimited number of expressions from a finite set of primitives” (2011: 591). It follows from the argumentation that any sentence has the possibility of being infinitely long regardless of its vocabulary limitation. Naturally, for this to be true, language’s syntactic properties must allow such possibilities. The usual example for infiniteness or recursivity are the embedded sentences. For example, the sentence: “He reckons that his brother told him that Sarah believed that…”, can potentially continue to infinity. Here, the possibility of infiniteness is induced only through one conjunction. The case for a biologically endowed language faculty is also weakened by claims in Everett (2003) that the Amazonian language Pirahã does not allow recursion as this was regarded as one of the fundamental features of language in Hauser et al. (2002)².

¹ For a more detailed discussion on this topic, see Jackendoff (2011), Mendívil-Giró (to appear).
² It should be mentioned that the question of recursion in Pirahã is far from being conclusively answered and we will treat the issue as open. For arguments denying the existence of recursion in Pirahã, see Nevins et al. 2009a & 2009b; for arguments defending Everett’s original claim, see Everett 2007, Futrell et al. 2016.
According to Hauser et al., “it seems relatively clear, after nearly a century of intensive research on animal communication, that no species other than humans has a comparable capacity to recombine meaningful units into an unlimited variety of larger structures, each differing systematically in meaning” (2002: 1576). Certainly, the communicative systems can be found among various animal species, but something as intricate as language has remained unobservable outside the human species. Therefore, highlighting the absence of recursion in the animals’ communicative systems is justified and yet redundant, just as it would be redundant to claim that 3D technology will not be available to the viewer via his colourless television. Moreover, it is not clear how the examination of such abstract concept like recursion and infiniteness among animals can be productive for our discussion. The comprehension of the term requires at least human cognitive capacities, which tells us that the application of the same would require similar capacities. In addition, the property of boundlessness expands beyond the realms of language. It is observed and discussed in most natural sciences: chemistry, physics, mathematics etc. Thus, even if the infiniteness is linguistically observable, there is no reason why it should the separating factor between the so-called LAD and other general cognitive capacities. Pinker and Jackendoff have criticized most of the argumentation regarding the recursion provided by Hauser et al. (2002), especially it being exclusively tied to FLN and the evidence of its existence (Pinker and Jackendoff 2005). The recursion can be observed or interpreted in other human senses, such as human visual cognition. As they explain, the outside world is perceived as being made of discrete elements, which can be joined together to form larger constituents, and the sequences which are observed as pairs or clusters can be endless. It is always possible to generate larger constituents from various elements (ibid, 2005). Since the universe itself is infinite and humans tend to categorize, it can be expected that the so called “discrete infinity” is perceivable wherever. If we were to gracefully integrate the property of recursion into the nativist approach, we ought to attribute the property to FLB rather than the FLN.

2. The usage-based approach to language acquisition

The usage-based approach, as advocated by Tomasello, emphasizes nurture over nature (Tomasello 2000, 2003 & 2008). Within the approach, child’s general cognition is highlighted in the acquisition of language, rather than asserting the linguistic capacity as being innate. According to Tomasello, children do not reach the phase of language acquisition until the age of one. Until then, they will have developed skills such as intention-reading (functional dimension) and pattern finding (grammatical dimension), both of which are actually cognitive functions usually unrelated to language at all (2008: 69). Tomasello considers intention-reading to be species-specific, something the nativists render extremely important. However, one might say that intention-reading is unobservable in primates because it implies reading the intentions of others and it seems that intentional action is reserved only for species capable of intending something, which means it is cognitively advanced. Assuming that intentional action does exist among other primates or animals, it is hardly plausible that the rest of the animal kingdom meets the cognitive requirements for taking the goals of others into consideration or for understanding the fact that others are in fact doing something intentionally. The acquisition of any linguistic item depends on such understanding. The gap between the understanding part and the acquisition part, which is called the “chasm” by Chomsky, and the bridging of this gap is where the two theories differ fundamentally.

“For example, almost all infants communicate by pointing before they have acquired any productive language, and many also use some kind of iconic or conventionalized gestures as well... This suggests that human pointing and other gestures may already embody forms of social cognition and communicative motivation that are unique to the species, and that are necessary as a first step on the way to linguistic conventions both phylogenetically and ontogenetically” (Tomasello 2008: 70).

Similarly to Chomsky, Tomasello acknowledges the fact that certain mechanisms are unique to humans. Nevertheless, these mechanisms are rather the byproduct of the more evolved cognitive system in humans. Naturally, the cognition or intelligence could be regarded innate to a certain extent, but the term itself is best avoided because of its species-specific implications. While intention-reading is regarded uniquely human by Tomasello, this is rather a “side-effect” of a more advanced general cognition as noted previously. This account places importance on the pre-linguistic communication, upon
which the linguistic communication is then built (Tomasello 2008). The example of bridging the “chasm” can be a young child pointing to the television and, in a lack of a better or not yet acquired word, saying “Daddy” to express its desire for watching television. The linguistic symbols such as “TV” or “turn on” will only become available to the child afterwards as markers of his intention. The child’s mastering of the new words will require him/her to understand the fact that they lack the necessary vocabulary, the need to learn it and, at the same time, to have the ability of using only partially linguistic communication to reach their goals. A similar example is that of acquiring any other word for a particular object. For instance, in the acquisition of the word “table”, the bridging of the “chasm” is less obvious because the table is visually observable as a physical manifestation and the parent’s usage of the word is accompanied with the gaze towards it. In this case, the bridging requires less cognitive activity since perception rather than abstract thinking is what is required for the acquisition of the “new” notion. As Crain and Thronton explain it:

“Advocates of the usage-based account highlight the availability of relevant cues in the input to children. These cues serve as the basis for the generalizations that children form about language. These generalizations are formed using general purpose learning mechanisms including distributional analysis, analogy, cut and paste operations, and the like. The products of these learning algorithms are ‘shallow’ records, which children keep of their linguistic experience” (2012: 186).

Finally, by the time the child has learned to produce the whole utterance, to turn off or on the television, the child already understands the motive and the reference. This means that the child understands the reason for turning on the television and what the entire process (turning on of the television) which is being referred to means. This is precisely why Tomasello renders a complete utterance to be the smallest communicative unit, since one can express full intention only via such construction. Thus, in order to understand how language acquisition operates, one needs to understand the ways by which the grammar operates. It might seem that the first thing that the child learns in a language is a word, but according to this account it is quite the opposite. While the word may be what is first uttered, it surely is not what is first learned. The child first listens to the conversations, utterances and with the help of observation and deduction, the child tries to figure out the meaning of an individual word. It is the function of the word in a sentence, as well as the meaning of the surrounding elements, that will guide the child’s analytical attempt to uncover the word’s meaning (Tomasello 2008: 74). Clearly, one cannot extrapolate the meaning of a word just by analyzing one utterance. The child remembers the series of utterances in which the particular word was mentioned and, like in mathematics, the child uncovers the meaning of the constant (the word) with the help of several equations (utterances).

Lastly, the second cognitive skill of central importance to language acquisition, according to Tomasello, is pattern-finding. The first difference between pattern-finding and intention-reading is that pattern finding is spread among all primates (Tomasello 2008: 86). Pattern-finding, sometimes called the pattern-recognition, is the analytical process of finding regularities and extracting the relevant data form the input, which is language in this case. Recursion seems to be viewed as a by-product of the human’s cognitive constrains as well as the pragmatic limitations related to discourse. Before assuming the universality of grammar, one must first take into consideration the fact that cognitive skills and the same analytical thinking is universal as well, which makes it plausible to regard the universality of grammar as a by-product of the stated processes. As Pinker puts it when referring to the similar word-order across languages,

“The second counter explanation that one must rule out before attributing a universal of language to a universal language instinct is that languages might reflect universals of thought or of mental information processing that are not specific to language... Perhaps subjects precede objects because the subject of an action verb denotes the causal agent (as in Dog bites man); putting the subject first mirrors the cause coming before the effect” (1995: 235)

The analytical process is also accounted for in the proposal called Conservative Learning (Snyder 2007). At the earliest stage of acquisition, children are assumed to be reproducing the expressions that they encountered in their linguistic environment (Crain and Thronton 2012: 187). According to this view, innate language capacity is redundant in the process of learning. Mastering the new linguistic constructions relies completely on input and the learners’ experience. Conservative
learning seems to be in alignment with Tomasello's claims, which is why he remains theoretically defensive of such a learning model.

3. Poverty of the stimulus

One of the most discussed and perhaps the most challenging issue within the usage-based theory is question of verb acquisition. Naturally, not every word-class presents the same amount of difficulty upon its acquisition. Verbs seem to be conceptually more demanding than nouns, partially because the comprehension of them, as stated previously, requires more than simple perception and the understanding of the corresponding actions (Tomasello and Brandt 2009: 1994). Indeed, nouns may denote abstract concepts, but the nouns encountered or learned in the earliest stages of childhood are often those denoting nearest objects. In order to examine the acquisition of verbs, Tomasello and Brandt conducted a research relying on the diaries that were supposed to be led by children's parents in which they would keep track of the 10 instances where the targeted verbs were used, that is, 10 utterances that contained the verbs. Finally, the results showed that the average time for children's usage of the acquired verb in ten instances was around one month (2009: 116). In 75% of the cases children would use different agents or locations with the same verbs. At first glance, it may seem that the nativist account benefits from such findings, since one month's time is hardly a long period for such accomplishment if the child's average daily use of language is taken into consideration. According to this perspective, these results indicate that children are truly flexible in their language use or the use of verbs. Nevertheless, the issue remains on whether children come to know more than they could have learned from the input and whether this piece of evidence supports it.

The argument of children coming to know much more than they could have simply absorbed through input is often emphasized by the nativist paradigm. The logic behind the generative linguistic tradition states that the capacity to go beyond the input provided in the environment proves that people have grammatical categories and rules already inborn. Flexibility, however, is not necessarily a proof of innateness hypothesis. The real issue might be the one of productivity, which is very different from flexibility. Children’s capacity of great flexibility can prove to be within the boundaries of what has been provided in the input, especially if we were to talk about the syntactic or morphological flexibility. Indeed, children seem to learn a new manner in which the verb can be used every time they hear it. However, productivity implies that something is used in a completely different or “new” way, whether morphologically or syntactically. As Tomasello and Brandt put it, “And so flexibility with particular verbs does not signal lexically general productivity across all verbs, unless one has evidence that the flexibility is due to a child’s creative generalization and not simply to a reproduction of adult flexibility with each particular verb individually” (2009: 120). The main point that Tomasello and Brandt are aiming at is that it is impossible to know what the child has produced anew without having the records of the input the child encountered. Normally, such records ought to contain the input of the last several days the child has heard, rather than a single one. This leads us to the conclusion that any attempt of investigating productivity without the complete record of the input is futile.

In some cases, the acquisition of number words has also proven to be as troublesome for the child as the acquisition of verbs. In order to acquire a number word to occur, such as “four” for instance, the child must understand the meaning behind it, the meaning which is nothing less abstract than that of a verb. Of course, it is necessary that the child learns to understand the difference between regular nouns or words and those indicating numbers. In order for that to occur, the child’s awareness of the fact that the “four” symbolizes “fourness” is mandatory and although seemingly trivial, how they attribute the meaning to the word remains a mystery. Syrett et al. (2012) provide an explanation closer to the nativist perspective. The argument is that children clearly need to have certain concepts, such as cardinality and ordinality, already innate (cardinality marking the number of things that are contained somewhere and ordinality marking a particular sequence the number is a part of which). Uncovering the meaning of a word becomes inaccessible through merely syntactic

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1 However, it needs to be noted that such characterizations or assessments of one’s flexibility are always subjective or arbitrary, even when put forth by scholars such as Tomasello.
context (Syrett et al. 2012: 187). Such words are then learned in games that have the counting context, and children can easily understand what the number denotes. For example, someone pointing to dolls and saying: *Look at those three dolls.*

A particularly convincing argument going against the nativist line of thought regarding this argument comes from Bod (2009) and van Cranenburgh et al. (2016). One of the main claims of Bod (2009) is that the linguistic input is not as underdetermined as is usually assumed. The results of the application of the computer model in Bod (2009), known as the *Unsupervised Data-Oriented Parsing* (U-DOP), onto language learning indicate that the knowledge of grammatical constraints can be learned from the input without postulating any innate linguistic knowledge, i.e. that children could hypothetically derive their own generalizations about grammaticality of certain syntactic constructions relying solely on the input they receive. The results provided by these models represent a major argument in favour of the usage-based approaches (*inter alia*, Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Bybee 2006, Tomasello 2008)

### 4. Syntactic bootstrapping

One of the reasons why the acquisition of verbs is often discussed is because a verb’s lexical meaning is inseparable from the syntactic characteristics of a sentence. Moreover, the relationship between the verb’s position within a sentence and its lexical meaning seems to work bilaterally. For instance, verbs are often labelled as either transitive or intransitive and the labelling stems from the relationship between the verb and a nearby object, or better to say – the way the verb’s meaning is influenced by that object. One issue, easily verifiable, is the order by which children acquire the language and is generally agreed upon. Since the first thing that the baby produces is the string of sounds (babbling), phonological development is observed first and is then followed by lexical (one-word stage), morphological, syntactic (full sentence stage) and finally pragmatic development (O’Grady & Whan Cho 2016) Nevertheless, the debate is on whether the sequence is as clear-cut as argued. For instance, how is it possible that the lexical development precedes the syntactic if the verb’s meaning becomes determined by the syntactic environment in the sentence? One explanation is provided by the nativists – the child must have been equipped with full syntax from birth, but the demonstration of the innate knowledge is postponed due to practical reasons – how is the child supposed to demonstrate innate grammar without being able to form a full sentence first. Another explanation is provided by those advocating the usage-based account – innate syntax is not necessary at all because the child is intelligent enough to infer the lexical meanings by using skills previously mentioned (cf. §2).

The proposal that children are equipped with innate knowledge of grammatical categories that helps them deduce meaning and acquire language effortlessly, is called syntactic bootstrapping (Brown: 1957). More accurately, the innate syntactic knowledge is applied to the received input. There are several different explanations for the origins of the syntactic bootstrapping, one of which is structure-mapping account and it states: “On this account, syntactic bootstrapping begins with an innate bias toward one-to-one mapping between NPs in sentences and semantic arguments of predicate terms. Given this bias, children gain some syntactic guidance for verb interpretation as soon as they can identify some nouns in sentences” (Messenger et al. 2015: 357). One-to-one mapping refers to the children’s ability to recognize that a certain verb refers to the two nouns in its surroundings, that is – the child understands the possible roles of nouns as either “agents” or “patients”. For example, parents may speak about the ski trip they took some time ago in front of a toddler, and since the trip is not occurring in the present in front of a toddler, he/she relies on whatever information of the event that can be extracted only from the linguistic input. In a sentence “Jack yelled at Tom”, the toddler might notice the fact that there are two participants in question, while in “Tom left”, the number of participants is reduced to one (the intransitive “leaving”). “Implicit learning of these linguistic-distributional facts could permit children to establish an initial lexical entry for a verb, including its syntactic properties and aspects of its semantic structure (two participant-roles vs. one), but leaving unspecified its semantic content.

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1 It is also worth mentioning that some aspects of U-DOP described in Bod (2009), namely the MPSD (*Most Probable tree generated by the Shortest Derivation*), feel reminiscent of the ‘Good Enough’ approach described in Ferreira et a. (2002) and Ferreira and Patson (2007).
If children create such entries, and retain them over time, then these linguistic observations could guide later inferences about each verb’s event-derived semantic content (Messenger et al. 2015: 357). The experiment was conducted on children that were 22 months old. The researchers invented the verb “blick” for the purposes of the two phased experiment. In the first phase of the experiment, children were exposed to whether transitive or intransitive forms of the verb by watching two women discussing some event that was not related to the present. During the second phase children were supposed to pick one of the two actions presented upon hearing the isolated verb (find “blicking”) – one woman was raising the leg of another (two-participant event), while in other, the two woman did not mind each other in their actions (one-participant event) (Messener et al. 2015: 359). In the end, the results showed that the children exposed to the dialogues using the transitive “blick” during the first phase (“Bill was blicking a duck”), stared longer at the two-participant event during the second phase, and for those that were hearing the intransitive “blick” (“Bill was blicking”) looked longer at the one-participant event (Messenger et al. 2015: 364).

Similar effects in acquisition of verbs are reported in Goldberg et al. (2004) and Boyd and Goldberg (2009). The results based on a spoken corpus consisting of utterances produced by mothers and their children show that the acquisition of a particular syntactic construction (e.g. a ditransitive construction) typically involves a few verbs which instantiate the prototypical relationship between the verb and its arguments within that construction and these few verbs constitute the majority of the tokens in the corpus. This allows the learners to associate the meaning predicated by the verb with the meaning of the entire construction and, thus, make generalizations which allow for further creative uses of the construction using other verbs.

The results seem to suggest that the children are truly able to extract the information about the verbs by simply listening to language. Basically, children gather the linguistic clues that will aid them in uncovering the meaning of the verb in question. This type of learning is called distributional learning. It is a type of learning where the clues, that are taken in different instances from different syntactic and semantic contexts, are linked to together to uncover the meaning of the verb in question. In other words, every time when the particular word is mentioned, the child memorizes the way of its usage and maps it together with the information from all the previous mentioning of the word. When it comes to acquisition of verbs, a study by Theakston et al. (2004) has shown that there is no significant difference in the acquisition between the semantically more complex verbs and those that are used on a general basis (phrasal verbs such as find, make, go etc.). Naturally, one would assume that these might appear more often, especially when it comes to speech in children. However, while general verbs did appear more frequently in children’s speech, the ratio was still the same as it would have been in adult language (Theakston et al. 2004: 90). It seems that the children’s language reflected the input. The studies covered by this paper indicate that children are indeed capable of drawing conclusions from language alone and that they rely heavily on the input. If we take into consideration children’s usage of cognitive skills within the learning process, as well as the role of the input, it becomes unclear how the argument of “bootstrapping” becomes necessary for the explanation of acquisition. Innate knowledge would be a redundant addition to a child whose learning is distributional and thus it would also be redundant in the unlocking of the mystery of language acquisition.

5. Syntax-semantic interface

We have so far analysed the connection between the meaning and syntax in the acquisition of verbs, or more precisely, how the verb’s meaning is influenced by syntax. According to Chomsky, the grammar is unrelated to meaning: “Grammar is best formulated as self-contained study independent of semantics…” (2002: 102). This is somewhat expected because the nativist account separates the innate grammar from input, to which grammar is then applied (essentially the child’s acquisition comes down to the acquisition of a particular lexicon). When grammar is treated separately from meaning, the proposal that any demonstration of language, is a language acquired, even when nonsensical, becomes valid. For instance, children with cognitive disabilities often speak nonsensically, probably because their interpretation and understanding of the world is different from usual. Moreover, there are other possible reasons for the nonsensical language. Certain linguists that oppose the nativist standpoint, have proposed that “English-speaking children lack what they call the (pragmatic)
Concept of Non-Shared Assumptions (CNSA), i.e., the notion that “speaker and hearer assumptions are always independent.” As long as children lack this concept, they will not consistently take their hearer’s assumptions to be different from their own, and thus they will sometimes fail to distinguish common ground contexts from speaker beliefs-only contexts, leading to incorrect article use” (Lillo-Martin & Muller de Quadros 2011: 634). Thus, the proper usage of language depends on the understanding of it. Ultimately, the issue whether something has been acquired or not, regardless of the proper usage and understanding, becomes a matter of perspective, something that should be avoided in science and which is why we examine the issue further in continuation. Certain evidence suggests that the “understanding” part does not accompany this “articulatory” part fully. For instance, 6-year-old children find the acquisition of telicity problematic, that is, they are incapable of discerning telic from atelic events – meaning that they reportedly fail to detect whether the event in question has ended or not (Yin & Kaiser 2013: 457). Hence the predicament of whether we can truly argue that something has been acquired regardless of the lack of comprehension.

6. Parallel Architecture and Construction Grammar

One of the most intriguing recent developments in the issue of architecture of language comes from Ray Jackendoff’s Parallel Architecture (PA) (Jackendoff 2007 & 2011, Jackendoff & Audring 2016). This approach represents a step away from the syntactocentric models of linguistic models in mainstream generative grammar by regarding language as being made up of three independent generative levels – phonological, syntactic and semantic, connected via interfaces and by rejecting the strict lexicon-grammar dichotomy (Jackendoff 2007).

While PA may not tackle the issue of language acquisition directly, the evidence that Jackendoff provides upon explaining language processing can surely be applied within the theory of acquisition. The fact that the language needs to be processed in order to be acquired is one the implications of usage-based approach. The difference between the mainstream generative approach and PA is well observed in their approach to sentence building. In the generative tradition, sentence building is viewed as accumulative process, where grammar appears to be working step-by-step. For instance, one constituent combines with another to form a new one, which can be further combined with something else and the process, if needed, can supposedly continue indefinitely. The problematic implication of such perception on sentence building is that meaning is built step-by-step as well. If the mediator between sound production and the production of meaning is syntax, and grammar supposedly operates step-by-step, than the production of meaning must operate in the same way. Such approach to syntax and meaning is severely undermined by phenomena such as constructional idioms and the so-called ‘syntactic nuts’, like the N-P-N construction (Culicover & Jackendoff 2005, Jackendoff 2008). Building meaning step-by-step implies that syntactic structure is built first, after which the integration of lexemes (units equipped with meaning) follows with the goal of creating a meaningful sentence, the meaning of which is revealed at the end. As Jackendoff puts it, “The classical architecture, by contrast, implicitly claims that combinatorial thought is impossible without language, because structured semantics relies completely on syntactic combinatoriality. This leaves it a total mystery how other primates manage to do the complex things they do, both in the physical world and in their social environment” (2007: 7). The meaning, instead, is probably a by-product of a mutually combinatorial syntax-semantics relationship, rather than the simple “syntactic combinatoriality”. For illustration, Jackendoff provides an example where transitivity exposes this meaning influenced syntax. The verb “devour” is a transitive verb, which means that it requires at least two participants for the action – someone who is devouring and someone who is being devoured (2007: 10). The fact that the sentence requires a direct object proves that the semantic characteristics of the verb govern the rest of the sentence, direct object of which is an inevitable prospect. Object as such is the syntactic operator imposed by the meaning itself.

Similarly, Jackendoff uses the idiom “kick the bucket” to challenge the generative approach to grammar. This particular example is interesting as it reveals a non-correlative relationship between the meaning that would be deduced step-by-step and the actual meaning “to die”. Of course, this idiom is not an isolated case of such a relationship. In fact, all genuine idioms are characterized by “idiomaticity” (meaning cannot be deduced from the idiom’s constituents). Such idioms are found and identified across other cultures and languages. In the Russian linguistic tradition they are recognized as
phraseological fusions (Vinogradov 1986), while in the Anglo-Saxon tradition as idioms of decoding (Makkai 1972). Idioms such as “white elephant”, or “spill the beans”, are textbook examples of these semantically non-motivated structures. Again, the existence of partially lexically filled idioms, i.e. idioms with an open syntactic slot (such as *jog X’s memory, send X to the cleaners*), poses a great challenge for the dictionary-and-grammar model prominent in the generative grammar. On one hand, these syntactic patterns should be stored within the lexicon/dictionary component of the language faculty as they are idiosyncratic and have non-compositional meaning, but on the other hand, they are completely productive and regular, which is why they should be a part of the grammar/syntax module. It would seem that the only plausible conclusion is to reject the division of language into syntax and lexicon and regard it as a continuum with various degrees of schematicity, which is problematic for the nativist accounts, but represents one of the foundations of PA and Construction Grammar (CxG).\(^1\)

Research has also shown that children store plural nouns they use frequently as separate lexical items in their mental lexicons (Jackendoff 2011: 590), meaning that the redundancies are an integral part of the mental lexicon. Jackendoff is equally critical of the traditional approach to phonology-syntax relationship, the traditional approach being that there is no relationship. According to him, a sentence like “Sesame Street is a production of the Children’s Television Workshop” (2007: 5), testifies that there is a correlation indeed, which is evident through the analysis on both phonological and syntactic level:

(1) Syntax: [Sesame Street] [is [a production [of [the Children’s Television Workshop]]]]

Phonology: [Sesame Street is a production of] [the Children’s Television Workshop] or

[Sesame Street] [is a production] [of the Children’s Television Workshop]

The aim of this analysis is to expose the fact that the constraints exist on the phonological level. One cannot choose to pronounce a particular utterance in whichever manner they please. Certain linguistic conventions require certain level of abidance, for both pragmatic and comprehensive reasons. Besides, it is clear that these phonological constraints somewhat correspond to syntactic ones. Indeed, the two patterns obviously differ. However, even in such case, phonological manifestation of utterance is still guided both syntactically and semantically to a certain level. It would sound rather awkward if someone pronounced the utterance in the following way:

[Sesame] [Street is a] [production of the Children’s] [Television Workshop]

Another important aspect of PA is the disapproving stance towards the idea of grammar as a separate linguistic component. Likewise, the acquisition of grammar cannot then occur separately. The theory of language acquisition where the child’s acquisition of grammar occurs along with the semantic acquisition needs to be considered.

As already mentioned (§1.), the Chomskyan approach to grammar renders input as something that accommodates our innate codified grammar. If such contentions were interpreted as rigidly as they were posed, one could deduce that all utterances used regularly by us do not violate particular language’s syntactic constraints. As anticipated, there are numerous examples in adult speech where this is not the case. The examples of such constructions are provided by Pinker and Jackendoff (2005: 220):

(2)

a) *Off with his head! Into the trunk with you!* (only PP and NP)
b) *How about a cup of coffee? How about we have a little talk?* (*“How about” X?)
c) *What, me worry? Him in an accident?* (Mad Magazine construction)
d) *One more beer and I’m leaving.* (NP and a sentence)
e) *The more I read, the less I understand.* (covariational-conditional)

\(^1\) Although not explicitly working in this framework, a similar conclusion is provided by Giegerich (2005) for adjective-noun constructions with associative adjectives.
Again, the existence and regularity of these constructions poses a great challenge for the generative framework for several reasons. Apart from the aforementioned issue of their location in the lexicon-syntax dichotomy, a major problem for the nativist approach would be to explain how these constructions emerged in language in the first place and how they are learned or stored (depending on the module of language to which they are assigned). Innate grammatical rules would have to be broken in order for these construction to be learned, while storing them in the lexicon would require a huge amount of memory being reserved for storing each possible instantiation. At the same time, the cases in (2) represent a major point of interest for and are easily integrated into various instantiations of Construction Grammar (inter alia, Goldberg 1995 & 2006, Kay & Fillmore 1999, van Trijp et al. 2012, van Trijp 2016). One of the main points of all Construction Grammars is that language consists of learned pairings of form and meaning with varying degrees of specificity and the number of these pairings is continuously extended through exposure to language and generalizations drawn from this exposure.

Tomasello (2000) provides similar examples that prove the human capacity for acquisition of “highly abstract” and yet productive constructions. Similar to the “Mad Magazine” construction is the incredulity construction posed in exclamatory fashion, with the non-finite verb and subject in the accusative case: Him be a doctor! My mother ride a motorcycle! (2000: 236). There are other syntactic idiosyncrasies listed by Tomasello (2000: 237) such as:

(3)

a) It’s amazing the people you see here. It’s ridiculous how long it takes. (nominal extrapolation construction)

b) I wouldn’t live in Boston, let alone in New York. She won’t ride the stationary bike, let alone lift weights. (‘let alone’ construction (Fillmore et al. 1988))

The implication of these problematic constructions seems to be that learning occurs “from input”, and not “with input”. The distinction becomes important since it means that input is not something that merely adheres to the already innate grammatical rules. If anything, it is grammar that adheres to the input here. It is viable to assume that certain segment of language might be learned through “imitation”. Moreover, the assumption that children’s analogical skills are the main language learning method becomes justified with the existence of these idiosyncratic constructions, such as the “let alone” construction, which are claimed to be acquired in the same way as the canonical syntactic constructions, such as the transitive and the ditransitive construction. At first, the child learns the constructions as isolated cases, but later realizes their productive potential. As Tomasello puts it, “there is continuity not of structures […] but there is continuity of process in the sense that the processes of learning and abstraction are the same wherever and whenever they are applicable...” (2000: 237).

Another piece of evidence comes from the children’s early speech. Innate grammar presumes that grammatical errors basically do not exist. It is as if children were equipped with a particular word order which they so obediently practice (not to mention the existence of various word orders across languages). For instance, research has shown that children tend to make inversion mistakes in formation of wh-questions. A question “Why can’t they go?” is often substituted with “Why they can’t go?” (Tomasello 2008: 81). Of course, the question is often formed without the mistakes in grammar. Nevertheless, the only thing inherent to child’s language is inconsistency and not the supposed grammatical rulebook. Undoubtedly, “obedience” of grammatical rules will eventually prevail, but through practice and habit, rather than innateness. The inversion errors in wh-question may be the consequence of lacking input in these matters (questions being less used than statements in adult speech). Naturally, the nativist account dismisses the fact that frequency of input or the “motherese” play any relevant role in the acquisition of language. Even if the interpretation takes a different direction, where the assumption is that passive constructions and wh-questions are heard just as much in the input as statements, the problem remains for the nativist account to explain the longer period of time that the acquisition of these constructions requires (Tomasello 2008: 84).
A research carried out by Keren-Portnoy and Keren on toddlers showed that “the rate of learning new verbs in a structure is a function of the stage of acquisition of that particular structure rather than of the stage of syntactic development in general or the cognitive system (or the brain) in general” (2011: 427). The important thing to note is that the syntax seems to be acquired gradually. It was evident from the word-order errors made by children in clause formation that the acquisition was gradual since the errors were reducing through time. Greater amount of structures already acquired accelerated the acquisition process of new structures. This should certainly not be interpreted as a confirmation of the children’s syntactic endowment, but as evidence for children’s analytical approach to language and grammar upon acquisition.

7. Conclusion

Two of the most renowned theories of language acquisition were outlined and discussed in the paper, with the focus on syntactic evidence. Nevertheless, the definition of language acquisition as such was not provided, although it is often central for the debate of the issue, as it often differs between the two accounts as well. For instance, we may argue that process of language acquisition has finished when the learner can truly understand the messages conveyed in various communicative situations. However, this line of reasoning leads us to conclude that process of acquisition is never-ending. Language itself is in the process of constant changes, with its lexicon being extended every day with new words, phrases and idioms. While the argument may appear as somewhat arbitrary and “unfair” in terms of our discussion, the legitimacy of it is difficult to refute, as it illustrates the complexity of language acquisition and its theoretical definition. From the discussion it becomes apparent that both theories have difficulty concurring on the matter of when the language acquisition truly ends. For an illustration of comprehensive problems, Jackendoff uses the example at Logan Airport in Boston where the sign said *Every airplane does not carry pets* (2011: 198). The adult person that encounters this sign can deduce two possible interpretations: one is that “none of the airplanes carries pets”, and the other that “not every airplane carries pets”. The adult person which is both syntactically and semantically competent by now is suddenly having problems with the extrapolation of meaning. The tree diagram of this sentence would not be helpful as well since it would not reveal more than one possibility. At this point, the only thing that the person can use to deduce the meaning is logic, and not their linguistic competence. This example may help us in understanding of the language acquisition process in children. If the child had encountered this sign it would have to rely on their analogical skillset rather than supposed “innate grammar”. The “acquisition” will then depend on the logical process of unlocking its elusive meaning. The polysemy of the airport sign is rooted in the sign’s defective logical construction. The fact that the adult will have trouble in unlocking the meaning of the sign only confirms that the nature of acquisition depends on extra-linguistic cues. This particular situation is identical to almost every situation in which a toddler encounters a new syntactic construction. The child will, just like an adult person, use previously acquired knowledge and analogical skills to deduce its meaning and in the case of failure – the child will figure out and memorize the next best thing – the new syntactic construction, particular word’s meaning etc. The second important debate related to language acquisition, besides the problematic definition of the process, is found in the question of language emergence. Something that had never existed suddenly appeared among the humanoid race. Nevertheless, the speculative part about the route of evolution can equally be applied to other cognitive capacities developed in humans. Moreover, it is not that language’s emergence was so sudden after all – highly developed communication systems are found across animal kingdom. The advocates of cognition-language interdependency claim that language originated from unified voicing, emotional intelligence and concept-understanding (Perlovsky 2009: 519). Vygotsky, on the other hand, argued that “language and cognition originate independently but become interdependent” (1934/1962, cited in Harley 2014: 89). Language as we define it today is often claimed to be far more intricate and complicated than communication systems found among animals. This overestimation of language’s complexity is often given by nativists. Provided that this characterization is a legitimate one, it is still quite possible, if not obvious, that this complexity may have emerged as a by-product of human intelligence and evolved cognition.

The estimation of language’s complexity might very well be the “apple of discord” between the two accounts discussed in the paper. Within the nativist tradition, language and grammar are seen as too complex to be learned with such ease – which is why they must be innate. The advocates of the usage-based account perceive the acquisition of syntax as a
piecemeal process, evidently such because of the countless errors made during the acquisition. Grammar is indeed complex, but mastered easily because of the advanced cognition children are equipped with - children's use of "...mentalistic cues – such as eye gaze and emotional expression (Bloom 2001: 1100)" and the "attainment of object permanence" (O'Grady & Dobrovolsky 1997: 81) being crucial mechanisms of language acquisition. Some of the evidence provided in the paper can be interpreted from both standpoints, mostly because the assessment of acquisition speed is arbitrary. The process of language acquisition is considered too rapid to be relying on cognition by nativists, and too slow to be regarded innate by advocates of the usage-based account. In this paper, we argued that cognition holds the key to language acquisition. Syntactic marking is mastered individually by making logical generalizations using the received input. The child is forced to learn the language of its environment and we can assume that the child’s entire cognition is directed towards interpretation of the surrounding language. To us, nativism does not appear as a valid answer to the problem of acquisition, and it is partly so because of this adamant characterization of language as being separate from cognition.

References


The Relationship Among Job Satisfaction, Oreganizational Commitment and Employees’ Turnover at Unilever Corporation in Nigeria

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Abstract
Employee turnover has become a key performance indicator for many organizations as they struggle to retain talented employees. The negative impact of turnover on organizational performance has continually forced organizational leaders to seek better ways of retaining valuable employees. The relationship between man and work has always attracted the attention of philosophers. A major part of men’s life is spent at work. Work is social reality and social expectation to which men seem to conform. It not only provides status to the individual but also binds him to the society. An employee who is satisfied with his job would perform his duties well and be committed to his job, and subsequently to his organization. This paper examines relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employees’ turnover intentions at Unilever Corporation in Nigeria. The data for this study was collected from 117 employees currently working at Unilever Nigeria PLC using the survey method via the questionnaire. Pearson Correlation and the multiple regression analysis techniques using the SPSS version 22.0 was used for the data analysis. The findings of the study revealed that both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have significant negative relationship with employee turnover intentions. In addition, organizational commitment was revealed to have a more dominant influence on employee turnover intentions than job satisfaction. Based on these findings, the implications, recommendations, practice, and theory were discussed.

Keywords: Relationship, job satisfaction, Organizational commitments, Employees Turnover, Unilever Nigeria

1. Introduction
Employee retention rate has become a key performance indicator for many companies across all sectors of business ((Moussa, 2013)). Many organizations struggle to retain talented employees for more than five years (Bagga, 2013) According to (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011) nearly 50% of employees leave their organizations within the first five years of their employment contract. This high turnover rate has a high financial costs to organizations (Maertz & Boyar, 2012) Job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been an important topic over the years (Akpofure, Grace, Israel, & Okokoyo, 2006)). The relationship between man and work has always attracted the attention of philosophers. A major part of men’s life is spent at work. Work is social reality and social expectation to which men seem to conform. It not only provides status to the individual but also binds him to the society. An employee who is satisfied with his job would perform his duties well and be committed to his job, and subsequently to his organization. According to (Mullins, 2007)) argued that job satisfaction is a complex and multi-dimensional notion, which can mean different things to different people. The study of job satisfaction and organizational commitment should be seen as one of the essential knowledge required by Nigerian industries. (Hsu, 2009) expresed the biggest challenge in organizations today as the ability of manager or organization itself to support their employees to be satisfied with their job and be committed to the organization. When organizations are committed to the affairs of the employee, the employee will be job satisfied then develop the organization.
Job satisfaction is a variable that concerns how people feel about their work (Yücel, 2012). Job satisfaction can also be portrayed as a feeling of pleasure that stems from an employee’s impression of his or her job. According to (Mohd Firdaus, 2011) job satisfaction is an individual expression of personal wellbeing associated with doing the job required. According to Yanchus et al. (2015), it is closely related to their feeling and attitude to work, the researcher also stated that it is will reflect the extent of the individual's needs and desires met and how the other employees perceived. In addition, (Mullins, 2007) agrees that job satisfaction is an attitude and an internal state that can be associated with personal feelings of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. According to (Baron & Greenberg, 2003) concurs that job satisfaction is an attitude towards ones job and its cognitive, affective and evaluative reactions towards his or her job. For some people, they may feel consistently satisfied with their jobs whilst others may be feeling quite dissatisfied. The definitions of job satisfaction can therefore be summed as a collection of attitudes, feelings, beliefs and behaviour one has towards his or her job. Job satisfaction may be viewed as attitudes and behaviours adopted not because of shared beliefs but simply to gain specific rewards.

The concept of organizational commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. It is generally considered as a three dimensional construct comprising of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Boehm, 2006) suggested that affectively committed employees continue working with great devotion, continuance commitment ensures that employees retain their organizational membership, however those who are normally committed usually feel obliged on their part to stay in the organization. According to (Malik, Nawab, Naeem, & Danish, 2010) high organisational commitment means identifying with one’s organization. Organisational commitment is regarded to be the best predictor of employee’s turnover, than the far more frequently used job satisfaction predictor ((Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008)). Given the fact that employees who operate in a continuance commitment dimension are calculative of their stay, one would deduce that such employees may continuously stay away from work when they feel like, doing so. Organisational commitment members contribute positively to the organization which is not the case with less committed members. ((Cohen & Golan, 2007)) suggested that organizations whose members have higher levels of commitment show higher performance and productivity and lower levels of absenteeism and tardiness.

In this paper, the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions is examined in the context of employees working in a multinational company in Nigeria (Unilever Nigeria PLC). It is important, these days to pay close attention to issues that could make employees to pay less attention to their organization productivity and intending to leave their organizations. Job satisfaction and organization commitment are considered because more than before, the literatures show that satisfied and committed employees are more willing to remain with their organizations.

It is undoubtedly that in the advent of globalization, organizations all over the world including in Nigeria strives to compete and stay relevant in their business. The multinational companies in Nigeria are faced with challenges that affect much the human aspect and production level. This challenge relates to the employees in the organization such as: turnover rate, the absenteeism and the negatives attitude of the employee due to lack of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In turn, these challenges affect overall organizational structure. ((Cohen, 2003)) suggested that “organizations whose members have higher levels of commitment show higher performance and productivity and lower levels of absenteeism and tardiness. The negative impact of turnover on organizational performance has continually forced organizational leaders to seek better ways of retaining valuable employees (Dong et al. 2012). Employee retention rate has become a key performance indicator for many organizations ((Moussa, 2013)). Organizations scuffle to retain employees for more than five years ((Bagga, 2013)). Approximately 50% of employees leave their organizations within the first five years of employment ((Ballinger et al., 2011)). The manufacturing sector in Nigeria depended heavily on contract workforce. These contract workforce does not stay long in the organization. They could abandon the work immediately they are hired in another organization that offer them permanent staff positions. This negative effect on the organization in terms of replacement cost and disrupted work, affects the organizational vision to build a knowledgeable employee needed to sustain the company growth and competitiveness. This issue closely related to the implication of organizational commitment. March and Simon’s (1958) theory of organizational equilibrium suggests that individual decisions to stay working in an organization are a function of the balance between the expected utilities of the inducements offered by the organization and the contributions expected from the individual. Government is putting more and more pressure to reduce the dependency of contract workforce in the countries. However, the multinational company (Unilever Nigeria PLC) looks for a way to balance the strategies of organizational commitment and job satisfaction looking into the employee benefits on
how to satisfy and keep the permanent staff and lay off the contract workforce. Although, much of the subsequent research have focused on attitudinal (e.g., satisfaction) and tangible (e.g., pay) inducements to stay, a growing body of work recognizes that relational inducements such as support from the organization and from a supervisor can also play an important role in such decisions ([Allen & Meyer, 1990]). Multinational industries in Nigeria face with retention problem, 44% of the employee have a second thought on how to resign once they secure another job. This problem are traced to the basement of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment, according to ([Chen, 2012]), survey of nonprofit sector employees suggest some connections between job satisfaction and employee retention. Turnover has been identified as a serious issue in organizational behaviour literatures. The major reason why much attention has been paid to the construct of turnover is because of the significant effects turnover has on organizations ([Babajide, 2010]). These authors argued that high turnover rates might have negative effects on the profitability of organizations. Employee turnover from a business perspective is costly to the organization. An employee leaving an organization suddenly would have an effect on the organization and the co-employees including the replacement cost. These costs of replacement include but not limited to recruitment and selection for possible new substitutes or competing substitutes, induction of the selected substitutes, formal and informal training of the substitutes until the performance levels equivalent to that of the employee who quitted is attained ([Babajide, 2010]). In addition to these costs of replacement, organizational output may be affected during this cycle of employee turnover. ([Gustafson, 2002]) argued that turnover affects the organization in several ways including lost productivity, low sales and low profit. With respect to profit, ([Gustafson, 2002]) estimates the turnover costs of an employee could cost an organization $3,000 to $10,000 per hour. This clearly demonstrates that turnover has negative effect on the profitability of the organization and thus should be properly managed. The estimated cost of recruiting and training a replacement employee would cost 50% of the employee's annual salary ([Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012]). Additionally, each time an employee quits an organization, productivity may drop due to the learning curve involved in understanding the job and the organization by the new intake. Also, the loss of intellectual capital of the departing employee is an additional cost ([McInerney, Ganotice, King, Marsh, & Morin, 2015]). According to ([Babajide, 2010]), numerous studies have been conducted on predictors of employee turnover (which include marital status, length of service, relocation and life cycle). However, little or no efforts have been directed towards examining job satisfaction, work involvement and turnover intentions of the employees working with Unilever corporation in Nigeria. Therefore, this study investigates the relationship between the job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions of the employees working with Unilever corporation in Nigeria. This study reveals ways to reduce turnover intentions, help the employees to stay with the job roles and remain committed to their organization. Also, this study would be beneficial to other Nigerian multinational company to maintain employees' retention, productivity, motivation, organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

**Review of the constructs and theories used**

This section provides the definition of the constructs used in this paper. The conceptual and operational definitions of job satisfaction, organization commitment and employee turnover intentions are presented in this section.

**Job Satisfaction:** Job satisfaction is conceptualized as an employee's overall evaluation of his or her job as favourable or unfavourable ([Locke, 1991]). It involves the person's feeling about their job whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied. According to ([Spector & Fox, 2002]) job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs. In this study, job satisfaction is defined as the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that employees at Unilever corporation has with the job roles.

**Organizational Commitment:** Organizational commitment is conceptualised as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization ([Allen & Meyer, 1990]). Organizational commitment reflects the
employee's relationship with the organization and that it has implications for his or her decision to continue membership in the organization ([Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002]). In this study, the three dimensions of organizational commitment namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment are considered. The conceptual definitions of these three dimensions of organizational commitment are:

- **Affective Commitment** is conceptualised as the effective emotional attachment to identification with, and involvement in the organization ([Allen & Meyer, 1990]).

- **Continuance Commitment** is conceptualised as the cost associated with leaving the organization ([Allen & Meyer, 1990]).

- **Normative Commitment** is conceptualised as the feeling of obligation to continue with the organization ([Allen & Meyer, 1990]).

In this paper, organizational commitment is operationalised as the degree of employees’ identification with their organization and involvement in their organization activities.

**Turnover Intention:** Turnover intention is conceptualised as the intense decision that employees take to give up their present positions and jobs, leave voluntarily to other organization. Turnover intention has been described as the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, a set of cognitions include thinking of quitting and the intent to search for alternative employment. Turnover intention refers to an employee’s intention to voluntarily leave an organization ([Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed, 2013]). In this study, turnover intention is operationalised as employee’s intention to voluntarily leave the Unilever Corporation.

**Maslow’s Theory**

Maslow proposed that people have five types of needs that are arranged in a hierarchical manner. It is activated in a specific order such that a lower-order need must be satisfied before the next higher-order need is aroused. When that need is satisfied, the next highest need in the hierarchy is triggered and so forth. When these needs are met, the person will feel satisfied and he will move on to achieve the next higher-order needs. There are five needs highlighted by ([Maslow, 1954]).

**Equity Theories**

Equity theory views motivation to satisfy one’s need from the perspective of the comparisons people make among themselves ([Adams & Rosenbaum, 1963]). It proposes that employees are motivated to maintain fair or "equitable" relationships among themselves and to alter those relationships that are unfair. This theory concerns with people’s intention to forgo the negative feelings. Such feeling is seen as they are treated unfairly in their jobs once they have engaged in the process of comparison with other people. Equity theory suggests that people make social comparisons between themselves and others with respect to two variables — outcomes (e.g. benefits, rewards) and inputs (e.g. effort, ability). Outcomes refer to the things workers believe they and others get out of their jobs, including pay, fringe benefits and prestige. Inputs refer to the contribution employees believe they and others make to their jobs. Including the amount of time worked, the amount of effort contributed, the quantity of units produced and the qualifications brought to the job ([Adams & Rosenbaum, 1963]).

**Value Theories**

Social values are consists of a belief system. This belief system is concerned with such issues as competence and morality. Such belief system is derived mainly from the demands of society. These value systems are organized values from past experiences that can act as general motives. It will serve as guidelines that will direct beliefs and behavior in many situations, such as work. Therefore, it may be expected that there are coherent and predictable links between one’s general value system and specific work-related beliefs ([Furnham & Stringfield, 1993]). Such personal values and work beliefs will influence how a person satisfied him or herself.

**Locke’s Value Theory**

This theory does not concentrate on needs. ([Locke, 1991]) argued that job satisfaction focuses on whether or not work provides people with what they want, desire or value. Workers look at what their jobs provide in terms of, for example, pay, working conditions and promotion opportunities and then compare those perceptions to what they value or find important in a job. When the two matches together, job satisfaction results, it is a cognitively driven process where individual decides for themselves. The difference between Locke's and Maslow's theory is that the former are not specific and do not consider the need for money. Money is no considered as a need for the workers. The theory implies that although knowing the...
importance or value that a worker has toward a particular outcome does not necessary means we will be able to predict how satisfied a worker will be. The theory by Locke introduces us to another dimension. Even though outcomes such as pay, fringe benefits and working conditions are the same for two workers and even though these outcomes may provide equivalent levels of need fulfilment, the workers' satisfaction will differ to the extent that their values differ. This approach is more consistent with the ways in which people actually reach to their jobs. People choose and change their jobs on the basis of these principles or values (Locke, 1991).

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)

CET suggested that in order for a person to feel motivated, feelings of competence as well as feelings of autonomy are required. Simply, when a person is motivated in such a way, it exhibit positive work attitude and vice-versa. The above motivators are defined as intrinsic motivation. Studies showed that challenging activities were highly intrinsically motivating and that positive feedback ((Deci, 1971)) facilitated intrinsic motivation by promoting a sense of competence when people felt responsible for their successful. Therefore, in the course of work, when an employee is given autonomy and has the competence to fulfill the requirements of the job, this promotes job satisfaction. ((Deci, 1971; Gagné & Deci, 2005)) states that negative feedback does decreases perceived competence and as such it influences negatively both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, leaving people counted motivated. Therefore, GET assumes that people need to feel autonomous and competent. Work environment that promote feelings of autonomy and competence enhance intrinsic motivation, whereas factors that reduce these feelings undermine intrinsic motivation, leaving people not motivated, hence affecting the level of satisfaction (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Self-Determination Theory

((Dworkin, 1988)) is of the view that autonomy means encouraging one's actions at the highest level of reflection. Intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation which is similar to CET. When it is found that people engage an activity because they find it interesting, they are doing the activity on their own willingness, and hence they are happier doing the job. In contrast, if the activities done by a person are being forced, in that sense it is being controlled and pressurized, it will counter react on motivation. Therefore, it can be said that if a person completes a task on his own well, he is likely be motivated and have a better chance to be satisfied. But, when a person is being pressured to perform a task against his will, the person will run counter to motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005)

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an employee's overall evaluation of his or her job as favorable or unfavourable (Malik et al., 2010)). In short, job satisfaction is a feeling of like and dislike. In order to come to a stand of like and dislike, there should be a point of comparison. That point of comparison is the expectation of the employees. Job satisfaction is also directed to many areas of the job such as the nature of the job, the quality of supervision, the relationship with colleagues, the kind of leadership of superior and others. These are some of the facets or dimensions of job satisfaction. All of these are linked to the attitude of a person about his or her job. Job satisfaction can almost easily be assessed by asking people how they feel about their job (Spector & Fox, 2002) It involves the person's feeling about their job whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied. According to Spector, job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as various aspects of them. Simply, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their job and job dissatisfaction is the extent to which they dislike them.

((Weiss, 2002)) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude. However, he cautioned that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affective (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. This definition suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs, and our behaviours. ((Rose, 2001)) and (Olorunsola, 2012) viewed job satisfaction as a bi-dimensional concept consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction dimensions. She further asserted that intrinsic sources of satisfaction depends on individual characteristics of the person, such as ability to use initiative, relations with supervisors, or the work that the person actually performs, all these are symbolic or qualitative facts of the job while extrinsic sources of satisfaction are situational and depends on environment such as pay, promotion or job security; these are financial and other materials.

Conceptual Framework

Based on the literature review and the discussed relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention, as well as the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intention, the conceptual framework
for this study is presented. The research framework shows the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions to be examined in this study. To investigate these relationships, two main hypotheses are stated and would be empirically tested.

![Conceptual Model for this Study](image)

**Figure 0.2** The Conceptual Model for this Study.

### 3. Materials and Methods

The research strategy for this study is the quantitative methodology. It employs the deductive approach to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The Deductive approach involves reasoning from the more general to the more specific and its conclusion follows logically from the premise. The deductive approach was used because this study is based on existing theories such as the Maslow’s theory and self-determination theory serving its underpinning theory. Therefore, investigation was done using the quantitative approach. The deductive approach is practical and it is used to test and prove the hypotheses stated in this study.

The sample frame for this study includes all the employees working with Unilever Corporation Nigeria Plc. They include all the permanent and contract staff listed in the staff directory of the Unilever Nigeria Plc. Unilever Nigeria Plc was incorporated as Lever Brothers (West Africa) Ltd in 1923. Originating from Britain, the company has been known as a soap manufacturing industry since the 19th century. The company has been in operation in Nigeria and West Africa as a soap manufacturing company, and is today one of the oldest surviving manufacturing organizations in Nigeria.

Population generally can be denoted as the total number of respondents with similar characteristics in a given location. The population of this study comprises all the employees working with Unilever Corporation Nigeria Plc). This constitutes the permanent and contract staff. The total population of these respondents according to Unilever staff directory is 450 employees. Table 3.1 shows the population of Unilever Staffs. Sampling is a process of selecting a portion of the whole population that represents the entire population. From the total population of 450 employees, the appropriate sample size calculated based on (**Krejcie & Morgan, 1970**)), 208 employees would be selected for this study using the convenient sampling technique.

The convenience sampling technique involves the selection of sample elements that are most readily available to participate and provide the information required (**Hair Jr, 2006**)). The convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling technique that draws representative samples based on the ease of their volunteering, their availability or their accessibility (**Hair Jr, 2006** (**Salkind & Rainwater, 2003**)). The data for this paper obtained thrugh simple random sampling.
Table 0.1: Population of Unilever Staffs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Number of Staffs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Production</td>
<td>Supply Chain</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cream and Lotion</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>I.T/Communications</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study uses primary data since survey method was carried out to gather data for this paper. Questionnaire was prepared to collect information to investigate and examine the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions among employees' working at Unilever corporation in Nigeria. Questionnaire is a systematic method of gathering data from respondents (Hair Jr, 2006). Questionnaire provides some advantages to the researchers because it is cheap and easy to administer to the target respondents, offers privacy to the respondents and reduces biases in answering the instrument items. Questionnaires can be distributed in a number of ways such as through the internet via emails, the postal mail, or through the telephones. However, this study would use the self-administered questionnaire as an instrument to collect data from respondents. These questionnaires would administered by the researcher with the help of human resource department. The measurement items used in this study and the original source where they were adapted from are discussed in this section. The measurement items for job satisfaction are derived from (Agho, Price, & Mueller, 1992) and Spector (1994) while the measurements items for organisational commitment comprises of items derived from Meyer and Allen (2004) and (McInerney et al., 2015). Turnover intentions are measured by 5 items derived from (Brawley & Pury, 2016) and (McInerney et al., 2015). Out of the five items, four items are adapted from (McInerney et al., 2015).

Table 0.2 shows the list of all the study variables and number of items for this paper.

Table 0.2: Measurement of Items of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>No of Items</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Adapted From</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q4-Q6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work Itself</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q7-Q9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q10-Q12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q13-Q15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Likert scale will be used. In Likert scale, the respondents are required to choose the desired scale. The scale is arranged to reflect the level of intensity from one extreme to another level extreme, example from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The scale is referred to as the five-point scale and it is illustrated in table 3.4. The Likert five-point scale will be used in section B while section A will measure the demographic variables such as gender, age, work experience and level of education.

**Table 0.3: Proposed Likert five-point Scale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choices</th>
<th>Likert Five-point Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (SA)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (A)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (N)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (D)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree (SD)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability reflects the consistency of the measurement items of a study when conducted at different time and place and it is normally measured by Cronbach’s Alpha. The Cronbach Alpha would be employed to test the reliability for this study because according to (Salkind & Rainwater, 2003), it is the most acceptable reliability test tool applied by social science researchers which usually should exceed 0.70 values for a reliability to hold. However, (Hair Jr, 2006) noted that the minimum acceptable level for reliability test is Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.60. In the case of validity, a research opinion was sought to verify the face and contents validity of the instruments developed before the actual survey is carried out. According to (Kumar, 2005), face and contents validity can be confirmed experts in the same field by checking the extent to which item questions represents the issues they are intended to measure.

This study employed the quantitative technique for the data analysis. The data gather for this study through the questionnaire where analysed using the use of Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS, version 21.0) to run Pearson correlation and an additional multiple regression.

Pearson correlation is used to examine the relationship.

**Table 0.4: Analyses used to answer the Research Questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Type of Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Is there a relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention in the organization?</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Is there a relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intention in the organization?</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multiple Regression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4. Results and Discussion**

The reliability test was conducted to know the extent of measurement the items measure the constructs of this study. The Cronbach’s alpha which is an index for evaluating the reliability of a scale and widely used in previous studies, is used to test the reliability of the constructs of this study. The result of the Cronbach Alpha test as presented in Table 4.5, which
indicated that the three constructs used achieved acceptable reliability level. Therefore, the data for this study is reliable and valid for further analysis.

**Table 4.5: Reliability Test using Cronbach’s Alpha**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Alpha Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>0.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive data analysis was used to provide discussion on the demographic background of the respondents. These respondents consist mainly of the contract staff, factory staff and the junior administrative staff at the Unilever organization in Nigeria. Table 4.6 presents the analysis result of the respondents’ gender, age, work experience, level of education and position. As shown in Table 4.6, out of the 117 respondents, 83 are male indicating 70.9% of the respondents while 34 are female which indicates 29.1%. For the age of the respondents, majority of the respondents fall with the ages of 31-40 and 41-50 which indicated 88.1% of the total respondents while 2 of the respondents were below 21 years indicating 1.7%, 11 respondents were between 21-30 years which indicates 9.4% respectively.

As regards the respondents’ work experience, majority of the respondents i.e. 95 of them, have worked with the organization for 2 to 10 years which indicates 81.2% of the respondents while 17 of the respondents which indicate 14.5% have work for more than 10 years and 5 respondents which indicate 4.3% have worked below 2 years respectively. As regards the respondents’ level of education, majority of the respondents i.e. 77 of them indicating 65.8% have bachelor degree. Only one respondent have master’s degree which indicate 0.9 %. 11 respondents i.e. 9.4% have secondary school certificate while 28 of the total respondents indicating 23.9% have diploma. As regards the respondents’ position, 68 respondents which indicate 58.1% are factory staff, 36 respondents indicating 30.8% are junior administration staff while 13 of them indicating 11.1% are contract staff. The histogram charts from Figure 4.1 to Figure 4.5 are used to show the clearer picture of the respondents’ demography.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less than 1 year</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 5 years</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>45.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 10 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years and above</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract staff</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factory staff</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>58.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior staff</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 117
The Pearson correlation analysis and regression analysis are the inferential statistical methods used to examine the research questions and hypotheses of the study. Table 4.7 shows the results of the Pearson correlation coefficients for the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions while Table 4.8 presents the results of the Pearson correlation coefficients for the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Furthermore, the multiple regression analysis was conducted to provide further understanding of the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Table 4.9 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis. The Pearson correlation results (as shown in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8) revealed that job satisfaction (-0.418 at p <0.01) and organizational commitment (-0.468 at p<0.01) have a significant negative relationship with employee turnover intentions. In addition, the multiple regression results (as shown in Table 4.9) revealed that organizational commitment (beta =-0.346** at p< 0.05) has significant influence on employee turnover intentions and it is the more dominant factor of employee turnover intentions compared to job satisfaction. Further discussion of these findings is presented in the next section.

Table 4.7: Correlation Results for Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.418**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>-0.418**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 4.8: Correlation Results for Commitment and Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Organizational Commitment</th>
<th>Turnover Intentions</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.468**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>-0.468**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 4.9: Regression Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Std. error</td>
<td>t-value</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25.496</td>
<td>1.477</td>
<td>17.261</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JOBSATISFACTION</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-1.442</td>
<td>0.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGCOMMITMENT</td>
<td>-0.136</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-2.938</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N=117, R =0.483, R^2 =0.233, Adjusted R^2= 0.220, **Significant at P< 0.05.

Table 4.10: Summary of the Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Hypotheses</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intention</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. There is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intention</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the Pearson correlation coefficients for the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions revealed that organizational commitment (-0.468 at p<0.01) have a significant negative relationship with employee turnover intentions. This result is consistent with the findings of previous studies and it further affirms that there is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions. Previous studies (Park,
Christie, & Sype, 2014); (Faloye, 2014); (Gamble & Tian, 2015); (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012), (McInerney et al., 2015), (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012; Yücel, 2012; Jehanzeb et al., 2013) have found organizational commitment as a significant predictor of employee turnover intention.

Studies conducted by ((Gamble & Tian, 2015)) showed how the organizational commitment dimensions (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative) of Chinese employees would affect their turnover intentions. The results of their findings revealed that affective and normative commitment negatively predicted turnover intentions. Furthermore, (Faloye, 2014)) explored the association between the three dimensions of organizational commitment (e.g., affective, continuance, and normative) and turnover intentions and revealed a weak positive relationship between affective commitment and continuance commitment with turnover intention. Moreover, (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012) Van ((Hussain & Asif, 2012) examined the relationship between organizational commitments and found that organizational commitment in general reduces turnover intention. (Jehanzeb et al., 2013)) investigated on the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions of the employees in private sector of Saudi Arabia and found a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Similarly, (Hussain & Asif, 2012)) found that organizational commitment have significant negative impact on the turnover intentions of the employees. Finally, studies conducted by ((Lew, 2011)) that lower commitment to the organization may lead to increased intention to quit

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings of this current study further provides strong support for the hypothesized negative relationship between organizational commitment and employee. In sum, this finding implies that when employees are committed to their organization they will display negative attitude towards leaving or quitting their organization. In the context of this study, the negative organizational commitment of the employees would cause the employees to think of quitting or intent to search for alternative employment. In other words, a high organizational commitment would yield a low employee turnover intentions while a low organizational commitment would yield a high employee intention to quit the organization.

Based on the Pearson results and the findings of this study, it could be deduced that the two stated hypotheses were supported. Interestingly, it can be summarised that job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the employees who negatively affect the employee’s intentions to leave the organization. In addition to the Pearson correlation analysis, the multiple regression analysis was conducted to provide further understanding of the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions. The multiple regression results revealed that organizational commitment (beta =-0.346** at p< 0.05) has significant influence on employee turnover intentions and it is the more dominant factor of employee turnover intentions compared to job satisfaction which was found to be not significant in the regression model.

This paper contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions as well as the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions in a manufacturing company. This study suggests that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are very important factors that influence employee turnover intentions bearing in mind that when employee have lower job satisfaction and lower organization commitment they will most probably have the intention to quit their organization.

These have huge implication for the organization. For example, this may lead to the organization loosing many talented employees and decrease in organizational performance. Organizations whose members have higher levels of commitment show higher performance and productivity and lower levels of absenteeism and tardiness. The negative impact of turnover on organizational performance has continually forced organizational leaders to seek better ways to retain valuable employees ((Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012)). In addition, high turnover rates might have negative effects on the profitability of organizations. Organizations lose huge amount of time and financial resources to select, recruit and train new employees as a result of an old employee suddenly leaving an organization. In terms of the reduction of the cost of employee replacement due to turnover such as recruitment and selection for possible new employees or competing
employees, induction of the selected new employees, formal and informal training of the new employees and so on, would be avoided if employee turnover intentions is managed properly. For example, the estimated cost of recruiting and training a replacement employee that cost 50% of the employee's annual salary according to ((Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012)) would be avoided if the managers ensure that their employees are satisfied and committed.

Therefore, the findings of this study would be useful to Unilever Corporation and other organizations to understand that their employees’ job satisfaction and organization commitment as a determinant of the employees’ turnover intentions and their subsequent exit from the organization. To Unilever Corporation in particular, this study would serve as a guide to help the organization re-examine the level of their employees’ job satisfaction and organization commitment. Therefore, the findings of this study would enable the organization apply the appropriate human resource strategies to rectify the situation. Finding and adopting appropriate strategies may contribute significantly to the well-being of the organization in terms of reducing the employees’ turnover and absenteeism in order to enhance productivity and organizational performance.

The study of job satisfaction and organizational commitment should be seen as one of the essential knowledge required by Nigerian industries to reduce their employee turnover intentions. (Chen, 2012) express biggest challenge in the organization today is the ability of manager or organization itself to support their employees to be satisfied with their job and be committed to the organization. When organization are committed to the affairs of the employee, the employee will be job satisfied then dismiss the idea to leave the organization. Therefore, it recommended to Unilever Corporation to seek ways to improve the level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among staff by putting in place initiatives that would be benefit to all the employees. Particularly, the dimensions of job satisfaction such as pay, promotion, working condition, supervision, and co-worker support should be effectively managed to help the employees derive satisfaction and enhance their commitment to the organization.

Furthermore, to enhance the employees’ level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the human resource division of Unilever Corporation could embark on interventions such as increasing the pay of their employees as at when due, ensure that their promotion is granted to the employees as at when due, providing adequate and conducive working conditions, maintaining a good supervisor relationship with the employees, and ensuring that co-employees work in cooperation and collaboration. These mechanisms would help to enhance and maintain their employees’ level job satisfaction. Finally, adequate training of the employees to enable carrying out their job functions would help them understand that their career development is valued by the organization which would hence make the employees to be more committed to their organization.

References


Waqf for Higher Education in Malaysia: Overview on Challenges

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Abstract

In Malaysian higher learning institutions of public or private universities, the generation of income through endowments are recently highly recommended for financial or self-sustainability. Public universities especially, as a non-profit organisation strong endowments reflect the capacity to obtain revenues through grants or otherwise in response to a demand, in order to sustain productive processes projects at a steady or growing rate which eventually produce results and thus accomplish the mission, goals, or objectives and to obtain a surplus. However, the implementation of waqf in universities in Malaysia is not easy. Unlike endowments or other forms of income generation tools for universities, waqf is very unique and subject not only to legal restrictions but also religious principles that must be fulfilled. The paper finds that universities in Malaysia need to bear in mind the challenges of to avoid difficulties in implementing waqf.

Keywords: Waqf for Higher Education in Malaysia: Overview on Challenges

Introduction

Another instrument recognised as the most flexible instrument for financing universities is waqf (Kartini et al. 2015; M. K. Izwan et al. 2014). However, waqf itself is not an easy concept since it is religious in nature and therefore, its principles must be clearly understood. In addition, the legal framework and its strict rules under Islamic law make it more complex for universities in Malaysia to implement. State Islamic Religious Council for example is the main authority who has an exclusive power on matters concerning waqf (M. K. Izwan et al. 2016). It is the main aim of this paper to explore prospects and challenges on waqf for higher learning institutions in Malaysia.

The paper relates few concepts of waqf with the implementation in the university. Few main concepts of waqf should be adhered to for instance, A Giver (al-Wakif) is a party that willingly gives movable or immovable, lawfully-owned assets (al-Mawquf) for an intended purpose (Niyyah) to benefit others (beneficiaries). Waqf allows a Giver the opportunity to demonstrate his/her submission to Allah through good deeds. In addition, waqf provides an avenue for the public to perform perpetual deeds with confidence. Secondly, in Malaysian context, a MAIN (State Islamic Religious Council) is the sole trustee (Mutawalli) of waqf in its respective state. Therefore, public universities must acquire the permission from MAIN to be a waqf administrator (Nazir), so university’s administrator must settle this hurdle first in order to implement waqf in the university (Nor Suziana & Noor Inayah 2017a; Nor Suziana & Noor Inayah 2017b).

As a waqf administrator, public universities are empowered by MAIN to establish a sustainable infrastructure which will allow them to collect, raise, use, manage, invest, and develop waqf funds, as well as distribute waqf proceeds as agreed
in the MoA between the public university and the respective MAIN. Universities must use all of their expertise, tools, strategies to ensure the growth of waqf and that the waqf is Syariah compliance (Mohd Syakir et al. 2017). This can only be achieved by having a proper waqf office and governance structure at the university. Waqf administrators can adopt various strategies to monetise waqf assets. Finally, the proceeds from waqf investment may be distributed to Muslims or non-Muslims. The benefits to the beneficiaries can be in various forms, including: scholarships and other academic financial support, grants for research, academic or professorial chairs, traveling allowances for conferences as well as sponsorships for academic and research programme (Mohd Syakir et al. 2016).

Pillars of Waqf

The Department of Awqaf, Zakat, and Hajj, Malaysia (JAWHAR) epitomizes waqf as any form of asset belong to individual which has been endowed as waqf and it is restricted for any form of dealing such as sale, inheritance, gift and inheritance. However, its physical source remains intact and unchanged. Three pillars of waqf are as follows:

1. Irrevocability
Most important feature of waqf as there is consensus among Muslim jurists that a waqf is irrevocable once a founder declares his property as waqf, and his heirs cannot change its status. This will ensure that the waqf will continue to benefit the society and at the same time the founder/giver will continue to get rewards from Allah.

2. Perpetuity
The majority of Muslim jurists agreed that the waqf must be perpetual once it is created. This will ensure that no confiscation of waqf property will take place either by government or individuals, and will ensure continual support from this waqf towards financing charitable causes. Only in the Maliki School of Law is it permissible to allow the creation of a waqf for a limited time.

3. Inalienability
This feature originates from the concept that the property of waqf is transferred to Allah, although the usufruct derived from it can benefit mankind. All Muslim jurists agreed that no one can ever become the owner to alienate it and that waqf property is thus in nature, like a ‘frozen asset’. It cannot be subject to any sale, disposal, mortgage, gift, inheritance or any alienation. Waqf is inalienable except when there is an exchange of property of equal value (Wan Kamal 2014).

Tenets of Waqf

The tenets of waqf are:

i. The Giver (al-Wakif) is an individual or an organization who surrender an asset as waqf and designate its beneficiary.

ii. The Clear Statement (al-Sighah) made by the Giver when surrendering his assets for purpose of waqf.

iii. The Designated Asset (al-Mawkuf) surrendered must be in compliance with the Sharia and rightfully owned by the Giver.

iv. The Beneficiary (al-Mawkuf ‘Alaihi) can be an individual(s) or an institution(s) which is awarded the income generated from investing the waqf (Wan Kamal et al. 2012).

Examples on Waqf by selected Universities in Malaysia

1. Technology University of Malaysia (UTM)

UTM is one of the public research universities which have coherent set of university funds including waqf. Below is the example of the varieties of funds of UTM.
UTM has also made it clear the difference between endowment and waqf.

2. Islamic University of Malaysia (UIM)

Historically, Islamic University of Malaysia (UIM) was established on 24 February 1955 and formerly known as Kolej Islam Malaya (Muslim College Malaya/KIM). It is the first university that was established with the consent of the Conference of Malay Rulers. UIM is currently operating in Cyberjaya with the blessings and approval of the Ministry of Higher Education. The history of UIM development is based on the waqf concept which began with the waqf by Sultan of Selangor who donated Istana Jameah (Jameah Palace) in Kampung Jawa in 1955 to be a KIM campus which symbolized educational progress in Malaya. In line with its establishment, UIM is obliged to inspire any form of waqf contribution in furthering the mission of IUM establishment until it becomes a university that continues to grow on Islamic endowments without solely depending on government contributions and that also has freedom in knowledge and intellectual development (Wan Kamal et al. 2016a; Wan Kamal et al. 2014).

All waqf matters of UIM will be monitored and advised by a panel known as the ‘Shariah Panel’ consisting of experts who are authoritative in Shariah law (http://www.uim.edu.my/v2/index.php/faw). UIM has received waqf income and contributions from numerous resources such as from leasing of waqf lands and waqf premises belonging to UIM, waqf donations from individual and corporate bodies including the alumni of Islamic College (ALKIS) and also contributions from State Islamic Religious Councils (SIRC) (as certified by the Conference of Rulers) and from Federal Government of Malaysia (Federal Constitution; Malaysia Companies Act 1965). UIM has received financial supports around 5.18 million MYR from several donors. Among of them are Permodalan Berhad (PNB) 5 million MYR, Shahpadu Corp. Sdn. Bhd., Datuk Dr. Haron Din as a former student of KIM, Alumni Kolej Islam (ALKIS) and others. UIM at present only offering postgraduate programmes the first study sessions for Master and PhD programs commenced on September 2015.

It is a continuation of Kolej Islam Malaya (KIM), established in 1955, and an institute of higher education with university status for the recognition given to the academic quality of the program certificate or diploma issue KIM is equivalent to a first degree University of Islamic Studies Outstanding World of Al-Azhar University, Egypt. UIM arguably pioneered by the state education endowments formation efforts already started many years ago. Once established, esteemed opinion on latest fatwa use endowment income that can be present in respect of endowment authority is affirmative scholars from Egypt during a conference organized by the UIM royal endowment in June 2012, where Dr. Ali Gomaah confirmed a ruling by the Fikh Academy of the Muslim World League in the 10th Conference in Mecca in October 1987 has decided to issue a fatwa of the endowment income in the public interest, unless it is a special endowment to continue to apply. So, UIM dominate the agenda of science education endowment traceability even its history is linked with the proceeds of the waqf.
UIM has moved forward by establishing an institute known as International Waqf and Islamic Finance Management Institute (i-WAFA) which has been declared on 12th of August 2014 by the university President in conjunction with the launch of Waqf Property Management Professional Course. The role of i-WAFA can be seen as following: “As the world’s first and advanced research institute that combines Waqf Management and Islamic Finance and is characteristically cross-disciplinary”.

Additionally, i-WAFA focuses on researches in term of comparative contemporary issues, in particular, the waqf and Islamic finance industry. i-WAFA also will contribute to the strengthening of human capital development of expertise in waqf and Islamic finance on the international arena. Findings of studies conducted by i-WAFA together with local and international experts in the field will benefit the country and humanity. i-Wafa has received recognition at the national level through CIMB Islamic endowment of Research Chair worth RM 1 million in the field of Waqf and Islamic Financial Management. In fact and in addition to that, CIMB Islamic has also contributed RM 1 million for the establishment of a special library for CIMB Islamic as the world’s primary reference in the field of Islamic finance (http://www.uim.edu.my/v2/index.php/research-andinnovation/institutes-centres/i-wafa).

**Challenges**

It is material at this junction to also understand overview challenges of waqf in Malaysia which affect the implementation of waqf ecosystem in universities.

1. Waqf and Malaysian Law

Section 2 of the Waqf (State of Selangor) Enactment, 1999 (No.7 of 1999) defines waqf as: “The dedication of any property from which its usufruct or benefit may be used for any charitable purpose whether as Waqf Am or Waqf Khass according to Syaria, but does not include a trust which is defined under (the) Trustee Act 1949” (Trustee Act 1949). Below is a statistics of lands properties for waqf in states of Malaysia (Selangor Waqf Enactment 1999).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bil.</th>
<th>Negeri</th>
<th>Waqf</th>
<th>Am</th>
<th>Jumlah Ekur (S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>KELANTAN</td>
<td>171.54 E</td>
<td>133.12 E</td>
<td>304.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>WILAYAH PERSEKUTUAN</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>22.07</td>
<td>27.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>TERENGGANU</td>
<td>204.43 E</td>
<td>43.01 E</td>
<td>247.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>SARAWAK</td>
<td>93.9168 hektor + 0.240E + 19589.2 sq. metres=236.929E</td>
<td></td>
<td>236.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>PAHANG</td>
<td>3984 A</td>
<td>4.14 R 4.08P</td>
<td>3985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>SABAH</td>
<td>4.17E</td>
<td>25.42 E</td>
<td>29.59E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>JOHOR</td>
<td>1951A</td>
<td>23.01P</td>
<td>3976A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>PERLIS</td>
<td>218.69E</td>
<td>6.75E</td>
<td>227.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>MELAKA</td>
<td>773.39E</td>
<td>69.97E</td>
<td>843.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>KEDAH</td>
<td>420 E</td>
<td>423.34 E</td>
<td>843.34/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>NEGERI SEMBILAN</td>
<td>1727.35 E</td>
<td>61.25 E</td>
<td>1788.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>SELANGOR</td>
<td>621.10 E</td>
<td>442.15 E</td>
<td>1063.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>PERAK</td>
<td>4474E 3R 30.02P</td>
<td>647E 1R 7P</td>
<td>5122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>PULAU PINANG</td>
<td>22.21 E</td>
<td>67.05 E</td>
<td>99.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| JUMLAH | 14,615.787 | 5919.83 | 20,735.61 |

It is understood from this definition is that waqf refers to subject matter of waqf itself, that is waqf property or Mawkuf. While, in Selangor Waqf Enactment (No 7 of 1999) and the Melaka Waqf Enactment 2005, waqf is defined as follow: “The dedication of any property from which its usufruct or benefit may be used for any charitable purpose whether as Waqf Am
or Waqf Khass according to Syaria, but does not include a trust which is defined under Trustee Act 1949 [Act 208]” (Melaka Waqf Enactment 2005; Selangor Wakaf Enactment 1999).

It is identified that waqf in the specific enactments in Selangor and Melaka refer to the act of the donor in dedicating his property as waqf and not the waqf property itself. Nevertheless, in Negeri Sembilan Waqf Enactment 2005, waqf means: (a) An endowment of title to any property from which may be enjoyed any benefit, interest or profit; (b) An endowment of any benefit, interest or profit which may be enjoyed from any property; or (c) The provision of expertise and services from which may be enjoyed any benefit, interest or profit, whether as Waqf Am or Waqf Khass, in accordance with Syaria principles, but does not include a trust which is defined under the Trustee Act 1949 [Act 208] (Negeri Sembilan Wakaf Enactment 2005).

2. University and Regulations

Section 2 of Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 states that University or University College as higher educational institution having the status of a University or University College respectively. Section 2 of Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996, University or University College means a private higher educational institution conferred with the status of a University or University College under section 21, and include such private higher education. Institution which is affiliated to a University or University College whether within or outside Malaysia, conferred with the status of a University or a University College (Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996; Universities and University Colleges Act 1971).

Conclusion

Transformation implementation of educational endowment as an ecosystem in the higher learning institution for the moment needs to be supported by two basic things, even abstract but very relevant to higher education institutions in our countries really benefit from the advantages of this endowment in education.

Residents of higher learning institutions leadership must own and control the blend of intellectual and policy in the field through endowments for education. In Surah al-Baqarah, verse 269, for example, ‘God grant wisdom (understanding in the Quran and the Sunnah) to whom He pleases. And whoever is given wisdom, it really has been awarded the gift of a lot. And the only person -the understanding that receive admonition.’

Wise leadership in supporting the learning of science is necessary to push the social impact related education endowment that is sometimes seen can lead to negative consequences. In fact, science and wisdom should be in line with the development of waqf property management system neat and orderly improved to a positive impact on the community at large (Wan Kamal et al. 2016b).

Accordingly, the religious endowment purposes as outlined in the Quran and the Sunnah are not only focused on the special endowments such as building mosques, graves or religious schools alone. In fact, the endowment can be extended to activities not only strengthen the economic position of Muslims, but also contribute to the economic development of a country. Imagine donated land in Malaysia’s overall value now exceeds $60 million, if it can be managed and administered by the party entrusted; it is certainly capable of generating economic growth in the future. The question is to what extent they trust or beneficiary, able to realize the dream of waqf giver the existence of various constraints in administering the waqf?

This situation also invites a sense of anxiety among donor endowment (al-Wakif) and the entire community for the implementation of the property management. There are still many scenarios where the donated land remained idle even though its location is quite strategic for the development of Muslims in terms of the economy, education or other social purposes.

Finally, waqf for education in Malaysia is still at the infant stage. It is important to understand the core principles of Waqf before transforming it into the university’s income generation ecosystem. The power of state authority in issues relating to
waqf is in contradicting to the higher education activities that fall within the ambit of federal matters (Wan Kamal & Mohd Syakir 2016).

References


Abstract

Due to the rapid increase of the budget deficit and public debt in many EU countries after 2008, fiscal policy has faced a significant challenge for developing appropriate tools to strengthen fiscal discipline and thereby improve the quality of public finance. Institutional mechanisms such as numerical fiscal rules play an important role in maintaining fiscal discipline and supporting fiscal credibility of the state. Fiscal rules are most often defined as permanent constraints on fiscal policy, expressed by indicators introducing a limit for a particular fiscal aggregate, such as a budget deficit (real or structural), public debt, public expenditure or public revenue. The theoretical objective of the article is to analyze the institutional dimension of numerical fiscal rules (their type, legal basis, transparency, complexity, flexibility, adequacy and coherence). The empirical purpose, on the other hand, is to conduct a statistical analysis and to examine the relationship between the value of the fiscal rules index and the level of budget deficit and public debt in 28 Member States of the European Union. Examining the effectiveness of applied fiscal rules, at both European and national level seems to be the most valuable part of the analysis.

Keywords: fiscal policy, numerical fiscal rules, fiscal rules index, budget deficit, public debt

JEL Classification: H30, H60, H62, H63, H87

1. Introduction

The global financial crisis in 2008 and the resulting economic slowdown contributed to a sharp deterioration of the condition of the public finance sector in many European Union states. It turned out that the mechanism strengthening the fiscal discipline in the European Union introduced by the Maastricht Treaty (1992) and supplemented by the Stability and Growth Pact (SGP 1997) was insufficient. European fiscal rules in the form of reference values (for deficit and public debt, respectively 3% of GDP and 60% of GDP) and additional procedures included in the SGP did not protect against excessive public debt, even in countries in the Euro Area.

The crisis and the increase in debt in the Euro Area made it necessary to review and assess regulations that strengthen budgetary surveillance in EU states, increasing the discipline of public finance and supporting its consolidation. Such regulations include certain institutional solutions such as: fiscal rules (numerical rules), budgetary procedures (legislative rules) as well as independent fiscal institutions which form the national fiscal discipline frameworks. Implementation of most of them does not require introduction of treaty changes within the EU. Therefore, they may be complementary to regulations at the EU level.

This article focuses primarily on assessing the effectiveness of implementation of the national numerical fiscal rules within the scope of supporting fiscal stability in EU-28.

2. Types and application of fiscal rules

Fiscal rules are most often defined as permanent limitations on fiscal policy expressed as indicators introducing a limit for a specific fiscal aggregate, such as a (real or structural) budget deficit, public debt, expenditure or income, typically as a proportion of GDP. As noted by A. Schaechter et. al. (2012), the rules make it possible to implement a responsible fiscal policy and thus to achieve the fiscal stability (by reducing the pressure/stimuli to make excessive budgetary expenditures).

According to such authors as: Kopits and Symansky (1998), the ideal fiscal rule should be:
- precisely defined: in order to avoid ambiguity and ineffectiveness in enforcement, the rule should be specified not only within the index limit but also within its institutional scope and non-circumvention clauses;
- transparent: accountable in terms of accounting, but also in terms of forecasting and management;
- simple: comprehensible for the legislator and the public;
- flexible: allowing for reaction in the event of asymmetric shocks but also containing shoot out clauses;
- adequate: suitable for the pursued objective;
- enforceable: established by higher-level legislative acts (constitutions, laws) which also contain properly defined sanctions for non-observance of the rule and the principles of their enforcement;
- coherent: in line with the adopted medium- and long-term fiscal strategy and economic policy;
- effective: supported by effective political actions.

The aforementioned characteristics of the “ideal fiscal rule” are, above all, the optimum reference point which should be sought. In fact, it is difficult to find a fiscal rule that would be built based on these principles. However, they should be treated as a specific pattern which can be used to evaluate the existing rules and which shows the direction of their possible modifications. At the same time, it should be noted that some of the desired features of the “ideal rule” mentioned above can be mutually exclusive, for example, the greater simplicity of the rule can be achieved by limiting its flexibility (Kopits, Symansky 1998).

Typically, distinguished are four types of numerical fiscal rules, depending on the fiscal aggregate they concern. These are: public debt rules, balanced budget rules, expenditure rules and income rules. What is more, the rules in question have different characteristics with regard to the objective to be pursued by them, specific guidelines or transparency (Schaechter 2012).

Public debt rules set a clear limit or objective for public debt as a proportion of GDP (in%). This type of fiscal rule is the most effective type of rule in terms of assurance of convergence with the debt purpose, and is relatively easy to communicate. However, achieving a specific objective takes time. The rule does not contain guidelines on how to implement fiscal policy in the short term. Public debt can be influenced by factors that go beyond the control of the government (change in interest rates, exchange rates, etc.). Moreover, fiscal policy can become pro-cyclical when the economy is affected by shocks and the public debt purpose continues to be binding. The budget balance rules limit the variable that primarily affects the debt ratio and is largely under the control of policy makers. Thus, such rules provide clear operational guidelines and can contribute to fiscal stability. Balanced budget rule may concern the general balance, structurally or cyclically adjusted balance, and the balance “throughout the cycle”. Expenditure rules specify limits of total expenditures, current expenditures, or primary expenditures. Such limits are usually determined in absolute values, in terms of a rate (economic growth rate) and sometimes as a proportion of GDP. These rules are not directly linked to the goal of fiscal stability, until they also do not refer to the revenue side of the budget. Income / revenue rules set the maximum cap or (lower) income level and aim to increase the revenue collection or to prevent excessive tax burdens. Most of these rules are not directly related to the control of public debt, because they do not affect the expenditure reduction. Furthermore, setting the maximum cap or the minimum income level may be a significant challenge, as incomes may be significantly determined by the cyclical component. Exceptions are those rules that limit the use of additional “windfall” income in order to finance additional expenditures (cf. Schaechter et. al. 2012, Dzialo 2016).

Speaking of the functions of fiscal rules, the following issues can be mentioned (Walasik 2016):
- numeracy, comparability and independence from government fiscal policy;
- instrumentality which allows assessing of effectiveness of the implementation of fiscal policy goals;
- anti-cyclicality;
- planning nature;
- individualization which allows adjustment of the rule to the specificity of the public finance system of a given state.

Table 1. Properties of Different Types of Fiscal Rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of rule</th>
<th>Pros</th>
<th>Cons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Debt rule</td>
<td>Direct link to debt sustainability Easy to communicate and monitor</td>
<td>No clear operational guidance in the short run as policy impact on debt ratio is not immediate and limited No economic stabilization feature Rule could be met via temporary measures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Debt could be affected by developments outside the control of the government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Budget balance rule</th>
<th>Clear operational guidance</th>
<th>No economic stabilization feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Close link to debt sustainability</td>
<td>Headline balance could be affected by developments outside the control of the government (e.g., a major economic downturn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Easy to communicate and monitor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural budget balance rule</th>
<th>Relatively clear operational guidance</th>
<th>Correction for cycle is complicated, especially for countries undergoing structural changes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Close link to debt sustainability</td>
<td>Need to pre-define one-off and temporary factors to avoid their discretionary use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic stabilization function (i.e., accounts for economic shocks)</td>
<td>Complexity makes it more difficult to communicate and monitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Allows to account for other one-off and temporary factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expenditure rule</th>
<th>Clear operational guidance</th>
<th>Not directly linked to debt sustainability since no constraint on revenue side</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Allows for economic stabilization</td>
<td>Could lead to unwanted changes in the distribution of spending if, to meet the ceiling, shift to spending categories occurs that are not covered by the rule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Steers the size of government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relatively easy to communicate and monitor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue rule</th>
<th>Steers the size of government</th>
<th>Not directly linked to debt sustainability since no constraint on expenditure side (except rules constraining use of windfall revenue)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can improve revenue policy and administration</td>
<td>No economic stabilization feature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can prevent pro-cyclical spending (rules constraining use of windfall revenue)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

3. **Mechanism of implementing fiscal rules in EU — supranational and national level**

3.1. **The EU level (supranational level)**

In the European Union, the fiscal policy is a subject of independent decisions of each Member State. The effects of these decisions taken under the influence of individual socio-economic conditions of each state have significant implications for the macroeconomic situation of other Member States. In EU, substantially from the beginning of works on the shape of the monetary union, attention has been paid to the dangers of unstable fiscal policy. Already in the Delors Commission report of 1989, there was a statement about the existence of large and permanent deficits in public finances which have an impact on the monetary policy and heavily burden it. (Jędrzejowicz, Kitala, Wronka 2009). In order to avoid the negative impact of unstable fiscal policy, postulated was introduction of fiscal rules which would set the limit for the deficit and the limit for the public debt.

Economic and Financial Affairs Council (ECOFIN) composed of the ministers of finance of Member States is the main body of the European Union responsible for the surveillance and coordination of fiscal policy at the transnational level. (Gajewski, Skiba 2010). The general mechanism for fiscal coordination at European level consists of several instruments such as: Maastricht Treaty (1992), Stability and Growth Pact (1997 and 2005), reforms of 2011 introduced in the form of regulations and directives (so called Six-Pack), reforms of 2013 (so called Two-Pack) and the Fiscal Pact (Treaty on Stability, Coordination and Governance – entered into force in January 2013 in 25 signatory countries).

Coordination of economic policy, including fiscal policy of Member States, was introduced by the Maastricht Treaty in connection with preparations for the adoption of the Euro (see Jędrzejowicz, Kitala, Wronka 2009). Article 126 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (ex article 104 TEC, 1992) in relation to Protocol No 12 to the TEC defines the excessive budget deficit procedure. It adopts the principle of avoiding excessive deficit and the competence of the European Commission to monitor the development of the budgetary position and the level of public debt. Therefore, there are two evaluation criteria:

a) whether the ratio of the planned or actual budget deficit to gross domestic product (GDP) exceeds the reference value, unless:

- the above mentioned ratio gradually decreases and is close to the reference value;
- or exceedance of the reference value is exceptional and transitional and the ratio remains close to the reference value;
- b) whether the ratio of public debt to gross domestic product exceeds the reference value, unless the ratio is successively reduced and approaching the reference value at a satisfactory pace. The detailed procedure for the excessive deficit is specified in Protocol No. 12. In art. 1 of the Protocol, two reference levels were adopted: 1) 3% in relation to the planned or actual budget deficit to gross domestic product in market prices; 2) 60% in relation to the public debt to gross domestic product in market prices.

Convergence criteria set the conditions for entry into the Euro Area, but the Treaty itself does not contain rules that explicitly state how the Euro Area Member States should be mobilized to maintain a low deficit. They force reduction of the deficit before adopting Euro, but they do not solve the problem of excessive public debt after adoption of the common currency. For this reason, on June 17, 1997 the European Council approved the adoption of the Stability and Growth Pact (Gajewski, Skiba, 2010). Stability and Growth Pact consists of: 1) Resolution of the European Council dated June 17, 1997 on stability and growth (Amsterdam) 2; 2) Council Regulation (EC) No. 1466/97 dated July 7, 1997 on the strengthening of the surveillance of budgetary positions and the surveillance and coordination of economic policies 3; 3) Council Regulation (EC) No. 1467/97 dated July 7, 1997 on speeding up and clarifying the implementation of the excessive deficit procedure. 4 Stability and Growth Pact sets the frameworks for fiscal policy coordination in the Member States. The European Council, the Council of the European Union and the European Commission oblige EU Member States to implement SGP rules in a direct and timely manner. The Pact contains preventive and deterrent (corrective) elements, while acknowledging the need to respect the medium-term objective (MTO). As part of the prevention, Member States are required to submit annual stability or convergence programs and take corrective measures to achieve the objectives set out in these programs. Council Regulation (EC) No. 1466/97, as an integral part of the Stability and Growth Pact, assumes that compliance with the medium-term objective close to balance or in surplus will allow Member States to control normal cyclical fluctuations, while maintaining the public finance sector deficit below the reference value amounting to 3% of GDP. Council Regulation (EC) No. 1055/2005 dated June 27, 2005 amending Regulation (EC) No. 1466/97 on the strengthening of the surveillance of budgetary positions and the surveillance and coordination of economic policies assume that each country has a differentiated medium-term objective which may deviate from the objective close to balance or in surplus. These objectives provide a safety margin in the event of exceedance of deficit ratio of 3% of GDP. In the analyzed regulation for the countries that have adopted Euro and countries included in ERM-2, set was a range between 1% of GDP and the equilibrium or surplus in the cyclically adjusted balance that should correspond to the MTO (Sarrat de Tramezaigues 2010).

Three years after the outbreak of the global financial crisis (in 2011), the European Parliament adopted a package of six legal acts concerning the economic management proposed by the European Commission. The so called “Six-Pack” constitutes a strengthening of the EU Stability and Growth Pact and is intended to prevent future crises of the scale as in Greece. The crisis in Greece, Ireland and Portugal has shown that the EU system of disciplining of public finances of the Member States is ineffective. SGP did not allow the possibility of taking effective actions when the deficit exceeded 3% of GDP or responding to public debt growth in EU states. Within the frameworks of the “Six-Pack”, penalties were introduced for countries violating fiscal discipline and macroeconomic stability that could jeopardize the whole EU. It is therefore possible to take actions when the budget deficit exceeds 3% of GDP. If the public debt exceeds 60% of GDP, the country will be obliged to decrease the annual public debt by 1/20 annually within three years. In case of failure, the country will participate in the excessive deficit procedure. The Council will recommend and set the time for taking corrective actions. Failure to do so may result in financial penalties. Euro Area Countries will also be required to pay a deposit of 0.2% of GDP. If the country does not regain budget stability, it will lose its deposit on the basis of sanctions (European Parliament 2014; European Commission 2014).

In 2011, the European Commission also proposed two further regulations to strengthen budgetary surveillance in the Euro Area. This packet of reforms, so called “Two-Pack” entered into force in 2013. The new regulations enhance the transparency of budgetary decisions in the Euro Area starting with the budget cycle in 2014. The “Two-Pack” includes two regulations aimed at further deepening of economic integration and convergence between Euro Area Member States. It introduces a common budgetary period and common budgetary principles for Euro Area Member States. In particular:

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1 OJ EU C 83, 30.03.2010, Protocol (No 12) on the excessive deficit procedure.
2 OJ EU C 236, 08.02.1997, P.0001-0002.
4 OJ EU L 209, 08.02.1997, p. 6-11.
- until April 30, the Euro Area Member States must publish their medium-term budgetary plans (stability programs) alongside their political priorities for economic growth and employment for the next 12 months (National Reform Programs).
- until October 15, the Euro Area Member States must publish their budget projects for the following year.
- until December 31, the Euro Area Member States must adopt their budgets for the following year. What is important, the “Two-Pack” increases the sustainability of national budget processes/procedures by obliging Member States to base their budgetary projects/plans on independent macroeconomic forecasts (European Commission 2014).

The next regulation - the Treaty on Stability, Coordination and Governance (TSCG, signed in 2013 - the so-called fiscal pact), from January 2014, mandated that the medium-term budgetary objective be recorded in the national law and must be 0.5% of GDP in relation to the structural deficit (in exceptional circumstances, it may increase to 1%). The Treaty also stipulates that automatic corrective mechanisms should be triggered in the event of violation of structural deficit limit (European Commission 2014).

3.2. National level

Apart from the general fiscal policy coordination mechanism at the European level, Member States use their own fiscal policy instruments to ensure the sustainability of public finances. These are national fiscal policy instruments, such as fiscal rules, independent fiscal institutions and medium-term budget planning frameworks. Researchers have been interested in the above instruments for at least tens of years. However, in the years 2008-2010, in the period of global financial crisis and instability of the public finance system, interest in these instruments significantly increased. A total of 67 different types of national fiscal rules, including 26 budget balance rules, 18 indebtedness rules, 17 expenditure rules and 6 income rules were functioning in EU-27 in 2008. Most Member States applied more than one rule. Only three countries, i.e. Cyprus, Malta and Greece, did not apply any fiscal rules in 2008. In stability and convergence programs developed in the years 2009-2010\(^1\), due to the deepening of the public finance crisis in most EU Member States, included was information on changes in national fiscal rules. In relation to 2008, introduced were 19 new rules and reformed were 2, previously functioning ones (Ayuso-i-Casals 2010, p. 10). Additionally, the impact of fiscal rules was strengthened by introducing or re-forming other institutions constituting the mechanism of national fiscal policy coordination. At present, all EU-28 Member States apply fiscal rules.

4. State of public finance in EU-28

The recent economic crisis has contributed to a significant deterioration in the state of public finances in many countries. In the years 2007-2015, the average public debt as a proportion of GDP increased from the level of 58.8% to 85% in the EU-28, whereas in the Euro Area (EU-19) respectively from 65% to 90.4%. Detailed analysis of statistical data leads, however, to the conclusion that, in many cases, long before the economic crisis, the fiscal policy implemented in individual EU states was not a responsible policy. Data included in table 2 shows that in most EU states, actions taken within the frameworks of the fiscal policy in the years 2002-2015 did not lead to the maintenance of a stable budget. It can therefore be said that the economic downturn has only highlighted the existing problem of lack of sustainability of public finances and has further encouraged the search for other factors affecting the quality of this policy, primarily of a structural nature.

Table 2. Public finance sector balance in EU states as a proportion of GDP (in%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU-19</td>
<td>-2.7</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
<td>-6.3</td>
<td>-6.2</td>
<td>-4.2</td>
<td>-3.6</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-28</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>-2.9</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td>-1.6</td>
<td>-0.9</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
<td>-6.4</td>
<td>-4.6</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
<td>-2.9</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td>-1.6</td>
<td>-0.9</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>-6.6</td>
<td>-6.4</td>
<td>-4.6</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>-5.6</td>
<td>-3.8</td>
<td>-3.8</td>
<td>-4.1</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-3.1</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>-3.1</td>
<td>-2.0</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Under the regulations contained in the preventive part of the Stability and Growth Pact, the Euro Area Member States prepare annual stability programs, while other EU Member States prepare convergence programs and later present them to the European Commission and the Council. Their goal is to ensure more rigorous budgetary discipline by surveillance and coordination of budgetary policy in the Euro Area and within the EU.

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In the years 2002-2015, the budget deficit as a proportion of GDP in EU-28 fluctuated between -0.9% (in 2007) to -6.6% (in 2009), while in the Euro Area (EU-19) respectively between -0.6% (in 2007) to -6.3% (in 2009). Starting from year 2010, however, it began to gradually decrease. In 2009, the majority of EU countries did not meet the nominal convergence criterion on the budget deficit, in 2015 only five.

In the analyzed period, only a few countries, i.e. Sweden, Luxembourg, Estonia and Germany could be positively distinguished. In contrast, the budgetary situation in the so called old European Union states, i.e. in Greece, Spain, France, Portugal and Great Britain and in adopted in 2004 – Croatia (table 2) should be negatively assessed. In 2015, 22 EU Member States reported a budget deficit lower than -3%. The lowest deficits were achieved by Czech Republic (-0.6%), Lithuania (-0.2%), Austria (-1.0%), Romania (-0.8%), while a small budget surplus was achieved by four states: Germany (0.7%), Estonia (0.1%), Luxembourg (1.6%), Sweden (0.2%).

The use of the budget deficit as a measure of sustainability of public finances in the EU has its drawbacks (more: Próchnik 2012). The level of public debt as a proportion of GDP can be considered a more objective measure of the state of public finances. It cannot be forgotten that only exceedance of the budget deficit over 3% of GDP (until 2012) was subject to sanctions and correction mechanism, which in reality were often only a “dead” regulation. At the same time, it should be noted that compliance with the rule of budget deficit at the level of 3% of GDP did not automatically guarantee the fulfillment of two other rules concerning the medium-term budgetary balance and the amount of public debt (at the level of 60% of GDP). However, the country which maintained a budget deficit at the level of approx. 3% of GDP did not usually meet the remaining criteria mentioned above. At the same time (until 2012) it was not exposed to any sanctions for this reason (Wojtas, Stolarczyk, 2011). Consequently, from a country’s point of view, it was important to maintain above all the annual
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deficit level below the reference value of the fiscal standard, even at the expense of some manipulations 1. Whereas, the
public debt could in principle be increased without restriction, without the consequences of imposing penal sanctions.
Table 3. Public finance sector debt in EU as a proportion of GDP (in%)
country

2002

2003

2004

2005

2006

2007

2008

2009

2010

2011

2012

2013

2014

2015

69,2
62,6

67,4
61,4

65,0
58,8

68,6
62,0

78,4
74,4

83,8
79,9

86,1
82,4

89,5
85,2

91,3
87,1

92,0
86,7

90,4
85,0

62,7

61,5

58,9

62,2

74,5

80,2

82,7

85,5

87,4

86,7

85,0

EU – 19
EU – 28

66,9
60,3

68,1
61,8

68,4
62,1

EU – 27

60,3

61,9

62,2

Belgium
Bulgaria

103,4 98,4
52,4 44,4

Czech Republic
Denmark
Germany
Estonia
Ireland
Greece
Spain
France
Croatia
Italy
Cyprus
Latvia
Lithuania
Luxembourg
Hungary
Malta
Netherlands
Austria
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Slovenia
Slovakia
Finland
Sweden
United Kingdom

106,5
101,1 101,5
18,4 18,9 27,0
42,2
27,1 28,6 28,9 28,4 28,3 27,9 28,7 34,6 38,4 41,4 46,2 46,0
49,5 47,2 45,1 37,8 32,1 27,1 33,4 40,7 42,8 46,4 45,4 44,5 44,8
74,9
60,7 64,4 66,2 68,6 68,0 65,2 66,8 74,6 82,5 80,0 81,0 78,4
10,7
5,7
5,6
5
4,6
4,4
3,7
4,5
7,1
6,7
6,1
9,8
10,0
31,8 31,0 29,4 27,2 24,6 24,9 44,2 64,4 91,2 104,1 117,4 123,7 105,2
179,7
101,7 97,4 98,6 100
106,1 107,4 112,9 129,7 148,3 170,3 157,2 175,1
52,6 48,8 46,3 43,2 39,7 36,3 40,2 54,0 61,7 70,5 86,0 93,9 100,4
95,3
58,8 62,9 64,9 66,4 63,7 64,2 68,2 79,2 82,7 86,2 90,6 93,5
86,6
35,1 36,3 38,2 38,5 35,7 33,3 30,0 36,6 45,0 52,0 55,9 67,1
131,9
105,4 104,1 103,7 105,7 106,3 103,3 106,1 116,4 119,3 120,7 127,0 132,6
107,1
65,1 69,7 70,9 69,4 64,7 58,8 48,9 58,5 61,3 71,5 86,6 111,7
13,6 14,7 15
12,5 10,7 9,0
19,8 36,9 44,5 42,0 40,8 38,1 40,7
40,5
22,2 21,0 19,3 18,3 17,9 16,8 15,5 29,3 37,8 38,3 40,5 39,4
6,3
6,2
6,3
6,1
6,7
6,7
14,4 15,5 19,5 18,7 21,7 23,1 22,7
55,9 58,6 59,5 61,7 65,9 67,0 73,0 79,8 82,2 82,1 79,8 79,2 75,7
57,9 66,0 69,8 68,0 62,5 60,7 60,9 66,5 66,0 68,8 70,8 73,0 67,0
67,9
50,5 52,0 52,4 51,8 47,4 45,3 58,5 60,8 63,4 65,7 71,3 73,5
66,2 65,3 64,7 64,2 62,3 60,2 63,8 69,2 72,5 73,1 74,4 74,5 84,4
50,2
42,2 47,1 45,7 47,1 47,7 45,0 47,1 50,9 54,9 56,2 55,6 57,0
130,6
56,8 59,4 61,9 67,7 69,4 68,4 71,7 83,7 94,0 108,2 124,1 129,0
39,4
24,9 21,5 18,7 15,8 12,4 12,8 13,4 23,6 30,5 34,7 38,0 38,4
27,8 27,2 27,3 26,7 26,4 23,1 22
35,2 38,7 47,1 54,4 71,7 80,9
43,4 42,4 41,5 34,2 30,5 29,6 27,9 35,6 41,0 43,6 52,7 55,4 53,6
41,5 44,5 44,4 41,7 39,6 35,2 33,9 43,5 48,8 49,3 53,6 57,0 60,2
52,5 51,7 50,3 50,4 45,2 40,2 38,8 42,6 39,4 38,6 38,3 40,6 45,2
37,1 38,7 40,3 41,7 42,7 43,7 51,9 67,1 78,4 84,3 89,1 90,6 88,1
94,0
37,0

92,0
27,5

87,9
21,6

84
17,2

89,2
13,7

96,6
14,6

96,6
16,2

99,2
16,3

105,
8
26,0
40,3
40,4
71,2
10,1
78,6
177,
4
99,8
96,2
86,7
132,
3
107,
5
36,3
42,7
22,1
74,7
64,0
65,1
85,5
51,1
129,
0
37,9
83,1
52,5
63,6
43,9
89,1

The countries may, e.g. use one-off operations on the income side (through tax changes) and on the expenditure side so that, at the
time of evaluation, within one year, the requirement of a budget deficit below 3% of GDP is met (Wojtas, Stolarczyk, 2011).
1

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Data included in table 3 shows that in the years 2002-2015, the European Union as a whole, currently counting 28 members, met the criterion of public debt below 60% of GDP only in 2007. In the case of the Euro Area, however, in the years 2002-2015, the debt below the reference value was unfortunately not reported. In 2002, proportion of debt to GDP in EU-19 was 66.9%, in 2015 it exceeded the limit of 90% of GDP. In 2015, only eleven states had public debt below the reference value of 60%, including six from the Euro Area.

Accumulation of budget deficits led to a high level of public debt in individual EU Member States. During the examined period, the problem of debt growth was felt by most member states of the community. In 2015, the level of 100% public debt as a proportion of GDP was exceeded in five states: Greece (177.4%), Italy (132.3%), Portugal (129%), Cyprus (107.5%) and Belgium (105.8%). The lowest rate of public debt as a proportion of GDP was reported in 2015 in Estonia (10.1%), Bulgaria (26%) and Luxembourg (22.1%).

5. Evaluation of the effectiveness of implementation of fiscal rules in EU-28

Reference books identify features of effective fiscal rules, such as: precise determination of the fiscal aggregate including the formula, flexibility, responsiveness to changes in economic conditions, simplicity of design, compliance of rules with the objectives of fiscal and macroeconomic policy (See: Anderson and Minarik, 2006; Kopits, 2001, von Hagen, 2002). However, the question arises of whether these conditions can be considered universal and therefore - whether they are equally effective in every situation? Do these principles allow for achievement of a long-term balance? There is no research in the literature unequivocally confirming that fiscal rules significantly improve fiscal policy discipline. Many researchers explicitly state that some rules may strengthen the pro-cyclicality of fiscal policy, it especially applies to numerical rules. Such impact of numerical rules is indicated, among others, by Sørensen et. al. (2001). Whereas, Ayuso-i-Casals et. al. (2007), based on the conducted research concerning the fiscal rules applicable within EU in the years 1990-2015, claim that fiscal policy pro-cyclicality was affected by 50% of the numerical rules applied in the EU states, it especially applies to budget balance rules. Even higher percentage of the rules strengthening the pro-cyclicality of fiscal policy were rules of public debt (81%) (Gajewski, Skiba 2010). At the same time, Ayuso-i-Casals et. al. (2007) claim that expenditure rules may have the anti-cyclical impact on fiscal policy. However, it should be borne in mind that their effectiveness can also be illusory, due to the possibility of circumvention by the so-called creative accounting which is emphasized, among others, by Milesi-Ferretti (2000). A tendency to circumvent the rule will be the higher the less transparent will be the rule, therefore the effectiveness of fiscal regulations to a large extent also depends on accountability and transparency of public finances. At the same time, the previous research shows that in countries with greater fiscal transparency it is easier to maintain the budget discipline and to control expenditure. It is confirmed by Alesina and Perotti (1996) and by Poterba and von Hagen (1999) who claim that “the higher level of (fiscal policy) transparency is associated with a lower budget deficit”.

Analyzes focusing on European experience, and in particular on European fiscal norms, confirm only partial effectiveness of these rules. Researchers point out that, they indeed led to a reduction in a fiscal imbalance before entering EMU, however after 2001, the imbalance in many Euro Area states unfortunately deepened (Flores et. al., 2005). The same opinion is held by von Hagen, Hallet and Strauch (2001) who also point out the lack of a mechanism of exclusion from Euro Area even after exceedance of reference values specified in the Treaty and PSW, which significantly weakens European fiscal regulations.

Based on the previous considerations it can be stated that one of the conditions of effective functioning of fiscal rules is their proper construction, i.e. durability but also low susceptibility to change and enforceability. Therefore, fiscal rules should be equipped with certain features, in particular such as: adequate “strong” legal basis, adequate monitoring, mechanisms allowing for effective enforcement and sanctions for non-compliance; clarity.

The effectiveness of fiscal rules in enhancing fiscal discipline in the EU-28 countries may be evaluated using the fiscal rule index (FRI) prepared by ECOFIN which takes into account the above information for each rule, creating an index of “strength” for a particular rule (reflecting the strengths and the scope of impact of particular types of rules) and after a proper summation and grouping it creates the fiscal rule index for a given country in a given year (https://ec.europa.eu/info/business-economy-euro/indicators-statistics/economic-databases/fiscal-governance-eu-
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member-states/numerical-fiscal-rules-eu-member-countries_en). In 2015 and at the beginning of 2016, a new, improved
indexing methodology was used. An update of fiscal rule base took place and a “new” index may be used from 2015.
Indexes are prepared based on data from surveys conducted by the European Commission. The following listed criteria
are taken into account to construct the national fiscal rule indexes according to the old methodology: legal basis of the rule,
the entity responsible for setting or changing the objectives, the authority responsible for monitoring compliance and
enforcement of the rule, enforcement mechanisms, transparency of the application of the rule (role of the media).
A higher index indicator means a higher quality of fiscal rules (their higher restrictiveness) applicable in a particular country
and should therefore point to a better public finance situation. However, due to differences in construction of individual rules
in Member States, the FRI index should be interpreted with some caution. The fiscal crisis in the EU states resulted in a
modification of the method of constructing of fiscal rule index because it was noted that the effectiveness of the rules (their
compliance/ respect) depends to a large extent on their institutional characteristics. According to the new methodology
(European Commission 2017) the following is taken into account: the legal basis of the fiscal rule, binding nature, monitoring
and enforcement bodies, corrective mechanisms, resistance to shocks.
Conducting a comparative analysis of indexes calculated according to the new methodology is currently difficult because
the available data only cover the year 2015. Thus, shaping of the fiscal rule index in the EU-28 states in the years 20022015 was shown according to the “old methodology”: (Table 4).
Table 4. Fiscal rule index in EU-28 states according to the “old methodology”
Country
Austria
Belgium
Bulgaria
Cyprus

2002
0,10
0,04
-0,96
-0,89

2003
0,10
0,04
0,78
-0,89

2004
0,10
0,04
0,78
-0,89

2005
0,00
0,04
0,82
-0,89

2006
0,00
0,04
1,34
-0,89

2007
0,00
0,04
1,34
-0,89

2008
-0,04
0,04
1,34
-0,89

2009
0,26
0,04
1,34
-0,89

2010
0,26
0,04
1,34
-0,89

2011
0,34
0,04
1,75
-0,89

2012
0,51
0,07
2,03
-0,89

2013
0,51
0,07
2,03
0,65

2014
0,51
1,54
3,87
0,95

Czech Republic
Denmark
Germany
Estonia
Greece
Spain
Finland
France
Croatia
Hungary
Ireland
Italy
Lithuania
Luxembourg
Latvia
Malta
Netherlands
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Sweden

-0,96
1,05
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,08
0,63
-0,25
-0,96
-0,75
-0,94
0,30
-0,10
0,48
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
0,73
-0,39
-0,48
1,15

-0,96
1,05
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,27
0,60
-0,25
-0,96
-0,75
-0,94
0,30
-0,10
0,48
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
0,73
-0,25
-0,48
1,15

-0,54
1,05
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,27
0,60
-0,25
-0,96
-0,75
-0,76
0,30
-0,10
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
0,73
-0,25
-0,48
1,15

-0,11
1,05
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,27
0,60
-0,25
-0,96
-0,75
-0,76
0,30
-0,10
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
0,73
-0,25
-0,48
1,15

-0,11
1,05
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,13
0,60
0,08
-0,96
-0,75
-0,76
0,30
-0,04
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
1,41
-0,25
-0,48
1,15

-0,11
0,94
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,13
0,60
0,08
-0,96
0,33
-0,76
0,09
-0,04
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
1,41
-0,21
-0,48
1,28

-0,11
0,94
0,33
0,74
-0,96
1,13
0,27
0,35
-0,96
0,33
-0,76
0,07
0,51
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
0,73
-0,21
-0,48
1,28

-0,31
0,94
0,99
0,74
-0,96
1,13
-0,06
0,69
0,12
0,10
-0,76
0,15
0,51
1,17
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
1,09
-0,21
-0,48
1,28

-0,31
0,94
0,62
0,86
-0,96
1,13
-0,06
0,50
0,12
0,10
-0,76
0,19
0,51
0,69
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
1,09
-0,21
-0,48
1,39

-0,31
0,09
1,06
0,86
-0,96
1,94
0,07
1,17
1,55
0,10
-0,76
0,22
0,51
0,69
-0,38
-0,96
0,44
1,41
-0,21
-0,48
1,39

-0,31
-0,58
1,06
0,41
0,66
2,53
0,04
1,17
1,55
-0,96
-0,76
0,22
0,53
0,70
-0,38
-0,96
0,51
1,38
-0,07
-0,48
1,39

-0,31
1,04
2,90
0,72
0,66
2,53
1,37
3,04
1,55
-0,23
2,08
0,26
0,53
1,06
2,03
-0,96
0,51
1,23
1,37
-0,48
1,39

-0,31
1,56
2,90
1,26
0,77
2,87
1,34
2,90
1,55
1,82
2,08
3,50
0,53
1,82
2,93
1,92
2,82
1,52
1,49
2,84
1,39

Slovenia
-0,96
Slovakia
0,00
United Kingdom 1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
0,00
1,38

-0,96
-0,03
-0,96

-0,96
-0,03
1,13

-0,96
-0,03
1,09

-0,96
1,81
1,09

-0,96 -0,96
1,81 2,52
1,09 1,17

2015
0,49
1,54
4,10
0,95
0,31
1,56
2,90
1,26
0,77
2,91
1,34
3,03
0,47
1,91
1,95
3,53
3,09
2,00
2,93
1,92
2,76
2,13
2,43
2,84
1,39
0,96
2,52
0,53

The analysis of the fiscal rule indices presented in Table 4 shows a relatively high quality of fiscal rules (restrictiveness) at
the end of the research period (2015) in countries such as: Bulgaria, Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg,
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Latvia, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia. Much less restrictive rules were applied in Austria, Czech Republic, Croatia, Slovenia and the United Kingdom.

Figure 1. Fiscal Rule Index

Source: Own elaboration.

The general trend is improvement of fiscal rule indices in almost all countries beginning from 2008, which can be explained by an attempt to respond to the global financial crisis (Figure 1). Moreover, the reforms introduced in the sphere of fiscal policy coordination at EU level in the years 2011-2013 were undoubtedly affecting this situation. Compared to 2008, the value of the fiscal rule index did not change only in Slovenia, and decreased only in the UK. The biggest increase in the value of fiscal rule index during the years 2008-2015 took place in Bulgaria from 1.34 to 4.10; in Germany from 0.33 to 2.90; in Romania from -0.48 to 2.84; in France from 0.35 to 3.03; in Italy from 0.07 to 3.53; in Lithuania from 0.51 to 3.09; in Latvia from -0.38 to 2.93; in Malta from -0.96 to 1.92; in Holland from 0.44 to 2.76; in Portugal from -0.21 to 2.43; in Slovakia from 0.00 to 2.52.

Table 5. Fiscal rule index as well as the level of budget deficit and public debt in years 2002 and 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>66.50</td>
<td>85.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
<td>104.70</td>
<td>105.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>51.40</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>-4.1</td>
<td>-1.1</td>
<td>59.70</td>
<td>107.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>-6.3</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>25.90</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>49.10</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>-3.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>59.40</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>-6.0</td>
<td>-7.5</td>
<td>104.90</td>
<td>177.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>-5.1</td>
<td>51.30</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
<td>40.20</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
conditions and delays in time, the connection between fiscal sustainability and the high fiscal rule index is not obvious. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that only analysis of institutional characteristics of the individual countries would allow for drawing unequivocal conclusions. Moreover, the evaluation of change of the level of such a fiscal aggregation as the public debt is possible in the long horizon.

6. Conclusion

Review of literature and the experience of European countries show that different types of fiscal rules are not equally effective in reducing the fiscal imbalance, however if well constructed they can, along with other budgetary institutions, support measures aiming to reduce the public debt and reduce the fiscal policy pro-cyclicality. National fiscal rules, in case of strong legal bases and built-in enforcement mechanisms, can undoubtedly contribute to the improvement of public finance situation. It should however be emphasized that the fiscal rules in EU-28 states have different institutional characteristics, hence the assessment of their effectiveness implies certain difficulties. Based on the analysis of fiscal indices in the period of 2002-2015 in different EU Member States, it may be concluded that the value of the reviewed index increased in 26 of them. Its decrease was reported only in the United Kingdom, whereas it did not change only in Slovenia. Comparison of the values of the fiscal rule index with the budgetary performance (budget deficit and public debt level) shows that its high level is not correlated with the low level of public debt, with a more visible positive influence on the budget deficit level. To sum up, it is worthwhile to conduct further studies on the quality of fiscal rules, their institutional characteristics and to analyze their effectiveness in increasing fiscal discipline. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that due to macroeconomic conditions and delays in time, the connection between fiscal sustainability and the high fiscal rule index is not obvious.

References


The Importance of Graphology In Determining Of The Managerial Qualities Of The Future Women Leaders Within The Z Generation: A Research Done On International Business Management Students Of Coventry University

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Abstract

The Z generation is a name given for the progeny born after the year 1995 and this generation is seen to be extremely different to the previous ones. This generation is yet to take place in the world of work. Their qualities therefore are different to the previous generations. The qualities evolving differently in comparison to the previous generations qualities will also take their place within the world of work approaching. Especially for the division within the Z generation who will take the path of leadership and management in their careers, graphology plays a great part in analysing their characteristics and qualities to see if they fit the leadership position they are aiming to achieve. Graphology can be described as signature and handwriting analysis used to help with analysing the character of individuals. Not every individual is deemed to have leadership characteristics and qualities. Those, who hold characteristics that consist leadership within them, becoming managers is considered extremely important within the organizational culture and the maintaining of the organizational structures. This research will contain of the signature analysis of 17 female International Business Management students, within the Z generation. The result will show whether their characteristics and qualities are fit, or unfit for the course they are undertaking. In addition to the research, if the results are meaningful in this case, it will be debated whether the science of signature analysing is compatible with the division of the students who choose to study in the international business management department. The evaluation of the received Signatures is thought to be an analysis of the personality structures of these individuals, which will be effective in career management as well as career success and motivation.

Keywords: Z Generation, Woman, Young, Graphology, Career management, Management.

1. Introduction

In the coming years, the Z generation is the generation that will play an active role in the world of business. The Z belt generation following on from the Y belt, is preparing to take its place in the business world. Future employees, executives and leaders will come from this generation. The purpose of this study; is to show that the character structure of the Z generation differentiate with other generations and shows how individual characteristics such as individualistic attitudes, self-confident structures, and high ability to solve problems are in accordance with the analysis of the signatures of leadership structures. Graphology (signature / writing) helps in determining the personality analysis of individuals. With signature analysis, individuals with leadership qualities will have an advantage in the name of companies that compete in
the global market, where they are well-defined in the company they are in. The study examined the analysis of signatures of the z-belt female students who study International Business Management at Coventry University to see if there are leadership qualities within them and how effective and relative the course they are undertaking is to them.

2. Generation Z

The generation is often described as a determinative group that shares the year of birth, age, and significant life events in the critical developmental stages (Cooman, Dries, 2012: 44).

The generations; should be classified using the beliefs, feelings and experiences of the community that formed the generations and not only according to the time periods they were born in. (Zemke, Raines, Filipczak, 2013: 4).

In Literature, the generations differ according to countries and historical events. The Z-belt is accepted as literate in the post-1990, 1995, and 2000 years. The ones born in 1995 and beyond were taken as the Z-belt for our research. Generally accepted belt classifications are as follows (Cooman and Drics, 2012: 44);

- The Silent Generation (1925-1944).
- Baby Boom (1945-1964)
- Generation X (1965-1979)
- Generation Z (1995-...)(academia.edu)

Generation Z is also referred to by different names; Strauss and Howe describe it as "The New Silent Generation" (Strauss, Howe, 1999: 335), also; Gen Z, Zs, Gen Z’ers, iGeneration, Gen Tech, Gen Wii, Net Gen, Digital Natives, Gen Next, Post Gen, and Plurals were used (Wiedmer, 2015:55).

This generation is raising in an environment where Internet is very common. This situation is reflected in their characteristic features. Internet is indispensable for this generation that is interwoven with computers and technology. They interfere with the internet, social media and mp3 players, text messaging, mobile phones, PDAs, YouTube, IPADs, media technologies on a day to day basis. They can be named as the mobile generation. (Kapil and Roy, 2014: 10-11.)

The characteristics that are emerging from the Z belt are, Tech Savvy, Prematurely mature, Pampered, Empowered, Risk adverse, Protected (Singh, 2014: 59). The 7 characteristics features of the Z belt are: Cynical, private, Entrepreneurial, Multi-tasking, Hyper-aware, Technology-reliant (growingleaders.com).

3. Leadership

Approaches developed in relation to leadership, define leadership in terms of characteristics, behavioural characteristics the person has in conditions / situations and their circumstances (Çelik, 2000: 1).

Leadership is more than being reasonable it is using intelligence to make things reasonable, it is to put in to practice a very neutral choice instead of involving anxiety and fear into work. (Williams, 2006: 213).

The features that must be found in a successful leader can be presented as (Aydin, 1997: 86):

- The leader has a personality structure that has developed a sense of self-confidence which also reflects onto those who follow him.
- A Leader, is someone who can choose the right solutions in accordance with the conditions, fast in making decisions and reaching the broadest alliance in implementing these decisions.
- A Leader is, stable, precise, responsible and someone whose social adaptation skills are developed.

- Leader is the person who has blended and assimilated the features of control, devotion, distant vision, intuition, and courage to themselves.

- The leader is the person who observes the events and has the potential to communicate verbally with his followers, establishes cause-effect relationship, is close to cooperation and has a high technical understanding.

- A Leader is creative, intelligent, entrepreneurial, sociable, and idealistic.

- A Leader is an active executive who organizes group members, has a high level of knowledge and skill, and is in control.

- The leader is the person with the ability to control emotions in a balanced and consistent personality.

- A Leader, has a sense of unity and solidarity within the group; the person who is sensitive to the event, situation, and person. A person with empathy.

- The leader is open and respectful of prejudice, criticism, and contrary views. The leader is an effective speaker and a good listener.

- A Leader is a person with a high sense of accomplishment and motivation.

- A Leader holds a multidimensional perspective, abstract thinking capacity is strong.

According to another source; The 7 observable features of the leader are listed as follows (Williams, 2006: 52).

1- Developed in skills, abilities, and quickness.

2- The anticipation that allows them to see the next step is high, they depend on their purposes and are loyal.

3- They have assimilated self-discipline and self-esteem.

4- They are accomplished and capable individual.

5- Responsibility and acceptance of liability.

6- They have developed their ability to communicate effectively.

7- They set an example with their behaviours.

### 4. Graphology

Graphology is applied to many fields today. Personality analysis, intellectual-behavioural and emotional-related aspects in adults, psycho-emotional problems, compatibility studies in families in married couples, academic and vocational guidance, business counselling, handwriting, signatures, and expert opinion in courts. Graphologists have been involved in the recruitment process in many countries and in the selection of human resources personnel (Dazzi, Pedrabissi, 2009: 1).

There are several principles that graphology is based on. These are (dergiler.ankara.edu.tr):

- Everyone has a unique handwriting.

- Everyone’s characteristics reflect in their handwriting.

- Every person has unchangeable characters in their writing.

Graphology is the science of handwriting and in analysing personal characteristics and features of people it is an important factor, as such as their words, body language, photos being some of the deciding factors graphology is also a key in the
analysis of personality characteristics. The mind initially motivates the writing. Writing work has an analytic significance in coping with mind and body (Amend, Ruiz, 1980: V).

5. Material

In our research, the z generation, who are studying International Business Management at Coventry University, was selected from the 1st year female students. The total number of students who are undertaking their first year in the International Business Management course is 112, 43 of the 112 of these students are females. We have selected 17 of these female students to analyse for our research. The age difference varies between 18 and 21, 11 of the selected students are 19 years old.

Ethnic backgrounds of the participants differ along; Polish, Bulgarian, Turkish, British, Arab, Portuguese, Cuban, French, Latvian, Nepalese, Danish, Chinese, Norwegian, Pakistani.

6. Application

In this study, the selected 17 female students of the z belt age group had their signatures analysed to observe whether they hold any leadership qualities and features. Also, they were examined to see whether they were compatible with the characteristics of the course they have chosen to study at university.

Leadership features in the study are divided into 4 groups. These include: personnel characteristic, mental characteristic, emotional features, general features.

The results are as follows:

Personal Characteristics: The fact that selected students have resulted in having more empathetic feelings is striking. It is then seen that interpersonal relations also have a high rate. The high level of inter-personal dialogue in the literature of the Z-belt is in accordance with the conclusion of our study that the communication abilities are high.

Mental Characteristic: When the mental characteristics of 17 female students were examined, the high emergence of their ‘will’ being consistent in accordance with the characteristics of the z-belt individuals in the literature. Intelligent and intellectual structures are high and entrepreneurship ability is seen to be low in some of the selected students.

Emotional Features: the analysis of self-control and self-knowledge seems to be at a high level. Consistency rates are moderate.

General Features: especially the leadership feature which is the subject of our research, has been high in all signatures as the result of the analysis made. Motive ability to result in the same rate is complementing their leading features.

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<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Relations</td>
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<td>Communication Capability</td>
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<td>Precision</td>
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<td>Stability and Ability to Manage People</td>
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<td>Creativity</td>
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<td>Will</td>
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<td>Individual Discipline</td>
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<td>Initiative</td>
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<td>Reasoning</td>
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<td>Self-Confidence</td>
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<td>Intelligence</td>
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Cultural Consciousness

Emotional Features
- Self-Control: 15
- Balance: 10
- Consistency: 11

7. Conclusions

It has been determined that the leadership characteristics of the signatures analysed in this study are quite high in the selected z-belt individuals. When the personal characteristics were examined, it is seen that the characteristics of the z-belt in the literature are meaningful and applicable to our work. This study shows that the leadership of z-belt individuals is high, and at the same time, they hold characteristics that are in accordance, it is a positive development for the individuals who will take on leading positions in the future. We can say that the students with signatures are from different nationalities, meaning that the general characteristics of the z-generation individuals in the international sense do not vary much. Although the political culture and the economic structure of each country are different, according to the result of our work, there are a common point of z generation in the present world. The Z generation is self-confident, governed with strong leadership skills, more sensitive to the environment, intelligent, entrepreneurial, and open-minded. The things that today’s z generation wants are more sensitive to make the world a more liveable place than the previous generations. Another result to this research is; that there is a consistent level of leadership skills within this generation that should allow them to achieve some if not better levels in the roles that they undertake.

References

Research on Consumers’ Brain Activations By Means of Electroencephalography Method

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Abstract

Marketers are excited about two main reasons that are concerned with neuroelectrical brain imaging. The first reason is that they expect neuroimaging will offer a more efficient exchange between cost and benefit. This expectation is based on the assumption that consumers don’t want to express their preferences explicitly or that it is not possible for them to do this when their preferences are asked; or that consumer’s brain, which is related to real preferences, contains confidential information. Such information is used in theory to influence purchasing behavior. Thus, the cost of performing neuroimaging studies against improved product design and increased sales benefit is outweigh. As the second reason, marketers expect that they will be able to obtain an accurate marketing research method that can be applied even before an existing product. The purpose of this study is to determine the rational influence activation of consumers and to emphasize the deficiency of using traditional method of questionnaire based solely on declaration to understand consumers. Accordingly, volunteer subjects watched an advertisement film and their brain activities were tried to be measured while they were watching the advertisement. This measurement was performed with a 10 channel EEG device. During the research, the emotional responses of participants and their brain activities were measured and EEG patterns were obtained. The obtained data were interpreted by academicians and EEG experts.

Keywords: Electroencephalography (EEG), Neuromarketing, Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

Understanding human behaviors in the sense of business management today is indispensable to perpetuate the existence of the businesses. It has long been thought that people have made these decisions within reason with a rational inference. The routine in this process arose as think-perceive-buy/don’t buy. However, this process does not continue so simply. The simplest thing that shows this is not the case is shopping habits of the consumers. How can a consumer behavior be interpreted when he/she buys a pair of shoes more although they don’t need them? And why does a consumer want to replace his new computer for a newer one on the market? Here, the mentality which advocates that the process goes on in a routine manner remains silent to these questions. To repeat, these attitude and behaviors indicate that people are not rational beings only, they act with their emotions and their irrational behaviours must be analyzed. Accordingly, in traditional methods, among the possibilities of significant differences between what the consumer say and do, only creating declaration-based marketing strategies will cause big costs (Girişken, 2015).
Because of these kinds of needs and when neurology and marketing science have come together with technological movements, the concept of neuromarketing has become the agenda. In this study, brains activations are presented with eeg method which is one of the neuromarketing techniques and it is aimed to discover what parts of people’s brains are active for how long while watching the ads and what kinds of images they are most impressed by. As a result of the measurement, the declarations of the potential consumers were included and the correlation between measurement results and declaration was also investigated. This study differs from the others because of the fact that it is analyzed by eeg measurement which is one of techniques used by neuromarketing discipline of a commercial film so as to investigate buying behavior.

I. Neuromarketing and Electroencephalography (EEG)

A. Neuromarketing

Neuromarketing, which has managed to attract attention especially in advertising in recent years in terms of both academic studies and business practices, is a new successful application to integrate neuroscience and consumer psychology. The said application has enriched marketing research portfolio in a short time and it supports marketers to a considerable extent by getting beyond verbal statements of the consumers. Neuromarketing which can measure emotional and unconscious responses of the consumers has actually broken fresh ground in marketing researches. It can carry out this by determining the source of consumer behavior and it manages the process of being convinced while customers are making a decision to purchase or not by making use of neuroimaging techniques and other biological measurements. Trying to conceive the factors that the consumers are influenced in this process is included in the field of occupation of the application (Kong et al. 2013; Girişken, 2015).

Neuromarketing has recently aroused interest enabling academicians and business practices to focus on the issue that much and it has made progress considerably. Under the guidance of this interest, to create conceptual framework, many definitions have been made in the literature about what neuromarketing means. According to Lee et al., neuromarketing is a methodology based on a measurement which combines brains waves and clinical psychology so as to improve the understanding of heuristic responses of people to products, brands and advertisements (Lee et al. 2007). Bercea describes consumer behavior as an interdisciplinary area which aims to search and conceive by investigating the brain (Bercea, 2013). According to Babu et al., it is an application of cognitive neuroscience to marketing and marketing research (Babu and Vidyasagar, 2012). Lindstrom regards neuromarketing as a key to rise subconscious thoughts, feelings and desires which direct purchasing decisions made by consumers everyday (Lindstrom, 2014). Butler asserts that neuromarketing tries to understand the biology of human behaviors and thoughts and actions in this context (Butler, 2008). Hubert and Kenning approach the concept more simply and call neuromarketing a simple marketing research tool only. They define it as an integration process of neuroscience and psychophysiology outputs into marketing world and they generally prefer the concept of consumer neuroscience (Pop and Iorga, 2012). Georges and Badoc define neuromarketing as recognising knowledge process of human brain related to theory production mechanism to influence the decisions of the masses the marketers do business with (Pop and Iorga, 2012). Stephen Genco describes it as any marketing or marketing research activities which use the methods and techniques of neuroscience or which is enlightened by neuroscience findings or views (Genco et al. 2013). According to Pepe Martines, neuromarketing is cognitive psychology which investigates human brain and relationship between thoughts and behaviors and it is the integration of variety of disciplines such as the combination of art and science which are responsible for the development of new concepts for the products and services so as to satisfy the consumers and to increase the profits (Martinez, 2012).

B. Electroencephalography

Neuromarketing applications of electroencephalography is included in product development cycle in two places potentially. First, it is used as a part of EEG design process. Here, neural responses are used to confine before the products come
onto the markets. Second, it is used as a part of an advertising campaign to increase the sales and to measure the neural responses generally after the product is manufactured completely (Martinez, 2012).

![Image of Product Development Process]

**Figure 1. Product Development Process**


EEG is one of the most commonly used techniques in clinics and in the area of psychophysiology and cognitive neuroscience. It is aimed to comprehend the relation between brain functions and behavior in either case. In a study performed in 1960s to explain the relation between brain and behavior, Benjamin Libet performed an EEG measurement and asked the subjects to raise their fingers whenever they wanted. Meanwhile, the subjects were looking at a high-resolution timer and when they felt an impulse to do the action, they would write down that moment. Libet discovered in his study that the impulse to move was formed before the movement was carried out. However, in actual output of the research, Libet who was observing brain waves indicated that the increase of activity in the brains of the participants was felt much earlier than the desire to move. Here, the statement “much earlier” should be emphasized because the indicated time exceeds one second. So it means, in consideration of the study, that before we get the news that we have made a decision to raise our finger, brain and its functions have already started to work (Vidal et al. 2015; Eagleman, 2013).

In that case, brain may resemble a circuit which makes a connection of senses and electrical events occur during the functions of the brain. As well as typical consisted electric potentials; the method of printing a bit more different electric potential changes, in excited state depending on receptor activities, is called EEG. First EEG measurements were performed by German psychologist Hans Berger in 1929. The measurements of electric activities are carried out by means of electrodes placed by EEG device in scalp or directly in the cortex. EEG waves are not periodical physically but they are rhythmic waves. The observed potential wave frequency varies between 0.5-70Hz and amplitudes vary between 5-400 mikrovolt (μV). As activity level of the brain increases, EEG wave frequencies also increase and amplitudes decrease. Electrodes measure potential differences in the scalp at μV interval. For this reason, EEG can measure a great deal of neuron activities. The results of the measurements are quite sensitive because electromagnetic waves spread simultaneously in their environment. High number of electrodes are useful because they increase measurement precision and more proper measurements can be performed. While the discussion about the standardization of this number is still going on, Neurofocus company state that at least 16 electrodes are required (Girişken et al. 2014; Yücel and Çubuk, 2014).

EEG outputs change according to age, alertness of the brain, sensory stimuli, diseases –brain diseases particularly– and chemical changes in the body. Accordingly, the mood and psychological state of people cause small electrical currents in the brain. The data measured with high sensitivity are analyzed by means of an algorithm. Relevant EEG data are placed
in three dimensional brain map and they reveal what part of brain is activated by each feeling of people during shopping or when watching visuals. In this way, the method removes the necessity of consumer’s declaration and it enables to get more rational results. It can even get beyond the declaration and determine consumer’s real thoughts in subconscious which can’t be interpreted or accounted for by consumers. The parts of the brain that the letters of the electrodes in electroencephalography device correspond to can be described by visuals like this (Yücel and Çubuk, 2014):

![Brain Map](image)

**Figure 2.** Integration between the position of EEG Scalp Electrodes and a real head model.


When the visuals above are investigated, “Fp” stands for Frontal Pole area, “T” stands for Temporal, “O” Occipital, “C” Central, “P” Parietal and “A” Agur. The combination of two letters shows the placement of intermediate electrode. While “FC” takes place between electrode placement of frontal and central, “PO” is between the placement of parietal and occipital. 10-second schedule corresponds to one output of EEG paper. The names of electrode placements used generally are Oz, O1, O2, Pz, P3, P4, P7 (T5), P8 (T6), CP3, CPz, CP4, TP7, TP8, Cz, C3, C4, T7 (T3/C7), T8 (T4/C8), FC3, FCz, FC4, FT7, FT8, Fz, F3, F4, Fp1, Fp2. In EEG device, wave lengths with odd numbers show left part of the brain and wave lengths with even numbers show right part of the brain. Centre line electrodes are shown by lower case “z”. Eyeball movements in Fp1 Fp2 electrodes may sometimes be seen in F3-F4 electrodes.
“F” Frontal-Pole: In forehead area. Whereas frontal lobe (left frontal lobe) is related to volitional acts, prefrontal cortex is related to memory, intelligence, concentration, anger and personality. Premotor cortex undertakes the orientation of eye and head movements while broca area has importance for talking. In essence, frontal area has influence to dominate memory, buying behaviors, socialising, resolution process and motor functions.

“T” Temporal Area: Audibility zone above each ear. This area is especially effective in memory. Right side keeps visual memory and left side keeps verbal memory.

“O” Occipital Area: Visual areas are above two protruding bones in the back. Visual cortex is located in the above-mentioned region. Because of the fact that these lobes have systematically cross-over work, right occipital lobe enables to see left side and left occipital lobe enables to see right sight.

“C” Central Area: As its name suggests, this is a central area and it starts from ten-finger above the ear.

“P” Parietal Area: Parietal area starts from the top point of the head and it goes on in the right and left regions. The signals coming from 5 senses in the body are processed in this area.

The number of the waves shown on the screen within one second is just as important as knowing the letters belonging to the electrodes in an EEG application. David Lewis describes the said wave numbers in his work called The Brain Sell (Lewis, 2013):

- Delta Waves $\delta$ (0.5-4 Hz) : Especially related to sleep.
- Theta Waves $\theta$ (4-6 Hz) : Related to a mental comfort and condition and imagination.
- Alpha Waves (8-12 Hz) : Related to comfort, wakefulness and carelessness.
- Beta Waves $\beta$ (13-40Hz) : Irregular and the smallest amplitude waves which are the most common when someone is stimulated or doing something requiring mental effort.
- Gamma Waves $\gamma$ (40-100 Hz) : Related to memory formation and combination.

While electrodes are being placed, first the distance between nasion (nasal bridge) and inion (occipital pretuberance) is measured. The mid-point of this distance is known as Cz (central vertex). Fz (midline frontal) is found by getting beyond 20% of the distance between nasion-inion from Cz. Pz (midline parietal) is determined by going back from Cz in 20% ratio. Moving back from Pz 20%, Oz is found. Then, the distance between two external auditory canals (targus) going through Cz is measured. Moving from Cz electrode 20% to right and left of the mentioned distance, C3 and C4 are determined respectively. T3 and T4 are found by moving away C3 and C4 in 20% ratio. The distance of frontopolar electrodes to nasal bridge must be nearly 10% of the distance between nasion-inion. EEG application makes it possible to determine in what hemisphere of the brain the activities are carried out. During EEG application, the fact that the eyes are closed or open affect wave lengths because swallowing and eyeball movements can be determined during the application. Even the psychological state of the subject at that moment like being stressed is involved in this. Approaching the subject nearer than 2 meters, electrode skidding, gestures distracting the subject may cause artefacts (misleading or confusing alteration that does not reflect the reality in data or observation) and they naturally affect the measurement results negatively (Event-Related Potentials ERP, Recording and Analysis 15.05.2016).

III. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

As research methodology, the relevant application was compiled under a few headings in this chapter. Firstly, a general definition of the company included in the study was made. Then, why the matter was investigated and what target was intended with the results obtained from the study was dealt with in the section of ‘the aim of the research’. The contribution of the study to the theory or application area and the different aspects of the study from similar ones were mentioned in the section of the importance of research. In the section of the method of the research, answers were sought for the questions
such as how the data were obtained, what the content and universe of the research was, what problems were solved by this information and how it was used, what method and techniques were made use of in this process. The results were analyzed and interpreted.

A. The Importance and Target of the Study

Neuromarketing tries to solve the puzzle of ‘the fact that the individuals with a complex biological structure act with their emotions as well as with their minds make them move away rationality’. And the main objective of this study performed in neuromarketing is to determine the effects of the advertisements and their messages, which has a function to prepare potential buyers to visit salesman, on consumers by eeg method. Neuromarketing is a new and different area which should be developed and the awareness of which should be expanded. And also it has a high cost application, so contributing to the development of neuromarketing, drawing a projection for the businesses which want to minimize the costs by determining the expectations of the customers well and by interpreting the obtained data scientifically; and creating an awareness for consumers whose needs and demands are met in desired level are among other objectives.

Real results are obtained in neuromarketing studies because what the consumers really want is measured, that is, consumers do not tell lies and they give replies without worries and prejudices. It is declared that the studies performed in this field are realist, scientific and more reliable. In addition, the fact that the researches direct other studies which eliminate ethical concerns make a contribution to existence of more conscious individuals and make them behave more rationally. The other studies on neuromarketing so far and in the future, including this one, will contribute to the national and international literature of neuromarketing and also it is important that they show the suitability of social sciences for experimental studies. Besides, this study has a particular importance in that it makes a better comparison, it emphasizes the deficiency of using traditional survey technique based on declaration to understand the consumers; and because the commercial film is analyzed by eeg measurement which is one of the techniques used by neuromarketing discipline.

B. Method of the Study

The study deals with the effect of the advertisement on consumers by means of electroencephalography technique. A commercial film made for Father’s Day for the product ‘No:1 Wafer’ of Konya Şeker Corporation Torku was investigated. Konya Şeker, a producer cooperative, created Torku brand in 2007 with a strategic and visionary point of view. In this part of the study, the subjects watched the mentioned commercial film of the company. While they were watching the film, their brain activations were measured. This measurement was performed by 10-channel EEG device. During the research, emotional responses of the participants whose brain activations were measured were recorded and EEG patterns were obtained. EEG outputs were analyzed and interpreted by academicians and EEG experts comparatively, taking into account the declaration of consumers.

IV. Data and Results

84-second commercial film which was made especially for Father’s Day for No:1 Wafer product of Torku was watched by the volunteer subjects who were analyzed by EEG and the reactions of the subjects for the stimuli were tried to be measured. In some cases, the opinions of the participants were also taken for the purpose of confirmation. Brain waves of 30 volunteer subjects, 15 males and 15 females, were measured by means of EEG device. EEG patterns obtained as a result of the measurements were interpreted by academicians and electroneurophysiology experts. Sample group was formed using random sampling technique and it consisted of university students aged 18-40 who consumed wafers. Brain waves of the subjects were measured by EEG technique and the emotional reactions were recorded. Furtherhermore, these reactions reveal significant results because they are in accordance with the demographic attributes of the participants. A different segmentation was made for this and the measurements were analyzed specifically because innate physiological and emotional differences of male and female brains cause sometimes simultaneous and sometimes tally unlike changes for similar stimuli. For this reason, it must be emphasized how the exchange values are important on male and female
participants caused by the difference between the seconds and the themes in the commercial film. Women are emotionally more devoted and they give more importance to details than men do. The reason is that right hemisphere of woman brain is more developed than left hemisphere.

Data algorithms measured by EEG device indicate emotional reactions of the subjects. The electrodes named Fp1-F7, F7-T3, T3-T5, T5-O1, Fp1-F3, F3-C3, C3-P3, P3-O1, T3-A1 show red wave lengths and the activations in left hemisphere of the brain. The electrodes Fp2-F8, F8-T4, T4-T6, T6-O2 Fp2-F4, F4-C4, C4-P4, P4-O2, T4-A2 are blue wave lengths and they show the activations in right hemisphere. Fz-Cz, Cz-Pz are black electrodes and they show the activations in the middle (Yücel and Çubuk, 2014). EEG device used in the study is designed for international 10-20 system and the diversions, the placement of the electrones, are F7-F3, F3-Fz, Fz-F4, F4-F8, F8-F4, T4-T6, T4-C4, F7-T3, T3-T5, T3-C3.

The first 10 seconds of Torku commercial film is a kind of introduction. Father Pascal introduces himself and he talks about Pascal’s childhood. The walking stick with eagle head in father Pascal’s hand resembles the company (the eye of the eagle is shining). And the Eiffel Tower is shown because Pascal Nouma is French. Neutral data show that not many reactions are observed in male and female subject, so it can be concluded that this introduction part of the film is not so effective. Then, it can be said about this part that the effectiveness of the equal theme was similar for male and female subjects and their stress levels increased.

**Figure 4.** Male (left) and Female (right) EEG Patterns

After the 10th second, an upbeat music is started emphasizing that Pascal is 9 years old and Pascal kisses the hands of the guests saying “Nobir Auntie” in front of bewildered father Pascal. Then, Pascal says “good morning dady” with menemen (spicy Turkish omelette) in his hand and starts to tell his father about menemen. He eats menemen hungrily saying “come and dip a bit” and he sends the basket to the grocery store from his flat ordering “three croissants a packet of milk.”

It is clear that Turkish customs are emphasized here. The suit and open-necked shirt of father Pascal, gold chain, large frame glasses, golden watch and handlebar moustache make these Turkish motifs richer. In this part of the film from 10th to 32nd second, it was seen that female subjects were impressed with the scenes of kissing hands and sending the basket more. The responses of male subjects measured during Menemen scene which goes on from 16th second to 26th second and during supporting this scene by slogans attract attention. After 16th second, beta rhythmic activities were observed in left hemisphere and especially more clear in right frontotemporal area.

**Figure 5.** Male (left) and female (right) EEG patterns

After 32nd second, the music changes and it is explained that Pascal is a very good footballer. Pascal completes this scene making gestures at the gol keeper and saying ‘Nobiiir’. During this period lasting until 36th second, it can be said that the positive data of the males were steady whereas female data were stable. Effects were seen in the right hemisphere of the males for about 5 seconds. Space and the goals made of stones and walls are effective in the responses in terms of nostalgia.
Figure 6. Male (left) and Female (right) EEG Patterns

Together with the same music at 36th second; describing a car with a CD on the mirror, barbecue, camping cylinder and a football in the car trunk, a child figure on fuel lid and a sticker written ‘NOBİİİR’ on the rear window; beads in Pascal’s hand and his coat, watch and glasses, as a fashion of that moment, all caused to continue the responses. This time the responses of instant attention are high and it can be said that amplitudes decrease considering the responses obtained from football scene. These responses generally consist of short instant attention. However, after 40th second, the fact that Pascal toots a horn while the girls are passing by the car and he says ‘wonderful! Gearing up like a cat!’ caused positive data and increased emotional involvement level in men especially. After 40th second, it became clear in right frontotemporal areas that waves varied and amplitudes increased more. Moreover, reactions were observed in opposite hemisphere areas in some male subjects and it was seen that activations increased gradually. Between 42nd and 44th second, activations were observed in some female subjects during 1 or 2 second while the girls were passing by. However, no remarkable reactions were observed in females in this period lasting 46th second.

Figure 7. Male (left) and Female (right) EEG Pattern

Between 46th and 53rd second, Pascal gives directions to a Frenchman using the statements like “yes, please dear?”, “ohh mr. you ringed to false place” and “keep in the right hand, ok?.” It is understood from this scene that giving a direction in Turkish style is approached wittily. In these scenes, short time equal increases were observed in right frontotemporal areas of males and females. From 54th second on, father Pascal talks about Pascal’s transfer to Turkey with his eagle-head stick in his hand. At that time, close-up eagle figure represents Anadolu Birlik Holding (ABH) and Beşiktaş Football Club. During this period lasting until 62nd second, males and females were affected by the equal theme in the same level statically. This effectiveness occurred as short time ripples in general. However, after 62nd second, whereas noticeable activations were seen in males with Pascal’s expression “happy father’s day, dady”, no movement was seen in the same level in the waves of female subjects. Then, from 67th second of the ad, Father Pascal says “what nobir about you?” in close-up and Pascal advertises the product in close-up also saying “nutty nobir from me”. During these talks, emotional involvement levels of the subjects show similarities. Close-up view of Father Pascal was more effective than of Young Pascal. The real point to be emphasized is that emotional involvement and positive data increased in male and female subjects who consume Torku products at 68th second and beta rhythmic activities were detected in left hemisphere from time to time and in right frontotemporal areas (F7, F3, F8, F4, T3, T5, T6) more clearly symmetrically.

Figure 8. Male (left) and Female (right) EEG Patterns

In the responses which continued decreasingly, positive waves were observed at 75th second when Father and Son Pascal were eating Torku No:1 Wafer with a subtitle “I will always be proud of my son.” These responses were remarkable in the
customers of Torku but a partial movement was seen in others. In accordance with EEG patterns particularly and with the obtained results, which were confirmed taking into account the subjects’ opinions, it was discovered that the expression “Happy Father’s Day, all dads!” at 78th second, Torku logo at 81st and 82nd second and the slogan “Naturally From Us” became prominent in long-term memory metrics and Konya Şeker took place in short-memory scala.

On the other hand, it was found out that the artefacts in EEG patterns resulted from eyeball movements, physical movements of hands and feet and swallowing. It was seen that the facts such as stress, straining, risk and uncertainty cause artefacts.

Figure 9. EEG Patterns Artefact Image

V. Conclusion and Discussion

Electroencephalography measurements have shown that some behavioral outputs can be adapted to the outputs of emotional reactions based on subconscious responses created in the brain. The participants’ waves which were in alpha rhythm before they watched the film started to change as from 10th second and it was seen that amplitudes increased especially after 40th second and the rhythms turned into Beta rhythm. That is to say, when child Nouma came in and kissed hands saying “Nobir auntie” after upbeat music at 10th second, participants’ attention level increased and wave rhythms got move and changed after this activation. This movement became clear especially after Young Nouma made horn sound in his car with “Nobiiir” sticker in rear window and he made a pass to the girls and this was valid for nearly all participants.

Using a foreign person like Pascal Nouma in a commercial film, fitting out him with Turkish motifs, the slogan “naturally from us” and the expressions such as “Nobiiir” and “we say nobir to all daddies” affected this activity even if it was partial. The fact that Pascal Nouma is a friendly person and a successful, favorite footballer in Turkey made a contribution to this. To express in a technical statement, it was observed in EEG measurement that electrical currents in the brain were under the influence after 40th second especially. These mentioned areas are right frontal and temporal areas with diversion of FZ-F4, F4-F8, F8-T4, T4-T6, T4-C4. According to EEG outputs, it was observed that the factors in commercial films caused different reactions in men and women occasionally. A general inference in accordance with this commercial film is that positive reactions were received from the participants in the scenes which were natural and sincere; where family bonds were emphasized, tradition was expected to keep on, emotional and smiling people were together and proper music and color were used in the theme. As mentioned before, the film was made for Father’s Day and the responses of males were so clear in these scenes specifically. However, generally negative responses or no responses were obtained from females in those scenes. It was seen that using a star in the ad was not in the expected level in terms of the attention of the participants. Fortunately, the fact that Pascal Nouma was mostly a favorite person in Turkey and reflected Turkish culture in the film and his friendly behaviors reversed this situation even if a bit. In spite of this, it must be borne in mind that using a star in a commercial film is a risky factor. Level of interest of male participants were remarkable especially in those scenes. Supporting Pascal Nouma’s life in the film with a suitable jingle increased interest level. On the other hand, the fact that the film was long and it mainly appealed to males and the actor got beyond the brand increased the findings that it caused opposite changes in responses. Besides, describing Pascal’s life for quite some time, making a pass to girls and repeating the themes resulted in a negative effect especially in terms of women. It can also be criticized that the film was not so effective in arousing interest. Another criticism is that the ad was deprived of vivid colors. Although not very noticeable changes were observed in brand, logo and slogan scenes with regard to responses, it can be said that it was effective. However, it was seen in the findings that the sub-factors such as off-voice, jingle and background music in the scenes with these factors affected consumers’ perception in a positive way and increased the positiveness of interest. Accordingly, it is possible to criticize that first 10 seconds of the ad did not cause an electrical responses in the brain but including more remarkable factors in these parts would increase degree of influence of the film. In the final analysis, the commercial films
are more likely to be successful if people find some values from themselves, ordinary people are used, clear product
environments are presented, mental costs of consumers are minimized; and when they are not exaggerated and do not
contain information inflation. Final determination in accordance with EEG is that it is more rational to run an effective
advertising plan for the balance between the messages of the advertisement of the company and the reactions expected
from consumers.

In essence, in EEG measurement after 40th second especially, it was found out that electrical currents in the brain were
under the influence till the end of the film. These areas are right frontal and temporal areas with FZ-F4, F4-F8, F8-T4, T4-
T6, T4-C4 diversions. Accordingly, it is possible to criticize that first 10 seconds of the commercial film did not cause any
electrical reactions in the brain and including more noticeable factors in this part would enhance effect level. In short, it was
seen that the themes increase positive effects of the participants when people find some values from themselves, there are
natural and sincere family bonds, more lively jingle and vivid colors are used, debonairness and emotions are together and
nostalgia is mentioned. The fact that the film addressed males in general affected female participants negatively and using
a foreign famous person in the film did not cause expected obvious changes in the reactions. Finally, the themes with
unnatural, pale colors tiring for the brain caused negative effects or no effects in people.

References

Challenges in EFL Speaking Classes in Turkish Context

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Abstract
This article presents the results of a research study conducted to reveal the reasons of problems Turkish EFL learners face while speaking in L2. In Turkey, there is a perception that although the learners can reach high levels of proficiency in reading, listening, and writing skills, they cannot speak in English like their peers do in other parts of the world. This is substantially concerning as these students have compulsory and selective English courses throughout their ten years of compulsory school education. The problem has formerly been addressed by language learning anxiety, learners' autonomy, deficiencies in teacher education and teachers' development, and lack of material or technology in EFL classes (Aydın & Zengin, 2008; Büyükyavuz & İnal, 2008; Haznedar, 2010; Solak & Bayar, 2015). This paper directly seeks answers from the students themselves. The study was conducted with 66 students who have to enroll one year of intensive preparatory English class before being accepted to their own departments. A mixed method research design was used to triangulate the findings for higher validity. Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS 22.0 software package and qualitative data was analyzed using descriptive analysis. The findings showed that students have difficulty in speaking English mainly because of educational and social reasons, while personal reasons are not as influential as the others are.

Keywords: Speaking skill failure, educational reasons, social reasons, personal reasons

Introduction
In a rapidly globalizing world, one must accept how important and vital international communication is. Today, communication is conducted orally and in written form, and also, it is in English as it is the Lingua Franca of our times. Like in many non-English speaking countries, there is a growing need for English in both private and public sectors in Turkey. The private companies look for employees having relevant professional expertise in English and besides, in public areas they get a rise in their salaries when they demonstrate their competence in one of the nationwide foreign language proficiency examinations (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). In such an atmosphere, learning English becomes inevitable and compulsory for anyone who either seeks work or just desires to follow the new developments, innovations and events to keep up with the age in social, economic, scientific and technological aspects (Tosun, 2006). However, it is commonly known that learning a second language (L2) is not a simple and short process. Many problems can prevent learners from beginning that journey. In this case, main difficulties can be handled at personal, educational, and social levels.

Personal Reasons
In terms of the problems resulted from the learners, the first thing to be noted is anxiety. Anxiety can be the most challenging factor while learning an L2 because most of the learners are not alone in this process; they are in a classroom most of the time. As indicated by Alptekin and Tatar (2009), majority of the EFL learners feel extremely concerned about their oral production when they reach the tertiary level, which causes an anxiety-provoking state when conversing in the L2. Conducting a qualitative study, Öztürk and Çeçen (2007) relates foreign language learning anxiety to the learners' lack of
self-confidence, which is connected with what they deem to be the insufficient level of English proficiency. On the other hand, as Sevingil (2008) and Zerey (2008), using a standardized L2 speaking anxiety scale, demonstrate, speaking anxiety is not a trait; but it occurs in the presence of the teacher and one’s classmates. The most frequent source of anxiety for the participants is speaking in class (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). In addition, findings of a qualitative study categorizes various types of anxiety as follows according to the answers obtained from the students in high school; i. speaking activities, ii. listening activities, iii. teaching techniques and methods, iv. fear of making mistake, v. learning atmosphere, vi. attitudes of the teacher and vii. tests (Baş, 2014, 111).

As significant as anxiety, motivation of the learners of L2 is another aspect to be discussed. Motivation is described as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language” by Gardner (1985, p. 10). Motivation is highly related to the proficiency and achievement of the foreign language learners’ in the target language. The study conducted by Zabardast (2014) shows that the university students, most of whom are not highly motivated to learn a foreign language, put some effort to do it only because of personal interest in foreign language and culture or to have a good career in the future. However, as indicated by Demir and Erten (2005) who studied with 4th-grade (age 9–10) and 8th-grade (age 13–14) students, “younger learners have higher motivation, both extrinsic and intrinsic, to learn English than older learners” (Alptekin and Tatar, 2009). Thus, the intention of determining the reasons why the university students lack motivation to learn L2 and seeking answers of the students themselves may help to find solutions to this problem.

In addition to the problems resulting from excessive anxiety or lack of motivation of the learners, different perceptions of teachers and learners could be problematic. Although most instructors and students highlight the significance of students’ participation in, especially, listening and speaking lessons, the students’ responses reveal that most of the courses are teacher-centred (Akyel and Özek, 2010). They state that while university instructors consider reading and listening skills as the most significant ones for achievement, students reported speaking and listening skills as more important for their academic achievement. Another issue that must be noted is that the students do not have voice on the curriculum development process. Kırıkgöz (2009) states that most EAP (English for Academic Purposes) curriculum designers are not informed about the academic needs of students. Therefore, it can be easily said that to evaluate how effective an EAP curriculum is in meeting the academic needs of students and in providing valuable data for the curriculum development process, it is so important to know the needs analysis of the students’ academic context (West, 1994).

In an experimental study, Inal, Evin & Saracaloglu (2005) demonstrated that learners’ academic achievement in English is highly related to their positive attitudes towards the language and its culture as well. The more positive attitudes one has towards the target language culture, the more progress they make. Therefore, the role of culture in shaping the personality cannot be denied. Tosun (2006) states that “your personality, attitudes and behaviours arising from the assimilation of your mother tongue, your culture, and the education you have received so far, your viewpoint of world and events will always rebel against this foreign language imposed on you and will always be in conflict with it” (p. 33). In EFL classes, students are exposed to many cultural subjects, which means they are supposed to think and talk about the subjects that are not familiar to them. It is obvious that this makes them feel hesitant to speak in the classroom (Inal et al. 2005).

Educational and Social Reasons

Among the numerous challenges of improving oral production skills of the EFL learners, the problems related with language teachers cannot be ignored. Since Turkish EFL learners do not have much direct contact with the L2 community, their only chance to practice speaking is the classroom environment. However, teacher-centered language teaching tradition, which is dependent on rote memorization and form-focused instruction are the biggest obstacles to the improvement of that skill in Turkish educational context (Çetintaş, 2010; Haznedar, 2010). In the research study conducted by Haznedar (2010) on 530 primary and secondary state school teachers in a metropolitan city of Turkey, it was revealed that %70 of language teachers still use rote-memorization and repetition drills which date back to 1960s. Also, around %75 of them still prefer grammar-translation method which does not provide any chance of practicing L2 speaking skill at all. Aktaş (2005), on the other hand, suggests language teachers to encourage the learners to speak the language freely without any fear of making mistakes and being criticized by themselves.

According to Haznedar (2010), another problem with language teachers is the lack of information about their language proficiency levels since more than half of the teachers in her study have not taken any language proficiency test; very few teachers took IELTS or TOEFL; and around %30 percent of the teachers took only KPDS (Foreign Language Proficiency
Examination for State Employees) which does not test speaking skill and also does not have any international validity. Therefore, it is suggested for the teachers to take an internationally accepted language test and certify their level periodically for their own improvement. Besides, training the language teachers for more recent and effective instructional designs and activities through in-service training programs are among the recommendations of researchers (İşik, 2008; Kızıldağ, 2009) to have more qualified language teachers in Turkey.

Although Ministry of National Education (MoNE) decided on a shift from the traditional form-focused language instruction to meaning and communication-focused one in 2006 (Haznedar, 2010), it is not possible to assert that the new regulations are adopted by each and every teacher. Haznedar (2010) presented that although the teachers know about the new approach to language education, they still continue using the old-fashioned ones such as grammar-translation and memorization. Thus, she suggests training the teachers to encourage them to use contemporary teaching methods. On the other hand, Uysal (2012) advocates that although most language teachers are aware of the communicative methods of language teaching, they cannot make use of them because of practical or institutional reasons such as crowded classes, lack of time to prepare communicative materials, loaded curriculums, technology and equipment deficiencies, and so on. However, it is crucial for language teachers to adopt the new approach as soon as possible to prepare their learners as world-citizens who can freely speak the language to communicate.

Teacher self-efficacy, which can be defined as “teachers’ individual beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific teaching tasks at a specified level of quality in a specific situation” (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008, p.752), is also highly effective on the oral production skills of the EFL learners. According to Demir, Yurtsesver, and Çimenli (2015), there is a positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and their willingness to use communicative activities in language classes. Thus, self-efficacy levels of the teachers are crucial as it is obvious that use of communicative activities by teachers will lead to progress in speaking skills of the learners. Finally, communicative activities can help the teachers expand their own oral production abilities as well (Uysal, 2012).

Among the challenges teachers face, the most important ones are material selection and physical environment for language learning. In Turkey, there are many publishers/publishing houses importing text books for schools, though, teachers at public schools do not have the freedom of selecting their own course books. MoNE provides books for all students, and English text books are prepared by group of professionals, which may be seen to cause problems in EFL classes. According to Hutchinson (1987) a good material should have one or more interesting texts, enjoyable activities and opportunities for learners by providing their potential knowledge and skills. It is known that good materials help both teachers and learners to maximize the chances of learning, as they are the source of the nature of language and learning process (Kızıldağ, 2009). However, she emphasizes with the findings of her study that the course books are poorly developed and supplementary materials lack in meeting the need for communication. Likewise, Yılmaz (2008) underlines the fact that EFL textbooks used in Turkish schools are mainly grammar and reading based, and lack in supplying environment for verbal communication. As Buyukyavuz& İnal (2008) state, English language teaching in Turkey has problems stemming from shortage of English language teachers, crowded classrooms and lack of instructional materials.

Starting from 2005, MoNE has made radical changes in teaching programs as a reflection of the globalization process. Globalization is a highly complex process that has made a considerable impact on the multidimensional aspects of societies at various levels, including language policies of many countries. These policy changes emphasized the need for speaking ability in students. Textbooks were designed accordingly. Then, it was followed by DynEd®, which is a learner centered communicative computer module, assisting students for self-study. The module was designed by professionals in language teaching, companies like DynED International Inc., Oxford University Press, Longman, Prentice Hall, BBC, Stanford University, Apple, IBM, SONY, and NEC (Kızıldağ, 2009). In spite of the efforts and good intentions in mind, DynEd module is no longer used in classes as for the facts that all schools do not have a computer laboratory, or Internet access.

Finally, it is an undeniable fact that society in which a person grows up shapes the attitudes of learners towards learning a foreign language as well as their traits and educational environment. Learning cannot be thought sperately; it occurs when learners participate in the learning process and interact with their environment (Yurtseven-Bodur, 2015). The success in learning a foreign language correlates with the structure of the society that must be taken into account (İşik, 2008). That is why, it can be easily understood when learners claim that they can not learn a language when there are no people speaking English around them or when their parents do not know English (Yurtseven-Bodur, 2015). Besides, most learners need some other kind of motivations to struggle for learning a language. In a society they live in, if they need English
For their professional career, it becomes something more beneficial and worth learning. Therefore, learners need to adopt the idea that English is going to be necessary and contribute to their life (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015).

**Aim and the Research Questions**

1. What are the participants' perceptions on the social reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
2. What are the participants' perceptions on the personal reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
3. What are the participants' perceptions on the educational reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?
4. Is there any meaningful relationship among the participants' social, personal, and educational reasons and their individual characteristics such as (a) family income and (b) parental knowledge of English?

**Methodology**

**Setting and Participants**

The first part of the scale in this study was designed to attain demographic information of the participants. A close investigation of that part showed that 21 participants were males (32.3%) while 44 of them were females (67.7%); one participant did not provide sex information. Most of the participants, who were 53 (82.8%) in number, were young adults between the ages of 18 and 21; 7 of them (10.9%) were between 22 and 25; and only 4 participants (6.3%) were 26 and above. Regarding the educational background of their mothers, participants reported that 23 of them (34.8%) were primary school graduates while only 13 (19.7%) were university graduates. The findings for the fathers' educational background were also similar, 21 (31.8%) being primary school graduates and only 9 (13.6) fathers being university graduates. The numbers of uneducated parents were also noteworthy (9 mothers, 4 fathers). 51 students (77.3%) stated owning a house while 15 of them (22.7%) rented their house. With respect to their monthly income, majority of the participants (61.5%) stated that they had an income between 1001-3000 Turkish Liras per month while 12 of them (18.5%) had a monthly income under 1000 Turkish Liras (almost half of the minimum wage).

This research study was conducted in Black Sea Region and therefore, the participants who mostly lived in Black Sea Region (27%) until the age of 13 outnumbered the others. 11 participants (17.5%) reported spending this time in the cities in Marmara Region while only 1 participant (1.6%) had lived in Eastern Anatolia from birth to the age of 13. There were also 3 participants (4.8%) who were abroad during that period. Finally, the analysis of the parents' knowledge of English revealed that only 5 of the mothers (7.6%) and 7 of the fathers (10.6%) knew English, which was a predictable but sad result. These findings can be viewed in detail in Table 1 above.

**Data Collection**

The data was collected from 66 preparatory school students at Giresun University, in 2016-17 academic years. All of the students enrolled in the program were included in the sampling; none stated an excuse to be excluded. A 54 item questionnaire, developed by Yurtsever-Bodur and Arikan (2015) was used as data collection tool. The questionnaire has three sub-categories as social, personal and educational reasons for failing to learn a new language. In order to validate the findings, a follow up interview was designed for the problematic areas specified during the analysis of the data. First, the problem areas were addressed and five semi-structured interview questions were written. Second, the questions were checked by four experts in the field of educational sciences and language teaching. As a third step, the questions were piloted with a group of ten students. Last, the interviews were planned and made with 8 students from the faculty of administration. The findings of the both tools were compared and presented in the following section.

**Data Analysis & Findings**

In this section, findings of the study will be presented starting with an overall descriptive analysis of social, personal, and educational reasons. Then, the results for each research question will be clarified in detail.
Table 2: Overall descriptive analysis of social, personal, and educational reasons

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<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<td>Social reasons</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal reasons</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational reasons</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.910</td>
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Descriptive statistics showed that the participants mostly believed in the negative effects of educational reasons (mean = 3.28, SD = .910) on their failure in speaking English. Then, they attributed their problems in oral production to social reasons with a mean value of 3.03 (SD = .739). As might be expected, personal reasons were the last to be perceived as the sources of their problems in learning speaking English (mean = 2.65, SD = .902). The results can be viewed in Table 2.

Research Question 1: What are the participants’ perceptions on the social reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

To investigate the social reasons behind the participants’ failure in speaking English, they were asked to respond to 10 items below. They were required to rate their agreement and disagreement on the items from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree), and then descriptive analysis were conducted to see the results. To present a clearer picture of their agreement and disagreement positions, the researchers preferred interpreting “strongly agree” and “agree” scores under one title and “strongly disagree” and “disagree” collected together under another. As of now, agreement refers to both “strongly agree” and “agree”, and disagreement refers to “strongly disagree” and “disagree” in the scale.

According the results of the descriptive analysis, the participants agreed on item 2 stating that “If my mother or my father had known English, I would have learnt speaking English better,” with the highest positive agreement percentage of 74.2% (mean = 4.19, SD = 1.098). It was followed by the first item stating that “If there had been English programs on TV and radio (original or with English subtitles), I would have learnt speaking English better.” (72.8%), with a mean score of 4.03, (SD = 0.999); and “If there had been English speakers around me, I would have learnt speaking English better.” also scored quite high in terms of the percentage of agreement on it (72.7%, mean = 4.14, SD = 1.180). It can be interpreted from these results that the participants regarded the low amount of input that come from their parents, significant others around them, and TV or other information tools as the main social reasons for their failure in speaking English.

On the other hand, they showed strongest disagreements with the items “I could not learn speaking English because my mother or my father motivated me to go to other courses (football, guitar etc.) instead of English courses.” (74.2%, mean = 1.96, SD = 1.323) and “I could not learn speaking English because I think we would be dominated by another country if we learnt English.” (74.2%, mean = 1.84, SD = 1.301). These findings suggest that they were not encouraged to sacrifice speaking English for an interest in another area, or they do not have any nationalistic perspective on learning English.

Research Question 2: What are the participants’ perceptions on the personal reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

In this research study, the items from 11 to 28 sought to see the participants’ perceptions on the effects of personal reasons on their speaking achievement. A close investigation of the percentages and mean scores revealed a 90.9 percent agreement on the item stating that “If I had had the chance to go abroad, I would have learnt speaking English better.” (mean = 4.59, SD = 0.803). It clearly shows that the chance of going abroad is a significant motivator for them to speak English. The participants also showed positive agreement on the fourteenth item admitting that “I could not learn speaking English because I did not spend enough time to learn English.” with a percentage of 53.1 (mean = 3.55, SD = 1.294).

High percentages of disagreements were observed subsequently (from high to low percentages) for the items of “I could not learn speaking English because I think speaking English will not contribute anything to my life.” (80.3%, mean = 1.78, SD = 1.271), “I did not learn speaking English because I have always wanted to speak another language.” (78.8%, mean = 1.90, SD = 1.261), and “I did not think speaking English would provide job opportunities for me. That’s why I did not learn it.” (66.6%, mean = 2.00, SD = 1.322). It can be inferred from the results that the participants do not ignore the contributions of English to their life and future career. They also do not show a preference for another foreign language than English since they are potentially aware of the advantages of speaking it.
To provide an overall impression of the analysis of personal reasons, it can be advocated that the learners mostly reported disagreement with the items, which signifies that they do not tend to blame themselves for their failure in speaking English.

Research Question 3: What are the participants’ perceptions on the educational reasons for their failure in learning speaking in English?

In order to explore the learners’ perceptions on the educational reasons of their failures in speaking English, 26 items were asked to them. They showed highest positive agreements on the 50th, 49th, and 48th items stating “If much importance had been given on four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in English lessons, I would speak English better.” (69.7%, mean = 4.07, SD = 1.113), “If speaking had been practiced with the teacher rather than teaching rules, I would speak English better.” (69.7%, mean = 3.93, SD = 1.238), and “If I had had a greater vocabulary, I would speak English better.” (68.2%, mean = 4.00, SD = 1.286). As the results indicate, students prefer their English classes to be more focused on four skills than bare rule teaching, and they see the lack speaking practice and vocabulary learning as substantial educational reasons of their failure in improving their oral production skills. Besides these methodological problems, the learners are also not content with the teaching materials which are boring and unappealing to their interests. These can be obviously seen in the high percentages of agreement on the items “If English had been taught with games and enjoyable activities (songs, films etc.), I would speak English better.” (65.2%, mean = 3.78, SD = 1.375) and “If reading texts that appeal to everyone (magazines, cartoons, short stories etc.) had been used in lessons instead of boring ones, I would have learnt speaking English better.” (62.1%, mean = 3.75, SD = 1.311). Finally, they see the scarcity of class hours as a significant reason of their failure, and they agree 62.1% on the statement “If I had had more hours of English lessons, I would have learnt speaking English better.” (mean = 3.54, SD = 1.510).

Highest percentages of disagreements were observed for the items of “I lost my desire to learn speaking English as I always got low grades. That’s why I could not learn speaking English.” (65.2%, mean = 2.26, SD = 1.523) and “If my teacher had not always corrected my mistakes, I would have learnt speaking English better.” (62.1%, mean = 2.37, SD = 1.333). These results suggest that the learners do not have a problem with their desire in learning English and they also do not see error correction as a discouragement for improving their speaking skill.

Research Question 4: Is there any meaningful relationship among the participants’ social, personal, and educational reasons and their individual characteristics such as a) parental knowledge of English and b) family income?

In order to see the relationship between the participants’ basic demographic information and reasons for failure in speaking English, cross tabulation analysis were conducted.

First of all, the interplay between mother’s knowledge of English and item 8 which states that “If there had been English speakers around me, I would have learnt speaking English better.” was analyzed. 93.9 % of the participants whose mother cannot speak English strongly agreed on the statement while only 6.1 % of the ones whose mother can speak English strongly agreed on it. It can be inferred that students whose mother cannot speak English believe that their mother’s lack of knowledge of English is quite effective on their failure in speaking that language.

Father’s knowledge of English, which is another significant variable in this study, was also analyzed to reveal its connections with the 8th item. 90.9 % of the participants whose father cannot speak English reported that they strongly agreed on the statement. However, only 9.1 % of them whose father can speak English strongly agreed on that item. The results suggest that the learners whose father cannot speak English considered their father’s lack of that ability as a significant factor influencing their speaking skill negatively.

Finally, the relationship between monthly income of the family and item 15 which states that “To learn speaking English I need to go to language courses but our financial situation was not good. Therefore, I could not learn speaking English.” were analyzed through cross tabulation.

45.5 % of the participants who strongly agreed on the item had a monthly income between 1001 and 3000 TL, 36.4% of them had less than 1000 TL of income per month, and 18.2% had an income more than 6000 TL. The findings indicate that majority of the participants who agree on that item are from low income families (with less than 1000 TL or between 1001 and 3000 TL income) and they perceive the low amount of their family income as a factor negatively influencing their language education and consequently speaking skill.
Semi structured question forms revealed more information regarding personal, social and educational backgrounds of the participants. Half of the participants (n=4) stated that their speaking skills are not enough to continue a conversation. The other half stated that even if they feel that they study a lot, and pass their classes, they are far behind from the point they need to be. Analyzing the data, the researchers find out that the participants do not see themselves as the reason for their failure in speaking English. One of the participants stated that “I cannot speak well because my teachers didn’t give enough importance for my English (P2)” Another participant underlines an educational point; emphasis on grammar rather than speaking skills. “I would say: no, I cannot speak English, because it is grammar what is important in schools not speaking (P3)”. The perception that if teachers emphasize the importance of speaking and give more chance to students to practice, students will feel more secure when they attempt to speak is found out to be one of the main reasons for failure in speaking English. Another finding of the quantitative analysis was also supported by qualitative analysis in terms of students’ blaming other factors for their failure in speaking English. Almost all of the participants stated that they follow the classes, learn new words, try to be disciplined language learners, however, they think the problem is somewhere outside than themselves. 

From the social perspective, the participants think that English is quite important for their future career, but the teaching environment does not cover the expectations of the society or private sector. “In Turkey, English is taught just to save the day like other things in our country. I learn something one year, forget and start over in the coming year. There is no continuity of the classes (P1)”, which was backed up with the opinions of P3 “There is no problem in giving importance. The problem is the wrong education system. We learn English not to speak, but pass the tests”. Even if 72.8% of the participants think that they could speak better if there were English speakers around them, it was found that they do not like the idea of teachers’ speaking only English in classes. One of the participants stated “Language becomes more complicated when the teacher always speaks English (P2)”. The participants were asked Q4: Describe your ideal English teacher. Were your teachers like you described? All of the participants (n=8) stated the most important requirement of an English teacher is motivating students. They put communication competences and mastery in the field in number two and three. It is clearly seen that loving a language comes before learning it.

Discussion

This research study aimed to explore social, personal, and educational reasons for the failures of Turkish EFL learners in speaking skill. Findings indicated that students consider educational and social reasons as more effective than personal reasons on their disabilities in oral production. According to the results, the most influential social reasons on the learners’ speaking skill were the lack of L2 input from their families, other significant people around them, and the media. It is verified by Işık (2008) and Yurtsever-Bodur (2015) stating that language cannot be learnt without interacting with the social environment; therefore, presence of people who can speak the language and amount of input coming from TV or other information tools are quite substantial in that process. It is also suggested by the results that the participants do not have any nationalistic perspectives on learning L2, which can be attributed to their awareness of the significance of English language in their lives (Yurtsever-Bodur, 2015).

As the findings regarding personal reasons of their failure showed, the students do not tend to blame themselves much about the problem. However, according to Gökdemir (2005), they have highly important roles during the language learning process since it is not possible to do it without their personal effort and investment. Some contradictory results are also available about personal reasons. While quantitative data revealed that half of the participants agree on not spending enough time and effort to learn English, qualitative data showed that all of the participants think they make great effort to learn it and the reasons of failure are not about themselves. It can be speculated based on their contradictory statements that during interviews the participants did not want to lose face and answered in bias, which is a drawback of interviews. The study explored that the most important reasons for students’ failure in speaking English are educational. Unfortunately, language classes in Turkey are mostly based on grammar teaching. However, the participants want to learn how to speak the language rather than only the rules of the language and they wish for more practice in using the language. These findings are supported by many other studies in the literature. Çetintaş (2010) and Haznedar (2010) explain that form-focused instruction which lack any kind of oral production practice is the biggest problem in Turkish EFL classes. Thus, as suggested by Aktaş (2005), teachers should encourage the learners for more practice rather than focusing on the structure all the time. In addition, the participants ask for more enjoyable and attractive materials for their interests. The influences of well-designed and appealing course materials on speaking skill are also emphasized and supported by many by research
studies in the area (Buyukyavuz and Inal, 2008; Hutchinson, 1987; Kizildag, 2009; Yilmaz, 2008). Therefore, it is certain that the materials that are used in EFL classes in Turkey should be revised and updated to be more attractive for the learners and provide more opportunities for speaking practice (Kizildag, 2009; Yilmaz, 2008).

Finally, it was revealed in the study that the students with low-income families see their families' financial situation as an obstacle to their speaking ability because they state that they cannot go to private language courses. That finding is supported by the students' highly strong belief that if they could go abroad, they would learn speaking English much better; but they cannot do that as well due to the same problem. Encouraging the learners to attend projects and activities that are funded by European Council could be a starting point to solve that problem.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The obstacles of speaking a foreign language may be rooted in many factors; yet this paper deals with personal, social and educational reasons. Though personal reasons are not perceived as significant for their failure in speaking by learners, they need to be studied in terms of motivation, anxiety and barriers for speaking in another language. As this study was conducted with preparatory class students, they may have forgot about the first times they attempted to speak in a foreign language. This makes a further research on students having English classes for the first time more valuable and long-felt need. Societal factors were also addressed as the reasons for failure in speaking English. Most students say that their environment, daily lives, schools or homes lack in providing enough input for them. This can be accepted to a point as for the fact that English is the most widely spoken foreign language in the world. It is easy to access English resources, news, music, magazines or even English speaking people in a very small town in Turkey, which makes practicing it quite flowing. However, students may find the resources expensive to get or they are not aware of accessing resources online. Therefore, teachers’ using the IT or other media tools in the classrooms rather than banning them altogether may help for the solution. Third and the most complained title was educational factors; mostly because all of the learners went through the same process, they have common memories about learning a new language. Also, if they attended state schools in Turkey, they were taught the same curriculum with more or less the same methods or teaching techniques. It is an undeniable fact that Turkish education system has some deficits in practice, even though it may seem perfect in its written documents. English teachers mainly focus on grammar, because of central exams students have to take and because of their own failure in speaking English. In order to overcome this difficulty, both students and teachers should participate in projects, and central exams should cover these projects or other tasks requiring speaking skill.

The results show that teacher training needs noting to be improved. Graduating from universities, teachers -who used to be students just two months ago- pass a test and become teachers, which make their jobs harder as they have to cope with classroom management, school’s paper work, supervision, parents, work load and their private lives at the same time. A suggestion for the MoNE can be a ‘practicum year’ between university and work life, during when the novice teachers can be exchanged and learn about the practices in schools in an English speaking country before representing the language with its culture in class. Accordingly, a further study can be suggested with the teachers employed for the first time, asking their expectations and difficulties they have been through. This research study aimed to pave the way for the further studies for the failure of speaking English in Turkey.

References

Effectiveness of Health Information System Applications: Clinical Information and Diagnosis-Treatment Systems in Turkey

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Abstract

The distinctive quality of the new social structure is that information becomes the only factor of production. In today's organizations, public administrators are directly responsible for applying information to administrative processes. In addition to his managerial responsibilities, a knowledge-based organization requires every employee to take responsibility for achieving efficiency. This has increased the importance of information systems in the decision-making process. Information systems consist of computer and communication technology, data base management and model management and include activity processing system, management information system, decision support systems, senior management information system, expert systems and office automation systems. Information systems in the health sector aim at the management and provision of preventive and curative health services. The use of information systems in healthcare has the benefits of increasing service quality, shortening treatment processes, maximizing efficiency of the time, labour and medical devices. The use of information systems for clinical decision making and reducing medical errors in the healthcare industry dates back to the 1960s. Clinical information systems involve processing, storing and re-accessing information that supports patient care in a hospital. Clinical information systems are systems that are directly or indirectly related to patient care. These systems include electronic health/patient records, clinical decision support systems, nurse information systems, patient tracking systems, tele-medicine, case mix and smart card applications. Diagnosis-treatment systems are information-based systems used in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases. It consists of laboratory information systems, picture archiving and communication system, pharmacy information system, radiology information system, nuclear medicine information system. This study aims to evaluate the effectiveness of health information system applications in Turkey. The first part of the study focuses on the concept of information systems and the types of information systems in organization structures. In the second part, clinical information systems and applications for diagnosis-treatment systems in Turkey are examined. Finally, the study evaluates applications in the health sector qualitatively from the new organizational structure, which is formed by information systems.

Keywords: Healthcare, Information Systems, Clinical Information Systems, Diagnostic-Treatment Systems, Turkey Case.

Introduction

One of the most important characteristics of the information society is that rapid developments in information and communication technologies force global organizations to change. Citizens are more likely to benefit from the educational opportunities and have expectations from the government for more service provision. The quality of the services provided by the public administration has increased. One of the key functions of the public sector is to effectively create information systems that take into account internal and external environmental conditions to enhance corporate performance. Information systems enable that information society monitor to closely developments at the global level. It shapes institutional politics. It provides a clearly flow of information between units. The strength of horizontal and vertical communications makes a positive contribution to institutional performance.

The performance indicators that public administrators will determine and in the strategic plans they prepare are used the data provided by the information systems. It is imperative that the public staff in the lower levels be informed of fundamental
changes in public policy through the managerial information system in order to achieve their strategic objectives. The objectives of the public organizations are to receive opinions on service provision and quality from the target audience through a healthy information system. Information systems in this respect are one of the tools for the democratization of public administration.

This study focuses on the increasing importance of information systems with globalization. Information systems developed in the health sector, which is a semi-public service, are examined in Turkey. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the clinical information systems and diagnosis-treatment systems in Turkey by referring to the historical development of health information systems. The study is methodologically theoretical and is based on a literature review of qualitative analyses. Administrative information systems in health institutions are classified as activity processing system, management information system, decision support systems, senior management information system, expert systems and office automation system. In the second part; clinical information systems and diagnosis-treatment systems being applied in Turkey have been examined and evaluated in detail.

1- CONCEPT of INFORMATION SYSTEM and CLASSIFICATION

An important characteristic of today's capitalist society is that formal knowledge becomes a personal and key economic resource. In organizational structures, the duty of non-physical workers is gaining importance and this is possible only when this information is applied to the work. Public administration is now a generic body of information society, responsible for the effectiveness of information which focused on the results (Drucker, 1993: 63-72). In a way, public institutions are to apply to information work, tools, products, processes, work design, and the information itself. Also; they should work to bring about innovation a systematic process by organizing for continuous change (Drucker, 2009: 78-81). Every organization in the information society has to be competitive globally with the internet spreading in the service sector. The public service policies focus on efficiency and productivity with the citizens' evaluations of the quality of public service. In this regard, the importance of information systems in storing, organizing and communicating information in a holistic sense is increasing. Analysing the problems, developing new products, evaluating the performances of the public personnel, determining the citizens' preferences, providing the internal and external communication within an organization are among the benefits of the information systems (Güleş and Özata, 2005: 36). The most important component of information systems is computer and communication technology. The second component of the information system is the database management. Database management provides storage, organizing and processing of data. The third component of the information system is model management. Model management includes persons and programs that produce information and process data stored in the database (Kavuncubası and Yıldırım, 2015: 426).

Health information systems enable each individual to obtain current and accurate information about health. With this system, individuals can easily access their own health information. All health-related data from birth to death are shared through a nationwide healthcare network (Ceylan, 2012: 4). Health information systems are the complete set of hardware, software and guidelines used for the production, transmission and effective use of all information related to the management and presentation of preventive and curative health services (Güleş and Özata, 2005: 89).

Health information systems are an old system. The first hospital to institutionally keep patient records is the Pennsylvania Hospital, which was founded in Philadelphia in 1752. The use of information systems in the modern sense for the clinical decision making and reduction of medical errors in the health sector dates back to the 1960s. The first systems developed concern billing and payments. In the 1970s, departments-based systems were developed to support clinical processes. With the 1980s, more information systems than managerial activities and business processes aimed to support health workers. Today, these systems aim to empower patients in the field of health (Van de Velde and Degoulet, 2003; Hollingworth and et al., 2007; Işık and Güler, 2010).

The development of Health Information Systems can be categorized as follows (Haux, 2006):

1- Migration from Paper Based System to Computer Based System and Data Increase in Health Systems: The paper based system in which transactions are executed and stored is abandoned. Transactions are now carried out via computers and data is stored in an electronic environment.
2- Transition from Part-Based Health Information System to Organization Based, Regional and Global Based Health Information System: The first applications of health information systems have been realized in certain departments such as laboratory, radiology systems. After the 1990s, hospital-based systems were transferred to regional and even global systems by integrating data from different health institutions.

3- Health Information System Users can be Health Personnel and Administrators as well as Patients and Patient Relatives: Computer aided informatics applications primarily aim to support physicians. Later on, nurses and other health personnel also entered the system. Today, the practices are widespread for citizens and patients in general.

4- Expansion of Use of Health Information System Data: Health information system data was used for patient care and administrative purposes in the 1980s. Today, these data are also used in clinical and epidemiological studies.

5- Transition from Technical Knowledge Management to Strategic Knowledge Management: Until the 1990s, technical problems experienced in computer-aided information systems were considered. However, with the use of these systems, problems related to organizational changes, social issues, change management and strategic knowledge management in the long run have come to the fore.

6- Incorporation of New Data Types: By the 1990s it became possible to store images such as film, MR as well as alphanumeric data. Today, it is also possible to store data at the molecular level (DNA, Protein Data).

7- Emergence of New Technologies: The functionality of computer-aided information systems has increased steadily. Thanks to the latest technologies, it is possible to collect data continuously from the patients.

The benefits of information systems in health institutions can be listed as follows (Zafar, 2005):

- Providing the necessary data during the examination
- Contributing to the medical decision-making process
- Provide support for patient education and preventive health care applications
- Facilitating the filing process, organizing intensive workflows, increasing patient satisfaction
- Helping care of the patients at a distance, reducing the costs of health care
- Better coordination of health care delivery by strengthening communication between patients and health workers

Attention should be paid to some points in the structuring of information systems in health institutions: Information systems should be integrated with internal and external systems. Patient information should be provided at the desired time and place. Confidentiality and security of data must be observed. Patient management process should be controlled effectively. Decision making in management and patient care should be enhanced. Revenue leaks should be avoided. The usefulness of information for audit and research purposes should be assessed (Herbst, et al., 1999: 308).

Information systems used in health institutions can be grouped into two main groups as clinical information, diagnostic treatment systems and administrative information systems. A wide variety of Managerial Information Systems are used in health institutions. These are Activity Processing System, Management Information System, Decision Support Systems, Senior Management Information System, Expert Systems and Office Automation System. Activity processing systems are a data collection system. It provides taking programmatic decisions and operational control. The management information system is often used for administrative control and provides information to the mid-level managers. This system is computer based. It regulates information production and information flow in the institutions. Decision support systems are used to solve unprogrammed problems in health care institutions. The senior management information system provides senior managers with the information they will use to monitor activity results or general operating conditions. Expert systems often include computer applications that enable unidentified tasks to be performed. Office automation system is used in daily communication and information processing activities in offices and administrative units (KavuncuBaş and Yıldırım, 2015: 427-431). In the following section, clinical information and diagnosis-treatment systems are examined in Turkey.
2. Development of Clinical Information Systems in Turkey

The largest organization using information systems in Turkey is the Ministry of Health, where 65% of the hospitals in the country are affiliated. Initiatives to establish information systems in the field of health began in the 1990s to pass the Health Information Systems Project, which was jointly organized by the ministry and the World Bank. This project followed the second health project funded by the World Bank and Turkey, covering 1995-2001. The Health Information Systems Project started in 1992 with the planning phase. At this stage, problems related to the quality and information validity of the hospitals were evaluated. Information systems have a 20-year history in Turkey. In the health sector, the use of information systems has been made compulsory in some sense with efficiency-based reforms based on cost-benefit analysis (Dağlı, 2011: 11-14). For this purpose, the General Directorate of Health Information Systems established in 1996 has attained a contemporary structure with the decree of law published in 2011. The General Directorate of Health Information Systems is responsible for spreading the use of health information systems throughout the country. It is responsible for establishing the Ministry of Health's Information Systems. It follows the development of informatics technologies in the world and carries out national and international relations in the field of health (T.C. Resmi Gazete No. 663, article 11, www.resmigazete.gov.tr, 12.04.2017).

Clinical Information Systems are a system directly related to patient care. It provides the creation, storage and reuse of necessary information to support patient care. These systems support diagnosis and treatment services. It makes it easier for physicians to take clinical decisions more effectively. With Clinical Information Systems, improvements have been made in the health sector such as the elimination of disease causes, the development of qualifications, the reduction of medical errors, and the increase of the productivity of health personnel (Demirel, 2013: 69). Clinical information systems used in health institutions include many different information systems. These systems see the function of gathering, processing, storing and transmitting all kinds of information in picture, text, image and audio format and they are used in the decision making process (Austin and Boxerman, 2013: 167).

Clinical Information Systems reduce the in-service waiting times of patients. It facilitates communication between patient care-servers and doctors. It provides the development of standards for the diagnosis and treatment process. The information gathered in the Clinical Information Systems is well organized. These systems improve drug dosing. They reduce adverse side effects of drug interactions. However, the infrastructure of clinical information technology is costly. There are great concerns about the confidentiality and preservation of patient data in the computer system. Integration of old systems into clinical information systems can also take time (Raymond and Dold, 2002: 1-7).

2.1. Patient Files

It is a collection of documents that contains information obtained from studies conducted in relation to diagnosis and treatment of patients. These information and documents relate to the diagnosis and treatment of patients and injured persons during their stay in the health institutions. The first step in the development of clinical information systems is the regular keeping of patient files (Kavuncubaşı and Yıldırım, 2015: 441).

2.2. Electronic Health/Patient Records

It ensures that all information about the patient is collected and used in the computer environment. This system requires that electronic medical records belonging to the patient should be in full, useful, effective, ethical and legal manner. It allows all records acquired over time to be stored in a holistic way (Blobel, 2001: 81). Thus, health staff reaches different information sources in less time and at lower cost. Thanks to the system, reliable information can be easily obtained by scanning and filtering medical information (Küyük et al., 2005: 3-14).

2.3. Clinical Decision Support Systems
Clinical decision support systems are computer programs that provide support to clinicians or other health care staff in clinical decisions. These systems are computer systems that are interested in clinical data or medical information to provide a decision support (Eneida, 2004: 591). These systems are designed to help doctors who make decisions by providing the most up-to-date informations. Clinical decision support systems are divided into passive and active: Passive clinical decision support systems are an information system that collects, organizes and provides information to the physician for patient information. The main purpose is to provide direct information on the subject. The active clinical decision support system combines medical information or medical science with patient information. It gives various suggestions to physicians in decision-making process (Kavuncubası and Yıldırım, 2015: 445-446). By means of this system, mistakes due to negligence in health are prevented and possible side effects of drugs are eliminated by avoiding wrong drug usage (Özata and Aslan, 2004: 16-17).

2.4. Nurse Information Systems

Systems in which information and communication technologies operate on fields and processes related to nursing services. It allows the nursing tasks to be done easily and quickly (Saba, 1997: 59), such as assessment, monitoring, identification of the nursing aspects of the disease, preparation, presentation and analysis of health care plans., The nurse informatics which was recognized as a new field of specialization by the American Nurses Association in 1992, it provides a decision support system for nurses in nursing practice, nursing process, development of phases through the data management (Erdemir, 2008). By using information technology in nursing services, workload and error rates have decreased. Communication between the nurse and the patient has been strengthened (Chang et al., 2011: 332-340).

2.5. Patient Monitoring Systems

It is the system in which the patients who apply to the health institutions and organizations can follow the treatment in the hospital and after the discharge, the treatment results are evaluated and the healing process can be monitored. Thanks to these systems, the frequency of patients' referral to hospitals and the success rates of the treatments applied are clear. Hospital performance and quality-focused health services are evaluated with patient satisfaction by monitoring patients with developing mobile technologies (Tan et al., 2009). This system, also known as the intensive care unit, is equipped with specially trained medical personnel along with high-tech medical devices, which are distinguished from other hospital services in terms of medical treatment and patient care. Patient monitoring systems can follow vital signs such as heart rate, blood pressure, respiratory rate, and body temperature from the monitor (Ömürbek and Altın, 2009: 215).

2.6. Telemedicine

Telemedicine is a method of providing physiological signals for the diagnosis, treatment, follow-up and evaluation purposes between physicians and patients in different places (Ganapathy, 2005: 851). Telemedicine applications include the ability to perform remote operations using information systems and communication technologies aimed at conducting health-related researches (İşik and Güler, 2010: 2). Telemedicine in Turkey is one of the projects that the Ministry of Health has dealt with in the context of e-health applications. This project was used in the first stage in the form of health service presentation in the field of radiology and pathology. Some of the current tele-medicine applications are (Demirel, 2013: 77-81):

- **Tele-Radiology**: Radiological images and related information are sent electronically from one place to another and interpreted or consulted.
- **Tele-Pathology**: It is the process of transferring images via telecommunication methods for diagnosis, consultation and training.
- **Tele-Cardiology**: It refers to the remote collection of all cardiology data such as ECG, echocardiography, heart rhythms, pictures and sounds, and then transfer to a service center.
- **Tele-Surgery**: The surgeon who is not in the place of operation and he remotely controls and performs the surgery with a surgical robot (Rayman, 2009: 8).
Tele-Care (Health Care at home): With Tele-Care, video cameras are located in the patients' homes for remote diagnosis and treatment without going to the hospital. In Turkey, the Ministry of Health has begun to provide home health care services for some diseases since February 2010. It includes phototherapy practices for new-borns (0-1 month old), respiratory system diseases as "Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease", bedside patients, terminal period palliative care patients, advanced muscle diseases (Akça, 2013: 169).

2.7. Case Mix

Case Mix, Health Management Information Systems, provide links and balance between the clinical aspects of health care services and the financial aspects of budget and policy development activities. It categorizes the health system outcomes and the conditions of the patients by grouping them according to similar characteristics in a clinically and economically meaningful way. The system consists of diagnostic groups and information systems with similar financial management (Ömürbek and Altı̇n, 2009: 216; Güleş and Özata, 2005: 116).

2.8. Virtual Reality

A virtual reality is a simulation created using computer graphics, sounds, and other sensors that have a real world-like appearance and interact with the user (Gregg, Tarrier, 2007: 343). In the fields of basic medicine education, such as anatomy, physiology, biochemistry, virtual reality applications are utilized. It is used in computer processing of data obtained for training, diagnosis and treatment in medicine. It allows different medical procedures to be supported by other medical information and methods (Özkurt, 2003: 55).

2.9. Smart Card Applications

It is not enough to store medical records only in the computer environment. It is also important that medical information can be accessed at the desired location and in the right way when needed. One of the methods developed in this regard is smart card applications. In this application, the patient can take his medical history with him everywhere and present it at the time of consultation (Müldür, 1999: 8; Kardas and Tunali, 2006: 66-67). Smart cards have advantages such as high memory capacity, identification of the cardholder, waterproofing, and readability without the need for a computer and quick access to the medical history of the patients (Rosli et al., 2009: 136). In Turkey, studies are being carried out for the transition to smart card system. Thus, pharmacists will be able to see the hospital where the patient comes, doctor, written prescription via smart medical cards.

3. Evaluation of Diagnosis-Treatment Systems in TURKEY

Information-based systems and equipment used in the diagnosis and treatment of patients are generally referred to as diagnosis and treatment systems. These systems come from other applications with imaging and laboratory diagnostic systems that support the diagnosis and treatment process (Güleş and Özata, 2005: 131).

3.1. Laboratory Information System

The laboratory information system was prepared by considering all the information management needs of the hospital laboratories. With the system, the information processing process is controlled easily and effectively and the system provides a faster and more efficient workflow (Sümen et al., 2005: 103). The laboratory information system supports the laboratory's functions of collecting information, verifying and reporting the test results. Laboratory tests required for patients are requested via outpatient clinics or other units, and results from automated laboratory equipment are delivered directly to the service units in hospital. In addition to analysing and reporting functions of laboratory information systems, it is also used in the acquisition of analysis requests, ordering and planning necessary resources for these analyses (Kavuncubaşı and Yıldırım, 2015: 447).

3.2. Picture Archiving and Communication System (PACS)
PACS systems make it possible to archive images in different units within a place. It is an electronic film archiving system that allows digital images to be served to users at different points when necessary (Ulaş and Tatar, 2005: 245). The system has beneficial aspects for hospitals and patients. It has reduced film costs for hospitals. It provides convenience in the archiving system. Millions of images can be stored in a disc without any deformation. For patients, however, the risk of loss and deformation of the films is ended. Patients do not have to carry a film when they go to the physician's control. If necessary, the patient's data can be sent to medical centers abroad. The patient's previous images and his later images after years can be successfully compared (Güler, 2008: 74-76).

3.3. Pharmacy Information System

Pharmacy Information Systems include drug use, drug stock and management activities in patient care. These systems support treatment services besides pharmacy activities (Demirel, 2013: 70-71). The pharmacies are particularly among the departments that use the most information in the hospitals. The Pharmacy Information System examines patient prescriptions. The system follows medications given to the patient. It warns health staffs about the effects and side effects of medicines (Kavuncubaşı and Yıldırım, 2015: 447).

3.4. Radiological Information System

Radiology information systems can take automatic images from the radiology system. It can transfer bi-directional digital information to hospital information system. It also carries out the data transfer of the radiotherapy planning information with the patient's appointment, examination, diagnosis information in the clinic. It has also the ability to archive data (Akman, 2005: 4).

3.5. Nuclear Medical Information System (NMIS)

Nuclear Medicine is a scientific discipline that uses radioactive substances to diagnose and treatment processes. The Nuclear Medicine Information System has versatile functions ranging from the entry and changing of nuclear medicine requests to appointment planning and the entry of patients’ information. In addition, it provides follow-up of the film recordings. It provides the preparation of radiology reports and performs the function of transmitting information to existing patient information systems (Bayraktutan et al., 2010: 14).

3.6. Electronic Document Management System

It enables to transfer the Ministry of Health's documents and information exchanges to electronic environment. The system aims to manage this information instantly over the internet. Document management is a discipline that ensures that documents are controlled and regulated by standard rules in health institutions. It also standardizes processes related to internal and external correspondence (T.C. Sağlık Bakanlığı, www.saglik.gov.tr, 09.04.2017).

The advantages of electronic document management system are as follows (Güler, 2008: 36):

• It increases document security

• Quality of service is increasing with easily sharing of documents

• A copy of the archive is easily created elsewhere

• The archive area is shrinking. As a result, archive costs are decreasing

• Staff mistakes are decreasing. The accuracy rate of existing information is increasing

• The costs of copying documents, faxing, sending by courier are reduced

Conclusion
Information has become a major factor in production in the post-industrial period. The importance of communication between the administrative units has increased in the structure of the organization. The quality of the human capital appears to be decisive on the organizational performance. Information workers are in a central position in the service sector, both institutionally and personally. In this respect, the creation of in-house information systems through effective use of information and communication technologies is necessary to improve the quality of public services. Information systems have significant benefits in solving intra-organizational problems, evaluating citizen requests, and providing horizontal and vertical communications within the organization. Administrators can easily make strategic decisions about public institutions by using the data of information systems. Health information systems play an important role in the management and presentation of preventive and curative health services. Information systems are used for the production, transmission and efficient use of information related to the health field. Information systems in the health field have been used effectively since the 1960s. In the 1970s, systems for various units in health institutions were developed. Since the 1980s, information system applications have been widespread which will enable the health staff to work quickly, efficiently and effectively. At the same time, it is aimed that the citizens benefit from health service provision in a short time with less cost. Following the global technological developments in the health sector, especially in the development of information systems will increase patient satisfaction. Information systems offer a better coordination terms institutionally. It regulates intensive workflows of healthcare providers. It offers a competitive advantage in the health sector with increasing quality in institutional service delivery.

Information systems in health institutions are classified as clinical information, diagnosis-treatment systems and management information systems. Management information systems are more concerned with the effectiveness and control of in-house information flows. In the study, clinical information and diagnosis-treatment systems have been examined in Turkey. Initiatives for the establishment of health information systems in Turkey started in the 1990s with the "Health Information Systems Project" funded and coordinated by the Ministry of Health and the World Bank. The Ministry of Health has actively implemented projects and studies on information systems in the health care system, especially after 2000, with a radical modernization. Clinical Information Systems have provided the direct renewal of patient care processes on the basis of quality orientation. For this purpose patient files have been converted into electronic patient record form. Current developments in the field of healthcare have been presented to physicians with clinical decision support systems. With nurse information systems, it is becoming possible for nurses to learn the current information about the patients instantaneously, and the nurses are more interested in the problems of the patients. Patient monitoring systems allow patients to be closely monitored during treatment and after treatment. The success rate of the treatment method applied with this system is clearly observed. Tele-medicine applications have enabled actively the flow of information between physicians and patients in different locations. It is especially convenient for the patients to provide health care services at home. Similar patient profiles are grouped together by the case mix application. It is a clinically and economically useful application. Virtual reality applications have increased the productivity of basic medical education, diagnosis and treatment processes through simulations. Turkey has not yet passed the smart card application. However, the necessary works are being carried out urgently to move to this service which enables the patient to access the medical places and information at the desired place and time.

Diagnosis and treatment systems have increased the ability to make accurate decisions in the diagnosis and treatment processes. One of these systems, laboratory information systems collects information from laboratories, verifies existing information and reports test results. With the picture archiving and communication system, digital images can be presented for the evaluation of users in different units. Pharmacy information systems are useful in regulating patient prescriptions, following daily doses of medications, and identifying side effects of medications. The radiology information system automatically transfers images from the radiology system. With the Nuclear Medicine Information System, preparation of radiology reports has become easier. The electronic document management system is an important institutional tool for storing, sharing and transmitting documents within electronic environment. Thanks to the system, document security is increased and the institutional archive space is narrowed. With the reduction of red tape, the cost of service has decreased.
and the quality of the service provided has increased. When assessed in general, it can be predicted that the efforts of the health sector to activate the health sector through information and communication technologies will be increased in order for Turkey to adapt to global competition conditions. One of the indispensable requirements of the information society is the citizen-focused effective provision of public services in a way that is based on continuous progress and development.

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Corporate Blogging: The New Age PR Tool

Leena Philip
CMS

Abstract

Effective public relations can create and build up the image of an individual or an organisation or a nation. At the time of adverse publicity or when the organisation is under crisis an effective Public Relations can remove the "misunderstanding" and can create mutual understanding between the organisation and the public. Public relations, in the internal environment area, are directed to both the entire organization and to its individual departments and units. Internal communication and good internal communication channels are of paramount importance. From an internal perspective, organizations must be able to communicate effectively with its human resources in order to streamline organizational development. Finally, public relations must also be an important part of internal communication to promote planned change and development within the organization.

Keywords: Corporate Blogging: The New Age PR Tool

1. Introduction

In the past several years, a number of trends have emerged in the PR industry, with no sign of disappearing anytime soon. The biggest factor related to these new trends is social media. The rise of everything from Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn to Instagram, Snapchat, and Vine has changed the way public relations teams operate in a number of ways. These networks give consumers the opportunity to speak directly to a brand or a client; PR professionals used to be able to dictate what information was being released and when, but conversations are a two-way street now. A much wider audience for a PR team means it's not just about journalists anymore – bloggers are the new influencers. PR practitioners used to really focus on having good relationships with big media, but now the media target has grown. There are bloggers and YouTube personalities with millions of followers that organisations need to develop relationships with now. Today, a good relationship with a key influencer can bring a wealth of publicity to a brand.

Until recently most public relations activity involved person-to-person contact between PR professionals and members of the media, such as journalists and television news reporters. However, several trends are developing that alter the tasks performed by PR people. In most cases these changes are the result of new Internet technologies that are quickly gaining widespread acceptance among Internet users and are becoming new media outlets in their own right. The new trends include:

- Updating Corporate News
- Corporate Blogs: Many companies in high-tech fields, such as eBay, Google, and Microsoft, and traditionally low-tech fields, such as General Motors, McDonalds, and Wells Fargo Bank, now produce in-house blogs that report on happenings at the company. These blogs enable company employees, including CEOs and marketers, to post messages updating company developments and, consequently, serve as a useful PR tool.
- Social Media by far the most significant trend to affect public relations in the last 25 years is the impact played by social media. In a matter of just a few years, social networks, including Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, have created opportunities for monitoring and communicating that are quickly raising these methods to the top of the list of PR tools.
Many organizations that start using content marketing or social media marketing, and want to offer content in a more conversational and personal way, start their efforts with a blog. Although corporate blogging is far from new and lots of companies have a blog, several others don’t.

The social media and content marketing activities of many companies in reality are limited to driving interactions and conversions via blogs and the social platforms connected with them. Such social media and content marketing programs often are limited to publishing, listening, responding and acting with a central role for content, as shared via blogs. Although social media and content marketing offer much more possibilities than blogging, the focus on content and blogs is natural. The majority of traffic to websites and of online generated leads comes from search engines. This is because search engines still are a predominant source for buyers during various stages of their buyer journey. Furthermore, blogs also get more consulted as people actively look for information during their buying journey and increasingly become social-savvy.

2. Review of literature

2.1 Blogging- a powerful public relation marketing tool by Minal Kashyap and Kamal Katiya is a study based on the latest innovation currently having an impact on Public Relation is blog. The research goes on to studying the popularity of blogs, where it is explained that search engine prefers blogs, blogs can establish credibility for a business, others may include blogs as a medium of instant communication, also people enjoy fresh, interesting and relevant content and the main motive that blogs also attract media attention.

Variations in this study are created by building a relation between the individual’s age and frequency of blogging. Secondly, another relation between the individual’s gender and visits to type of blogs. This is graphed as the Hypothesis Testing. Visitors subscribe to a blog’s feeds in order to stay up to date with content that being posted on subjects that interests them. Some blogs are such that which indirectly influences the mind of consumer’s towards buying the product. It is also been evaluated that there is a relationship between age of an individual and frequency of visiting the blogs, similarly there is a relation between gender and influence towards the type of blog. Various companies use blogging as a tool to market their products and services which in turn builds goodwill amongst blog followers. Blogs provide a unique and personal way to communicate with current and prospective customers. By talking to people, in a conversational manner, a blog puts a human face on a company that is difficult to duplicate in any other way. Perhaps the single most powerful aspects of blogs, in the area of public relations, is the personalization aspect.

2.2 Critical Analysis of blogging in Public by Philip Joseph is a research paper conducts an analysis of blogs as a public relation tool. Following an overview of blogs, attention is given to how blogs can be used more effectively by public relation professionals and how blogs are favoured by communication firms and consultants as essential Public Relation tool. The research concludes the strengths and weakness of blogs as public relation tools, describe their value as research and framing tools, and provide some data about how they are used. Also, using blogs as a way to influence individuals and publics is one of the most frequently mentioned characteristics of blogs by public relation professionals. Allowing or encouraging visitors to an organization Web site to participate in how online news and information is framed is possibly the greatest strength of blogs and feature of the most important to public relation professionals. Many people nowadays have begun to mistrust the traditional way of public relations approach as they lack honesty. The openness of a blog changes that perception entirely. A blog can enhance that perception of honesty by delivering the straight goods on an issue. With that open approach, lacking the traditional tightly controlled message, trust in the company is enhanced in both the short and longer terms, which trust translates into more lifelong customers and clients.

2.3 How Blogging changed the PR Game by Brent Gleeson is an article where we get to learn more about blogging and its credibility as Blogging has become a part of daily lives. There are millions of blogs available to readers, and two out of three people read blogs multiple times a week. It’s not just a hobby anymore, many influencers have made blogging their full-time job and dedicate their efforts to cultivating a large, loyal following. Even those who blog casually still develop an
This article concludes by stating that bloggers have established a key role in today’s consumer behaviour and digital marketing strategies. Brands and marketers that adapt to this changing landscape will be able to positively leverage this reality and boost their brand awareness online. In the time of crisis or disaster, a blog can provide a rapid response and update system, to get out an unfiltered message to the reading audience. The journalists can keep up with developments and write stories based on the postings. The company gains untold additional credibility with the general public due to the policy of the open communications channels. Businesses seeking a public relation vehicle, that provides numerous additional benefits, should consider adding a blog component to their website. The authentic and personalized blog voice is a natural fit for any public relations effort. A rapid growing number of journalists and editors are reading blogs on a daily basis. It is becoming imperative that a company start to blog to keep up with that trend.

2.4 Corporate Blogs as a Public Relation Tool by Brett Harrison is a study analysed current practice and strategies of corporate blogs as a public relations tool. Applying the relational maintenance framework, a content analysis was conducted to examine how major corporations utilize blogs for building and maintaining their relationships with various publics. The research looks at what are Corporate Blogs and the key characteristics and strategies applied in corporate blogs. A corporate blog is a unique form of blogs that has been explored by public relation practitioners. Also described as ‘a hybrid of the personal blog’. These blogs are fairly new and feature the insights, assessments, commentary and other discourse devoted to a single company. Corporate blogs can be defined as a blog that is endorsed explicitly or implicitly by a company and posted by a person (or a group of people) who are affiliated with the company. The key strategies for maintain a two-way symmetrical public relationship is:

- Here, the first strategy would be “Access” and is defined as providing public access to representatives of organisation or organisational decision making process and at the same time providing public relation practitioners with access to members of publics. This strategy is compared to the two-way symmetric communication model.
- Secondly, it would be ‘Positivity’ that refers to interacting with each other in a cheerful way and attempting to make interactions enjoyable.
- Third is ‘Openness’ referred to self-disclosure and free conversations between partners in a relationship.
- Fourth being ‘Assurance’ is showing ones continuation in the relationship and commitment to the partner and the relationship. This is also the attempts made by parties in the relationship to assure the other parties that they and their concerns are legitimate.
- Fifth is ‘Social Networks’ refers to interacting with or relying on common affiliations and spending time with common friends.
- Finally, ‘Sharing Tasks’ is defined as attempts to maintain a relationship by performing one’s shared responsibilities. In an interpersonal context, relationships can flourish when both parties involved in a relationship feel that the other is investing his/her time in taking shared responsibilities.

This study concludes by stating that while corporate blogs tend to adopt various relational maintenance strategies to maintain good relationships with their visitors, application of such strategies are rarely used. For public relations practitioners exploring the blogosphere for a potentially effective new communication tool, this study also present a new approach for examining corporate blogs as a public relations tool by applying relational maintenance strategies.

2.5 Blogs and Business Opportunities and Headaches by Wallace Wood, Robert Behling and Susan Haugen is a study based on Blogging that has become a significant part of online culture. Blogging is transforming the way the Internet is being used by allowing individuals and business to communicate directly with other individuals, employees and customers while encouraging an exchange of ideas. The study shows how blogging is gaining momentum and will be used by more and more companies and organizations. Businesses are aware that blogging is a very inexpensive way to help them gain Internet and market presence, obtain customers feedback and provide a forum for employees to share ideas. While blogs have their disadvantages, they also hold great potential for organizations. Creating an outlet for public discussion can enhance the reputation of the organization and provide a timely means for customers to interact with the company in an informal way and put a human face on company communication.
2.6 Why is PR Agencies Blogging? An Exploratory study of the blogging practices of public Relation Agencies by Rihanna Fursdon and Melanie James. Is a study on Blogging a form of social media and is one of the fastest growing areas of communication in public relations practice? It has been argued that blogging is breaking down the barriers to communication, enabling more equal and democratic dialogue between individuals, groups and organisations. A number of researchers have investigated the use of blogs by organisation. There have been suggestions that the extent to which blogs are interactive, interlinked and oriented towards large-scale events is exaggerated by blog writers, including journalists and academics. This exploratory project was seen as initial step in reducing the disparity between practitioner and academic perspectives of blogging practice in public relations with a view to better understanding and enhancing practice and theory development in this area. There were several findings in this analysis, five out of the six practitioners indicated that the main purpose of the blog was to raise their agency’s profile and to promote their agency. The six practitioners observed that the industry was moving increasingly online, and all indicated that they felt the need to have a blog in order to establish or maintain an online presence. This research was concluded by indicating that the practitioners in this study use blogs in what could be described as a combination of both co-creational and functional approaches. Perhaps future work in the field will find that agency blogging centres on finding the right balance between internal and external interests. There are a number of emergent research areas for blog use by PR practitioners and it is noted that there are a number of researchers already producing annual investigations into this area of practice. However, this exploratory study does point to some areas that future researchers may like to consider, such as: widening the current research focus area to include functional as well as co-creational perspectives of practice or looking for evidence of other theoretical perspectives emerging from the research data.

2.7 Role of Corporate Blogs in Branding by Dushyant Pratap Singh Chauhan is an article based on corporate blogging is a new form of online communication that is being used by companies as a PR tool. Today customers are moving away from the traditional media and so the need to be visible in the consumer’s eye, new media is essential. In India corporate blogging is a relatively new phenomenon although it began way back in 2007. The study attempts to explore how corporate blogging is a new communication tool for companies. It tries to determine recent trends in corporate blogging especially in India and to find out what is the future of corporate blogging. The researcher has used the case study method. The study will be significant in presenting the Indian perspective towards corporate blogging. Corporate blogging is a new form of online communication that is being used by companies as a PR tool. Today customers are moving away from the traditional media and so the need to be visible in the consumer’s eye, new media is essential. Kamla Bhatt in her article “A Different Blogosphere in India”, for the Financial Express says that there is an increasing realisation that corporate blogging can help bridge the gap between companies and their stakeholders like their employees, customers or investors. She quotes Rajesh Lalwani of Blog works who points out, “Corporate blogging allows a faceless entity to become real and allows companies to build trust through transparent conversations.” Talking about the corporate blogging scene in India she says that Indian companies have barely scratched the surface and discovered the value created through corporate blogs. “It is early days yet and the large corporate are yet to adopt them in a big way, but it has been adopted by entrepreneurs on the other hand,” says Lalwani. She also quotes Kiruba Shankar, who helps clients with their blogging needs. He says, “Corporate blogging is still in its infancy in India. Whenever I speak with heads of corporations, they say that blogging is important but very few actually turn those words to action.” This study concludes by stating that the final objective was to identify the future of corporate blogging. Numerous studies have pointed towards the fact that the new media is here to stay. Corporate blogging is expected to remain an important Social Media tool, or even grow in popularity over the years. It has been identified to be the essential backbone of every company’s Social Media strategy, as it allows companies to establish a content hub where complex topics can be discussed in-depth, without any interference of the traditional media. Companies connect with the customers through blogs. The study has found out that corporate blogging as a trend has to still develop in India. There are only a handful of Indian companies that have proper blogs. The companies need to realize that blogs are not mere sender oriented platforms. They can be interactive too. There has to be more awareness about the real value of corporate blogging in India.
3. Research design

3.1 Title

“Corporate blogging: The new age PR tool”

3.2 Problem Statement

Defining the research problem is important as it helps one solve the problem. Researcher was basically keen in analysing blogging as a tool used by PR professionals nowadays. Researcher chooses a study on ‘Blogging: The new Public Relations tool’, in order to assess the impact and importance of blogs.

For any company or organisation, marketing and building a relation with clients and other organisations around it is very essential, this is where a PR professionals comes in action. He/she bridge the gap between a company and its publics. Through this study we come to know the importance and impact of blogging for public relation professionals.

3.3 Objectives of the study

- To assess blogging and its importance
- To identify whether PR professionals use blogs
- To identify the reach and impact of blogs
- To understand blogs as public relations tool
- To understand whether PR and blogging go hand in hand
- To find out how blogging is a new communication tool for companies.

3.4 Scope of the study

- This study is helpful for further researches based on public relations and blogging
- It is helpful in understanding blogs on a PR perspective

3.5 Sample Size

The researcher interviewed four resource people. These people were from the PR and Communications industry possessing above four years of experience and used blogging as a strong tool for communication. They are

1. Prateek Thakker, Senior Account Executive: MSLGROUP
2. Pravin Shiriyannavar, Public Relation Executive: BRAND-COMM
3. Suman Prasad, Senior Management Supervisor: HILL+KNOWLTON STRATEGIES
4. Rahul Gemawath, Journalist and Digital Marketer: GOODTIME NATION

3.6 Ways of selecting sample size

- Experience- For instance, incorporates those things promptly accessible or advantageous to gather. A decision of little specimen sizes, however at times important, can bring about wide certainty interims or dangers of blunders in factual theory testing.

4

Data analysis and findings

4.1 In Depth-Interviews

4.1.1 Interview 1

In an interview with Pravin Shiriyannavar, threw light on the benefits of “Blogging: The new Public Relation tool.” Pravin is a public relation professional working at Brand-Comm and having an experience spanning of more than 5 years. He answered to the following questionnaire starting with talking how public relation is a profession that looks after the reputation of a personality or a company. Public relations specialists work with the aim of helping the company and its customers earn mutual understanding. PR is a planned and continuous effort of establishing and maintaining goodwill of any organization.
or person. This job is created to provide positive publicity to a company's clients and enhance its reputation. A perfect PR must have the knowledge of some important factors such as persuasion, information, communication, public opinion and public policies.

In the interview Pravin admitted using Blogs as a communication tool and also blogging helps in shaping the brand value of his organisation. He said that a blog can enhance that perception of honesty by delivering the straight goods on an issue. With that open approach, lacking the traditional tightly controlled message, trust in the company is enhanced in both the short and longer terms, which trust translates into more lifelong customers and clients. He also added saying that by writing about your industry, reviewing products, providing company news, and commenting on various business and economics issues, your blog is a ready source of news stories.

He also revealed about how this tool function in the PR process. By posting regular and open information on your company blog, you can address the crisis, fairly and honestly. Keeping the public completely aware of where you’re business stands, and what is the plan going forward, helps to improve confidence from your readership. Blogs provide an unlimited number of postings per day. You can update what is happening, during the peak of the crisis, in real time.

Blog followers' evaluation on the believability of information posted on blog sites has significant impact on changes in their opinions/viewpoints. The more a participant believes the information to be reliable, fair, and trustworthy, the higher the likelihood that they will change their opinion to fit what they read on blog sites. Participants have strong tendency to continue read blogging. They have positive attitude toward blogging. They think blogging is entertaining, interesting, good, and fun. They think blogging is useful as a social networking tool to improve their relationships with others.

Pravin also spoke about the future of blogging and said that it would sustain for a long period of time. Blogging will never be dead. But transformation of blogging will happen, and we should be prepared for that. This is true that competition is tough now compare to the earlier days of blogging. Now every day millions of articles are posted and thousands of blog created. So it’s now more important to provide unique, in-depth and quality content.

4.2.2 Interview 2

In an interview with Prateek Thakker, throwing light on the benefits of "Blogging: The new Public Relations tool." Prateek is a public relation practitioner since 3 years and also started blogging a while back. He answered to the following questionnaire sharing his experiences of working as PR practitioner and also how writing blogs helped him to assess his work and experience. He said that sometimes public relation is an effort to influence the public. This is especially true for political action groups, associations and other groups. Sometimes public relation is community relations, just look around your own community to see how many companies and organizations have a community affairs initiative or a person in charge with a related title. In larger, publicly held firms, this person is sometimes the director of investor relations. Investors are a public entity, so in this case public relation is appropriate.

Prateek added on saying what the public wants to hear is a good story. Good PR is the telling of a good story, the better the story, the better the acceptance by the public and the better the public relations. Of course if the story is especially appealing to those that could be your clients, then you could have a PR homerun. In this case, it is communication with your target market that may or may not be very public. He started blogging recently and had to say that there is no denying that the cultural phenomenon that is blogging has a big impact on the world. Indeed, many news stories, memes, and artistic efforts either air their head via this medium, or are exposed to the wider world by it. Although WikiLeaks is the
organisation that has hit headlines recently for exposure of information, blogs over the years have had at least an equal, if not greater, impact, although perhaps not quite on such a global scale.

He also added on taking about blogs as a cultural perspective, it’s a brilliant way for amateur artists to bring their work to the wider world, especially seeing as they are long past the golden era of MySpace furthermore, although MySpace had more of an ease of surfing through pages one might be interested in, the possibility of stumbling across something potentially life changing is almost infinitesimal when compared to surfing blogs, simply due to the greater scope for artistic license offered by the culture of the blog.

Prateek also spoke added his obligations with the audience, while a blogger doesn’t have to communicate with public relations professionals at all, there’s a pretty good chance they write about the industry or even the company that the PR pro represents from time to time. At some point, the blogger may need information about the company or a product they can’t find online, a logo or company image to use with a piece they’ve written, a quote or reaction from the company to some piece of news or a clarification or explanation of something the company does. Public relations professionals are the appropriate contacts for inquiries. Not communicating with the PR folks at all could limit your ability to serve your audience with accurate information. Furthermore, sometimes the pitch or the press release is about some news or a new product that the blogger’s audience should know about. By ignoring pitches, or demanding paid media treatment of said information, a blogger is doing a disservice to his or her audience as that limits or adulterates the information the audience is given.

The only way to make sure that your translation business is running properly and to gain the respect you are owed is by showing that you’re a professional and reliable business partner who adds value to the clients’ business. Thus you deserve proper compensation, proper feedback and proper payments. Blogging is passion. If you are passionate then there is lots of future. First think yourself, do you have passion on this. He concluded saying “before I go on for too long, although blogging certainly has its downsides, which sensationalists would call infecting people with stupidity, rudeness and antisocial behaviour its upsides, as outlined above, outweigh them. Blogging has changed the world, and brought information more freely than any statutory input ever could.”

4.2.3 Interview 3
In an interview with Suman Prasad, shared a few experiences about “Blogging: The new Public Relations tool”. Suman is a blogger and also a PR practitioner for his organisation. His PR tools include attending public events, press releases, newsletters, social media marketing and blogging.

In order to attract public attention and keep it engaged with a particular organisation or an individual, PR specialists take an advantage of every public event and the opportunity to speak publicly. This enables them to directly reach the public attending the event and indirectly, a much larger audience. Sending newsletters, relevant information about the organisation and its products or services directly to the target audience is also a common method to create and maintain a strong relationship with the public. Newsletters offering promotional products are also a common marketing strategy but PR specialists use it to share news and general information that may be of interest to the target audience rather than merely promoting products or services.

On blogging he said that to reach the online audience, PR specialists use the digital forms of press releases and newsletters but they also use a variety of other tools such as blogging and recently, micro blogging. It allows them to create and maintain a relationship with the target audience as well as establish a two-way communication.

He also detailed the simple reasons of writing blogs that you don’t need technical expertise to write a blog. You add pages or articles through a Windows type of interface so there is no need for a web designer to update it for you can do it all yourself and in double quick time. Also, your readers can respond to your posts so that you can start to see who is interested in the same areas as you or as a business open a conversation with potential clients, suppliers or partners. The perfect
opener to developing a relationship and a network. He also spoke about search engine magnets, with regular posts, categorised content and search engine friendly links and addresses, business blogs become ideal places for Search Engines to find the type of content they love and you can rank very highly. A blog is an excellent tool to help to share information easily within your company, manage projects, develop teams and hugely improve the internal communications. He also added when you regularly produce useful and relevant content on your blog, you’ll be seen as a thought leader. You make yourself more relevant when you publish evergreen content on your blog. Your blog will be a helpful resource to your existing and prospective customers, and it will improve their customer service experience.

He concluded saying that blogging is going to remain here for a long long time. Its nature may keep changing and it might be supplanted with a form of blogging that is given another name, but the essential part of it remains, people expressing themselves on the web in long form, in the form of posts that are updated regularly.

4.2.4 Interview 4

In an interview with Rahul, working as a blogger for GoodTime Nation. He is been writing blogs since a while now and is well known and has a good amount of followers. Rahul has also worked with public relation organisations and companies. He shared his experience on blogging saying that maintaining a blog is not an easy task. Everything is based efforts have successes, but for this, it is necessary to have platforms and tools such as Word Press SEO plugins, to perform this task. However, blogs need for a presence on social networks such as Facebook, Google+, Twitter, among others. Without a presence in social networks, it is impossible to interact with people, which is essential in the world of marketing and SEO.

He also pointed out the key features blogs must have the blogging platform should be mobile friendly. It should be updated to the latest technology, it shouldn’t be rigid. It should also be user friendly. The control panel should be easy understandable, must have well-structured layout, text and html ratio should be good. It must be hacking proof also shouldn’t require much coding knowledge. Easy diagnose and error rectification. Easy to manage, low maintenance. Blogs must be free as open source. A blog is a platform where you can share your thoughts with the world. You can create inspirational blogs, educational blogs to help people gain some knowledge, or blogs that helps people in random everyday queries.

He believes that blogging has become an integral part of today’s society. People now use blogs for various reasons. He personally has a tumblr blog just to show his different interests. Others have very complex blogs that display their journeys and hardships, which is a very amazing thing. People have the opportunities to go on trips out of the country and are able to blog about their experiences to show others everything that is going on. Blogging has allowed people and organizations to reach more. Keeping that in mind, that blogging is evolving to be a mixture of content. In the past, Rahul solely wrote and never considered other formats. Fast forward to today and his content often includes a bit or episode of a podcast he recorded that fits what he is writing. He is giving the visitor the ability to choose one or the other. The future of blogging is going to be interesting. People's attention spans are so small that reading is becoming a thing of the past. He also added his opinion that there will be others that will say that's not true. He loves to write, but often time's people prefer audio and even more so, video.

5. Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

Currently, many professionals are suggesting that blogs have tremendous potential as tools for online communication and for reaching diverse publics. Interestingly, however, scholars have been saying the same thing about the Internet for almost 10 years and most organizations have not figured out how to use their Web sites well except to sell things.

Interest in blogs and blogging has increased dramatically in recent years. Weblogs or blogs can be described as a form of personal, easy–to–manage Web sites with content presented in reverse chronological order. Bloggers are also frequently
described as influential agenda setters. For instance, blogs have been found to have influence on media coverage of politics as well as facilitating communication among individuals and organizations. It follows from these observations that the blog as a form of mediated human expression and blogging as a human activity is of interest to academics from a variety of scientific disciplines. Although research projects interested in various aspects of blogs and blogging are on the rise, few articles have looked at blog research in a cumulative manner. As far as we know, no major review of methodologies, research topics and disciplinary perspectives in blog research seems to have been undertaken.

5.2 Statement of Problem and Methodology

This study investigates the impact of blogging as a public relation tool, whether public relation professionals and organisations are developing the use of blogs to communicate and enhance brand visibility. The method of data collection was Interviewing method in which 3 public relation professionals and 1 blogger were interviewed to examine the use of blogs by these professionals. The results of the study reveal that gradually PR practitioners are developing the use of blogs to grant coverage and build relations with other organisations and companies. It also states that blogs can used as an interactive medium between an organisation and the mass audience.

5.3 Summary of the results

Ultimately I believe that the jury is still out on blogging. A lot more scholarly research needs to be conducted before most organizations start blogging. Public relations professionals should not get trampled by the blogging stampede until scholars, researchers, and especially professionals actually understand them better. A blog will only be useful to an organization if it has someone to maintain it, someone trained in effective dialogic communication, and someone who has the trust of individuals and publics. Posting anonymously to blogs is not a viable option for any organization nor are attempts to manipulate blog audience members with self-serving propaganda or thinly disguised news releases. Blogs are currently great research tools, but scholars need to critically examine blogs and understand a lot more about how blogs function as persuasive/informative tools and how they fit in with organizational initiatives before jumping on the blog fleeting trend.

Based on these findings, public relations practitioners would benefit from reaching and engaging bloggers by specifically highlighting the entertainment and enjoyment aspect of their communication messages. Alternatively, they should use message delivery techniques that stress entertainment or amusement, such as a creative video or games rather than a written news release or statement. Addressing bloggers’ need for belonging - the social aspect of using blogs - public relations practitioners should communicate to bloggers messages that emphasize their role as members of a particular community with unique interests also shared by the client.

The blogosphere is a viable arena for public relations practitioners to extend their communications reach. Therefore, it is important to understand the motivations and traits of bloggers. Thus, public relations practitioners have more latitude in the way they manage relationships with bloggers and how they approach them, and more importantly, they should take into account the gratification bloggers seek to fulfil from the medium.

The results of this research show that although most public relations executives in this study understood the importance and continue use of blogging, they still have many unanswered questions. Organizations and public relation professionals are using blogs to “to engage in important conversations” and to enhance understanding of markets, customers, competitors, and employees. On the other hand, some organizations have tried to put control into social media by instituting organizational social media policies. Overall, blogging was seen as a cost effective way to receive greater reach for research and timely targeted dialogue.

5.4 Recommendations

This study explored the opinions of communication and public relations executives to determine their perceptions of blogging and its impact in today’s marketplace. By better understanding the importance of blogs is implemented in
organizations along with identifying the challenges and unanswered questions, the field of public relations can work towards improvement to gain or maintain a stronger hold on incorporating social media functions strategically and appropriately in organizations. Companies must be prepared to efficiently navigate through the ever changing landscape of social media tools as each day brings new forms of social media. Thus, an increasing number of public relations practitioners find opportunities in the blogosphere; blogs have emerged as a new venue for public relations.

Innovation in content in the past has been centred on distribution, not content, people moved from books to blogs because they were easier and faster to access, and that same reason drove people to move into social media, which gave users an easier way to distribute their thoughts. The downside to social media however, is that it's becoming noisy, hence, your content is being distributed alongside memes, links, and videos, this brought back the need for a social network that doesn't compromise on quality, and that's exactly the future of blogging, a blogging platform that is both social in distribution, and qualitative in context.

Bibliography


Service innovation in case of electromobility

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Abstract

Studies show that electromobility will emerge in urban areas. As urban mobility solutions are changing, electromobility is intended with a big potential of sustainable innovation. Nevertheless, changing the mobility culture depends on certain requirements. According to Urri, the automobile development lies in breaking the dominant role of cars which results in a development deadlock. In order to change the mobility culture, the mental approach to mobility options and the infrastructural conditions need to be considered as two central factors. Future mobility isn’t about less mobility, but rather a different way of being mobile and using different types of mobility solutions.

This paper presents a research project that is based on the systemic-relational approach. It seeks to develop and introduce the conditions of electromobility in an urban area without a well-frequented local public transport by a networked innovation cooperation in four development areas. The central goal of this work is the integrated development of service innovation of technical and non-technical manner based on the network of project partners, the city council and the university. A change towards electromobility means changing infrastructure, market actors and business models. It signifies a change of social-cultural systems regarding mobility habits, practices and values. One of our main results show that the emotional perception by using experiences of electromobility has a positive effect on its social acceptability which raises the “flow factor” of electromobility.

Keywords: Service innovation, electromobility, new mobility culture, regional development.

Introduction

I. State of the Art

Many studies conducted the future of electromobility (e-mobility)\(^1\) in urban areas (e.g. Pötscher et al. 2010; Boston Consulting Group 2009). Transforming and changing urban mobility into sustainable mobility, e-mobility is considered as a future innovation by taking certain issues into account (Döring 2012, p.563-571). The transition into e-mobility will thus be a challenge and a chance for urban regions to design an environmentally friendly and sustainable mobility form. Urban areas as traffic agglomerations are more likely to become livable cities which also was stated in the work of Gehl (2010). Making cities of the future people-friendly means recreating cityscapes on human scale which includes changing demographics and changing lifestyles. Cities has to be developed lively, safe, sustainable and healthy (Gehl 2010). The transition from petroleum-driven mobility through to e-mobility makes the entire transport system environmentally friendly.

Most of the mobility activities happen in a space of few kilometers, 90% of the cars drive less than 50 km per day (Wietschel & Dallinger 2008). That means that cars are “standing vehicles” for up to 97% of their entire lifespan (Wietschel & Dallinger 2008, p.8-16). These road journeys can be covered by e-mobility without any problems of limited range or loading capacity (Zumkeeer 2011). About 85% of the population is living in cities or regiopolitan areas; in this socio-geographic area most of the short distance traffic happens which is suited for the use of e-mobility (Fraunhofer IAO/PWC 2010; Cresswell 2011; Sheller/Urri 2006; Joos 2011).

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\(^1\) In the following e-mobility is used for electromobility.
Compared to conventional energy resources, e-mobility is energy efficient. As its energy resources are diversified, e-mobility is economically interdependent. The energy supply of electric vehicles is climate-neutral if only renewable energy sources are employed.

E-mobility continues to benefit from the advantage due to the zero-emissions in cities greatly relieving from exhausts and particulate matter. Furthermore, it is considered to be noise-reducing. The range problem is a theoretical problem as 80% of all road journeys are less driven than 50 km per day (Wietschel & Dallinger 2008). However, there are technical and economic arguments against e-mobility as well. The battery technology has needs to be improved because its acquisition is still too costly. Compared with normal drivers, its energy costs are lower especially in the short distance traffic. The charging infrastructure has to be extended. Using e-mobiles is not only linked with technical advantages and disadvantages, but also with a huge amount of social-cultural barriers of acceptance (German Federal Ministry of Traffic, Building and Urban Affairs (BMVBS) 2009). Compared to technical limits, these „soft“ barriers are far more difficult to resolve from a social scientific perspective.

Up to now, the discourse on e-mobility concentrates very much on technical issues. The delays and great deal of resistance hinder most innovation progresses. To hampering factors that prevent electromobility we noticed socio-cultural problems that are of very high relevance in terms of promoting electromobility as service innovation in regiopolitan areas. This issue has been attended insufficiently and so, it is noticed as a research lack in the context of promoting new mobility in Germany. The Fraunhofer Institute for Systems and Innovation Research (ISI) focused on the issue of the acceptance level of electromobility in the society (ZEIT-online 2011). A problem of acceptance is a problem of information. In this project, we counter this challenge by developing a communication strategy by establishing a competence center for e-mobility. However, people learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process that means that users can practically test e-mobiles and e-bikes. Testing and using e-mobility has been identified as key promoters of social acceptability.

The rest of the paper is structures as follows: Problem statement, methodology and empirical case study, results and conclusion.

II. Problem Statement

A change towards e-mobility is not only related to the change vs. replacement of vehicles, but also to a change in infrastructure, market actors and business models. It signifies a change of social-cultural systems regarding mobility habits, practices and values (Peters et al. 2012). This can be achieved by changes in behavior and changes of contexts for instance through a change in the public discourse around e-mobility and increasing the attractiveness for the users so that the “coolness of flow” factors rises (Bergmann et al. 2015).

In most of the studies on e-mobility, user acceptance of e-mobility is indicated to play a key role in terms of new mobility. The probability of rational justified changes is lower than raising the emotional perception by using electromobility and increasing visibility (Schneider et al. 2013). In Germany, cars still have a function of distinction and status although this just decreases in the younger generation (age of 20-30) whereby the older generation is still too much fixed on cars as a status symbol (Bratzel 2011). This entails that the issue of mobility is not purely a technical issue. Mobility habits and concepts are strongly socially influenced and shaped by habitual behavior (Bergmann & Daub 2016). Younger generations are strongly socially influenced and shaped by habitual behavior (Bergmann et al. 2015).

This research project started in 2014 and is still in progress. Its goal is to promote and develop regional e-mobility by a network of different actors. This field research is located in Siegen, a regiopolitan area in Germany. The city of Siegen is a university town with about 19,000 students that shows the big relevance and the need of a well-frequented local public transport (University Siegen 2016). At this point, the project realization faces difficult challenges as there is no developed infrastructure for new mobility.

The objective of the project is to introduce the conditions of e-mobility in an urban and rural structured area by a networked innovation cooperation with 5 regional companies including the city of Siegen and the University of Siegen which happens in 4 development steps. There is a research lack of introducing and analyzing regional e-mobility by an integrated network of different actors in a field with no developed infrastructure for new mobility. The central goal of the project is the integrated development of service innovation of technical and non-technical manner based on network with project partners. Specific application-orientated approaches will be developed in this field to transform cross-linked systems of regional mobility into
e-mobility. This happens in four separate and collaborative processes. The goal is to connect and realize these service developments. The challenge is to introduce the conditions of e-mobility in an urban area without a well-frequented local public transport by a networked innovation cooperation. The project is divided into four development steps. We have the expectation that the integrated project partners will realize these four development steps.

- **ECARPOOL** = Converting the fleet into e-mobility
- **RESTRO** = Service system regional charging stations (local charging stations)
- **EMOCAS** = Service system e-mobile-carsharing
- **KOREMO** = Service and competence-center for regional e-mobility.

In most cases, isolated and technology-focused innovation strategies are considered in terms of promoting e-mobility in Germany. Combining these four different development steps in a networking approach with integrated project partners makes this project innovative. Developing service innovation for e-mobility in an urban but rural area requires a contextual-relational approach (systemic theory) to integrate all actors in this process (Seidl & Becker 2006; Luhmann 2001).

### III. Methodology

We work with the systemic-approach to develop service innovation. This approach is based on the process design of the “Solution Cycle” according to Bergmann that consists of three main steps: diagnosis step, realization (therapy) and reflection (Bergmann & Daub 2008).

**Figure 1: The Solution Cycle as a Process Design**

(Source: Bergmann 2014, p.23)

Based on this systemic-relational approach, solutions for complex problems within a social constructed reality become more possible. This will be achieved by an iterative communicative interaction process. Following this approach, the project can be divided into three main project stages. The first stage of the networked innovation process is designed perceptually (diagnosis) which is characterized by the step one (recognizing) and step two (claryfing) as the foundation of the four innovation developments. Throughout the entire project, the diagnosis step is most relevant and decisive for the further development of the project. After many workshops in the years 2014 to 2016 with project partners, discussions with experts, integration of different actors, public relations and networking, the project is now located in the process between diagnosis and realization.

### IV. Results

The project is a networked innovation project which is built up into four different developing sectors (Ds) and seeks to introduce the conditions of e-mobility in the city of Siegen. In the Ds ECARPOOL the key question is how the conversion of the company car fleet of the city can be realized in electromobility. The Ds RESTRO (local charging stations) deals with the question how and to what extent a charging system for the regiopolitan area can be established. In the Ds EMOCAS (e-mobile carsharing) various issues are processed, such as how an e-mobile-sharing system can be established in the...
city area. The fourth developing sector KOREMO (competence center for e-mobility) focuses on the design and practice of a public information point for electric mobility as a central issue.

Level of development in the developing sector ECARPOOL

The objective was preparatory work for the analysis of mobility in the city. Moreover, the mobility analysis should be realized by an appropriate professional institution. For example, the city administration pays more attention on the internal vehicle procurement in the public order office that electric cars are being purchased. The cars are used in urban areas and the electric vehicles are particularly well suited for the intended use. Moreover, many contacts have been initiated in the region and the regional policy to promote electric mobility. The city has also been strongly involved in the development of the discussion about charging stations and initiated contacts with a regional manufacturer of charging stations. State of affairs is that two quick charging stations were provided by this manufacturer and are free of charge. These charging stations are intended to supplement the public charging stations infrastructure.

Level of development in the developing sector RESTRO

Establishing a public nationwide charging infrastructure with "multi-chargers" would be too expensive. Business models need to be developed with a combination of home charging, charging stations for employers and the public charging infrastructure on the basis of an investor model. In the selection of operators of charging stations, an investor or sponsor model has proven to be the best possible solution for the first phase of the project. In workshops, a framework has been set to connect possible charging stations suppliers with potential buyers or investors. In the work of these development workshops, the expertise of two further regional charging station manufacturers has been integrated. Critical to see are the (six) different and incompatible accounting systems of the operators of charging stations so that standardization seems important here.

At the start of the project, three public charging stations (double charging points) with six charging points existed in the city. From the perspective of the public utility company putting up charging stations only in combination with an electric-carsharing system is useful and otherwise the charging stations are used insufficient. Here the billing method is considered to be problematic, especially if the accounting systems of individual power providers are not compatible (roaming systems). This aspect is considered to be extremely important for a comprehensive supply with charging stations because it limits the usability of the charging stations and is regarded as a major obstacle to the establishment of a charging station network.

Level of development in the developing sector EMOCAS

In the regiopolitan area Siegen, the supplementation with other concepts is meaningful and cooperation with other decision-makers as well as organizations and institutions should be established (network expansion). Neighborhood-based solutions are discussed. Ways to create a combination of living and housing related to car-sharing are currently studied with other partners. For the housing industry it is a possibility to create a more attractive value.

The development of a semi-public car-sharing can be a viable business model. During the day (e.g. from 7am to 5pm) the vehicles are used by organizations or companies and serve as service vehicles and on the weekends and evenings or at night the vehicles will be provided to citizens under car-sharing terms. The car pool should include not only electric vehicles but also vehicles with combustion engines or hybrid technology to cover longer distances. This mixed form on offer is meaningful to make people familiar with the new technology, reduce tension and to alleviate the "range discussion". Furthermore, turned out in the diagnosis that a purely electric car sharing in a rural area that still has no previous experience with car-sharing services, cannot be operated profitable.

Level of development in the developing sector KOREMO

An important knowledge of the first “e-mobility conference of Siegen” in 2014 was the great interest of citizens in the wide range of electric vehicles. It was stated that this interest was associated with a lack of experience and a lack of information. The exhibited electric vehicles have been extensively and continuously used by visitors of all ages. As part of the objective concept, the core tasks, were defined and already first approaches to public relations were developed. The exhibition concept revealed two sub-areas. Companies are offered an initial consultation for their vehicle fleet management. Furthermore, the center realizes through workshops a close cooperation with policy makers and stakeholders. Citizens can check locally through various electric vehicles and sea trials. This is made possible by the project partners and a further newfound value partner.
At the interface between the two groups, information and mobility events are regular organized by the competence center and a virtual mobility platform is going to be set up, which acts as a focal point for citizens and businesses. Suggestions for improvement can be posted and discussed.

V. Conclusions

This paper outlined that the future of electromobility is in urban areas. The end of the automobile (path-) dependency forces cities to move beyond car-based city planning. Therefore, the mobility culture has to be changed by two central factors: the mental approach to mobility options and the infrastructural conditions. The transition into electromobility will thus be a challenge and a chance for urban regions to design an environmentally friendly and sustainable mobility form. Urban areas as traffic agglomerations are more likely to become livable cities which also was stated in the work of Gehl (2010). In regiopolitan or urban areas most of the short distance traffic happens which is suited for the use of electromobility. The change towards electromobility is not only related to the change vs. replacement of vehicles, but also to a change in infrastructure, market actors and business models. It signifies a change of social-cultural systems. This can be achieved by changes in behavior and changes of contexts. In most of the studies on electromobility, user acceptance of electromobility is indicated to play a key role in terms of new mobility. The probability of rational justified changes is lower than raising the emotional perception by using and testing electromobility.

Our project goal is to introduce the conditions of electromobility in an urban and rural structured area with a high automobile-dependency. We work in a networked innovation cooperation with regional companies. The central goal of this work in progress is the integrated development of service innovation of technical and non-technical manner based on network with project partners. Developing service innovation for electromobility in an urban and rural area requires a contextual-relational approach to integrate all actors in this process. We expect the development of specific application-orientated approaches in this field to transform cross-linked systems of regional mobility into electromobility. This happens in four separate and collaborative processes. The goal is to connect and realize these service developments. Two key results have been emphasized as critical factors for e-mobility success so far:

- Emotional perception by using experiences of electromobility has a positive effect on the social acceptability of electromobility which raises the “coolness resp. flow factor” of electromobility.
- A well-developed infrastructure of the local public transport is fundamental to change the automobile-focused mobility culture and promote future mobility that isn’t about less mobility, but rather a different way of being mobile and using different types of mobility solutions.

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Synonymy in the Phraseology Units with Adjective Values  (Review in the Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian Language, 2010)

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Abstract

The studies of understanding and semantics in Albanian language are not in right level as they have always been behind the studies of expression or structures. This paper is mainly a structural semantics, so it is totally supported on the “Phraseology Dictionary of the Albanian Language” of the Academic Jani Thomai. The main purpose of the paper is to treat the semantic relation of the closeness and understanding equality in the phrasal units with adjective values in Albanian language, by trying to analyze in details some semantic classifications, to give typologic phenomena by seeing them connected and not resolved with the morphologic classifications, but also particular phenomena related to this lexical grammar class. This paper is supported within the lexicography and structural semantics only in syncronic analyses, and we have often used the method of semi analyses, by approaching these lexical semantic units to notice the features and synonymous phenomena, the paper has elements of working with componential and ditributing methods. We talk about three issues, Phraseology in Albanian language; Phraseology Dictionary of the Albanian Language of Jani Thomai; Synonymy of the values of the phraseologic units with adjectives. This paper evaluates the phraseology of synonymy as a developing dictionary not only through an illustrative subject, but also rises important problems such as the accuracy of explaining the categorial explanation of the phraseologic units with adjective values (by extracting a verbal part which restrains them from the category of predictivity and goes totally to the attribution or feature marking, etc..)

Keywords: phraseologic expression, adjective value, synonymous phenomena, systemic phenomenon, semantic relations.

Introduction

a. A brief view of phraseology in Albanian language

It is known that the phraseological unit (in addition to the word) is a unit of the lexical structure of a language, as well as the lexical structure of the Albanian language. The Academic Jani Thomai states that “The lexical meaning of the phraseology unit is accompanied by grammatical meanings, so the whole character of the meaning is accompanied by the general grammatical features of the phraseological unit that appear under certain terms of the phrase. The limitations on the number in the parts, in the form and their order, in the syntagmatic relations and the type of meaning constitute the idiomatic of the phraseological unit, which is not always of the same level. This idiomatics leads the phraseological unit towards unification, so towards lexicalization (similar to the compound word), in contrary to its open structure. In this paper we will discuss the lexical-grammatical features of the phraseological units (parts of speech that belong to them), the type of structural and semantic formation, the paradigmatic grouping (synonyms, antonyms, homonyms) for regular syntagmatic relations (syntax) etc.”

1 J. Thomai, Phraseologic Dictionary of Albanian Language, Tirane
In our paper is important the concept of the meaning of phraseological units, for the pragmativ realtions that these units have with other lexical units (pharesological units or not, or words), in the semantics aspect etc..

b. The Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian language and phraseological synonymy

This paper was totally supported on the Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian Language developed from the lexicograph and Academic phraseolographer J. Thomai, a paper that is frequently cited in the pages of this work. This dictionnary was published in 1999 and was reedited and updated for the author himself in 2010. The illustrating phaseologic material to analyse the reviews we extracted from the Dictionary of the last publishing of 2010.

Phraseology in Albanian language is still enriching, with an infinite expression possibilities. The albanian language has exceptional aonomies on the creation of phraseological units. But aou laguage is gettin gricher from the foregin language contributions too such as English and Italian language.

In the Introduction of the Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian language, the author J. Thomai has treated the phenomenon of phraseological synonymy, a brief research, summarized, but very informative and on a scientific level. We have based our paper mainly on this material and in the concepts of its conception for this semantic relation.

In this introduction, the researcher poses some questions by providing frequently defined answers. He emphasizes that “The first question to be asked is: what are the similarities and differences of phraseological synonymy and lexical synonymy? Synonyms and phraseological synonyms are not similar to the lexical ones. In phraseology generally there are more synonyms and less synonymous verses. The parts of synonyms and synonymous verses are different from the structure and the formation, are more heterogeneous, unlike from the synonyms and the synonymous lexical verses. In phraseology we have synonyms of structures with a common part, synonymy of lexical types, etc., which is explained by the syntax areas of the phraseology. Synonymous with methe synonymy woth particular lexemes is part of this verse.”

Here is a particular illustration

1. The academic J. Thomai states that “In phraseology there are more phraseological synonyms and less synonymous verses”. This is partly correct, especially for the synonymy in the units with adjective value, because based on the material extracted from the Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian Language, 2010, we have found more synonymous verses than synonymous phrases. It is true that Albanian language has a two part adjective phraseological synonymy (constructed from two phraseological units), such as:

(Éshtë) arkë e mbyllur (e ndryeme) (dikush) e mban të fshehtën e nuk ua thotë të tëjërve; nuk u hapet të tëjërve (është) varr i mbuluar. - Besa, Frani s’i ka ngja aspak Palush Ndreut, që asht si arkë e ndryeme. (Let. art.). Eng: faithful does not show other's secrets;

Thes me dy gryka përb. 1. Njeri që s’ngopet kurrë, lakmitar; thes i shpuar. 2. Njeri me dy faqe, që pranon çdo gjë e pajtohet me çdo gjë; mësallë me dy faqe. Paraja e bën njeriun tahmaqar, thes me dy gryka. I harron gjithë të tjerat, vec parasë. (Let. art.). Eng: greedy

1 Synonymous phraseology with adjective values may be found in other lexicographic works such as Fjalar frazeologik ballkanik, a very important work in which the researcher and the coauthor, J. Thomai, writes that*“Fjalar frazeologik ballkanik* (1999, with 5000 phraseological units in five languages: albanian-bulgarian-greek-romanian-serbo-croatian) developed from Jani Thomai, Xhevat Llosi, Rusana Hristova, Kosta Qiriazati and Ana Melonashi, includes the basic phraseologic corpus of albanian language, extracted by selection from the main phraseological corpus of 12000 units; this dictionary is the first of its kind not only for balkanic languages but the european ones too; its values are scientific, theoretical and practical; the dictionary witnesses through the phraseology the similarity that languages of this region have in common and strengthens the idea of a unity of balkan languages; over half of the phraseologic units are in the same in content and meaning in all five languages, the other part is similar to four languages; more similar are albanian and greek language and then rumanian; this shows an earlier relation of the albanian language with these balkan languages; through these linguistic relations we understand some close elements of the history and the way of living of these nations, their ethnic culture and thinking; the dictionary serves directly not only the balkanic language researchers but all of those who want to learn on eof these languages, translators, writers, tourists, and others who need the interlanguage comparisons in phraseology.”. See in more details J. Thomai, Lexicology of labanian language, Tirane, 2008, pg. 327-328
2 V. Memisha, About the exchange of the free co-words in the phraseologic unit in Albanian language, SF, 3-4, 2006, pg.
The phraseological dictionary (Thes i shpuar) serves as a full characterization of the phraseologic units, and the determination of the synonymous relations between them. Here are some synonymous relations in various levels for the following verses:

**Eng:** a crowd of incompetent people

**Alb:** Thes me pleshta tall. grumbull njerëzish të paafet e të papërshtatshëm për një punë; diçka krejt e pamundshme, stan me lepuj. - *Le që ti erdhe të na bëhet grup e të na komandosh. Mirë mendon, po a bëhet thes me pleshta, a derëbardhë?* (Let. art.).

But, it is also true that most of the adjective synonymy is not constructed by synonyms, but with verses of phraseological units such as:

(Kapardiset) **si gieli majë plehut** (dikush) hiqet si i zgjur e mbahef me të madh, kreksotet e mburret shumë; (kapardiset) **si kaposhi majë plehut**; (kapardiset) **si këndesi majë plehut**; (kapardiset, kreksotet) si **maçoku në thekër.**

**Eng:** boastful

(Eshë) bërë kockë e lëkurë (dikush) shumë i dobët eshtë bërë asht e lëkurë; eshtë bërë cipë e kockë; eshtë bërë bark e shpinënë; (eshtë) për ta ngjitur pas murit; (eshtë) me dy fije brinjë; nuk i ka mish brinjja; i numërohen brinjët (fijet e brinjve); eshtë bërë cingaridhe krahin. (eshtë bërë) për në plasë të derës; eshtë bërë lëkurë maceje; i tharë në tyn; eshtë bërë bishtajë - *Më mbajtëm një muaj në biruçë, po parë drîtë me sy. U bëra kockë e lëkurë, po shpirti nuk më del kollaj.* (Let. art.).

**Eng:** very thin

2. The researcher J. Thomai writes that “In phraseology we have synonymous structures with a same part, lexical lexical variants etc., which is explained with the dimensions od phraseologic syntax**. This is veryfiable for the adjective phraseological synonymy too. Here are some illustrations in Albanian language:

**Eng:** futile work, invalid

**Alb:** Mish pa kocka përcm. njeri i squllët ose i paqëndrueshëm, që mund ta përpuonjnë të tjerët si të duan; tul; **mish (copë mishi) me dy sy mospër.** *Tul me dy sy përcm.* Gjithë jetën ashtu kish qenë, mish pa kocka, ose tul, si i thonë, kurse Dnta i solli në varrim një lumë të tërë njerëzish. (Let. art.).

**Eng:** cunning

The researcher J. Thomai, following the elaboration of the synonymy phenomenon, states that “The second question that arises is: are the synonymy relations in phraseology conditioned by the requirements of the phraseological dictionary? Undoubtedly, they are also conditioned by the lexicographic requirements (of each dictionary), even by the phraseological requirements (of the phraseological dictionary). First, the phraseological dictionary, unlike the lexemor dictionary, not only accepts, but also requires the synonymous relation between the phraseological units. Secondly, in a lexemory dictionary there are synonymous relationships between the word of the phraseological unit, but in the phraseological dictionary a synonym is the relation between the same or very similar meaningful and functional phraseological units. The variation here is accepted only within the limits of the phraseographic structures. This phraseological principle therefore has the recognition of typology in phraseology, even in the level of synonymy.**

This is true because, if synonymy is one of the main tools to explain the meaning of a word in an explanatory vocabulary, this process involves the synonymous words rather than the synonymic phraseological units. The latter are rarely involved or used because they have more connotative than denotative values. Here is an illustration: in the synonymous group with the phraseological adjectives in the Phraseological Dictionary of Albanian Language **Thes i shpuar,** among other meanings there is the meaning of (open person) **njeri i hapur (teneqe e shpuar; daulle e shpuar; shoshë e prishur.**

The researcher J. Thomai emphasizes that “The difference of the semantic element of the overlayers in phraseology is mandatory for the reason that phraseology has that relevant characteristic. The revelation of this value in phraseology serves as a full characterization of the phraseologic units, and the determination of the synonymous relations between them. Here are some synonymous relations in various levels for the following verses: **i pjell edhe muskha (dikujt) i i pjell...**

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c. Synonymy in the phraseological units with adjective values

Just like words, the phraseological units are characterized from the lexicologic categories of synonymy, antonymy, homonymy, polysemy etc. The adjective phraseological units have categoric meaning of the adjective, which means they have an adjective value and function as adjectives in the language. From the phraseologic dictionary of Albanian language we have found some unit groups with adjective values that enter into equivalent meaning relations (very very rarely) and mainly in synonymous relations: Note: in order not to loose the meaning from translation, these illustrations are not translated in English language in detail, but with a synonym word.

1. Units that are created from two noun parts in contrast or determination:

(È ka) bukë e djathë diçka (e ka) shumë të lehtë, mund ta bëjë pa ndonjë vështrirësi; (e ka) një kafshatë bukë; nuk e ka për gjë. - Për mua, këthè punë e kam bukë e djathë, për dy sahat e mbaroj, po ata pesë duan dy ditë. (Ligj. fol.). Eng: very easy for me

(U bë) gazi i botës (dikush) u bë qesharëk, e tallin të gjithë; u bë lojë e të tjerëve; (u bë) beja e dheut. - Ta merr mendja që s’u ngrita dhe mirë bëra, se atëherë do të bëhesha gazi i botës. (Let. art.). Eng: people laugh at...

(Èshtë) gogëi mbi ujë (dikush) mospërë. (Èshtë) i lehtë nga mendja, (është) mendjelehtë; (është) kashtë mbi ujë. - Ti je gogël përmbi ujë, o bëri / Se mendja të ka tretur, është bërë fir. (Let. art.). Eng: snooty

(Èshtë) bërë kockë e lëkurë (dikush) shumë i dobtë është bërë asht e lëkurë; është bërëципë e kockë; është bërë bark e shpinë; (është) për ta ngjitur pas mürët; (është) me dy fije brinjë; nuk i ka mish brinja; i numërohen brinjët (fijet e brinjëve); është bërë cingaridhe krahin. (është bërë) për në plasë të derës; është bërë lëkurë maceje; i tharë në tym; është bërë bishtajë - Më mbajtën një muaj në birucë, pa parë dritë me sy. U bëra kockë e lëkurë, po shpirti nuk më del kollaj. (Let. art.). Ta merr mendja që s’ka asgjë, ai që i tregon të gjitha ç’di; (është) mendjelehtë; (është) këtu i lehtë nga mendja, (është) mendjelehtë; (është) kashtë mbi ujë. - Ti je gogël përmbi ujë, o bëri / Se mendja të ka tretur, është bërë fir. (Let. art.). Eng: very thin

(Janë) mish e thua janë të lidhur fort njëri me tjetrin, nuk ndahen dot, janë shumë të afërt dhe e duan shumë njëri-tjetrin; (janë, u bëri) mish e gjak; (janë) motër e vëlla; (janë) si sapuni me shparcën; (janë) arkë e dry. Nënat janë tashti mish e gjak me fëmijët e tyre. Të bashkuarine ta ma te bëjnë këtë luftë më të rreptë. (Let. polit. -shoq.). Burri e grua - mish e thua. (Prov.). Në atë kohë ishim shumë të afërtë, mish e thua, por koha na ndau e na largoi. (Let. art.). Eng: very connected with each other, unseparable

2. Units that are created from a noun and an adjective emër:

Daulle e shpuar. 1. Lliafanë e i padurueshëm, që flet shumë e s’bën asgjë. Zoicës që fëmijë nuk i pushonte goja, xërr, xërr gjithë ditën si gjinkalla, daulle e shpuar. (Let. art.). 2. për. Që nuk di të mbajtë asnjë të fshëhtët, tenëq e shpuar; thes i shpuar (i grisur). - Kam një grup shumë të mirë, të fortë. Sigurisht edhe viçi këtu e ka ndonjë daulle e shpuar. (Let. art.). Eng:talkative

Thes i shpuar (i grisur). 1. Ai që s’ka asgjë, njeri i varfër. 2. Njeri që nuk kursen, dorëshhuar, dorëshpuar. 3. Ai që s’ngopet se ngrijoi, sado që t’i japësh; thes me dy gryka. 4. mospërë. Njeri që s’mban gjë të fshëhtë, ai që i treqen të gjitha ç’di; tenëq e shpuar; daulle e shpuar; shoshë e prishur përmb. - Hajde, gëzuar Vitin e Ri, o thes i grisur! - Dhe, duke i buzqëshur, se i i tharë në pëllëmbë të derës. (Let. art.). Burtë e grua - mish e thua. (Prov.). Në atë kohë ishim shumë të afërtë, mish e thua, por koha na ndau e na largoi. (Let. art.). Eng: very very poor, very open

(Èshtë) vair i hapur. 1. (dikush). Është shumë plak e shumë i sëmurë, është afer vdeqjes, nuk ka asnjë shpresë shqetërimi. 2. (dëcka). Është dëcka që nuk ka përunduar, që duhej të ishte mbaruar prej kohësh, që ka mëtuar pa u kryer e na dhemb për të. Kur të lind një fëmijë me cene trupore dhe s’ka shërim, ai është vair i hapur për prindin. (Let. polit.-shoq.).
- Do të vendosni apo jo, për atë djallo kaminë, që është varr i hapur mu në prak të derës? (Let. art.). Eng: very old and sick

3. Some phraseological units with adjective value begin with the linker like: this are created according to a comparison and give a high level of quality, but are used with an adverbial value.

(Rri) si pulë e lagur (dikush) përçm. rri i frikësuar e i drurut; rri i përulur e i nënshtuar, sikur ka bërë faj ose ka frikë; (rri) si mace e lagur; (rri) si edh i shtirë; (rri) me bishë ndër shalë. Nuk fliste, vetëm rinte në qoshën e sallës si pulë e lagur (Let. art.). Kushedi sa herë i kampat nënës në shtëpi si pulë e lagur. Ajo e skrleta më rëmbent dhe më jepte zemër. (Let. art.). Eng: like a wet chicken, shameful

(Ëshë) si veza në mes të kulaçit (dikush) është pa punë e nuk e prish gjakun për asgjë, ngaqë vetë është në gjendje shumë të mirë; (ëshë) si veshka në mes të dhjamit; (ëshë) si pjergulla në fik (të bardhë). Atij qe mbushur mendja se qe lindur për qejf e për të ndenjur si veza në mes të kulaçit. Prandaj s'voni dhe e thirri doktorin. (Let. art. p.).

4. Some phraseological units with the preposition with: Those “are phraseologic units with a possession meaning; the preposition with responds to the verb Have; so, with cabbage in the head is the same as that has cabbage in the head. Some units have adverbial meaning: with cold blooded”, with thoughts on the head “carefully, well thought actions” etc.

Me buzë varur (të varur) i vrenjtur, i ngryhur, i zemërur, i pakënauqer e i mërturit; gjithë (tërë) buzë; (gjithë, tërë) hundë e buzë; me hundë varur (të varur) e buzë; (gjithë, tërë) sallës si pulë e lagur (Let. art.). Kushedi sa herë i kam vajtur nënës në shtëpi si pulë e lagur. Ajo e skrleta më rëmbent dhe më jepte zemër. (Let. art.). Eng: like the drowned in the jam

5. In Albanian language there are some units that are created from two verbs: fol e qesh “funny”, qesh e ngjesh “ironical”, shkel e shko “an action in vain” ...

Qesh e ngjesh duke e sharë diku e duke i bërë diku të keqe si me shaka; me të qeshur e me të ngjeshur. Zijai ndëroni bisedë që të mos e linte Safetin të vazhdon më qatë me atë metodën e tij qesh e ngjesh. (Let. art.). Eng: ironical

Ha bukën e përmbysh kupën (dikush) nuk ta di të mirën, është mosmirënjohës, është bukëshkalë; shkel bukën (me këmbë); i bie bukës (së mirës) me shkel; ha mjaltin e prish kosheren; të ha shalqinin e të rreth me lëkura; këtej të pi verën e andej të shan derën; kund. e ruan bukën ndër dhëmbë. Me një bukëshkalë të pacipë, që hante bukën e përmbyste kupën, e kish lidhur fati në ortakëri. (Let. art.). Eng: ungrateful

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1 J. Thomai, Phraseologic Dictionary of Albanian Language, Tirane, 2009

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According to the Academic J. Thomai in this paradigmatic phraseological units with adjective values enter some some type of possessive values such as: \( i \ ka \ buzët \ me \ qumësht \) “(është) still too young”, \( e \ ka \ gjihën \ të \ gjatë \lopâtë\) “(është) talkative, never stops talking”, ka \( hjë \ të \ rëndë\) “(është) stately”, e ka \( kokën \ të \ fortë \) “(është) strong headed” ...”

I ka buzët me qumësht (dikush) mospërf. Është ende shumë i vogël i e papjekur, nuk ka përvój nga jeta, Është kalama; s’i kanë dálë ende dhëmbëlt; Është në pelenë; Është në shpërgënj; i mban goja erë qumësht. - Beqat, i ziu, .. pret të mitet, se i ka buzët me qumësht, - tha Nurja dhe qesni me zë të lartë. (Let. art.). Eng: too young

7. Phraseological units that come from the verbs, as a first part a participial adjective: \( i \ bërë \ bishë \) "very wild", i bërë dërr "very annoyed", i bërë shoshë "punctured; chopped", i cepur me pë të bardhë "well hidden", i rrahur me vaj me uithull “has gone through too much in life, experienced” ...

I pikuar (i pikur) nga qielli (dikush) shumë i mirë i shumë i bukur, që dallohet shumë nga të tjerët për veti të mira e të malla; (si) i rënë nga qielli. Në qoftë se vjehrra do të bëjë dallime të dukshme ndërmjet nuses e të bijave ose ndërmjet nuses e djall, atëherë nusja, edhe sikur e pikur nga qielli të jetë, do të mërzitet. (Let. polit. - shq.). Eng: exceptional

I vdekur e i paqarë. 1. Që Është duke vdekur, shumë i dobët; i vdekur e i paqëndrueshëm, që mund ta përpunojnë të tjerët si të duan; tul; jërkë (diken) i ndalë, / Ishi i bukur si çupë / Dhe për ta pirë në kupë. (Let. art.). Eng: very beautiful, very handsome

8. A group of phraseological units in variuos uses have noun values and adjective values, by creating a homonymic relation and keeping thir synonymous relations:

Mish pa kocka përcm. njeri i squllët ose i paqëndrueshëm, që mund ta përparujnë të tjerët si të duan; tul; mish (copë mishi) me dy sy mospërf.; tul me dy sy përcm. Gjithë jetën ashtu kish qenë, mish pa kocka, ose tul, si i thonë, kurse Drita i solli në varrim një lumë të tërë njeri. Eng: weak

Dhepër plakë (e vjetë) njeri shumë dinak, i regjur në hile e drefhi; skile e vjetët. -Ai, i dashur, ka qenë dhepër plakë...E vlerësoji gjendjen dhe e kthue drejtimin e barkës nga perëndimi. (Let. art.). Eng: cunning

Teneqe e shpuar mospërf. 1. Njeri që i lëshon fjallët pa u menduar; ai që fet mbarë e prapë; njeri që fet shumë, llafzë; kambanë e prishur (e thyer). 2. Njeri që i s’i mbajë gjë që të fshehtë e që zbulon gjithçka duke folur; kambanë e prishur (e thyer). 3. Me Xhikë Stëneskun njerëzit ishin mësuar, e dinin që iishte me njeri dhe nuk i tregonin gjë. (Let. art. p.). Eng: talkative

Thes me arna përb. njeri ilafaqet e zhurmëmadh, që s’i pushon goja e nuk i peshon fjalal; teneqe e shpuar. Me Xhikë Stëneskun njerëzit ishin mësuar, e dinin që iishte me njeri dhe nuk i tregonin gjë. (Let. art. p.). Eng: talkative

9. Some phraseological units create a particular group that in a particular meaning are used without a phrasematic value. In their complete use of an expression they often have a verb value, such as S’i trembet (s’i fiket) syri (dikujt) = very brave.

Të thyen arrën në dorë (dikush). 1. Është shumë i zoti; të merr gjak në vetull. Tre vjet qëndroi si burrë dhe tash po ashtu ta thyen arrën në dorë e s’ia ha qeni shkopin. (Let. art.). 2. keq. Ta hedh lehtë, s’ë ka për gëj të të mashtrojë, ta hedh kur të duash. Pa kuptim i gëjët ai dyshim i ngjitur mbi të, sikur ta thyen arrën në dorë e s’mund t’i zhësh besë. (Pub.). 3. keq. Vjedh shumë ose me manfet; të ha (të qëron) të bardhën e syrit. - Ruaju, biro, hapi sytë mirë, se hajduti atë zanat ka, ta thyen arrën në dorë. (Let. art.). Eng: very strong, brave

10. A special group is formed from the synonymous units with adjective value that are constructed differently from the above models.

1 J. Thomai, Phraseologic Dictionary of Albanian Language, Tirane, 2010
The phraseological adjective units mainly have deep emotional meaning and express qualities that can be used beautifully to feature people according to their characteristics. This kind of group is very rich in our language.

Conclusions

1. The synonymy of the phraseologic units with adjectival value in Albanian language is one of the most interesting semantic relations with various phenomena. Among these phenomena we emphasize the units that are synonymous not only with emphasized values, but primarily with their expressive, colorful values, which are the main feature of these units and one of the reasons for their creation and function.

2. In the synonymy of the phraseological units with adjective values presented in the Phraseological Dictionary of the Albanian language, developed by the academic J. Thomai, which means synonymous verses, there is an intensity or degree of synonymy associated with the graduality in the semantics of adjective units that are equal (as a single word) to synonymous phraseological units.

3. In the Phraseological Dictionary of the Albanian Language, developed by Academic J. Thomai, there is a need to make improvements in the semantic explanation of the adjectives by using the explanatory adjective formulas, because there is often a change in the explanations of many units emerging as dominant of the synonymous verse which some times comes as an explanation for the lexicogrammatic category of verbs, some times of the adverb, nouns, and sometimes of adjectives.

4. As we can speak of the lexical-grammatical replacement of different units in Albanian, in a forthcoming phraseological vocabulary there should be a distinction in semantic-explanatory part but also marking with the morphological elements of the a unit as a part of speech, because the same unit can have a noun value, an adjective value, and at the same time with an adverb value.

5. The academic work of J. Thomait is to be considered as a work of rich phrasalism, but when the unit has a double value, it should be separated at least by numbers (even though we have a homogeneous unit) and the expressions should be directly related to the lexical-grammatical value of the unit, resulting in ambiguity.

6. It is necessary and urgent to draft a new synonymous vocabulary of the Albanian language, which, in addition to the lexical synonymy, also reflects the phraseological synonymy. This can be achieved by supplementing, updating and improving the Synonymous Dictionary of the Albanian language, 2004, designed by lexicographic specialists of the Institute of Linguistics and Literature, Tirana. The researcher V. Memisha also mentioned this problem.1

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1 V. Memisha, in the article For a new synonymous dictionary of today Albanian, (about the restructure of updating the synonymous dictionary of albanian language 2004), is expressed more concretically that this Dictionary requires an neccessary and immediate update. The researchers have started the work under the pressure of the following factors, as the synonymous assets are multiplied. The Albanian language has a lot of rich synonymous works in lexicography, that pressures these assets to enter in the dictionary. In the conditions of the involvement of albanian world in the global processes and the added contacts, our language is open for news commings, and the synonymous dictionary is open to such commings by giving a priority to the albanian word, especially from the artistic literature;

Synonymy is repeated to the dialectic lexical asset. The synonymous dictionary of the albanian language of 2004 remained in the aspect of words, without presenting the phraseologic synonymy. The update requires the material itself, there is area for improvement which would increase the scientific value of the research.

According to the researcher V. Memisha, the Academic J. Thomai, who has prepared the criteria od the research update, emphasizes that the authors of the dictionary themselves feel that something needs to change. According to him "The synonymous dictionary of Albanian language, 2004" will be updated totally: introduction, the meaning explanations, synonymous verses, examples, complementary explanations, by fixing and updating everything aiming a new updated and enriched dictionary. It should be careful in the cases which need to be clear and completed and are in contrast to the existing dictionary examples. See more in details V. Memisha, Për një fjalor të ri sinonimik të shqipes së sotide (Rreth ristrukturimit e përditësimit të Fjalorit sinonimik të gjuhës shqipe, 2004), në Ditë të Albanologjisë, Prishtinë, 2013, pg. 142-147
Bosnian multiconfessionalism as a foundation for intercultural dialogue

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Abstract

Muslim communities in the Balkans where the practice of Islam had been developed in the European context, can be used as an exemplification of the bridge between the Islamic East and the Christian West. Although for over 400 years Bosnia was under the Ottoman rule, Muslims became one of the many first Yugoslav, and then Bosnian communities, contributing to the dynamic, yet moderate area of ontological and axiological negotiations within the cultural borderland, sharing the living space with members of the Orthodox church, Catholics, a small Jewish community, and even Protestants. The history of the Muslim-Christian contacts in Bosnia involves both the examples of collisions, as well as encounters, initiated both by Christians, and by Muslims. This article analyzes the religious diversity (multiconfessionalism) in the historical and contemporary cultural and social context of Bosnia-Herzegovina, revealing its specificity, dynamics and (often unsuccessful) attempts to conceptualize it from the perspective of the Eurocentric discourse. The aim is not only to portray this religiously diverse makeup, but also to emphasize its potential for establishing ground for intercultural dialogue.

Keywords: multiconfessionalism, Bosnian Islam, Christian faith in Bosnia-Herzegovina, inter-religious dialogue, Bosnia-Herzegovina, multiculturalism

Introduction

Bosnia-Herzegovina as the federal state established on the legal validity of the Dayton Accord, in its current shape and political structure is divided into two autonomous administrative units (entities), i.e. the Federation of Bosnia-Herzegovina and the Serbian Republic, with small autonomous region of the Brčko District. Conforming to the adopted constitution dated December 1, 1995, and following the stipulations of peace accord signed in Paris on December 14 1995, Bosnia-Herzegovina proportionally encompasses Federation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 51% of the area, and Serbian Republic in 49%. According to the BiH State Statistic Agency within the current total population of the estimated 3.9 million, Bosniaks (Bosnian Muslims) constitute 45 percent, Serb Orthodox Christians 36 percent, Roman Catholics 15 percent, Protestants 1 percent, and other groups, including Jews1, 3 percent. In terms of the legal procedures, the Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the entity Constitutions of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as the Republika Srpska all provide for freedom of religion. The legally binding documents also embrace the Law on Religious Freedom that guarantees comprehensive rights to religious communities. On the other hand, as it can be read from the report by the U.S. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor dated October 26, 2009 “local religious leaders and politicians contributed to intolerance and an increase in nationalism through public statements, whereas religious symbols were often misused for political purposes”. Interestingly, the report does not point to some statistically significant inter-religious tensions within the communities, but rather stresses the ideologization of confession by some of the radical politicians and religious leaders in

1 As concluded by the U.S. Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labor “The Jewish community, with approximately 1,000 members, maintains a historic and respected place in society by virtue of centuries of coexistence with other religious communities and its active role in mediating among those communities”.

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the region. Thus, such statistics do not reflect the social and cultural specificity of this state, divided into entities according to the ethnic and national patterns.

Although the repercussions of the 1992-1995 war in the Balkans (and Bosnia-Herzegovina specifically) “segregated” the Bosnian population into separate ethno-religious areas, when examining the dynamic consolidation of the cultural and social influences in this part of the Balkans, a certain “borderland” area is discernible, that can serve as a counterpoint to such “dry data”, which imply rather simplified, homogenous image.

The mountainous geography of Bosnia, located in the basins of the rivers Sava and Drina, along with Herzegovina distinguished in the 15th century with the capital city in Mostar, contributed to their specific, centuries-old isolation from the outside world. This geographic location became the arena of the clash between the Orthodox Church and the Catholicism, “resulting in the unstable religious identification prior to the Ottoman conquest” (Wróbel, 1997, pp. 84-85). As a result, in the face of the Islamic expansion in the first half of the 15th century, the conversion provided a path to the social promotion and to become a part of the Muslim millets (ibidem). On the other hand, millet for Bosnian Christians (despite the latter being referred to as ‘infidels’), were grudgingly recognized for their monotheism, thus, as such they were not subject to persecution (Wynne, 2011, p. 13). Each religious community – administratively referred to as millet – “was placed under the supervision of its own leaders, who acted as agents for the Ottoman, imperial government in collecting taxes and maintaining order amongst their people” (Singleton, 1989, p. 37). This contributed to Bosnian religious exceptionalism, which “distinguished it from its contemporaries within the medieval world” (Wynne, 2001, p.3). as “at a time when religious heterodoxy was being crushed elsewhere in Europe, Bosnia opened its doors to heretics, serving as a sanctuary within a wider Christendom loathe to permit deviant theology to take root” (Wynne, 2001, p.3-4).

The uniqueness of the religious diversity in Bosnia-Herzegovina stems from the four centuries-long Turkish supremacy which resulted not only in the islamization of the substantial part of the population, but (paradoxically) contributed to the settlement of the Sephardic Jews, whose culture (next to Islam, the Orthodox faith and Catholicism) was to constitute the fourth pillar of the Bosnian religious legacy from then on. Interestingly, the flourishing multiconfessionalism was essentially related to the Bosnian peasantry that “viewed religion as a practical matter, focusing on worldly welfare, and it was not uncommon to switch from one faith to another with each change of ruling power” (Fine, 1996, p. 3). Moreover, the adherents of each particular faith lived “in accord with one another (…) there was no wholesale slaughter, no mass expulsion or one group or another” (Fine, 1996, p. 3). Concurrently, as the Catholic Church in Bosnia-Herzegovina drifted from the orbit of Rome, “it entered into a state of schism, metamorphosing into an independent order known as the Bosnian Church” (Wynne, 2011, p. 7).

The above highlights of the historical background of Bosnian multiconfessionalism signal how dynamic, heterogeneous and diverse were the confessional as well as political factors contributing to such a pluralistic cultural landscape. Having that in mind, and making a big timeline “shortcut”, one my wonder what happened in the course of the history that when in 1984 Sarajevo hosted the winter Olympics Games the European press attached much of attention to the harmonious co-existence of various religious groups within the multicultural society of the Yugoslavian Bosnia-Herzegovina, whereas only eight years later “Sarajevo and Bosnia became an arena of the war of everyone with everyone” (Hryniewicz, 2011, p. 18). Such stand contributed to the myth that has sunk into the mass imagination concerning the alleged “eternal hate” amongst the Balkan nations. Yet, a deeper insight into this matter proves that religion was rather instrumentally used as a part of nationalistic mobilization, serving the purpose of ethno-national differentiation. Consequently, the religious symbols were renewed and “traditionalized” in order to be utilized in military operations (Velikonja, 2003, pp. 25-40), what proves the thesis that religion can function as a mechanism sacralizing the conflict, yet it does not necessarily imply the “inherent” conflict-generating nature within a multiconfessional society.

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1 In consequence, the millet system helped to preserve the Christian churches and monasteries in Bosnia-Herzegovina.
During the war in Bosnia-Herzegovina, religion was significantly politicized and ethnicized, aiming at national homogenization. In total, the conflict claimed 278 thousand persons, whereas in consequence of the military (and even more often para-military) displacing or fierce fights taking place, 58.2% of inhabitants of the country were forced to leave their homes (Wojciechowski, 2003, p. 336). Nonetheless, although strongly politicized and ethnicized, some scholars do not consider this war as a religious conflict (Cf.: Sokolović, 2005, pp. 115-130, Abazović, 2015, p. 1). Some arguments supporting this stance point to the fact that within all three involved parties, the ideological communists constituted considerable percentage (Sokolović, 2005, p. 121). Yet, this unfortunately didn't prevent them from succumbing to the ethno-nationalist propaganda, so that Bosnia-Herzegovina became torn by base nationalism and political opportunism. Notwithstanding, one should not forget that the generation involved in fights included those from the so-called “inter-ethnic marriages/mixed marriages”, i.e. one of the parents was a Catholic, whereas the other Muslim, or both were Christians, but one of Eastern Orthodox rite, and the second following the Roman-Catholic doctrine. Therefore, it was difficult to explicitly determine the religious provenance of persons from such religiously heterogeneous socialization circles. Such diverse religious composition of the family socialization was also reflected in the ambiguity of expression of the religious identity, that in such view could not become a key issue of the initiated conflict. Other argument speaking for such optics concerns the claims laid by the involved parties to territorial (and political) aspects rather than appealing (be it only indirect and instrumental) to the rhetoric of the holy war or the need of converting “the heretics” (Abazović, 2015).

Taking into consideration the above, the objective of the article is to provide a theoretical characteristics of the unique religiously diverse landscape of the historical and contemporary Bosnia-Herzegovina, revealing how, in spite of the political demagoguery in the region, followed by Europe-centric and Western-centric interpretations of the religious Bosnian discourse, this area provides an unparalleled example of multiconfessionalism. Undoubtedly, the post-socialist reality and the crisis of identity followed by the return of nationalism and confessionalism could question such stance, yet in such view it is worth pondering over the issue, as raised by the professor of sociology of religion, Ivan Cvitković who asked “…did the war destroy the myth of Bosnia and Herzegovina as a multicultural and multietnic community whose population was characterized by spirituality, nobility, respect, understanding, and coexistence?” (Cvitković, 2001, p. 38). Answering this question requires to take a deeper insight into the history of Bosnian multiconfessionalism, the methodological paradigms utilized to research this issue, and the practice of everyday life in contemporary Bosnia-Herzegovina that could facilitate (or quite the opposite – disable) the intercultural dialogue.

**Bosnian multiconfessionalism – now and then**

In ancient times the area of Bosnia was inhabited by Illyrian, Thracian and Celt tribes, yet in the half of the 1st century AD, when Illyria was conquered by the Roman Empire, it became a part of the Roman province, subsequently settled in the 7th century by Slavs. In the 10th century Bosnia became a self-reliant political unit, ruled individually through own Bans. One century later it temporarily became a subject to the influence of the Byzantine Empire, then Kingdom of Serbia, and from the 12th century Hungary. The latter, under the pretext of fighting with the Bosnian Church considered by the Vatican as heresy, imposed their control upon Bosnia. At the end of the 14th century (during the rule of Stefan Tvrko) Bosnia temporarily regained the independence. Nonetheless, Tvrko’s successors again became the vassals of Hungary, whereas Bosnia broke down into small feudal duchies. It was the time of coming into existence its south-west part. Takeover of power by Ban Kulin (1180 to 1204) marked a turning point for the process of facilitating multiconfessionalism, since it was when Kulin introduced to Bosnia-Herzegovina the Manichaean *bogomils*, whose presence in the cultural and religious sense provided a new self-identity framework for the Bosnian community (Meier, 2005, p. 194). This orientated Bosnians towards the processes of constructing own theological interpretative practices, resulting in the formation of the Bosnian Church (crkva bosanska) (Cirković, 1992, pp. 120-158). The latter was a movement of rather vague provenance, often referred to as having links to the Bulgarian *Bogomils* organization initiated in the 10th century, which appealed to Manichaean, dualistic theology propagating the equality of the devilish and divine power (Malcolm, 1994, p. 23). *Bogomils*
became a part of the activities within the Bosnian Church, both recognised by the Pope as schismatic, thus delivering a crucial argument to the Catholic Hungarians for undertaking armed struggle with the heretical Bosnia\(^1\). This “Balkan-Slavic Protestantism” had its deep social and ethical roots, and played crucial role in shaping the Bosnian diverse religious landscape.

After the conquest of Ottoman Turks in the years 1463-1878 Bosnia was incorporated into the Ottoman Empire, and then Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, which officially annexed this land in 1908. The new Ottoman state was theocratic, subject to the Islamic legislation, i.e. szari'a, what had a great impact on the policies pursued in the conquered territories, as “infidel Christians (referred to as raja) were outlawed, could not carry the weapon, ride a good horse, build new Orthodox churches and distinguished houses” (Fine, 2007, pp. 147-148). Nonetheless, szari'a policy at that time concurrently ordered to respect and “treat the infidel population kindly” (ibidem). Interestingly, “in the eyes of the conquerors imposing Islam by force was not the basic aim of the war […] the conquered peoples were encouraged to convert to Islam in different ways, for instance through low taxes, yet no one had been forced to do so” (Lewis, 1995, p. 27), and although Muslims didn’t require from the conquered population to convert, “they assumed that their subjects would make it at some time in the future […]” (Armour, 2004, p. 63). The universal principle of good neighbourhood relations (komşuluk) was in force (Serdarević & Omanić, 2000, pp. 189-192). On the other hand, the millet policy, i.e. establishing districts inhabited by non-Muslim religious communities living in the Ottoman Empire, marked the beginning of junction borderlands (cultural meeting points) within which contacts between representatives of different religious groups was facilitated and launched.

Taking the above into consideration, it shall be acknowledged that followers of Islam rose from ethnically uniform, yet religiously heterogeneous group of the adherents of the Bogomil Church, Catholic and Orthodox faith, generating in the course of time a specific mentality and cultural identity. It might be due to the fact that religion often served as a community, or even ethnic identifier, hence some patterns of religious practice had been exercised solely within the framework of significant rites of passages such as birth, marriage, and death. Thus and so, given confessionalism Bosnia-Herzegovina emerged as a certain kind of transitional zone between the Balkans and the Mediterranean, making at this northern frontiers the transitional area to Catholic world of the mainland Europe.

Given the limited format of this paper, further analysis of the historical dynamics of shaping Bosnian multiconfessionalism shall concern solely the post-World War II period. The events which took place in the meantime were of great historical importance, however for the subject matter of the religious diversity, they are secondary.

Establishing of the Bosnian statehood was crowned by the recognition of the first National Constitution of the Republic of Bosnia-Herzegovina, dated 31 December 1946. As a result, constitutional frames enabled political, cultural, and social-economic development. Pursuant to the principles of the division between the state and the church, in first years after the war, a freedom of conscience and faith, propagated by The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia Constitution and constitutions of the each of national republics, were sanctioned. According to the first census in Yugoslavia after the war, Bosnians could nationally “define” themselves based on own decision as belonging to other nation (Serbs, Croats, Montenegrins), or remain “unspecified”. The census of 1953 introduced a new category of “Yugoslav-unspecified” for all those “nationally unspecified”, a notion predominantly concerning 998 697 of Bosnian Muslims. For statistical purposes, in 1961 the government introduced the notion of “Muslim in the ethnic meaning”, which at that time embraced 972 960 people (in 842 248 Bosnia specifically). At the same time, in 1961, 265 731 of Bosnian Muslims declared themselves as “Yugoslavian - ethnically unspecified” (Imamović, 2007 p. 563). The above data display a certain flexibility of Bosnians in the approach towards ethnonyms, and the entailed semantics. Approach of the people of the Yugoslav Bosnia can be therefore, in general, referred to as modernist, not to say secular (this of course changed prior to the dissolution of

\(^1\) It stemmed from the fact that this church belonged neither to the Latin, nor the Eastern Orthodox church, yet it performed in Bosnia the role of the “official” church, whereas its representatives and clergymen (so-called djedovi) financially benefited from Bans (landed grants).
Yugoslavia when religion became a tool of social division, national radicalization and ethnocentrism). This, in turn, favoured the existence of religious borderland in the dynamic and full of tensions, yet not confrontational discourse, until the ethno-nationalistic propaganda took its toll.

In the eve of the civil war that began in 1991, Bosnia-Herzegovina was inhabited by 4.5 million of the extremely diversified ethnic, national and religious communities. Based on religious classification, the population in 1991 was distributed as follows: Islamic: 42.76 percent, Orthodox: 29.39, Roman-Catholic: 13.56, Catholic: 3.31, Serbian: 0.69, Greek-Catholic: 0.0717, Croatian: 0.0668, Protestant: 0.0416, Islamic-Catholic: 0.0118, Members of Pro-Oriental cults: 0.0098, Jewish: 0.0052, Old-Catholic: 0.0028, Bosnian Roman-Catholic: 0.0024, etc. (Abazović, 2015, p.3). Perhaps owing it to the growing prosperity within the free market economy, the idea of the multinational state was reflected in the high percentage of the “mixed” marriages, which scale in the 1945-1990 years reached 47% or in the fact, that in 1980s every fifth Bosnian child came from such a relationship (Janjić & Shoup, 1992, pp. 32-33). Significant secularization of the social life in line with the Yugoslavian socialist slogan of bratstvo & jedinstvo (brotherhood and unity) contributed to the harmoniously proceeding intercultural dialogue within Yugoslavian nationalities, whereas the Orthodox churches, mosques and Catholic temples were neither frequently, nor crowedly visited².

It is also worthwhile to bear in mind that prior to the dissolution of Yugoslavia and certain economic and political processes proceeding this, Bosnian Muslims were one of the most secularized Muslim societies in the world, although some substantial group of clergy and the intellectual elite vividly stressed their religious provenance and alliances in Turkey or Saudi Arabia. Yet, strikingly, at the end of the 1980s 61% of young Muslims declared never having been to the mosque (Bougare, 2001, p. 83). On top of that, Bosnian Islam was specific of its sufī tānkāt, i.e. syncretic “folk” form, stemming from the centuries-old co-existence of Muslim Bosnians with the Christian adherents. Moreover, “the brotherhoods […] within the centuries-old presence in multi-ethnic Balkan, lost […] a lot of its former oriental-Turkish character. Albeit, the permanent features prevailed within the tradition of the Balkan mentality and spirit” (Hauzinski, 2009, p. 25). Such tradition joints the elements of the Christian and Muslim culture, creating a specific content-related and cultural borderland stemming from the Greek-Byzantine (Orthodox), West-European (Catholic) and Ottoman (Islamic) provenance.

Therefore, Bosnia-Herzegovina as a multirepublican state, and a sovereign state from March 1992, functioned in specific “melting pot” of faith, forming its cultural, as well as religious, borderland. Such model was feasible due to the fact that religious identification never constituted a crucially determining factor in conceptualization of the cultural identity. This, however, does not prevent from the common process when religion is used as the most favourable tool of ethnic and nationalistic manipulation (Rekšić, 2009, p. 157), and Bosnia-Herzegovina is not an exception here. On the other hand, one should not also forget that, “in its political history […] Bosnia-Herzegovina experienced periods which, from a present-day point of view, define it as the substantial participant of certain integration schemes occurring within Central Europe” (Stankowicz, 2004, p. 72). Interestingly, such integrative projects took place at time when Europe was facing frequent tensions and divisions, whereas Bosnians tried to establish a joint paradigm in the complicated political mosaic, affecting the cultural shape of the reality of its participants. And although an administrative division separating the ethnic groups does not facilitate it, mentality of the contemporary residents of Bosnia-Herzegovina seems to reach beyond this strict, stiff political borders. It occurs that despite weak administrative and judicial system, and despite the fact majority of Serb Orthodox adherents live in the Republika Srpska whereas the majority of Muslims and Catholic’s in the Muslim-Croat Federation, the diverse religious make-up of Bosnia-Herzegovina is an inherent part of their collective memory, and forms an integral part of their cultural identities. To provide an example, Ministry of Education in Republika Srpska introduced to public school teaching curriculum courses such as Culture of Religions, in order to advance the understanding of the moral

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1 It must be also acknowledged that the comparatively tolerant theological landscape has been already disturbed by intercommunal troubles, which emerged already during the nineteenth century.
2 There was a humorous cliché that the former Yugoslavian Bosnia-Herzegovina was inhabited by Boshniaks who didn’t go to Mosques, Bosnian Serbs who didn’t go to Orthodox churches, and Bosnian Croats who didn’t visit Catholic temples.
values based on civic attitudes, society–community engagement, and tolerance. Moreover, the leaders of the four traditional religious communities participate in the Inter-Religious Council of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which continues to operate despite occasional disagreement in funding constraints.

### Bosnian multiconfessionalism and the Europe-centric paradigms

During the war in Bosnia (1992-1995) a theory by Samuel Huntington concerning the clash of civilizations gained its momentum, forecasting that the 21st century would be an era of clashes between civilizations built on separate religious systems (Huntington, 1997). Admittedly in the course of the war each party instrumentally used the religious discourse, yet the U.S. involvement on the Muslim side, followed by the Western support for the Bosnians cause, prove that the Bosnian war cannot be recognized as a conflict of classical, Huntington’s clash of civilizations, and it should be rather considered as a symbol of xenophobic aggression against the idea of multiculturalism.

In the context of the Islamic discourse undertaken within the scholarly world of western Europe and the USA, Edward Said pointed to the practice of western intellectuals in combining the image of the Balkans with orientalism, posing a rhetorical question whether it is possible “to divide the mankind – as in fact it is divided – into clearly different cultures, histories, traditions, societies, even races, and to survive, in the humanistic meaning, consequences of such a division?” (Said, 2005, p. 85). By implying such stance, Said reveals the ontology of divisions, difference and the otherness. Epistemological incomprehension of the specificity of Orient, or the Balkans, entailing the issue of Bosnian Islam, is depicted within the Said’s concept of self-essentialisation of the West: “[…] residents of the West define […] Orient in categories of the West, but also the Others describe themselves in categories of the West, the same as everyone determines the West in categories of the Other (…) of course the way, in which I depicted it, puts the West in the privileged position, as the standard according to which all Others are defined, what is equivalent to a both historical-political and economic majority of the West” (Said, p. 207). What's more, given the discourse of the approach of the Balkans to the alleged West and the discourse concerning the Orient, a specific parallel relation takes place, empowering the tendency of treating the Balkans as the structural form of the orientalism, thus Balkanism and the orientalism become variants of the same kind” (Bakić-Hayden, 1995, pp. 917-931).

Maria Todorova aptly notices that “while seeking the roots of the Western thought leads us in general to Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and the Hebrew Bible, the social and political organisms which developed these traditions, had been skilfully sent to the other, third world. This part of Europe, which as the first one bore this name ¹, became deprived of it, and received, at best, in the purely geographical context, the south-east attribute, whereas in almost all remaining areas it was linked to the Schimpfwort discourses of the “Balkan”, lacking the attribute of the “European” (Todorova, 2008, p. 341). It is therefore distinct, that that image of the Balkans (and of Bosnia-Herzegovina with its religious diversity) as the form of the self-determination of residents in this area, does not correspond with its perception through the lenses of the Western world. Thus, it is worthy to pose the question whether the previously recalled conjecture concerning the alleged “eternal hatred of Balkan nations” is a legacy of the Balkan self-reflection, or - perhaps - constitutes an independent product of the Western thought, making this area subject to “orientalization” in accordance with the Said’s discourse. Such stance evidently portrays the divergence between the actual cultural potential of the Bosnian multiconfessionalism, and the European discourse on multiculturalism, the latter clearly marginalizing the Balkans and stigmatizing this area. As a result, it reflects a certain “epistemological trouble” with the Balkans and the specific complex of the Old Continent. The already quoted Todovora, a Bulgarian historian lecturing on the contemporary history of the Balkans at University of Illinois, gives a harsh judgement concerning the demonization of the Balkans by the “civilised world”, as repercussions of such approach entail the feeling of cultural inferiority of the Balkans. She also pays attention to the fact that stereotypes on the Balkans are not “produced” by the residents of the Balkans themselves (Todorova, 2008).

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¹ Ancient Greeks made reference to the Balkan land on the other side of islands as ‘Europe’.
In the light of the above, the Bosnian multiconfessionalism seems to breach that orientation axis stipulated within the notion of the European culture differentiating *West versus East*. It is worthwhile to see how this dynamic, authentic and full of tensions borderland corresponds with the dichotomous Huntington’s notions of “the Davos man versus homo balkanicus”, where the Davos man embodies the rational, technocratic approach to problem solving, stressing the significance of individual leaders minimizing the emotional effect of the nationalism and historical experience, whereas “homo balkanicus” is a “child of the romantics”, for whom acquiring mass and nations is of greatest importance (Bardos, 2003, pp. 128-133).

When analysing Bosnian multiconfessionalism it is therefore worthwhile to apply a certain level of methodological prudence, remembering that the research projects on the Middle East or Islam are often involved in the so-called “Eurocentric”, “ethnocentric” or “oriental” discourses. Such approach allows to, for instance, put emphasis on the fact that “military conflicts between the adherents of Christianity and Islam, lasting for the first centuries of the existence of the latter, after taking a deeper insight in terms of its cause and course often lose their definitely religious character, assigned to them uncritically” (Nalborczyk & Grodz, 2003, p. 148). Quazi-historical stereotypes of the supposed eternal Balkan hate between religions and nations “live” according to their own narratives, while “cultures of each of nations (i.e. Bosnian Muslim, Croats and Serbs) have been subject to the permeation along with their characteristic features upon confrontations, contacts and interactions, at times changing its position towards the Other, yet never at cost of annihilating one of them” (Miočinović, pt. 53). Thus, the religious diversity of Bosnia-Herzegovina can provide a point of reference not only within historical and intercultural analyses, but for the real-life agenda of intercultural and educational nature.

**Conclusions**

Bosnian religious diversity comprises Catholic-Croatian, Orthodox-Serbian and Islamic culture, which “through the similar language and mentality creates ethnic, cultural, confessional and civilizational area” (Lovrenović, 1989, p. 9). And although religion is becoming an aspect of public practices, whereas “its rituals succumb to politicization, its institutions become pillars of the power and hub of intolerance, as it is the most straightforward, primitive and most evident way of codifying distinctive features for an given ethnic group” (Miočinović, p. 53), the Bosnian religious diversity seem to exist against political demagoguery. Such diversity is feasible due to number of historical and social conditions that favour the existence (even mentally) of this symbolic borderland, including linguistic, cultural-historical, regional elements, followed by some geographical and political factors (Imamović, 2010, p. 40). Notwithstanding, given the words of a Bosnian-Herzegovinian writer Ivan Lovrenović, shall such religious diversity flourish and “become a wealth and cease to function as a curse” (Lovrenović, 2000, p. 119) Bosnia-Herzegovina needs a society driven by spiritual and individual dimension of the religious identity, not its ethnic nor national collective identity (Ibidem). Such stance is also reflected in the Abdullah Šarčević’s argumentation, highlighting the possibility of epistemological agreement between the adherents of Islam, Christianity and Judaism stemming from the shared history, acquaintance of the variety of local traditions, as well as the joint Balkan daily culture (Šarčević, 2000, pp. 224-254). Such essential points of reference can empower the creation of the biographies and the everyday life narration based on cooperation, openness, empathy, or gestures of the friendship and kindlinesses. Bosnia-Herzegovina could provide a unique model of an informal cross-cultural education, functioning despite the political visions of the balkanization, nationalist antagonisms and the trauma of the conflict that have been all a part of the existence and experiences of few generations in Bosnia-Herzegovina.

The Bosnian multiconfessionalism is a result of the centuries-old permeation of the influences of folk traditions, cultural patterns, and political aspiration of the dominance. Indeed, as Magdalena Rekšć highlights, Bosnia-Herzegovina was “a kind of a kaleidoscope framing within a mosaic of ethnic groups” (Rekšć, 2009, p. 162), however all at the same time the Bosnian example proves “[...] how easily the peaceful existence can transform into bloody fights; it is therefore worthwhile to ask a question what steps one should take in order to prevent the potential causes of conflicts” (Rekšć, 2009, p. 172). Taking such issue into account all initiatives which objective is to “get the individual beyond the isolated limits of ethnic community” (Flowers, 2007, p. 42) is of paramount importance, as it orientates toward joint, common goals, needs and hierarchy of values negotiated between the participants of such inter-religious reality on a daily basis. Such social and
educational agendas relay on dialogue as the driving force for the interactions which, as stressed by the Pope John Paul II, “is born out of the everyday experiencing and co-existing one next to another, within the same community and culture” (John Paul II, Eugeniusz Sakowicz, 2001, p.73). Consequently, dialogue as a tool and key mechanism of intercultural potential “allows to notice that the diversity is a capital, and motivates others towards mutual approval, leading to the authentic cooperation, in accordance with the primal call of the entire human family to unity” (Ibidem, p. 68).

Therefore, contrary to the pessimistic political forecasts, it is of greatest importance to support and preserve the wealth of such religious diversity, which in Bosnia-Herzegovina is constituted by:

- shared spiritual matrix;
- Islamic and European set of the core values that do not exclude each other entirely (it is possible to be a Muslim and a European);
- developing of the idea of tolerance understood as openness towards the Other through systematic interactions with the Other on the basis of the organization of social life in contemporary Bosnia-Herzegovina;
- cross-cultural communication lacking barriers embodied by the influences of Eurocentrism;
- openness, sociability, cordiality, confidence, helpfulness, cognitive curiosity, and emotional closeness revealed in the course of intercultural communication (Cf. Pilarska, 2014);
- doctrinal similarities (monotheistic religions entailing similar set of the core values).

Since pluralism (also religious one) inevitably involves conflict (Kekes, 1996, p. 30), intercultural efforts for the dialogue are particularly important for the cultural life, as they provide with new opportunities, and incentives for the mutual recognition and cultural inspirations (Kekes, 1996, p. 30). Some of the positive highlights to the Bosnian multiconfessionalism entail the Interreligious Council of Bosnia-Herzegovina established in 1997, actively participated by the leading professors of the Faculty of Islamic Studies in Sarajevo (promoting moderate religious discourse), and reisu-ulema of Bosnia-Herzegovina, Husein ef. Kavazović, sworn in the 15 November 2012. Establishing the council in June 1997, representatives of the clergymen of Islam, Orthodox Church, Catholicism and the Judaism signed the Declaration of Moral Common Values, committing themselves to the cooperation in favour of the peaceful education. Thus, Bosnian religious diverse borderland forms an axiological context, in which educational, intercultural values can be exercised. Above all, it shall be remembered that Bosnia-Herzegovina was and still can be “a land of unique religious pluralism – certainly not idyllic, as unquestionably resentments did exist, and did erupt from time to time – but one that was remarkably stable, nonetheless, prior to the advent of nationalism during the nineteenth century” (Wynne, 2011, p. 1).

Making reference to the question posed by Cvitković, i.e. whether the war destroyed the myth of Bosnia and Herzegovina as a multicultural and multi-ethnic community whose population was characterized by spirituality, nobility, respect, understanding, and coexistence, it can be concluded that a multi-ethnic society is an on-going, dynamic concept that is shaped not by the imaginary myths or historical concepts, but by everyday life experiences. The more the latter are of dialogic and cross-cultural nature, the bigger the chances for preserving this unique multiconfessional makeup of the contemporary Bosnia-Herzegovina.

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1 As Abazović implies, the “pseudo-religious identification can result in social situations in which religion is merely a referent for group identity” (Abazović, 2015, p. 4).
2 The Balkan civilization enabled development of thee key system processes, i.e. feudalization, Christianization and ethnic consolidation, hence the Balkan civilization circle is compatible with the Western system of values, providing a ground for the social and cultural dialogue of the Balkan peoples.
3 Out of the five pillars of Islam, i.e. main points of reference for the faith and religious practices of Muslims, three elements are shared by the Christian doctrine as well, i.e. prayer, fasting and alms. Cf. Armour, 2004.
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Understanding Students’ Perspective and Use of Technology for Language Learning at Islamic Boarding School

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Abstract

Pesantren or Islamic Boarding school is one of the oldest Islamic Institutions in Indonesia, home to the largest Muslim population in the world. There are two types of pesantren, traditional (salafi) and modern (khalaf). In selected modern pesantren, students are obliged to communicate in Arabic and/or English language as a part of their bilingual program. The implementation of English in daily conversation requires students to acquire high level of English proficiency. The purpose of this study is to provide insight of ESL acquisition and practice, technology use to enhance language learning, and future enhancement of language learning through students’ lenses. The writer distributed questionnaire and conducted focus group discussion to thirty Darul Ulum Islamic Boarding School students. The findings showed that while there are restrictions on the use of technology devices in pesantren, half of students feel that they have sufficient exposure to English through traditional teaching program. However, many students acknowledge that they have limited vocabulary that addresses their daily lives, thus they would like to find more resources that accommodate this needs. Finally, based on the findings, this paper suggests that pesantren allows for more access to technology devices and diverse resources of ESL as well as availability of librarian or experts that can help students to use technology for learning efficiently.

Keywords: pesantren, ESL, bilingual program, student's perspective

1. Introduction

Undoubtedly, almost every child today is sufficiently adept with using technology—digital natives, many term. Almost every child becomes aware of technology devices. They have never known a life without technology and technology devices now become integral part of their lives and they are using them for almost all purposes, including education.

Technology in learning has brought change to education paradigm (Linto, 2015). Education now comes in many forms such as online, blended, and collaborative learning. These changes leverage students' digital skills and prepare them to be a part of digital millennia. In English Language Learning (ELL) scheme, specifically, successful integration of technology will lead to collaborative, autonomous, and active student-centered learning cycle (Linto, 2015; Sung & Yeh, 2012). Students become active participants and researchers (Taylor and Gitsaki, 2003) with access to abundant and diverse resources and information. Research in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has suggested that computer technologies indeed facilitate processes beneficial to second language learning (Sung and Yeh, 2012). With the assistance of computer-based instruction, students are able to enhance their communication competence by folds (Zha, Kelly, Park, & Fitzgerald, 2006).

Islamic boarding schools or pesantren are the oldest and most known Islamic based education Institutions in Indonesia. In Tan (2014), it is stated that of 50,000 Islamic schools in the countries, over one third of them are pesantrens. There are two types of pesantren, traditional pesantren and modern pesantren.
Modern pesantren is a modernized form of pesantren where it applies formal learning system as practiced in school by introducing structured grade system, use of national curriculum, and combination of Islamic studies and general sciences.

As its effort to implement unique and innovative learning experience, pesantren (read: modern pesantren) starts to apply bilingual program format. This format introduces a learning system where foreign languages are used as media instruction for communications within the school and dormitories. The implementation of bilingual program, as Dewanti (2016) explained “is intended to improve the mastery of English skills and also improve Indonesian human resources in the future in order to compete in global jobs.”

For the successful implementation of the bilingual program, pesantren should always reinvent itself with various efforts such as designing comprehensive syllabus, attractive and effective activities, and appropriate teaching method and evaluation. With many benefits that technology offers, it is expected that education in pesantren would also be able to successfully integrate it into their many programs, including bilingual program. Therefore, in doing it successfully, it is essential to know students’ perception, as the prime and end users, on technology integration in pesantren. The author will focus on finding out students’ perceptions and use of technology for language learning.

2. Research Methodologies

Context and Participants

The study was conducted at Darul Ulum Islamic Boarding School in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. Darul Ulum is one of modern pesantrens that applies bilingual program and is commencing English as one of its main communication tools. The pesantren consists of secondary school program that includes junior and senior high school programs.

The sample of this study was selected using purposive sampling. The characteristics of sampling are:

(1) Students who have experienced living in boarding school for at least 3 years; (2) Students who have experienced using English as main communication tool in boarding school; and (3) Students who have learned using technology in classroom. From the characteristics set above, the participants chosen for this study were first-year and second-year high school students in Darul Ulum. A total of 35 students took part in the study.

Research Method

To collect the data, questionnaire and interview were facilitated. The author first distributed the questionnaire directly to students in two gender-segregated classes. The questionnaire consist of close-ended questions and one open-ended question. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out students’ understanding and use of technology in daily life and in academic setting as well as perceived ideal situation for in-class setting.

On August 9, the author interviewed 10 male and 10 female students in group discussion. The focus group discussion was conducted for about 120 minutes with author asking open-ended questions to each participant. The questions related to participants’ experience in school, English language learning experience, technology integration, and familiarity with technology.

3. Findings

Perceived Technology Use

The questionnaire was used to collect the data on students’ perception of technology use. Total of 35 students filled in the questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire intended to examine students’ frequent use of technology in schools and daily life.
As shown on the table above, students generally use technology devices when they are at home (94%) significantly higher in comparison to when they are at dorm and class. This is due to the fact that there is a policy that limits the use of gadget in dormitories. The regulation does not allow students to bring in their personal electronic devices (such as PC, laptop, and hand phone) to dormitories.

On being asked what electronic devices that the students own, all 35 students (100%) own cellphones with 90% of them owning smartphones. Meanwhile 27 students (77%) own laptop, 10 students (28%) own tablet, and 3 students (8%) own PC. In a section where students ranked the activities that they most often do using their device, 90% of students said communication as the most important function followed by entertainment (70%); learning (50%); and others (28%). Communication function relates to call, messaging, and social media apps where students are able to communicate with other person, entertainment relates to video, music, game focused apps, while learning function focuses on apps that aid students in working on their academic activities.

In one open-ended question, students were asked to provide names of applications/functions they often use when using their electronic devices. All students answered calling and messaging functions. 34 students wrote social media apps such as: Facebook, Instagram, Path, WhatsApp, Line, and Twitter as applications they often use. Meanwhile 13 students (majority male students) wrote game apps, 15 wrote word processing tools, and 27 students cited music, radio, and video apps as the applications they often use.

A Day in Pesantren

Daily Life at Pesantren

In focus-group discussion, the author asked students to tell their day in Pesantren in general. Students collectively agree that the day in pesantren started by coming to mosque at dawn to perform Subuh prayer, morning lecture, and vocabulary lesson. After morning preparations, students go to madrasah. The madrasah is equivalent to secondary school. “We learn in school from 7.30 A.M until 3.00 P.M. After prayer, we’ll have extra courses, it can be Islamic studies’ courses, language courses, and school subjects. It’s different each week,” said a student. Their evening spent with Islamic focused subjects and lecturers. Students usually finished their days around 9.00 – 10.00 PM. One student added, “we usually have jam-packaged schedule. Moming is school time and evening is boarding school time. We usually have other extra curricula activities on the weekend too.”

English Language Usage

Following question asked was about the practice of bilingual program in their pesantren. The summary of response is as follow:

“In pesantren, we have rule where we have to either use English language or Arabic as daily communication tool. Usually, one week will be dedicated to speaking Arabic and the following week to English. For example, if the rule is to speak English that day, we will spend the day communicating in English to our peers and ustaz/ah (instructor). If we are found to use Indonesian or other languages besides English and Arabic, we will get warning. If we happen to get our third warning, then we will be punished by the Mahkamah (council). The punishment is diverse depends on how severe students disobey the rule. It can be vocabulary memorization, extra class, or exhibitionism related punishment.”
On account of using foreign language in their daily activities, students added, “we usually use any vocabularies we have memorized. When we couldn’t remember any vocabularies, we combine languages (English – Arabic) to communicate with others.” Another student added, “I feel that I just use whatever vocabulary I can find, in all honesty, I don’t think I use proper English conversation and grammar when talking”. Other students nodded in agreement citing that they often use “broken” English and incomplete sentences when speaking.

**English Language Learning**

Students stated that they learn English vocabulary every morning. “After prayer, we have to memorize selected vocabularies to our устаз/ах. There will be extra time for morning teaching and evaluation for our vocabularies.” Students usually learn the vocabulary given by their instructors. Meanwhile, the madrasah system at pesantren followed national curriculum standard. Students learn English as school subjects for specific designated time each week.

After school, students also attend extra classes. There are usually language classes once or twice a week. In these classes, students learn more about English grammar and language skills. “We have устаз/ах taught us grammar and speaking. They usually prepare some English materials that are similar to what we learn in school”, said one student. On the weekend, students are also able to choose extracurricular activities related to languages. There are options to join English speaking club or debate club as extracurricular activities.

All of the students agreed that their main resources of language learning are dictionary, English subject books, and subject experts (school teachers and устаз/ах). “We always listen to vocabularies given by our устаз/ах every morning. And we usually bring our dictionary to classes too,” claimed one student. “If we have assignment at school that we don’t understand, we usually bring it to afternoon class and ask our устаз/ах”. Another source of learning is school library. Students usually spend their time at library to find the books and other resources for their homework and practice. “When I was assigned homework, I would come to library to look for resources.” Another student followed, “We also learn from our seniors and peers. When we run out of words while talking to them, they usually help us out by reminding the words we forget.” However, another student argued, saying “I am afraid to talk with seniors because we never know that senior is the one reporting us to language council.”

Half the students responded positively when asked if they feel they have enough exposure of English language learning. Later in focus group, students revealed that they have quite a lot of time to learn English language in pesantren. However, surprisingly, many students also reported that they have limited vocabulary. Therefore, they would like to get more language resources that resonate to their needs in pesantren.

**Technology Use for Language Learning**

There are few instances where technology is used as one of the resources in language learning. The pesantren has language laboratory and library. The language laboratory, however, was no longer utilized. As one student claimed, “there was one time when we head to library for listening section. But that was a long time ago when I was a senior student in junior high.” “I guess it’s busted,” another student claimed.

The library is equipped with computers that are connected to the internet. There are approximately eight computers found in the library. Students will use the computers to look for learning materials and resources. Some students claim that they would look up articles, audio, and translation application to help them coping with language learning. However, there is a limitation to how often they can use the computer. One female student explained “We can use computers when it is our class’ turn. We will have to wait until the computer is available if we want to use it outside of our schedule.”

When asked about other instances where students learn using technology, some female students mentioned that their English teacher at school sometimes use projector and laptop to teach English class. “Our teacher prepares a slide presentation for in-class learning. There are few instances when we listen to English audio or watch video.”
The author further asked students about their experiences in using technology to learn English language. In questionnaire, the students were asked whether they have enough understanding in using technology to enhance their language learning. 17 students responded yes, 5 responded maybe and 13 said no. For those students who said maybe/ no revealed that lack of access and exposure to technology as the main reasons. Since we cannot bring our personal smartphone and laptop, we can only rely on teachers, library, and school computers to find learning materials. When I come back on the weekend, I would use my phone to learn, claimed one student. Other students also agreed that coming home and having access to their personal electronic devices are the only viable time they have interacting with technology by themselves.

When asked on how they would learn using their devices, students cite websites, social media, and games. In Facebook, I would befriend foreigner and chat with him/ her. That’s a good way for me to practice my English, said a female student. Male student further said, I learn vocabulary by playing game. I usually play detective or sport game. The table below further showed students’ usage of applications/ software to support their English language learning.

![Image 1. Applications/ Software Use](image)

**Students’ Perception of Using Technology in Classroom**

In the questionnaire, students were asked about their perception in using technology to enhance their language learning. 32 students said yes, confirming their positive reception towards technology integration, meanwhile other 3 students said no. The reasons why they reject technology in classroom were distraction and taking time for in-class setting. For students who said yes, they believed that using technology will help enhancing their language skills (29); providing more language materials (31); motivating their learning process (26) and helping them to connect with more people/ subject experts (5).

**4. Discussion**

This study aims to provide insight to English language learning and the use of technology to enhance ELL in pesantren. The findings showed some interesting results regarding language efficacy; learning resources, and digital literacy.

In general, students in pesantren have adequate time to learn English. The bilingual program and extracurricular activities help exposing students to more frequent English language practice. Through bilingual program that requires students to communicate with English, students should be more likely to acquire high-English language proficiency. However, during focus group discussion, the author found that majority of students show low self-efficacy and confidence.
towards their English language acquisition. The primary reasons are due to students’ limited understanding towards ‘correct’ English speaking skill and limited vocabulary.

Due to policy regarding the prohibition on the use of technology devices in pesantren, students are not able to utilize learning mediated devices to maximize their English language learning experience. This means that students have limitations to internet connection, online materials, and digitally enhanced learning product for language learning. Students mainly used printed materials such as books and dictionary as well as relied on their teachers to learn. Such practice turned students into passive learner who only follow along in teacher-dominated class. As Liton (2015) mentioned that “technology-regulated pedagogy affects the teachers’ role from a dominator of knowledge to a facilitator. It replaces teacher-dominated lesson practices to learner-centric class activities.” With successful technology integration, it is expected that students’ role will change from passive followers to active participants.

Majority of students showed positive perception on the use of technology for language learning. The students identified technology as an effective educational tool that motivates them to learn new language and maximizes their language learning acquisition. Moreover, students also agreed that technology benefits them by providing more materials and connects them with more diverse people. Although the students are proficient in utilizing technology in their daily life, it is found that students have yet to maximize their understanding and proficiency in using available language learning mediated software and applications. From the many available choices of language learning applications, majority of students claimed to use website (31) and social media (17). Unfortunately, many students have yet familiarized themselves with other learning applications/software.

5. Conclusion

Finally, based on the findings, this paper suggests that pesantren allows for more access to technology devices and diverse resources of ESL as well as availability of librarian or more expert person that will help students to use technology for learning efficiently.

Technology is a powerful media that is capable of guiding learner. Technology can offer much more than just a mere-entertainment tool. Several studies have indicated that with appropriate and scaffold use of digital technology, student’s cognitive and social skill can be effectively improved. In English Language Learning (ELL) scheme, specifically, successful integration of technology will lead to collaborative, autonomous, and active student-centered learning cycle (Linton, 2015; ). Students become active participants; they will be able to maximize their learning experience and ultimately, they will be able to acquire high English language proficiency.

For successful bilingual program, maximum English language acquisition and comprehensive digital literacy skills, students need help with their learning. “Learning happens through a cyclical process of engaged low of experience, interspersed with opportunities for reflective understanding and knowledge sharing (Sharples and Pea, 2014).” Thus, learning can only be effective when there is an advanced, more knowledgeable partner that can collaborate with students (Reiser and Tabak, 2014). For the proper and successful use of technology to create effective and engaging learning experience, all pesantren stakeholders (including parents) need to realize that they are pivotal partners that the students need. Therefore, it is imperative that adults (teachers, ustaz/ah, and parents) are able to provide the much needed guidance and scaffolding on effective technology use and comprehensive language learning.

6. Reference


Legal and Institutional Functionality in the Protection of Women – Victims of Domestic Violence in the Republic of Macedonia – Present Situation and Future Perspectives

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Abstract

Gender-based violence is a form of discrimination that prevents women from enjoying the rights and liberties on an equal level with men. Inevitably, domestic violence shows the same trend of victimizing women to such a degree that the term “domestic violence” is increasingly becoming synonymous with “violence against women”. The Istanbul Convention defines domestic violence as “gender-based violence against women”, or in other words “violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately.” The situation is similar in the Republic of Macedonia, where women are predominantly victims of domestic violence. However, the Macedonian legal framework does not define domestic violence as gender-based violence, and thus it does not define it as a specific form of discrimination against women. The national legislation stipulates that victims are to be protected in both a criminal and a civil procedure, and the Law on Prevention and Protection from Domestic Violence determines the actions of the institutions and civil organizations in the prevention of domestic violence and the protection of victims. The system for protection of victims of domestic violence closely supports the Law on Social Protection and the Law on Free Legal Aid, both of which include provisions on additional assistance for women victims of domestic violence. However, the existing legislation has multiple deficiencies and does not allow for a greater efficacy in implementing the prescribed measures for the protection of victims of domestic violence. For this reason, as well as due to the inconsistent implementation of legal solutions of this particular issue, the civil sector is constantly expressing their concern about the increasingly wider spread of domestic violence against women and about the protection capabilities at their disposal. The lack of recognition of all forms of gender-based violence, the trivial number of criminal sentences against persons who perform acts of domestic violence, the insufficient support offered to victims – including victim shelters, legal assistance, and counseling, and the lack of systematic databases on domestic violence cases on a national level, are a mere few of the many issues clearly pointing to the inevitable conclusion that the protection of women-victims of domestic violence is inadequate. Hence, the functionality and efficiency of both the existing legislation and the institutions in charge of protection and support of women – victims of domestic violence is being questioned, which is also the subject for analysis in this paper.

Keywords: Legal framework, Women, Domestic Violence, Institutions, Protection

Introduction

Domestic violence is not an endemic occurrence, and violence against women exercised by their intimate partner is a criminal, criminological, and socio-pathological global phenomenon, present in all countries and cultures, regardless of type of governance, religion, values, and attitudes. Domestic violence is a result of abuse of power and control over members of the family who have less power (be it material, financial, physical, or any other type of power). In traditional and patriarchal
societies, men possess considerably more power than women, so domestic violence is exercised over women. Seen from a global perspective, 40-70% of all women who have been murdered, have suffered their death at the hand of their partner, and according to the UK Home Office, domestic violence is a leading cause for mortality in women aged 19 to 44. In the USA, 1,500,000 women are raped or physically assaulted every year by their intimate partner. In 2002, the Council of Europe declared violence against women to be a serious problem in public health, and a leading cause for mortality and invalidity in women aged 16 to 44. Therefore, violence against women is posed as a security issue and is integrated into the security policies.

The wide spread of domestic violence has resulted in the enactment of numerous international documents within the UN, EU and the Council of Europe, all of which demand the elimination of all types of discrimination against women and prevention of violence against them. The demand is strengthened by the request that countries adopt specific national legislative on domestic violence, protection of victims, and criminal sanctions against the offenders. In the Republic of Macedonia, the Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence has been passed in January 2015. This law, as well as other existing legal instruments ought to have provided complete and efficient protection of victims of domestic violence. However, the number of registered victims constantly is on the rise, and the institutions have failed to make an analysis and a report on their operations so far, as well as on the efficiency of the remaining legal instruments. It is only the associations working in the part of prevention and protection from domestic violence have set forth efforts to analyze the situation and indicate the numerous deficiencies in the Law and the work of the institutions in this area. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to review the application of the Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence in the Republic of Macedonia and analyze its efficiency and functionality, as well as that of the institutions that are in charge of implementing the measures and activities prescribed in the Law.

1. Legal and institutional framework for the rights and protection of women-victims of domestic violence in the Republic of Macedonia

In the Republic of Macedonia, the legal framework on the rights and protection of women against gender-based violence (including domestic violence) is comprised of the ratified international documents, the Constitution, the laws, and law acts.

The international documents (coming from the UN, Council of Europe, and the EU) that treat this issue, guarantee human right and liberties without discrimination on any basis, equality in the eyes of the law, and equal protection by law, efficient legal remedies, equal civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights, and equal and efficient protection from discrimination, including discrimination against women. Consequently, countries are under the obligation to provide equality for their citizens, and thus they need to ensure the equality between men and women in all aspects of the society. This certainly encompasses the protection from gender-based violence, including domestic violence, although unfortunately in many countries domestic violence is seen as a private issue, and is not paid a lot of attention. The 1979 UN Convention for the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women merged all provisions which call for the elimination of discrimination against women in a unique legally binding document, so countries that have ratified it are under the obligation to adopt adequate legal measures and sanctions that ban all types of discrimination against women, to institute legal protection of the rights of women – on an equal standing with men, and provide an efficient protection of women from discrimination. The 2011 Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (the Istanbul Convention) is the first legally binding document of the Council of Europe that has set the international standards in the fight against this security issue, and defined minimum conditions that need to be provided by countries to protect victims (right to inform victims of the support services that are at their disposal and the legal measures – in a way that victims understand, legal and psychosocial counseling, financial assistance, housing, education, training, and assistance in employment, as well as the right to legal advice and free legal assistance). In case a country does not undertake the necessary measures for prevention and protection to the full extent, victims are guaranteed the right to adequate legal remedies against the country, and the right to seek damages by the aggressors, as provisioned in the Convention. The EU also pays great attention to gender equality and protection from violence against women, including domestic violence. The
Directive 2012/29/EU is especially significant, since it determines minimum standards on the rights, support, and protection of victims of criminal acts, inclusive of women-victims of domestic violence. These standards could be the foundation for the creation of a national system for support of victims of criminal acts, including women-victims of domestic violence.

The Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia guarantees the principle of equality and non-discrimination at all bases (including gender), guarantees the respect for basic liberties and human rights, as well as the right to an equal access to courts.

Regarding legal protection from domestic violence, the legal framework foresees the protection of victims in criminal and civil court proceedings. Criminal prosecution of offenders is done according to the Criminal Code and the Law on Criminal Proceedings. The definition in the Criminal Code defines the types of domestic violence, its acts, the consequences, characteristics of the aggressor, and the object of protection. However, it does not define domestic violence as a gender-based violence and hence, as a specific form of discrimination against women. The definition is gender neutral, and does not list the types of economic violence, controlling the behavior of women, and economic and labor exploitation. Consequently, punitive laws in the Republic of Macedonia marginalize the position of women, not respecting their gender specificities, and thereby distancing themselves from gender issues. The situation is identical in the Law on Family, where a clear recognition of the fact that domestic violence is a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women and girls. Although female issues in the area of family law are being correctly treated, the provisions that express full equality of the two sexes do not correspond to the reality in the country. The Macedonian legal approach towards gender issues is visibly ostensible, in the sense that it combines high quality legislation with a superficial implementation and low legal awareness, and in certain issues there are even no adequate legal mechanisms and social-economic instruments for achieving gender equality (Мирчева, Гогов, 2014: 15).

The legal framework for the protection of victims in a civil proceeding is provided by the Law in prevention of and protection from domestic violence of 2014. Two addendums have been added to this Law in 2015, to complete the provisions regarding the responsibilities of the social work centers and the punitive sanctions, and five acts were enacted by the institutions in charge to define the manner of implementation and monitoring of the protection measures against domestic violence, the risk assessment, and the bodily integrity of the victims, as well as the risk of recidivism.

The institutional framework for the protection of victims and prevention of domestic violence has been defined by Article 5 from the Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence, and it encompasses the Center for social work, Ministry of internal affairs, health institutions, and the civil associations that are working in the area of social protection. The common protocol for collaboration between the institutions in charge and the associations on the prevention of and protection from domestic violence define the mechanisms for their actions, as well as the conditions for their work aimed at improving the protection and assistance to victims of domestic violence.

2. Content and vital deficiencies in the Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence

The Law comprises the prevention of and protection from domestic violence. It has been defined as abuse, insulting, infringement on safety, causing bodily injuries, sexual or other physical, psychological, or economic violence that causes feeling of insecurity, peril, or fear, including threats of such actions performed against a spouse, parent or a child, or other persons living in a marital or extramarital community, or shared household, as well as against a current or former spouse, unwed partner, or persons who have a child together or are in close personal relations, regardless of whether the aggressor shares a household with the victim or not (Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, number 138 from 17.09.2014). Consequently, even though the Law provides a broad definition as to what domestic violence comprises, it does not define it as gender-based violence and does not recognize girls and women as an especially vulnerable group. A positive novelty is that it does recognize stalking and economic violence as forms of domestic violence. Another step forward is the fact that close personal relations are not defined as merely relations
between a man and a wife, which also means that it condemns the discrimination on the basis of sexual discrimination in the protection from domestic violence underscored in Article 4 of the Istanbul Convention.

The Law determines the obligation of the institutions and the court in charge to pass interim sentences and to keep special records on domestic violence. However, data on domestic violence cases is only gathered by the Ministry of labor and social policies of the Republic of Macedonia and the Ministry of internal affairs. Furthermore, the existing system, entrusted with gathering detailed statistics on domestic violence and provide public access to that data, has not been improved, even in spite of the fact that UN agencies spent €120,000 for that purpose, and the LYRICUS IT-monitoring software system for social services has not been upgraded (mainly due to insufficient human resources).

Courts and institutions generally observe the legal right of the victims to be accompanied by a person of their choosing, to assist them in preserving their integrity in front of the authorities and provide support throughout the court proceedings. This contributes greatly in the sense of security of victims of domestic violence. What is distressing is the provision that sanctions the failure to report a case of domestic violence with fees up to €1,000. This opposes Article 273 of the Law on court proceedings, which does not impose such obligations, but instead merely provides for the opportunity that such cases are reported. Moreover, representatives of the institutions are reacting against the high sanctions (Чановска, 2016: 20).

The Law anticipates that the Governments will need to enact a new National strategy on the prevention and protection from domestic violence in the period of 2015-2020, which will determine specific steps to improve the protection system and will create a budget plan for its implementation. The previous Strategy was planned for the period of 2012-2015 and was enacted prior to the Law, and even in spite of the fact that a two-year period passed since the Law was passed, a new Strategy has yet to be enacted. In a lack of this vital document that needed to determine the amount of funds to be used for the purpose of protection from domestic violence, in 2016 around €43,650 were intended for this purpose, €16,260 of which was given to the civil associations to implement their program activities to combat domestic violence. However, this amount is insufficient to provide for the real expenses of only one civil association, especially if this association provides support services for victims of domestic violence, such as an SOS-line, crisis center, counseling center, shelters, free legal aid, etc. The minimal annual expenses for such an association amount to around €128,412 (National network against violence against women and domestic violence, 2016).

The Law envisages the formation of a National coordinating center against domestic violence with a mandate of 5 years, which includes representatives from the Ministry of labor and social policies, Ministry of justice, Ministry of health, Ministry of internal affairs, and the Ministry of education and sciences, as well as members of the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia, representatives from the judicial system, the ombudsman, and civil organizations. This center has been formed, but it is not functional, and there are no information as to whether the center has even passed a Rulebook, or has submitted a report to the Government regarding its work. Consequently, there is no institutional monitoring of the situation regarding domestic violence, no report has been submitted regarding the functionality of the Law, nor are there any directions that could be provided on improving the cooperation and coordination between the institutions and the civil associations (Чановска, 2016: 23).

Regarding prevention from domestic violence the Law envisions: the implementation of prevention measures through programs for understanding gender equality and peaceful conflict resolution within the education process; campaigns and awareness raising programs on recognizing domestic violence; introducing continual training programs for staff in the institutions in charge of dealing with this particular issue; providing professional counseling in the marriage counseling centers; providing protection of victims by the local municipalities; foundation of counseling centers and shelters for victims and aggressors; counseling centers for children and parents, marriage and family; local SOS-lines, as well as other forms of housing and assistance for victims. The number of activities that are envisioned by the Law is great, but the capacities to implement them are meager and insufficient. According to the information by civil associations working in this area, in the Republic of Macedonia there are two functional centers for psychosocial support and counseling (run by non-
governmental organizations) and two counseling centers working with offenders (under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of labor and social policies) where the number of offenders who used the services of these centers in 2015 was 16. The marriage counseling centers are functional in 30 centers for social work in the country, but these do not offer specialized services for women-victims of domestic violence. The only specialized center offering psychosocial support and counseling of families with troubled relationships or families with registered domestic violence is the First family center in Skopje run by the civil association HERA (http://hera.org.mk/).

3. Institutional protection

The Law defines the measures for protection of victims of domestic violence that need to be implemented by the institutions in charge, the civil associations, as well as the local municipalities.

The Center for social work is in charge of placing victims of domestic violence in special centers, as well as providing adequate health protection, psychosocial intervention and treatment in a counseling center, offering assistance to the family, legal aid and representation, as well as economic support for victims through their active inclusion in the job market. It is obliged to commence the activities for protection immediately and not more than 24 hours following a report regarding domestic violence. The Law introduces multi-sector teams within the centers for social work in cases when there are reports of endangering the life and health of the victims or other family members. The protection measures are being undertaken by professionals from the Center, associations, counseling centers, and the Employment agency, in compliance with the Law on social protection. In the period of January 2015 to July 2016, 1363 offenders have been reported, and the gender structure of the offenders and victims can be seen on the following chart:

The data on registered victims of domestic violence in the possession of the centers for social work indicate that the number of registered victims keeps increasing. The number of women-victims has seen an increase from 598 in 2013 to 810 in 2015, and in 2016 in only 6 months there have been 416 reports. The number of men-victims has risen insignificantly from 104 in 2013, to 177 in 2015, and in the first 6 months of 2016 the number was 122. However, from the 84 municipalities in the Republic of Macedonia, only 30 have centers for social work, so the services of these centers are oftentimes unavailable for the citizens, especially for those living in rural areas. In addition, these centers do not dispose of sufficient human resources and capacities to be able to efficiently implement the measures stipulated by the Law, and to provide services of high quality. The centers do not provide enough information on the behavior of the police and the judicial organs in dealing with cases of domestic violence, and a large number of victims are dissatisfied with the way these two parties were dealing with their issues, as well as with the responsibility as demonstrated by the centers for social work in offering protection. The capacities at the shelter centers are very small (there are 4 shelters in total), and in 2015 they had only enough room available for 4.51% of the total number of women-victims of domestic violence. The rest did not have the chance to leave their homes and receive adequate protection. This means that the work of the shelters is far from achieving the standards and the real needs. The free SOS-line (national and the line of the Crisis center for emergency placement) is active 24/7, but service is not provided in all languages spoken in the country. There are also no data regarding the number of women
with disabilities who were victims of domestic violence, even though research on a global scale has shown that their number is significantly high (according to some research, up to 49% of women with disabilities have been sexually assaulted 10 or more times in their lives), and there is no system for their protection apart from those slightly specialized services that are inaccessible and unadjusted to the needs of this vulnerable group (National network against violence against women and domestic violence, 2016).

Regarding cooperation between the institutions, the work that multi-sector teams have done so far shows positive results, especially in smaller towns, but in the lack of an official report by the state on the functioning of the Law, there is no information as to how many teams have been formed and what are the specific results from their work.

Employment measures for victims of domestic violence encompass only those citizens that are registered as active job-seekers, an 54% of all women in Republic of Macedonia are economically inactive (State Statistical office), so these measures are inaccessible for them, since they are restrictive.

The law on free legal aid of 2010 needs to provide access for vulnerable groups of citizens. The law encompasses victims of domestic violence, who are given the opportunity to be represented in front of the court. The procedure for receiving free legal aid needs to be concluded within 20 days from the day when the report has been submitted, which is a relatively long time for victims of domestic violence. In order for them to apply for legal aid, the victims need to report the act at the Center for social work and the Ministry of internal affairs, where they need to receive a document confirming that they are victims of domestic violence. This practice is distressing for the victims, so very often they avoid reporting the act of violence, and a large number of victims do not even submit a request for free legal aid to the Ministry of justice. Another reason why victims do not submit their documents is the long period that they need to wait for a decision, especially since this period is not adhered to, and is oftentimes prolonged up to 60 days. Therefore, during the period of 2010 to 2016, only 7 victims submitted their request, and because of the inefficient procedure of approving free legal aid, they often resort to civil organizations that offer pro bono services of lawyers to represent them in court. The majority of these organizations are not registered at the Ministry of justice, mainly due to the rigorous criteria they need to achieve to be registered. Moreover, there is a general lack of efficient and effective access to justice that is not equal for men and women, i.e. is not adjusted to the specific needs of women, since state institutions are not gender sensitive to women’s issues (Здружение за еднакви можности “Еднаков пристап”, Пристапот на жените до правда, анализа).

According to the law, police personnel are under the obligation to investigate the scene of the act every time there is a report on domestic violence at latest 12 hours after it has been reported, prepare a report, and protect the victim, as well as submit the proposal for an interim measure for protection – a restraining order and an order to remove the aggressor from the home. In the period of January 2015 to July 2015, 4,858 cases of domestic violence have been reported at the Ministry of internal affairs. The gender structure of both offenders and victims is as follows:

![Gender Structure Chart](chart.png)
From the chart, we can conclude that domestic violence is indeed gender-based violence, while men are more likely to report it. Proposals for interim measures have been passed in only 86 cases, which indicates that there is a low level of awareness among police personnel about the danger to the lives and bodily integrity of the victim, and the possibility of recidivism. The percentage proportion of victims registered, number of reports submitted to the public prosecutor, and the number of criminal charges pressed against offenders is shown in the chart below.

This coincides with the impression that victims get when they report the acts of violence, that adequate actions are not being undertaken to protect them, that police personnel do not offer them the information available on possibilities of protection and are acting in a passive manner. Furthermore, there is a lack of coordination between the institutions in charge of dealing with domestic violence, and the inadequate training an experiences of the police personnel in dealing with domestic violence cases result in a less than serious approach and attitude towards the victims, especially when aggressors are also police officials (Чалюска, 2016: 41-42).

The law determines the duties of health officials and institutions in treating victims of domestic violence. They are under the obligation to perform a check-up immediately, provide the victims with medical protection, and issue medical documents to confirm any injuries, and these services are free of charge for victims. However, due to lack of information, victims most often are obliged to pay the costs, which impedes their access health protection and is reflected poorly on their resolution to launch a criminal lawsuit against the offender.

The civil associations that are registered and working in the area of social protection need to notify the Center for social work about any interventions performed to assist a domestic violence victim within 24 hours. The number of these associations is unknown, since a special register does not exist for them (and according to the Law should be run by the Ministry of labor and social policies), so the exact number of cases reported to these associations is unknown. The National network against violence against women and domestic violence has 27 member-organizations that provide victims with the largest portion of services for protection from domestic violence (SOS-lines, shelters, crisis centers, counseling centers, and 6 registered centers for free legal aid). Women-victims of domestic violence are mostly satisfied with the services of these associations.

Regarding judicial protection, the Law gives a deadline of 24 hours for the Court to pass an interim protection measure, based on the proposal of the police officials and the Ministry of internal affairs. However, within the period of January 2015 to July 2016, a total number of 401 proposals have been submitted, 87% of them were accepted, 3% were rejected, 2% were dismissed, and 8% were withdrawn. This statistics shows that there is a positive tendency in accepting proposals for interim protection measures. What is alarming is the data that from a total of 4,398 cases of domestic violence reported to the Ministry of internal affairs, a procedure for an interim protection measure was only initiated for only 401 of them.
Furthermore, another cause for alarm presents the fact that the court proceeding last a very long time (sometimes more than 30 days: in 7% of the cases up to three months, in 5% up to six months, and one case where the proceedings lasted one year). There is also a general dissatisfaction due to a lack of reactions in cases where interim measures are being violated (Чапоска, 2016: 53). The fact that the system for monitoring of the implementation of the interim measures is not efficient enough could result in a further disuse of this mechanism that is supposed to prevent further violence against the victim. Victims are losing their trust in the institutions that are supposed to protect them and give up on the intention to report any act of violence in the future.

4. Recommendations from the National network against violence against women and domestic violence on improving the protection from domestic violence

In the lack of an official report by the state and the institutions in charge on the efficiency of the Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence, the National network has prepared recommendations to improve the Law and provide a greater efficiency of the measures for prevention and protection:

1. General recommendations: that the Republic of Macedonia ratifies the Convention of the Council of Europe for the prevention of and protection from all forms of violence against women and domestic violence; that campaigns are conducted to raise the public awareness regarding the issue; that there is zero tolerance of domestic violence; that centers for counseling are opened for people who commit domestic violence; that there is proper training of professionals working with victims or aggressors to prevent secondary victimization; adopting and implementing effective policies to deal with domestic violence; that the system for gathering victims' data is updated; that a national strategy on prevention is urgently enacted; that civil organizations working in this field are actively involved in the fight; that there is a specialized support of victims of domestic violence; that more specialized shelters for victims are opened, available in each region; that there is at least one crisis center for every 200,000 women and at least one center for victims of sexual violence for every 400,000 women; that the capacities of the Centers for social work are strengthened, and the employees are adequately trained; that the victims are free from paying the medical services they require.

2. As specific measures for the improvement of the legal framework, the National network recommends that: domestic violence should be defined as a gender-based violence; measures for protection of victims and punishing aggressors should be defined and implemented; civil organizations that provide assistance to victims of domestic violence should be registered in a separate register; reporting cases of domestic violence should not be imposed as an obligation (which implies that Article 12 of the Law needs to be invalidated); providing assistance to women-victims of domestic violence should be made mandatory; support to organizations that provide assistance to women-victims of domestic violence should be granted without imposing the condition of obligatory registration; a separate fund should be founded for financial support of women-victims of domestic violence to pay for court taxes and freeing them of court expenses when they initiate proceedings against the aggressors (Чапоска, 2016: 64).

Conclusion

The Law on prevention of and protection from domestic violence has established a legal basis for a more efficient prevention of domestic violence. The Law has brought positive, yet not crucial changes in the protection system. The inefficient protection of women-victims of domestic violence oftentimes results in recidivism with fatal outcome. In the period between 2001 and 2016, 32 cases of femicide have been registered, 15 of which took place between 2013 and 2016. The institutions in charge lack the capacity, solid cooperation and coordination in the implementation of measure of protection of victims, which is why women-victims still feel discriminated and judged by the employees of these institutions in times when what they need the most is support and assistance. The majority of domestic violence cases registered are labeled complaints, no charges are pressed against the people who committed them, and the victims rarely receive information regarding the rights and opportunities they are legally entitled to. The existing shelters for women-victims of domestic violence do not fulfill the minimal standards for efficient protection and support, and the right for a free legal assistance is inefficiently exercised. Generally, domestic violence is still a major issue in the Republic of Macedonia, and the road to an efficient prevention and protection system is still long and ahead of us. The fact that even five years after signing the Istanbul Convention, the country still has not ratified it, indicates that it is still unready to perform the changes needed to implement
the standards from the Convention. Lacking state support, the efficiency and functionality of the institutions in charge will not be advanced, and women – who are the majority of all victims of domestic violence, having lost all trust in those same institutions, will fail to report the violence that degrades and humiliates them.

References

Mobbing/bullying behaviour and mental health difficulties of a victim of mobbing

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Abstract

The paper provides the theoretical background of mobbing/bullying and description of a case study concerning a victim of mobbing. In conclusion, reflections concerning counteracting of bullying are provided. Each work environment, regardless the form of employment or the specificity of a job, creates conditions for more or less ethical behaviour.

Keywords: mobbing, mental health, case study

Introduction

A few reflections concerning mobbing/bullying

Adamiec (2013), when analyzing the problems of ethical behaviour, points out that it is not so much about the ethical behaviour but the ethical – or not ethical – situations, in which people behave in a defined way - desired or undesired one. For a person to act in ethically correct way, the conditions of an "ethical situation" must be met. Adamiec called the first of those conditions “awareness”, the clear autotelic values – the system of axioms, which we assume to be true in our logic, and which we do not question. The second condition refers to encountering or experiencing a problem, that is a threat for autotelic values, which appear difficult or even impossible to maintain, also the way of respecting or protecting them is not completely clear or known. Another issue that the author mentions is the fact that the problem applied solely to people, so all non-human creatures are not subject to ethical behaviour. Experiencing the prominence, the consequences of a problem or situation is another condition. It is the situation, considered as loss of autotelic values or a threat to them, for which the consequences are encumbering for the subject. Another important issue is the awareness of possibilities concerning the choice of action or behaviour. This is about freedom in the situations of choice, alternatives, dilemmas, where the sense of responsibility for behaviour is activated in various ways. The last condition is the sense of obligation, labelled as existential loneliness, that is the fact that nobody can replace us in making the choices, which stimulates the sense of subjectivity. The above conditions make up a system of determinants of ethical behaviour, which constitutes a situational and interactive model. Thus, we are able to define, following the author referred to, ethical behaviour as such which a given ethical situation allow to follow the autotelic values as closely as possible (after: Adamiec, 2013, pp. 26-27).

In this sense, mobbing/bullying may be considered as not belonging under ethical behaviour resulting from unethical situations, pathological realization of autotelic values, or disabling them. However, it is but the beginning of the philosophical and psychological considerations concerning the phenomenon of mobbing/bullying, which in the literature of the subject is described rather in the socio-psychological perspective.
Mobbing, or emotional abuse at workplace, is considered a pathology of social relations, occurring at workplace, which may be considered from the perspective of an individual, or a group. The condition for that phenomenon thus includes the repeating interactions between minimum two subjects, and the fact of pestering/bullying one subject or - in group situations – psychological abuse by a group. Mobbing was described by H. Leymann (1990), a Swedish doctor analyzing violence at work as *psychological terror at workplace, connected with hostile and unethical communication, which is directed in a systematic way by one or a number of persons mainly toward one individual, resulting in helplessness and hopelessness of victims, taking place often (almost every day) and lasting relatively long, at least for six months, leading to psychosomatic and social pathological states*” [re-translated from Polish] (Layman, 1990, quotation after: Kulczycka, Durniat, 2004, p. 641).

Mobbing is also used as a synonym of harassment (violence) after C. Brodsky (1976) describing acts of emotionally abusing, torturing, and frustrating the employee, which has negative influence, causing the impression of discomfort and psychosomatic disorders, accompanying deteriorated efficiency at work, in the praxeological sense. Bullying is psycho-terror at work, continuous finding of those who are guilty, diminishing one’s self-esteem in the presence of others, with the silent approval of the victim; the hidden motive is the desire to dominate and eliminate the victim, while the tormenter does not claim responsibility for the consequences of his acts and behaviour (Adams, Crawford, 1992; Field, 1996, after: Kulczycka, Durniat, 2004, pp. 641-642). Hirigoyen (2002, 2003) defines mobbing as emotional harassment, as manifestation of any incorrect behaviour, understood as the entire process of verbal and non-verbal communication – from gesture, through word, to attitude, which negatively affects human dignity, negatively influences the psychosomatic functioning, causing loss of employment and deterioration of the atmosphere at work by its repeatability and systematic character (after: Kulczycka, Durniat, 2004, p. 642).

One should not overlook the Japanese *ijime*, which is – in that culture – bullying, psychologically cruel and destructive behaviour towards those who do not think the way everyone is thinking, in accordance with the proverb that says the nail that stands out will not avoid the hammer (after: Durniat, 2008, p. 549). In Japan, non-individual values are particularly cherished, while those who do not obey the rule of mediocrity are put in their place. Paradoxically, the perpetrator becomes a pathological guardian of institutional values. It can be expected that the positive aspects of one’s personality, such as its integrity, autonomy, the inner sense of control, high level of competencies – the attributes of efficiency and resourcefulness, will make an individual prone to suppressing and tormenting behaviour of the aggressors who are unable to tolerate this very thing, the individualism of their victims.

### 1.1. Phases of mobbing – introduction to case study

According to Durniat (2006, 2008, 2010), three phases of mobbing/bullying can be distinguished, because of the dynamics of the process, changing in time. In the first phase, called initiation, as the very name indicates, the attacks on the mobbing target are restrained, the caliber of victim persecution or harassment is limited, and occurs occasionally. The bullying person tries to control the situation, not to be caught red-handed. The mobbing/bullying itself is a form of "violence in kid gloves" which entails that the forms it takes are sophisticated and sometimes difficult to diagnose even by the mobbing target, the attacks are concealed, veiled, connected with sophisticated allusive criticism, understatements, they are based on nuances, compounded contexts, supposedly casual situations. The bullying person is smart, applies manipulation that is hard to prove, allusive, ambiguous communication, and the attacks target the most sensitive points in the mobbing target (after: Durniat, 2010, pp. 161-162).

In summary, the emotional abuse at workplace connects the dysfunctional elements (based on persecution and attempted unjustified domination) in establishing social relations between co-workers and their superiors, as well as between employees, or between managerial staff members, who are in professional relationships. In the first phase of it, the person or group of persons being the target of mobbing are often unable to be aware of the emotional process they are subject to, coupled with experiencing the feeling of helplessness, hopelessness, and being unable to influence the development the situation in which they function. They are also not able to become aware of the hostile and unethical situation they are involved in which occurs, on regular basis, between themselves and the other person or persons in workplace situation (Leymann 1990). In the specialist psychological literature, the relations at workplace, which follow the mobbing/bullying
pattern are also considered a specific kind of difficult situations, which may be defined as a traumatic crisis, connecting the elements of violence, being destructive for mental health, which occur in interpersonal relations. Such a type of stress is most often characterized by the feeling of emotional discomfort (fear, anxiety, helplessness, depressiveness), many somatic and mental manifestations and destructive social behaviours (alienation or aggressive reactions – towards others or self-destruction).

The emotional and social imbalance and frustration affecting the basic psycho-social needs, arising due to the mobbing/bullying situation (affecting in particular the need to feel safe and to engage in social contacts safely) usually occurs in a few stages, which are characterized by specific somatic and psychological symptoms and social reactions of the person being the target of mobbing in the community. In general, the following phases may be distinguished: the initial one, the phase of mobbing/bullying escalation, and the chronic phase of mobbing occurring between subjects in work situations.

In the case studies and focused studies conducted by the authors (cf. Dobrowolska, 2013) related to unethical behaviour in flexible forms of employment, in their assessment the employees clearly indicated humiliation, devaluation, attempts to lower the self-esteem, to undermine professional, psycho-social and intellectual competencies. An interesting issue was that the mobbing victims did not understand the situation, the strange atmosphere surrounding them, which has been created by the attacker; instead the person blamed herself, tried to find the causes which provoke the hostile behaviour of the pesterer in herself. These are typical symptoms of the bullying/mobbing experienced, which can be difficult to diagnose by the mobbing victim in the first phase.

1.2. Case study description

In order to illustrate the specificity of the phases in stress situation that the mobbing victim is subject to, as well as the specificity of such persons’ professional activity and relations established with other people, presented below is a short description of the case of a 34-year-old woman, who was diagnosed with neurotic somatoform disorders, and – after psychological diagnosis – with experiencing mobbing in workplace. Because of the topic of this paper, as well as the extensive research material obtained, only the basic data have been taken into account, which allow to stress the main directions of symptoms development and psychological mechanisms of mobbing/bullying situations, with distinction of the initial phase, related to the development of subordination in bullying situation, as well as the developed pattern of emotional and social reactions based on bullying mechanisms. As concerns the principles of ethics in publication of research papers based on humans, the authors obtained consent for the use of data from medical documentation in this publication.

Mrs. A., 34 years of age, general secondary education, living in city environment for many years, married for 15 years, bringing up the 10-year-old daughter with her husband. She has been working for 10 years as education administrator in an institution of education. Since the beginning of her professional career she has held positions connected with “being subordinated and excessively dependent”, focusing particular attention to excessive subordination and pleasing other people, without considering her own needs. On the other hand, for Mrs. A. work is a very vital source of satisfaction, that is of fulfilling ambitions, meeting the need to be distinguished socially; although she realizes that she often had to strive for acceptance, assuming the role of a scapegoat (that is what can be derived from her accounts of many situations, e.g. those occurring in her school years).

In the first phase of functioning in the situation of emotional mobbing in workplace, Mrs. A., 34 years of age, was not aware of the subordination and submitting to the pattern of domination and excessive dependence on another person. Mrs. A. was not able to react in situations connected with professional responsibilities and work situation in a way that would provide her the sense of safety, psychic comfort, and alleviation of neurotic symptoms (dysorexia, anxiety, depression) and the sense of continuous psycho-physical discomfort without co-occurring organic source of disorders referred to above. Mrs. A. was not aware of the blindly followed pattern of domination and excessive dependence, and its negative influence - in professional relations – upon her self-esteem, and the resulting underestimation and devaluation of her own professional competencies.
Mrs. A. came to receive psychological assistance due to intensifying neurotic symptoms of depression, also in somatic form (weakness, apathy, sleep disorders, dysorexia). The onset of psychosomatic symptoms dated back 5 years earlier, and concerned dysorexia. Mrs. A. underwent pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy. Mrs. A., as a result of undertaking and continuing the long term psychotherapy, gained a partial insight into the psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, also those connected with her workaholic attitude. Mrs. A. recognized, in her behaviour pattern regarding the relations with other people in work situations, the type of workaholic reaction referred to as “pleaser”. Mrs. A. requires further psychotherapy, to improve her insight concerning psychological mechanisms of mental disorders, comprising the area of dysfunctions going beyond the workaholic attitude in the life she lived so far.

Analyzing the development of the situation and bullying/mobbing process in its second stage, it is important for the victim to become aware of the specific relation in which s/he has been functioning, and which is regulated by means of the excessive domination-submission pattern in social relations (professional ones in this respect), by which the bullying group makes the victim obey.

The second phase, of bullying/mobbing escalation, is characterized by more frequent attacks of the pesterer, coupled with their increasing intensification, negative intentions are manifested, and destructive pestering starts, gossiping and slander increase, as well as attempts of making the victim feel guilty, coupled with other dirty practices of the pesterer – hitting below the belt, troublemaking; aggression intensifies and with it the feeling of being threatened and generation of fear. Two specific groups of behaviour occur in this stage: destruction of the victim and deceiving the witnesses of bullying, by playing tricks and crafty manipulations. It may happen that witnesses are completely subordinated to the authority figure and feel intimidated. Stigmatization and isolation deteriorate the psychosomatic condition of the victim of bullying. Performing the role of a superior person is conducive to such behaviour, in which tasks that are delegated prove impossible to fulfill, or the victim is not given tasks to fulfill, so that s/he cannot demonstrate her/his competencies; the victim is also subject to abuse of power and position held, to deliberate delaying decisions concerning issues that are important for the victim. The power of negative impact of the pesterer results in the victim’s mistakes at work, in being humiliated by others as a result of untrue stores and gossip spread skillfully by the pesterer, while the criticism the victim is expose to leads significantly lower self-esteem, causing doubts as to the competencies held. Weakening the victim’s position in the group, physical and emotional isolation, preventing the victim from finding support and understanding in the group, prejudicing other people against the victim of mobbing, making witnesses turn against the victim (most often the weakest persons) makes the bullying/mobbing activity turn into a group act (after: Durniat, 2010, pp. 162-163).

Analyzing the course of second phase of mobbing in workplace in case of Mrs. A., it is worth pointing out that in her emotional functioning – over the years of work and contacts with superiors – her anxiety and depressive moods intensified, and she developed more acute symptoms of eating disorders and problems with sleep, despite the absence of situations of open interpersonal conflicts in workplace. At that time, however, Mrs. A. was on a sick leave ever more often, and had a history of several hospitalizations. In work environment, Mrs. A. had periods of interrupted contacts with the superiors and performing responsibilities. Such a situation may have been a kind of “flight into illness”, social isolation from the stigmatization by superiors. The deteriorating psychosomatic condition may have been a response of the victim of mobbing to the situation experienced as being attacked by the pesterer. The internalized domination-submission pattern resulting from the victim’s own experience may have fostered the development and consolidation of specific relations with people encountered in workplace situation. Such social functioning may be explained, among other things, by the fact that Mrs. A. was brought up in a generation family, where the dominance patterns and submission were in use for bringing up and parent behaviour. Thus, Mrs. A. has had a deeply internalized pattern of domination-submission, disregarding her own biopscho-social needs. It results from the interview and autobiographic information that Mrs. A. had an internalized pattern of emotional reactions in social situations, on the basis of features of relations that are established between the victim and aggressor (domination-submission and total subordination). The above pattern developed as a result of emotional and social relations with parents and child minders in childhood and adolescence. As Mrs. A. reports, in her life so far, regarding the social relations established between her school years and professional life, she often identified with the role of a
scapegoat. In return for submission in relations with people of the same age, she received acceptance from others, as well as improved self-esteem, which was always low, as far as she remembers.

On the one hand, Mrs. A. experienced her superiors at work as people one should depend on and submit to (the upbringing pattern in the family, which provides gratifications and meeting the emotional-social needs, e.g. of safety, love, and approval of achievements). On the other hand, she perceived them as dominating persons, who impose tasks beyond her abilities, not in line with competencies and responsibilities related to her position. As years went by, Mrs. A. began to notice the negative influence of her superiors upon her own functioning at work more and more, she started to see the mistakes made, particularly in situations of superiors’ control. The increasingly frequent criticism from her superiors was experienced as humiliating and lowering her self-esteem ever more significantly, resulting in growing doubts as to her professional competencies and declining worth of her as a person. It should be mentioned that Mrs. A. continued to hold the same position she was so familiar with, where the responsibilities posed no challenge. With time spent in the same position, Mrs. A. faced increasing difficulty in performing her work duties, her sense of mental and physical well-being deteriorated, neurotic symptoms intensified (in particular the feeling of exhaustion, sleep problems, dysorexia, anxiety, and fear), which resulted in increasing absenteeism from work, dissatisfaction of her superiors, the dominating demand to make her catch up, by attempts to make the victim of mobbing feel guilty.

The last phase defined by Durnat (ibid., p. 163) is called the chronic one. It is utterly destructive for the victim, witnesses, and the entire organization. Unethical behaviour is treated as norm in this phase. Bullying/mobbing becomes a natural thing for three parties: the pesterer, the victim, and the organization as a whole. What is characteristic, consent is given to bullying/mobbing behaviour, and the fact that all parties are accustomed to it. The victim experiences psychosomatic disorders, s/he is exhausted and unable to defend, nervous breakdown is possible, the person may reach for abusing substances, makes more and more mistakes, symptoms of neurosis and depression intensify. Negative consequences of mobbing behaviour towards the victim include: sick leaves because of psychosomatic problems, ruined reputation, falling out of the labour market and having difficulties in finding a new job. Mobbing moves from work environment to social environment and family, because the results of negative actions of the pesterer lead to crises in family life. The pesterer ceases to persecute only when unmasked, or when the community rebels against this behaviour. When the victim starts to speak about her/his feelings, begins to understand the pesterer’s behaviour, and occurs to be a threat for the pesterer, who usually is not getting the gratification from the victim any more (in the form of humiliation and abjection of others). In most cases, the pesterer then begins to look for a new victim, being equally prone (after: Durniat, 2009a, p. 145).

Analyzing the case of Mrs. A., it can be pointed out that she has fully experienced the chronic phase of bullying/mobbing, “flying into illness” and particularly going on sick leaves more often, including hospitalizations due to intensifying dysorexia. Upon returning after sickness absence, Mrs. A. would experience situations of having to deal with the outstanding tasks, which often proved impossible due to the time allowed for performing them, as well as her psychosomatic condition, upon returning to work after sickness. Due to the above, Mrs. A. was not in a position to demonstrate her competencies, which intensified her “flight into illness” as a way of alienating herself from the environment that deepens her devaluation and increases the mobbing reaction. In consequence, Mrs. A. suffered from intensified dysorexia, had symptoms of physical casting (lost weight, suffered from bulimic symptoms, sleeplessness, pains) and emotional discomfort (depressiveness), which contributed to subsequent more frequent hospitalizations and, in consequence, obtaining a decision about disability pension due to poor health and inability to continue her professional duties.

It is worth adding here that bullying/mobbing is not only attributed to workplace, it may also occur at home, as well as other formal groups and organizations. Bullying/mobbing behaviour may appear in all forms of employment and any work environment, also in telework and self-employment, in which the apparent absence of direct employer does not protect from possible attacks of pesterers via indirect relations or via connections and contemporary ICT techniques.
Conclusion. Reflections on counteracting of bullying

The anti-bullying legislation imposes the responsibility for the occurrence of bullying/mobbing on the employer, thus any preventive and corrective actions, as well as the responsibility itself are the management staff's tasks. The ideal attitude would be that of monitoring and prevention of pathological behaviour at workplace. Working conditions, in particular: bad communication, improper information flow, chaotic organization, lack of clarity and randomness in distribution of tasks and positions, poor management skills, ignoring the problems of employees, ignoring conflicts, improper system of personnel evaluation and motivation is conducive to bullying/mobbing behaviour, together with the – typical for victims – attitude that often fails to accept norms and practices of the organization (after: Durniat, 2010, p. 165).

Sztumski (2013), when analyzing interpersonal relations, notices that they require – unconditionally in Western countries – suitable ethical and legal regulations, which are responsible for providing social order; unfortunately, the more such relations, the more regulations. With the development of civilization, based on Western culture, the number of bans must increase, as this is the way of attempted filling of the "ethical gap". However, some form of crisis occurs, as there may be more form than content, as less bans yet clearly formulated may result in better order, may dissipate the doubts concerning their interpretation, which in consequence improves the enforcement. There is a jungle of codes of ethics and law – enactments, executory orders, court interpretations - their excess does not make people better, but has one principal advantage – people are made to think, to act prudently, due to the consequences resulting from regulations. It is disputable whether there is also the effect of contrariness, a defence reaction triggered instinctively, for the purpose of breaking the regulation or omitting it. The increasing number of bans restricts the person’s will and freedom. Thus, it seems that the best way would be tedious and time consuming upbringing, as an alternative to normative ethics, enforcing respect for bans by penalty threats, which is used in training of animals (after: Sztumski, 2013, pp. 42-43).

A good solution, taking into account the above, would be the introduction of negative consequences to anti-bullying codes, which would also apply to witnesses of unethical behaviour.

The increasing number of bans, however, fosters stress at work, as well as development of neurosis and other mental diseases in more prone individuals. Bans may cause mental laziness and absence of critical reflections. If we reduce our mental efforts to the use of algorithms, we become like machines, thus the thought that bans are conducive to progressing mechanomorphization of people, who would behave habitually, which has nothing to do with responsibility and favours mass stupefying and stupidization of people (ibid., pp. 45-46).

Bullying/mobbing is a crisis phenomenon, it requires a faultless diagnosis and intervention actions (as well as preventive actions, precluding the occurrence of such crises). In accordance with legislation, employers have the obligation to create appropriate climate and culture of the organization, conducive to ethical behaviour at work. Employers are obliged to develop and implement employee protection programmes and to monitor the organization. It is most recommended to educate the entire staff of the organization as regards awareness and understanding the phenomenon of bullying/mobbing and its symptoms, as well as anti-bullying procedures (Durniat, 2010, p. 167).

Also the The National Association for Anti-Mobbing (Krajowe Stowarzyszenie Antymobbingowe) was established in Poland, which receives signs of bullying/mobbing behaviour, provides support, legal advice, and professional assistance. The most frequent clients there are employees from the sector of education, health service, and office workers, which is a confirmation of the worldwide tendencies that bullying/mobbing affects non-profit organizations the most (Leymann, 1990, after: Kulczycka, Durniat, 2004, p. 645).

An interesting and positive vision of rightfulness was described by Schlenker (2008), as persistent following of a stern moral code - irrespective of pressure to break rules and of costs - which serves the common good. Despite the fact that righteous behaviour entails costs, as in case of keeping promises, being trustworthy, not being prone to manipulation and bribery, a righteous man may also experience short- and long-term positive consequences of his action, such as those related to self-image, reputation, recognition by the group.
Pilch (2013), in his studies and analyzes, presents something contrary to what has been stated above, namely that although training in business ethics or in ethical behaviour is considered a desired form of intervention, its efficiency remains disputable, in the light of research conducted (Peppas, Diskin, 2000). The efficiency of those short-lived forms of education was tested by Tang, Chen (2008). They assessed the ethical dilemmas connected with future work of students, and their results indicated clearly that the attitudes and tendencies regarding behaviour were more in demand only in the sphere of their direct experiences, whereas in case of events not present in their consciousness or experience, the change either did not happen or was but slight. The influence of such trainings upon the willingness to get involved in unethical behaviour is thus absolutely limited (after: Pilch, 2013, p. 148). It is, in fact, the eternal psychological problem concerning the dilemma between the attitude declared and the actual involvement in actions, which do not always go hand in hand, thus the unsatisfactory results of various preventive programmes.

It is also worthwhile to refer here to the results of studies conducted by Durniat (2009, p. 926), in which a negative correlation was demonstrated between mobbing and positively assessed climate in the organization, understood as representing the interests of employees, opportunities of getting promoted and awarded, organization and communication at work, relations with co-workers and superiors. The other important correlation has been demonstrated to exist between mobbing and social-organizational variables understood from the general perspective, such as social support, managerial competencies of superiors, organization of tasks and their distribution, communication efficiency, the attitude of decision makers towards novelty and creativity, consistency of the group, the ways of conflict solving, or work pressure. Finally, there is a third correlation between mobbing and social-organizational factors seen from the perspective of an individual, such as: acceptance of the goals of the organizations, its practices and norms, identification with the team of workers (after: Durniat, 2009b, p. 926).

Coping with bullying/mobbing is not easy, because it is difficult to prove it exists at work, as has already been mentioned, to collect proofs, to find witnesses of its instances, or doctors who are specialists in it. Many researchers stress that it is easier to counteract mobbing via trainings or anti-mobbing campaigns, than to fight when it begins to spread or gets strong (Kmieciek-Baran, Rybicki, 2003; Grabowska, 2003; Durniat, 2006). Despite the fact the Polish Labour Code contains a clear stipulation which says "the employer is obliged to counteract mobbing …, an employee whose health suffered as a result of mobbing may demand pecuniary compensation for the injury sustained" (Labour Code - K.P., art. 94.3 § 1 and 3), in many organizations bullying/mobbing is still a common practice.

The studies conducted by Kmieciek-Baran, Rybicki (2004), with employees of the education sector as subjects (n=492), revealed that as many as 61.5% of teachers experienced bullying/mobbing as defined by Leymann, for more than six months. Emotional abuse was reported by 79.5% of victims, and manifested as slander, defamation, or denigration. In the study conducted by Delikowska (2003), also based on the tool developed by Leymann (n=245), mobbing was found to affect 73% of the subjects, which indicates how common it is.

Durniat (2010) recommends, for counteracting mobbing, to develop internal regulations and anti-bullying rules, a moral code of conduct in the organization, with the ban on bullying/mobbing behaviour, also with training on what mobbing is and how to cope with it. It is also suggested that every organization should have a path to follow in case of alleged bullying/mobbing events. The possibility of conducting professional mediation, obtaining psychological assistance, or counselling, seems equally justified (p. 105).

Bibliography


The Influence of Indian Literary-Philosophical and Religious Works on the Eastern Literature

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Abstract

The religious and philosophical elements expressed in ancient Indian literature have had great influences on world literature. One notable example is the ancient Indian piece, "Panchatantra". This magnificent written work of world literature has become one of the most famous and influential works in the development of the European and Asian story genre. The Indian masterpiece has also influenced the Arabic-American immigration writer, Kahlil Gibran. Thus, the impress of Indian scripture can be seen in many of Gibran's works such as "The Prophet". The philosophical and religious teachings of the "Bhagavad Gita" have had an impactful role in M. Naimy's development as an Arabic immigration writer. Mikhail Naimy, a poet, writer and a literary critic, was one of the prominent representatives of the early 21st century Arab-American immigrant literature. When conveying the idea of wholeness and unity between an individual soul and God in his work, "The Book of Mirdad", the author used different religious and philosophical sources including the ancient Indian scripture Bhagavat-Gita. The concepts such as an eternal soul, "I", a God's messenger are very similar in "The Book of Mirdad" and the Indian religious-philosophical teachings. M.Naimy has accentuated the importance of issues that reflect many of the ancient Indian beliefs expressed in the "Bhagavad Gita" including the material sides of world and divinity, vision, soul, and spirit. The ancient Indian beliefs of "The People are Raised to the God's level" are distinctively reflected by M. Naimy in his novel "The Book of Mirdad".

Keywords: Mikhail Naimy, "The Book of Mirdad", Bhagavat-Gita, God,

Introduction

Being ancient and rich enough,Indian literature, literary-philosophical views and ancient Indian beliefs have impacted world literature in a variety of ways throughout history that Eastern and Western men of letters benefited from those sources to a great extent. Indian sources have widely spread and influenced world literature in Eastern and Western aspects. Literal works and philosophical sources of the Eastern world, particularly, nations of the Near East, Turkish, Arab and others incomparably paved the ways for Indian sources to come into prominence over the whole globe. First and foremost, ancient Indian collection of fables, proverbs, anectodes, stories - "Panchatantra" which dates back to the 3rd-4th centuries significantly influenced the Eastern and Western literature with its didactic nature. This magnificent piece turned into one of the most well-known works having led to bring about profound effects on the development of European and Asian story genre. "Pachatantra", however, was translated into the Arabic during the reign of Khoros Anushiravan I, the celebrated leader of The Sasanian Empire (Iran), unfortunately, it failed to survive until now. As soon as the Indian masterpiece was translated into the Arabic in the mid-8th century, it immediately affected the way Near Eastern literature developed, obviously, formed the rich basis for literal thought and genre. Afterwards, Abdullah Ibn al Muqaffa skilfully supplemented the missing parts and completed the work with its Arabic translation- "Khailiah wa Dimnah". Being not only a translation, but with a variety of genres and amazing essence reflecting Indian spirit, it eventually took its unprecedented place in world literature. Additionally, "Pachatantra" was translated into more than 60 European and Asian languages over 200 times. In this regard, the splendid Indian literal piece of art impressed Azerbaijani literature as well as vast majority of the Eastern people – Turkish, Arab, Persian and others.

On the other hand, Indian resources gained popularity in the West through the writers travelled to India and settled down there in recent centuries of the world civilization.

As the classical heritage was enthusiastically studied and new attitudes were getting shaped towards culture in the 20th century, Indian literature and religious-philosophical views aroused a striking interest again in this period. Furthermore, well-known writers of Arab immigration literature welcomed the Indian literary contributions in their works, specifically those who lived in the USA, Gibran Kahlil Gibran and Mikhail Naimy. While both Christian writers adroitly took advantage of religious elements in Islam, Christianity, Sufism philosophical teachings, Eastern and Western literature and philosophy schools, they worked up original themes, transformed ideas, created up-to-date motives based on ancient Indian literature and religious-philosophical thoughts. It is important to note that aforementioned authors did not simply referred to certain Indian sources in their works, rather they tended to use the synthesis of those elements ingeniously. Namely, they pointed to the nuances that were of different sources but the same perception in the similar way where religions, philosophical views, cultures have a lot in common in terms of congruent concepts. Yet, some comparable ideas in "The Prophet", "Words of Gibran" by G.K. Gibran were derived from “Khalilah wa Dimnah”, M. Naimy accented the importance of issues that reflected many of the ancient Indian beliefs expressed in the "Bhagavad Gita" and combined delicately with the thoughts originated from Sulfsim. This article elaborately focuses on the aspects correlating with Indian beliefs in M.Naimy’s novel "The Book of Mirdad".

1. **M.Naimy as one of famous Arab immigration writers**

Mikhail Naimy, a poet, writer and a literary critic, was one of the prominent representatives of the early 21st century Arab-American immigrant literature. Arab immigration literature which is commonly known as “An Nahda” – the renaissance period1 in Arab literature has brought quite new trends to the well-rooted and rich Arabian culture. Apparently, Arab immigration literature has been formed on the literary traditions of the new stage - 19th century Arab literature absorbing its own national background and global literary-philosophical tendency. M.Naimy, the philosopher and writer made practical use of various philosophical heritages and cultures of the both Eastern and Western world and illustrated them in his literary creation in a unique manner. "The Book of Mirdad" (1946) is of great importance in M.Naimy’s literary legacy written in English, as well. M.Naimy has highlighted the significance of issues that mirror the material sides of the world and divinity, vision, soul and spirit. Within the framework of these issues, M.Naimy also cited several religious, religious-philosophical and philosophical teachings in one of those crucial scriptures - "Bhagavad Gita" in which most of ancient Indian beliefs were written down.

2. **Similarities between "The Book of Mirdad" and "Bhagavad Gita"**

"Bhagavad Gita", one part of “Mahabharata” was composed 5000 years ago based on the dialogue between God and Lord Krishna’s companion and bouncer Arjuna in the Sanskrit language. Today, it is widely admitted as a set of philosophical and religious teachings which inspires people to reach the utmost spiritual level of perfectness. Undoubtedly, the philosophical and religious influence of "Bhagavad Gita" can clearly be seen in M.Naimy’s literary works. As for the both – the ancient Indian beliefs and M.Naimy’s outlook, the common characteristic is the idea of "lifting the people up to the God’s level".

a) **The "Prophet" concept**

In the chapter “The Bound Abbot" of the book, there at the top of As and Lebanon mountains, at the Altar Peak remains the wreck of Ark dating back to Noah’s time based on a legend. According to the legend, when dying prophet Noah, in his last will and testament he ordered to build the Ark and bid his son Sam and “nine chosen people" : “I bid you, my son, to build an altar upon the highest peak in these mountains, which peak shall henceforth be known as Altar Peak. Upon that altar I propose to offer my last thanks offering. And from the fire I shall kindle thereon I bid you keep a light perpetually burning. As to the house, you shall make of it a sanctuary for a small community of chosen men whose number shall never exceed nine, nor ever be less than nine. They shall be known as Ark Companions. They shall not leave the sanctuary, but shall be cloistered therein all their days, practicing all the austerities of the Mother Ark, keeping the fire of faith burning and calling unto The Highest for guidance to themselves and to their fellow-men." There were 8 people in the Ark, the last one to be the 9th in the community was Mirdad who was depicted as a messenger representing "I" concept in close relation to

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"Bhagavad Gita" as a figure of God and as for M. Naimy the one conveying prophet ideology. Likewise, for the orientalist A. Imanguliyeva, Mirdad bears a striking resemblance with a prophet owning a perfect character more than a simple person might have. In the novel Noah talks Sam about the 9th man in the Ark: “Behold, I revealed unto you a great secret, my son. The ninth person was a stowaway, known and seen by me alone. He was my constant companion and my helmsman. Ask me no more of him, but fail not to make room for him in your sanctuary. These are my wishes, Sam, my son. See you to them.” In times when the men forget Noah’s words, the Ark and lusts and wickedness they bring on, become no longer mindful about the Faith, Mirdad arrives in the long run. Certainly, the motives involving “when mankind are no more mindful of faith, prophets come back” are as vivid as they are in Islam, Christianity and ancient Indian beliefs. “We were already swallowed down by the female lion of ignorance, whereas, God’s mercy for the living for especially men is infinite. So, for that reason He chose His companion Arjuna as His apprentice and recited Bhagavad Gita. As being the companion of God, Arjuna stood out above the ignorance in all ways. However, he was left in such a desperate situation in Kurukshetra battlefield that he would shed light on the daily problems when people asked Krishna. Thus, having gone through these, God wanted men to ask Krishna for solutions and Arjuna to be obliged to clear them up for favor of next generations.”

"Bhagavad Gita" assures that getting in touch with those who set high and moral integrity like Krishna and revealing the secret about God are as necessary as “listening to God himself.” In the same way, Mirdad, in the novel by M. Naimy, is the central character undertaking the mission – to tell the secret of God to the people when they ended up losing divine love and became worldly-minded. Moreover, the stranger with pathetic appearance, “famished and covered with wounds” asks to join the community centuries after Noah’s death and who takes the control of the Ark’s wheel – Mirdad resembles rebirth of soul in ancient Indian beliefs. It is stated in the "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 4, Text 5): “God, The Almighty, said: “O man defeating all his enemies! We were born together with you many times; I remember them all, but you not. For the ancient Indian piece of art, the soul reincarnates in various bodies as it undergoes a 3-stage-development consisting childhood, adolescence and senescence in body everlastingly.

b) “I” concept

M. Naimy believes the word “I” is a perfect word: “To feel Himself; to think Himself; to speak Himself God need not utter more than I. Therefore, is I His only word. Therefore, is it THE WORD.”

M. Naimy doesn’t mean lexicalperfectness of the word in a sentence as a method conveying the idea, but the word “I” is perfect mainly because it conveys the meaning of God: “For understanding is the Spirit Holy that vivifies the Word, and binds it unto Consciousness. It is the rider-beam of the balance Eternal whose two pans are the Primal Consciousness and the Word.”

The Arabian writer, therefore, considers human self as the manifestation of God’s self and as a bearer of the holy spirit. In Naimy’s view, “I” itself is both creative and creature, from this perspective, he reasons existence of the spiritual bond between God and human. Drawing the analogy, “Like the Creator, like the creature.” Naimy stresses the divine layer in the human spirit. He points the fact out that human beings are inclined to aspire for ephemeral, worldly things with their egos, on the other hand: “Many satans exist there in the world you live, you yourselves have created them.” “I” is the core of everything in your world and source of everything you own in your life. As long as the core is sustained, your world will be sustained. Anything under the sun, or in the heavens is able to destroy your harmony. But when it appears today here, tomorrow there and the other day in another place, then your world is doomed to collapse sooner or later. M. Naimy heeds the significance of constant and perfect faith and previses the men to be aware of the feeble sidesof human ego. In

3 Ibid, 219.
4 Ibid, 201.
5 Ibid, 94.
7 Ibid, 41.
8 Ibid, 296.
like manner, it is noted in "Bhagavad Gita" (Chapter 8, Text 7): “You definitely will reach me dedicating your whole self, life and cognition to Me.”

Arabian writer indicates the necessity of having an absolute understanding which denotes the spiritual ties between God and manifestation of God in what he created. “God knows with His Conscious that everything He created is the Whole”. Naimy thinks of God - “I”, as being immortal and eternal, nevertheless, for man he mentions the shortcomings of his “I” giving the example of a particle and the Whole. Because, he is weak and incapable as engulfed in “birth and death”

“Remember that the Word is one. And you, as syllables in The Word, are in reality but one.” In the old Indian scripture, “Bhagavad Gita” (Chapter 2, Text 6) the same opinions were clearly mentioned: “Saints achieve eternal peace and perfectness indeed who are those can see the God deeper inside and outside of everything.” In the same book, (Chapter 9, “The Most Confidential Knowledge”, Text 6) the unity between God and man is described distinctly: “Like the mighty wind always in the world, indeed, all the living things are inside Me.”

M.Naimy believes that struggling with one’s ego and triumphing over it is the only way to preserve the unity with “I” and pay respect to God’s spirit. Getting rid of material handicaps “I” of man gets the opportunity to become one in God’s. “Throw the swaddles away which swaddle your “I” and only then you will be able to see the Word akin to His, the Word that everything got the origin from it and only then you will see everything in harmony and peace within one syllable.” “Bhagavad Gita” (Chapter 2, “Gita’s Summary”, Text 55) explains the method of reaching perfect identity by leaving material pleasure of man’s ego: “God, the Almighty said: “O Partha, whenever man clears the indulgence out fabricated by mind, his mind becomes clear. And he takes the first step to be pleased in his self, now, he is in the pure transcendental consciousness.”

“Bhagavad Gita” presents the idea of perfectness in man’s personality who never adheres to good or bad things; neither aspires for them nor hates them. The man succeeding this independence of self refers to the state of person who has already reached the perfect knowledge.

The arrival of Mirdad aims to restore the deranged divine balance between God and man as all the prophets were assigned to. However, Naimy’s Mirdad has one more peculiar mission besides teaching people their responsibilities and delivering God’s words. It is to “represent God in man”.

Naimy’s fundamental “I” concept is mainly expressed in these thoughts. Arab writer regards man as “bearer of the world in his “I” who is the greatest reflection of God. When Naimy says “When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man.”

In “The Book of Mirdad” he gives vent to his own opinions of “I” concept where he presents his views certainly about God not he means “man is a god.” Naimy asserts “I”, “Word” and “Consciousness” is the trinity of being and he calls it “the perfect balance”. He says that but people name this balance – “God”. As the burden of word is inside the meaning of it, Naimy takes to deliver the faith to the existence of nonmaterial and invisible God upon himself. Thus, he puts the sacred essence of words to use and explains the sincerity and perfectness of them in this regard. With his own method, Naimy demonstrates his faith to God’s existence: “God is a holy name. Thus, thoughts he made holy are holy. So what if man is not a manifestation of God? Then of whose it would be? May be man is diferent from God itself? Does not a whole wood hide in the oak? Does not God spread around and embrace the soul of man?”

Common aspects of Naimy’s thoughts in Mirdad’s words “When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man.”

3 Ibid, 46.
4 Ibid, 47.
6 Ibid, 398.
11 Ibid, 50.
down, wickedness emerges, then I appear." In the statement, God is supposed to appear with His own nature mirroring man when people neglect the faith. Like Mirdad’s role in the novel holding the wheel of Noah’s Ark during the Flood and his arrival after many years is closely linked with the ideas in the religious-philosophical teaching.

c) “God” concept

M. Naimy shows monotheism forth: “God is not many. God is one. But many and divers are yet men’s shadows. So long as men cast shadows on the earth, so long is each man’s god no greater than his shadow. The shadow-less only are all in the light. The shadow-less only know one god. For god is Light, and Light alone is able to know Light.”

M. Naimy thinks man is a being who shades the earth but under a borrowed light of himself. But those who harbor God’s light within their hearts, they will be enlightened by God’s light shaking off the shades. Hence, shades symbolize the material world’s manacles and represent the controversy among those “clung in their shades” and “glimmering with understanding.”

So, Mirdad intends to agglomerate the shades and free the people from the world’s cage and help them to realize their enlightenment with their divine lights. In Naimy’s views, it is the sole way to cognize the reality: “As the Light of God beams over you, then all the secrets will seem you with its ins and outs with no need of evidence.”

Mirdad was represented as a man bearer of the God’s light. He is the chosen one who already freed from the “shell” of the material world. Therefore, differs from others “When with men, I am a god. When with God, I am a man.” Naimy, like it is the same as in other religions and religious-philosophical teachings supports the idea of the unity of all things and God, togetherness of the particle and the Whole: “What name can ever designate a Man who is no longer ‘in the shell’? What country can contain a Man in whom a universe is contained? What ancestry can claim a Man whose only ancestor is God?”. All these words clarify Naimy’s sense of God and the mission of Mirdad.

Monotheism perception like other heavenly religions is the subject matter for “Bhagavad Gita”. Despite the fact that there are still controversies whether it is so or not, the texts of the olden scripture confirm the truth about its monotheistic character. “To worship other goddesses or serve them is not lawful.” Another fact reaffirms it: “Of whose cognizances were stolen by worldly wishes devote themselves to goddesses and practice rituals conforming to their nature.” (Chapter 7, Verse 20) It directly refers to the idea that the people who are under captivity of their passions, they praise not Krishna but other goddesses...Krishna is the greatest satisfaction and in the holy book, it is said that God is the source of all satisfaction or its treasure. In the novel, Mirdad speaks on Naimy’s behalf implying that “There are not gods, but there are gods that worldly-minded people themselves made them up.” “Shades of man are various. As long as man casts a shadow over the earth, his God will step parallel to his shade.”

In Naimy’s interpretation of man-God relations, it is openly understood that the views writer referred to man’s dedication to God, came from “Bhagavad Gita”. The ancient Indian belief promotes to serve God with transcendental love and leave the earth-born ambitions and likings. “Dhananjaya! Serve God faithfully, stay away from hideous acts. They are ungenerous who are delighted with the outcomes of what they have done.” (Chapter 2, Text 49) According to the ancient Indian beliefs, the wise saved their lives from counter-effects of their deeds they did in the material world by help of serving Godloyally.

For Vedas dedication of man to God is the most essential religious principle.

Conclusion

In the final analysis, it is apparent that the plot basically covers the life of people around prophet Noah and what happened years after the Flood. The writer takes the advantage of the story in terms of writing his own thoughts up by means of the

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3 Ibid, 51.
4 Ibid, 309.
5 Ibid, 309.
6 Ibid, 309.
7 Ibid, 309.
9 Ibid, 131.
events and in the person of Mirdad he masterfully interprets the unity of God and man. What combines the ancient Indian beliefs with Mirdad is to overcome the untruthful ego and level up the pure consciousness. Herein, Mirdad serves for the moral progress of the mankind and purifying the cognizance of people. Supporting the idea of equality of people in the face of God, M.Naimy sought common traits between Prophet Muhammad and Prophet Jesus, as well as he benefited from the concepts of “I” and “God” in old Indian beliefs.

References

Local governments’ revenue and expenditure autonomy as a determinant of local public spending on culture. An analysis for Polish rural municipalities

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to define expenditure and revenue decentralization indicators for Polish municipalities and to analyze if and how the limits of spending and revenue autonomy influence local government spending behaviors. The expenditure decentralization is difficult to measure, that is why the analysis of the effects of limits on spending autonomy are less common in the literature than those which relate to the revenue autonomy. In this paper, I propose indicators of revenue but also expenditure decentralization for Polish municipalities. Using statistical analysis and econometric panel analysis for rural municipalities in years 2000-2014 I study if and how these indicators explain local spending policy. I focus on spending for culture using median voter demand framework. Expenditure for culture is a small part of local budgets, but vital from the social point of view. Municipalities in Poland are important creators of local cultural life, which is especially important in less developed or peripheral regions, where citizens do not have access to private cultural institutions. I present that limits in local governments spending and revenue autonomy influences the local spending behaviors. I found that those limits caused not necessarily effective cost minimizing and create the important problem of horizontal equity. At the same time in less autonomous municipalities spending are less related to citizens demand- so there are problems to attend allocative efficiency. My study presents that the problem of the effects of incomplete expenditure decentralization is very important but poorly recognized in the literature.

Keywords: public expenditure on culture, local governments’ autonomy, fiscal federalism

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Introduction

Decentralization is a complicated phenomenon. We can discuss for example political, administrative, fiscal and economic decentralization. (Litvac, Ahmad, & Bird, 1998) All these varieties of decentralization coexist together. The other problem in studying of decentralization is that in practice there is no “full” decentralization, there are different limitations of the local autonomy, which affect different aspects of local government decisions. It can be analyzed different levels or degrees of decentralization/autonomy. In my study, I focus on fiscal aspects of decentralization, and the first goal of this paper is to find measures of spending and revenue autonomy of local governments. The best established in literature indicators of fiscal autonomy are related to local revenues. It is relatively easy to find in public finance data, information about different types of revenues, distinguishing specific and general grants, shared and own taxes. The indicators which use public spending data are more problematic. The local expenditures are very often defined by central regulations, so are not autonomous. However, in contrast to revenues, it is difficult to distinguish less and more autonomous spending looking only on statistical data. The study of regulation is needed. The novelty of this study is that I established expenditure autonomy indicators for Polish municipalities. Subsequently, I use these indicators to analyze if and how the limits of autonomy- on spending and revenue sites, determine local public expenditures on culture. These expenditures are a small part of local budgets, but vital from the social point of view. Municipalities in Poland are important creators of local cultural life, which is especially important in less developed or peripheral regions, where citizens do not have access to private cultural institutions. My paper focuses on rural municipalities, I present the results of statistical and econometric analyses for more than 1500 rural municipalities in years 2000-2014. To analyze municipal expenditures I use median voter demand framework, which is well established in the local public finance literature.
The structure of this paper is as follow. In the first part of the paper, I review the literature related to the problems of limits in local autonomy- its measurement and influence on the efficiency of public finance. In the second part, I present the demand system framework with a special focus on studies related to allocative efficiency and local public spending on culture. In the third part, I introduce indicators of expenditure and revenue autonomy for Polish municipalities, I present the variance of the expenditure and revenue decentralization across rural municipalities in Poland. In last part using econometric panel data analysis for Polish rural municipalities in years 2000-2014 I present the impact of restrictions on the spending and revenue autonomy on local government expenditures on culture.

Limits of Local Fiscal Autonomy- Measurement and Effects

The phenomenon of decentralization is the theme of plenty of scientific researches. The fact, that in practice the decentralization is only partial- and there are limits on local governments autonomy, is an important feature of decentralization that allows conducting these studies. The researchers, using different measures of decentralization, compare subjects of analysis which are less and more decentralized. There are two main groups of studies on decentralization and its effects. Large literature uses international comparisons, and the subject of analysis are different countries. The second large group focuses on one country analysis and compare local units across one country or in a different moment of time- before and after (de)centralisation reforms 1.

In international studies, there are two the most frequent strands in the measures of decentralization. First focused on the revenue autonomy and the second on expenditure autonomy of local governments in analyzed countries. The measures of decentralization take into account local revenues (distinguishing local taxes or local own revenues and transfers) or total expenditures and compare them to all public revenues (taxes) or expenditures. There are also studies where authors combine those two sites of autonomy and calculate aggregate indicators of fiscal autonomy or analyze so-called vertical imbalance- the relationship between expenditures and allocated revenues. (for example) (Baskaran, Feld, & Schnellenbach, 2016; Dziobek, Mangas, & Kufa, 2011; Eyraud & Lusinyan, 2013; Gemmell, Kneller, & Sanz, 2013; Rodden, 2004; Sharma, 2006; Stegarescu, 2005) A key methodological problem of cross-country studies is that aggregated data could result in misleading figures. Especially problematic in these studies is autonomy of expenditures, “...it is difficult to know what to make of expenditure data without additional data on regulatory framework for subnational finance” (Rodden 2004). Some researchers have doubts about the results of these studies on the effects of decentralization. (Baskaran et al., 2016; Ebel & Yilmaz, 2002) The solution could be econometric methods with fixed effects or using different indexes defining other than fiscal aspects of country decentralization. (Pina-Sanchez, 2014; Schakel, 2008)

The second important part of studies on decentralization and its effects focused on one country analysis. The subjects of this kind of analysis are different local units or regions in the single country. (for example) (Balaguer-Coll, Prior, & Tortosa-Ausina, 2010; Barankay & Lockwood, 2007; Boetti, Piacenza, & Turati, 2012; Feld, Kirchgässner, & Schaltegger, 2004; Xie, Zou, & Davoodi, 1999; Zhang, 2006) In these studies, the problem of the comparable institutional environment is less important. But still, there is open question about proper quantification of decentralization and its variation across the country. As in international studies, the most used indicators are related to revenue autonomy. Expenditure autonomy is also analyzed but as the non-autonomous spending are defined only those which are financed by specific grants. (Brueckner, 2009) There are also studies whose authors focusing on particular problems of local revenues or expenditures, use different indicators between the local government's autonomy. For example, it is a wide range of literature concentrating on grants effects on local government fiscal behaviors. (for example Inman 2008a; Gramkhar 2002).

There is also a small group of studies which focused on differences of degree of decentralization, without quantifying the level of decentralization. They use the natural experiment method analyzing the local spending behaviors before and after the decentralization reforms in one country. (Ahlin & Mörk, 2008; Borge & Brueckner, 2014; Borge & Rattsø, 1995; Faguet, 2004; Salinas & Solé Ollé, 2009) They do not define the exact size of changes in decentralization, but only define the reforms as shifting the local government system from less to more decentralized.

As presented the most problematic are indicators related to expenditure decentralization. There are no indicators analyzing spending financed from own revenues (or general grants) but strictly define by centrally established rules related to these tasks. (Martinez-Vazquez & Timofeev, 2009). The solution, in that case, seems to be expert analysis, under which is carried out a detailed examination of local regulations and indicates the task with varying degrees of restrictions on autonomy.

1 The preliminary version of the review of literature on measurement of decentralization was presented in (Kopańska, 2016)
In my paper, I propose indicator of expenditure autonomy for Polish municipalities. This indicator is established using analysis of local regulations which influence spending autonomy of municipalities.

Taking into account mentioned above problems of multidimensional aspects of decentralization and also a measurement of the level of decentralization there are some doubts related to the results of studies on decentralization. But generally, literature agree that decentralization (or higher local autonomy):

- enhance cost and allocative efficiency of public sector, thanks to- better responsiveness of local governors to society needs and more active society (in exit or voice activity) - theoretical background for these effects was given by (Oates 1972; Tiebout 1956; Hirschman 1970) and confirmed in many empirical studies for example (Borge & Brueckner 2014; Sørensen & Hagen 1995; Solé-Ollé 2009)

- Limits the size of public sector and its indebtedness (Eyraud & Lusinyan 2012; Cassette & Paty 2010; Marlow 1988; Stein 1999; Jin & Zou 2002)

On the other hand, there were noticed negative effects of decentralization, like:

- Problem of deepening inequalities (Prud'homme 1995; Zhang 2006)


In my study, I focus on the effects of decentralization on local citizens' wealth. I try to answer if and how differences in degree of local autonomy/decentralization influence the municipal spending decisions on culture. First I analyze the variation of these spending across the whole country- looking at the problem of equal access to publicly sponsored culture. Second I study if those spending are matched to citizens preferences. The background for theses problems is given in next part of this paper.

Allocative Efficiency of Decentralized Spending With Special Focus on Spending for Culture

One of the main arguments for decentralization is that local public spending is in line with local citizens preferences. This argument - known as preference matching idea or allocative efficiency in local government - is the theme of very important for local finance theoretical and empirical investigations. The theoretical base for this argument was established by Tiebout and Oates. Tiebout in his seminal paper presented that at local level citizens could “vote with their feet” and choose those local units where cost/benefits composition is the best for them. Local governments compete for citizens and produce what they really want. (Tiebout, 1956) Oates presented, that centralized production of local public goods creates the loss of wealth, and only local units could produce local public goods at proper - expected by local citizens level. (Oates, 1972)

In the empirical studies, the question of allocative efficiency is analyzed using demand system framework. The classical assumption is based on the median voter model. (Downs, 1957) In terms of independent local governments, the "median voter" decides on the expenditure made locally. (Bergstrom & Goodman, 1973; Borcherding & Deacon, 1972). The idea of median voter model was the theme of many theoretical and empirical studies, which presents that assumptions of this model are far from reality. (the interesting discussion was presented by Bailey, 1999; Holcombe, 1989) Despite that, the basic idea of a correlation between the voter's preferences measured by socio-economic characteristics of local citizens is still present in empirical analysis on local government expenditures. Those studies analyzed usually local governments in one country\(^1\), and study the determinant of the variation in spending per capita for analyzed good or services using the linear relation:

\[
E_i = f(soc_i, rev_i, cost_i); \text{ where}
\]

\[E_i\] - expenditures per capita for analyzed good of \(i\)'s municipality

\[soc_i\] - the vector of a characteristic of a local society in municipality \(i\)

\(^1\) There are also studies where international comparison is made using the demand model for example (Busemeyer, 2008)
rev, municipality i income per capita, distinguishing own revenues and grants
cost: the vector of characteristics of i’ municipality which explain the variation of costs of local production

The private income of citizens, as a budget constraint for demand, is usually ignored in those studies. The idea is that taking into account the characteristic of the local systems in many countries, where local tax policy is very limited, it can be assumed that public and private goods are not substitutes for one another and voters maximize their utility only with respect to public goods. (Borge & Rattsø, 1995) The important is local government income, divided on own and other categories of incomes- which is related to so called fly paper effect of grants (Inman, 2008b) The prices for local public goods do not exist, but important is the variation of costs of public production in different municipalities.

It needs to be noticed, that the allocative efficiency means that public spending varies among municipalities. If such variation is the result only of preference matching it can be positively assessed. But the variation of the level of public spending in different municipalities is related also to the differences of revenue base of local units. As Sole-Olleh noticed: "decentralization has the potential for better matching of regional preferences, but this potential would not be realized in practice if the revenues at the disposal of some regions are severely constrained" (Solé-Ollé, 2009) This is the core and the unsolved problem of fiscal decentralization policy, because, on one hand, the unequal revenue base create the necessity to established equalizing transfers in local budgets, on the other hand, such transfers decrease autonomy of municipalities and erode the efficiency of local governments. What’s more, previous studies presented that decentralization not only reveals local inequalities but also deepen them. (Lessmann, 2009; Persson & Tabellini, 1996; Prud’homme, 1995; Zhang, 2006) and in the case of culture, such result could be found for example in (Urrutiaguer, 2005) The question about acceptable differences of public spending remains open (see discussion in Hagan, 1996) but the problem of inequalities need to be taken into account in studies on decentralization.

The large literature used demand framework in studies on spending for education (Ahlin & Mörk, 2008; Borge & Rattsø, 1995; Poterba, 1996; Salinas & Solé Ollé, 2009) public investment or the structure of public spending (Borge & Brueckner, 2014; Busemeyer, 2008; Faguet, 2004; Kappeler, Solé-Ollé, Stephan, & Vailla, 2013) There are also some studies where demand system framework is used to analyze municipal spending on culture (Benito, Bastida, & Vicente, 2013; Depalo & Fedeli, 2011; Hakonsen & Loyland, 2016), but taking into account the small size of spending for culture in local budgets such analysis are relatively rare and according to my knowledge there are no such studies for Poland and other East European countries.

Below I shortly discuss the most important factors which are presented as an important determinants of local spending on culture.

**Socio-economic characteristic of local society**

Young people- children and youth- are important consumers of the local cultural offer. This is due to parents perception of the value of cultural heritage. On the other hand, parents have less time to take part in cultural activities, and there are also other spending related to kids, which are important in public budgets (especially education). That is why the influence of the share of young people on cultural spending is unclear. The second important group of society analyzed in cultural studies is old people. They have time to take part in cultural events and studies present that municipalities, where share of elderly population is higher, spend more on culture. (Benito et al., 2013; Borge & Rattsø, 1995; Getzner, 2004; Werck, Heyndels, & Geys, 2008)

The literature presents, that women pay more attention for cultural heritage, they also are more interested in the wealth of future generations Women tend to consume more cultural goods and services than male. (Diniz & Machado, 2011) That is why we could suspect higher public spending in municipalities where there are fewer men.

As mentioned private income is ignored as a budget constraint for demand for publicly provided goods. But we could use information about citizens income as an information needed to understand their preferences. According to Wagner’s law- private income increases causes an increase in public spending (even higher than in private spending). Culture is defined as luxury good, so in the analysis of private demand for culture was found high positive income elasticity of demand for culture but in the case of low-income people it could be a crowd out by spending on more basic goods and it is not purchased at all below a certain level of income. While in the case of high-income citizens the interest in publicly sponsored culture could be a crowd out by private cultural goods. Taking those opposite arguments into account the influence of citizens income on their preferences on public spending for culture is unclear. In most studies, it was found positive income elasticity.
The level of education is positively related to income. So we could suspect the similar effect of higher education on public spending. It needs to be noticed also that higher education makes culture more accessible. Highly educated people enjoy culture more, first because they understand it better, second because culture is positively adjective (the satisfaction is rising with consumption) and those people have more experience with culture goods. (Rose & Schultze, 1998) The positive impact of the higher education on public spending was found in (Getzner, 2004) But in many studies, the level of citizens education was found as not significant explanatory of their support of public spending for culture. (Benito et al., 2013; Werck et al., 2008)

Local government financial statement

The studies on local governments spending policy, present that important determinant of the level of spending is the size of the municipal budget. Higher income means more money for all categories of spending. But in the case of public spending, we need to take into account not only size of local incomes, but also the real autonomy of local budget policy. There are many studies which present that grants influence on public spending more than own local taxes. In the case of spending for culture, the fly paper effect of grants was presented in Hakonsen & Loyland study for Norway (Hakonsen & Loyland, 2016). But there are no studies which analyzed how spending autonomy influence local decisions. I will fill this gap in my empirical study.

Characteristic of the local cultural sector which influence the cost of cultural services.

The final variables, which are needed to understand variation in local spending for culture, are related to the differences in local cost of cultural services. The important is the size of the local population. In many studies the size of the population was presented as demand factor- more populated municipalities have a central role in relation to cultural public goods. (Benito et al., 2013) But it is also correlated to cost of cultural services. If there are more people who use cultural services, the cultural infrastructure (for example houses of culture, museums, concert halls) is more complicated and costly. (Rose & Schultze, 1998; Werck et al., 2008) That is why we could expect that per capita spending for culture increase with a number of citizens.

Population density is the second factor where demand and cost aspects are correlated. In less populated municipalities, the problem of distance to central places of the local unit may decrease the citizens demand on culture. Simultaneously in more populated municipalities, the economies of scale occur and cost and spending per capita are smaller. (Benito et al., 2013; Werck et al., 2008)

The cost of culture services is related also to a number of real consumers of local services and number of infrastructure objects needed for culture services. That relation is well developed in case of analysis of education- where a number of schools and pupils is presented as an important factor of spending for education. For example- (Ahlin & Mörk, 2008; Borge & Rattsø, 1995; Falch, Ronning, & Strom, 2008; Poterba, 1996; Salinas & Solé Ollé, 2009) Number of consumers represent on one hand demand of local society on other it could be related to economies of scale. In previous studies on local spending on culture these variables were not analyzed, but taking into account they economic validity I add variables of the quantity of cultural objects and users in my empirical analysis.

Revenue and Expenditure Autonomy of Polish Municipalities

Sub-central governments in Poland are responsible for important part of public tasks and local and regional expenditures represent about 30% of public spending. The most important are expenditures of 2412 municipalities (gminas). We can distinguish three types of gminas- rural, urban and mixed municipalities. In my study, I focus on the biggest and most diverse group of gminas- rural. There 1565 rural units and about 29% of Poles live there. The rural municipalities are those where there are no towns, and usually, such municipality consists of several villages. There are rural municipalities where most of the citizens are farmers, but there are also rural municipalities which are strongly urbanized, and the citizens work in non-agricultural sector. The diversity of municipal economy is also related to the history of Poland. In XIX century Poland was occupied by 3 neighboring countries and the differences in regional development, but also social and cultural characteristic of citizens of these regions are still present. (see for example Gorzelak & Jałowiecki, 2001)
The variation of the local economy is visible also in local governments' budgets. The important part of local revenues (about 28% of rural municipalities' revenues) is own taxes and charges for which local governments could decide about rates and reliefs. The shares in centrally levied income taxes decide about 14% of rural municipalities' revenues. The general grants cover about 35% of rural municipalities' revenues and specific grants about 23%. But the diversification of this structure is very important. To analyze it we can use revenue autonomy indicator - see table 1. As presented in first part of this paper revenue autonomy indicator is quite simple to established, and in my study, I define revenue autonomy indicator as

\[ \text{IRA} = \frac{\text{OR}}{\text{R}}; \]

where

OR = local taxes and charges, and the loss of revenues due to local fiscal policy

R = all budget revenues and the loss of revenues due to local fiscal policy

Table 1 The variation of revenue and spending autonomy indicators and revenues per capita in rural municipalities in 2014 and correlation of these variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IRA</th>
<th>ISA</th>
<th>Revenues per capita (in zł)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>3 164.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p50</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>3 041.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>2 158.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>13 204.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cv</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson correlation coefficient

IRA 1
ISA 0.64 1
Revenues per capita (in zł)* 0.51 0.36 1

* without grants from the European Union.

Source: own calculation based on Statistical Office data

The analysis of expenditure autonomy is more difficult. As mentioned, the information about more and less autonomic spending are not simply visible in local budgets. To distinguish them the detailed analysis of regulation is needed. I did such analysis for 5 the most important in local budgets categories of spending - education, social protection, administration, transport and communal services (they cover about 80% of local expenditures). I analyzed policy, budget, input, output autonomy and the rules related to monitoring and evaluation. (Bach, Blöchliger, & Wallau, 2009; Blöchliger, 2014). I establish an indicator of spending autonomy (ISA):

\[ \text{ISA} = \frac{\text{OE} - \text{N&LA}}{\text{OE}}; \]

where

OE = operational expenditure
N&LA = not- and low-autonomous expenditure

I define non-autonomous expenditure as spending for which budget autonomy is strictly limited; that is, the spending is financed by specific grants or obligatory payments to a central budget are required. I define low-autonomous expenditure as local tasks for which both input and output autonomy are strongly restricted. It is worth noting that the above-mentioned legal regulations are the same for every municipality. Consequently, de jure spending autonomy of local units is the same for all units, but de facto spending autonomy is differential and depends on the real costs of local public services and the size and flexibility of local revenues. As presented in table 1 the spending and revenue autonomy are positively and quite strongly correlated, there is also a positive and moderate correlation between those indicators and wealth of municipalities. But it needs to be noticed, that this correlation is not very strong - it's mean that those indicators represent different problems of local autonomy.
In my empirical study, I ask if and how the limits in autonomy influence local spending policy. To answer this question I divided rural municipalities into groups—those where autonomy is high, moderate and low. Analyzing the whole population of rural municipalities in years 2000-2014, I define the levels of indicator which represents first and third quartile of municipalities. (in case of IRA: Q1=0.215 and Q3=0.35; for ISA Q1=0.381 and Q3=0.465). As highly autonomous units I define those which indicator of autonomy (separately for revenues and spending) is higher than Q3 in eleven or more years. The low autonomous are units which autonomy indicator is smaller than Q1 in eleven or more years. The rest of population I define as moderately autonomous units. Finally, 167 municipalities are defined as low spending autonomic, 1180 as moderately and 218 as high. In the case of revenue autonomy, there are 199 municipalities in the low-autonomic group, 234 in high and 1132 in moderate. As table 2 presents those groups in case of revenue and spending autonomy are not the same. There is an important group of municipalities which are low (or high) autonomous on revenue/spending side, but moderate on spending/revenue side.

Table 2 Number of low, moderate and high -autonomous rural municipalities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ISA</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>IRA</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>low</td>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>956</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1132</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRA</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>1180</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>1180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* without grants from the European Union.

Source: own calculation based on Statistical Office data

Municipal Spending on Culture- The Determinants Of Variance

Dissemination of culture as a public task is strongly decentralized in Poland, and sub-sovereign governments decide about 70% of public spending for culture. What is important in my study there are no strict regulations on local spending for culture. The only important one is related to libraries- in every municipality need to be at least one public library. Local governments are responsible for organization and financing of public cultural entities- especially libraries and houses of culture, but there are also municipal museums, art galleries, cinemas, theatres, philharmonics, orchestras etc. (Kukołowicz, Modzelewska, Siechowicz, & Wiśniewska, 2016) Spending on culture is small part of local budgets (in average about 3%) but steadily growing and rural municipalities spent in 2014 two times more on culture than in 2000 (in real values). But as table 4 presents there is important variation in this spending. In my analysis, I focus on operational spending, without spending financed by EU grants. The most autonomic municipalities spend in average twice more than the less, but the variation inside the groups is also very important. (see table 3)

Table 3 Rural municipalities operational spending on culture per capita in years 2000-2014 (value in zł from 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>p50</th>
<th>Min*</th>
<th>max</th>
<th>cv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ISA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>42.02</td>
<td>38.64</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>191.69</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>52.28</td>
<td>46.31</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>381.17</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>85.53</td>
<td>73.12</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>927.70</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>44.80</td>
<td>39.51</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>211.97</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moderate</td>
<td>52.52</td>
<td>46.83</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>381.17</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>81.10</td>
<td>68.41</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>927.70</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55.81</td>
<td>48.12</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>927.70</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* zero means no spending or lack of data, and there are maximum 6 units every year where no spending was noticed

Source: own calculation based on Statistical Office data

To find if and how the level of autonomy influence local spending policy I made econometric panel analysis, using dynamic panel estimator – system GMM (Heinesen, 2004; Zhu, 2013). First I do the simple demand framework model- as presented in second part of this paper. The table 4 summarized the variables which I use.

---

1 All analyzes were done in the program STATASE 14
Second I analyzed interaction effects, which help me to find if there are differences across groups and if effects of variables defining citizens preferences differ. I include an interaction term between socioeconomic variables and dummy variable - D. Where D=0 for the moderate group, and 1 separately for lowly and highly autonomous groups, so we can compare effects on spending of lowly and highly autonomous groups to moderate municipalities.

\[ Eit = \alpha_i + \sum_k \beta_k soc_{it} + \sum_n \gamma_n rev_{it} + \sum_m \delta_m cost_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \]

Taking into account budgetary characteristic and possibilities of GMM analysis, I add in models spending for culture from previous two years (L.E and L2. E), lagged variables for some budget categories and also year effects. The results of analysis are presented in tables 4 and 5. (for clarity of presentation in table 4 I do not present variables for years and in table 5 I present only interaction variables.)

The econometric analysis presents that spending for culture in Poland is determined by noticed in literature budgetary, social and cost variables. In the case of budgetary variables, the most interesting in my study are autonomy indicators. More autonomous municipalities spend more on culture. But the influence of spending autonomy is much stronger than of revenue autonomy. 1% more autonomous expenditures caused 0.77% increase of spending for culture, while 1% more autonomous revenues are responsible for only 0.08% higher expenditure on culture (see table 4). This effect is confirmed in interaction analysis. The more spending autonomous group of municipalities spend more on culture, while lowly less-than the moderate group. In the case of revenue autonomy, there is no difference between moderate and low autonomous group and only high revenue’ autonomic municipalities spend more, but the value of interaction is twice smaller than in the case of spending autonomy analysis.

The socioeconomic characteristic of society influence local spending on culture, when we analyze all municipalities together (table 4)- this is in line with preference matching idea. In the case of age structure, the sign of correlation is the same in both models presented in table 4 but the significance of variables is not stable. The model where revenue autonomy is included presents that if there are more small kids in municipality spending for culture are smaller. The other age variables are not significant in that model. While in a model with spending autonomy indicator, significant are: shares of school kids and share of old people in the municipality. Both variables have positive coefficient- more students and old people in society cause in higher spending for culture. The gender structure of municipalities is not significant in both models presented in table 4. Important in both models is the education of society and citizens financial statement. In municipalities, where there is more educated society spending for culture are higher. But the better financial statement of people in the municipality (bigger houses and more private firms) has a negative impact on public spending for culture.

The interaction analysis presents that the variables representing the influence of share of small kids, the share of old people and number of firms on spending for culture are valid only in case of most autonomous municipalities (in both analyses presented in table 5). These results could represent the problem of preference matching in less autonomous municipalities. Because presented in table 4 results of analysis of the whole population of municipalities, could be- as visible in table 5-related only to the significance of socioeconomic variables in highly autonomous groups.

Only in the case of a variable representing the citizens level of education the interaction model represents validity for moderate group. What interesting the effect of changes in the share of educated citizens in highly autonomous municipalities is smaller than in a moderate group.

The signs of the coefficient in cost variables represent the problem of the small scale of cultural activity when no economies of scale exist. More citizens, higher density, more libraries and readers, houses of culture or cinemas cause more spending per capita on culture. The only number of museums give opposite effect.

Table 4 List of variables and estimation results for demand model for logarithm of spending on culture per capita (E) in years 2000-2014
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable:</th>
<th>Description of the variable:</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LE</td>
<td>Logarithm of spending for culture per capita in year t-1</td>
<td>0.714**</td>
<td>0.721**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2E</td>
<td>Logarithm of spending for culture per capita in year t-2</td>
<td>0.107**</td>
<td>0.112**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grantcult_pc</td>
<td>Specific grants for culture from central budget per capita</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownrcvcult_pc</td>
<td>Own revenues from culture per capita</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rev_pc</td>
<td>Logarithm of revenues per capita</td>
<td>0.112**</td>
<td>0.121**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISA</td>
<td>Indicator of spending autonomy</td>
<td>0.766**</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRA</td>
<td>Indicator of revenue autonomy</td>
<td>0.082**</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEexpendcult_pc</td>
<td>Expenditures on culture financed from EU funds per capita</td>
<td>-0.001**</td>
<td>-0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. UEexpendcult_pc</td>
<td>Expenditures on culture financed from EU funds per capita in year t-1</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>investcult_pc</td>
<td>Investment for culture per capita</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
<td>0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_invsetcult_pc</td>
<td>Investment for culture per capita in year t-1</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
<td>0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pop0_4_all</td>
<td>Share of population 0-4 in community</td>
<td>-0.356</td>
<td>-0.668**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pop5_19_all</td>
<td>Share of population 5-19 in community</td>
<td>0.357**</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pop60more_all</td>
<td>Share of population older than 59 in community</td>
<td>0.204*</td>
<td>0.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>men_all</td>
<td>Share of men in population</td>
<td>-0.362</td>
<td>-0.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Educ_all</td>
<td>Share of people with the highest degree of education in community in 2002</td>
<td>0.515**</td>
<td>0.655**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House_size_pc</td>
<td>Living area per capita</td>
<td>-0.002**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>firms_pc</td>
<td>Number of private firms per capita</td>
<td>-0.601**</td>
<td>-0.276**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_part_1</td>
<td>Dummy variable representing part of Poland occupied in XIX century by Prussia (Austrian part is comparison)</td>
<td>0.02**</td>
<td>0.034**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_part_2</td>
<td>Dummy variable representing part of Poland occupied in XIX century by Russia (Austrian part is comparison)</td>
<td>-0.017**</td>
<td>-0.02**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>popkm2</td>
<td>Density of population</td>
<td>0.015**</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lnpop</td>
<td>Logarithm of number of citizens</td>
<td>0.017**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House_of_cult</td>
<td>Number of houses of culture</td>
<td>0.02**</td>
<td>0.018**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>readers_pc</td>
<td>Number of readers of public libraries per capita</td>
<td>0.398**</td>
<td>0.367**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>museums</td>
<td>Number of communal museums</td>
<td>-0.032**</td>
<td>-0.034**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cinemas</td>
<td>Number of communal cinemas</td>
<td>0.06**</td>
<td>0.06**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons</td>
<td>-0.504**</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of observations</td>
<td>19851</td>
<td>19851</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of groups</td>
<td>1527</td>
<td>1527</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>number of instruments</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>271</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arellano-Bond test for AR(2)</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hansen test of overid. restrictions</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05; **p<0.01

Table 5 Interactions analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variables:</th>
<th>only dummy</th>
<th>pop0_4_all</th>
<th>pop5_19_all</th>
<th>pop60more_all</th>
<th>men_all</th>
<th>High Educ_all</th>
<th>House_size_pc</th>
<th>firms_pc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ISA-low</td>
<td>-0.028**</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISA-high</td>
<td>0.039**</td>
<td>0.085**</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>-0.327</td>
<td>0.078**</td>
<td>0.109**</td>
<td>0.088**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variable</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.432</td>
<td>1.172**</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variable-group low</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>-1.113</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.388</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variable- group high</td>
<td>-1.095*</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.297**</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td>-0.997**</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
<td>-0.703**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arellano-Bond test for AR(2)</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hansen test of overid. restrictions</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRA-low</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>-0.064*</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>-0.059</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>-0.043</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The data based on census made in 2002, there are no newer data about citizens education for municipalities
2 There are no data on citizens income in municipalities, the size of living area and number of private firms is a is approximation of citizens private financial condition

543
ly autonomous. As

References

reven
efficiency. Local spending on culture autonomy indicator. The second problem related to the cultural indicators of expenditure decentralization for Polish municipalities, having regard to different aspects of expenditure the results of the limits on local revenues. There are Partial decentralization is the fact. There are objective reasons summary of the literature,

Summary

Partial decentralization is the fact. There are objective reasons for limits of local autonomy. The problem is that those limits influence on local government efficiency costs and allocative. In the literature, we could find a lot of research which analyze the results of the limits on local revenues. There are less studies focusing on expenditure autonomy. In this paper I proposed indicators of expenditure decentralization for Polish municipalities, having regard to different aspects of expenditure autonomy and also not granted tasks. Those indicators focused more precisely than those which look only at the autonomy of revenues on the problem of adequacy of public money for local services and vertical imbalance problem. I present that there is an important variation of real autonomy between local governments across Poland. I presented that limits in revenue and spending autonomy influence the local spending behaviours on culture. There is an important problem of equal access to cultural services because less autonomic municipalities spend two times less on culture than highly autonomous. As econometric analysis presents to understand these differences better is spending autonomy indicator than revenue autonomy indicator. The second problem related to the important differences in the level of spending for culture is allocative efficiency. Local spending on culture is determine by citizens preferences. But this preference matching is significant more in highly autonomous municipalities. It means, that allocative efficiency is restricted by limits on of local governments revenues and spending.

References


Risk Management in Public Sector: A Literature Review

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Abstract

Public sector today faces a variety of complex and challenging events, and adequate measures are required in order to ensure that the perceived public value is maintained at certain levels. There is a treasure of literature available for the theory of risk and risk management in private sector, mainly with focus in financial and banking sector. Nonetheless, there is a gap in the literature regarding risk management in public sector. There is no well-established theoretical background of strategic risk management in public sector and most of the available literature focus only on the risk estimation and fail to further contribute to how these estimations can be introduced to the decision-making process within public authorities. For this reasons, this paper aims to present a review of the most sound literature on risk management in public sector and a special focus will be given to the identification of current literature gaps and possible future research areas.

Keywords: Risk, Risk Management Process, Public Sector, ISO 31000:2009.

Introduction

Risk management is a critical task to be performed by organizations if they want to achieve their business goals and objectives (Lark, 2015). Normally, regardless the sector, organizations should have a clear vision on what does risk mean to them and try to establish a tolerance range so they can better truck the risk and take necessary measures when needed. This is known as well as strategic benchmark (OECD, Advances in Risk Management of Government Debt, 2005) (pp. 13).

Effective management of risk is not about risk elimination, it is more about deciding for possible future event weather is better to take them (OECD, 2014, p. 13), accept them as they are, or refuse by mitigation or trying for a full elimination of the consequences. Worldwide, governments face the challenge to better manage their daily risks. At the same time, there is an increasing demand for risk management, especially for governments, mainly following past financial and economic crises or increase in terrorist threats.

There is no difference for public sector; or better to say, the key difference in between risk management in public sector from the private one is that risk in the first case is much more complex and the scope of its impact is societal. Institutions in public sector are generally large and highly bureaucratic, making difficult any incentive towards risk management in this sector (Dobrea & Ene, 2006). The degree and variety of risks government bodies face in their daily activity is enormous and the key responsibility of these authorities is to assure the public that no current or potential risk will threat the perceived public value. Most of the time, public institutions have to deal as well with many risks which practically are responsibility of private sector but they are just not well equipped or willing to do so (Braig, Gebre, & Sellgren, 2011). According to (Bozeman & Kingsley, 1998) suggest that neither private sector nor public one have riskier or less risky cultures, what makes the main difference is the way how they respond to the identified risks.

Research objectives and methodology

The main objective of this research paper is to provide a preview of existing literature regarding risk management in public sector, to identify key issues raised by authors and to suggest future possible researches in this area. Attention is paid to the selection of research and reports included in this paper. Relatively recent researches are considered and their impact
factor was important in the selection. Selected papers and researches are only in English language and they are presented in international journal and conferences. No empirical model is used and no data set was needed.

Theory of Risk

Risk as a concept and its terminology

There are many definitions of risk as a concept and most of authors agree as well that risk is a hardly definable concept. In other words, most of authors try to offer definitions for a concept that is just different in different organizations and contexts. What is high for someone, can be perceived as low for someone else; what is a threat for a manager is an opportunity for another one. Simply said, risk is a perceptions and individual reaction towards the unknown. In general, incorporating industry specific characteristics with the organizations profile may generate a case specific and more accurate definition. Among the early definition in the field of management is the one provided by Keynes (1937) who makes a distinction between risk and uncertainty – according to him, risk is a scenario where the probability is known and uncertainty is the event where the probability is not accurately known (Hopkins & Nightingale, 2006, p. 358).

(Althaus, 2005) provides several definitions based on the context of the risk. His work on defining risk is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>How It Views Risk</th>
<th>Knowledge Applied to the Unknown</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logic and Mathematics</td>
<td>Risk as a calculable phenomenon</td>
<td>Calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and Medicine</td>
<td>Risk as an objective reality</td>
<td>Principles, postulates, and calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>Risk as a cultural phenomenon</td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>Risk as a societal phenomenon</td>
<td>Social constructs or frameworks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Risk as a decisional phenomenon, a means of securing wealth or avoiding loss</td>
<td>Decision-making principles and postulates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>Risk as a fault of conduct and a judiciable phenomenon</td>
<td>Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>Risk as a behavioral and cognitive phenomenon</td>
<td>Cognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Risk as a concept</td>
<td>Terminology and meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>Risk as a story</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History and the Humanities</td>
<td>Risk as an emotional phenomenon</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Arts (literature, music,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poetry, theatre, art, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Risk as an act of faith</td>
<td>Revelation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>Risk as a problematic phenomenon</td>
<td>Wisdom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Althaus, 2005, p569)

Referring to (Queensland, 2011) Report a general statement of risk we may accept as if there is an element of uncertainty surrounding an event, then risk exists. Since 2009 with the introduction of ISO standard for risk management, risk management became more standardized and managers around the world embraced this incentive for a common language of risk. ISO definition of risk is simple and straightforward: “effect of uncertainty on objectives” (ISO, 2017).

Risk Management Process

Risk management process is the step-by-step approach for identifying, assessing and responding to risks. In addition communication of the identified risk to the relevant stakeholders is a critical step in this process (Queensland, 2011, p. 7). The same as per risk definitions, through the literature there are presented different risk management processes. (Leung & Isaacs, 2008) present a simple three step model: risk identification, risk measurement and assessment, and decision-
making. Nonetheless, since the introduction of ISO standard in 2009 offered a more comprehensive model, consisting in 7 steps and easy applicable in different industries and sectors, including public sector. This model is shown in Figure 2.

![Diagram of ISO 31000:2009 risk management process](image)

**Figure 2:** The ISO 31000:2009 risk management process (Lark, 2015, p. 14)

As can be seen from the diagram, risk management key steps are: establishing the context, risk identification, risk analysis, risk evaluation, risk treatment, communication and consultation, and monitoring and review. Even though shown separated, there is a continuity and overlap of the steps. This model is a good start for a risk management process nonetheless organizations are encouraged to develop further this model based on their specific organizational requirements (Queensland, 2011, p. 17).

**Towards a common standard in risk management**

ISO is an independent, non-governmental membership organization and the main developer of voluntary international standards (Dali & Lajtha, 2012). ISO 31000:2009 is a short but very comprehensive set of principles and guidelines on risk management. As an overview of the standard, it is a 23 pages document that presents 11 principles, a framework, and a process, which can be tailored, based on the specific organizational requirements (Lark, 2015).

This standard was introduced in 2009 and since then has been widely used worldwide (Dali & Lajtha, 2012). ISO standard is designed for a wide range of users, applicable in different organizations and sectors. Nonetheless, one should bear in mind that this is not a legal enforcement but just a voluntary approach and together with the wide range of benefits it offers, there are some limitations that should be overpass by practitioners.

Together with the risk management process, standard offers an extended diagram, explaining relationship in between principles, framework and process.
As it can be seen in this extended diagram, ISO standard attempts to create the full picture of what managing risk means for an organization. The clear principles help in the establishment of the framework, which further

**Risk in public sector**

General background, principles, standards a models or risk management can be applied in the public sector as well. Nonetheless, necessary adjustments should be performed in order to increase the accuracy of the used model and principles. (Nilsen & Olsen, 2005) in their paper emphasize the fact that local authorities deal with many requirements and objectives, and together with high levels of bureaucracy and regulation, risk management in public sector becomes more complex and challenging. (Leung & Isaacs, 2008, p. 510) as well support the idea that risk management in public sector is very complex, mainly deriving from the wide variety of involved interests (most of the time conflicting interests), political influence, etc. (Braig, Gebre, & Sellgren, 2011, pp. 1-3) as well accept that managing risk in public sector if highly more complicated than in private sector. They identify key challenges identified in risk management in public sector, which are as following:

1. Mission goals that override other considerations.
2. Frequent leadership changes and vacant leadership positions.
3. Leaders who lack knowledge of risk management and business.
4. Separation of operating budgets from program budgets.
5. Lack of clear risk metrics.
6. Complex procedural requirements.
7. Limited risk culture and risk mind-set.

The range of stakeholders in public sector is larger than for a business itself. Actually, for public institutions we can admit that stakeholders in risk management are basically everyone. For this reason, complexity and diversity of risks these
organizations face are enormous. The nature of risk can be different such as reputational risks (critical for public sector), operational risks, financial risks, infrastructure risks, national security risk, etc.

(Brown & Osborne, 2011) in their research conclude that there is a gap in the literature regarding risk management in public sector. In addition, existing literature does not provide a clear and comprehensive background of risk in the specific context of public sector. (Vincent, 1996) suggests that, even though risk management in public sector is part of the whole background of risk, still it has its unique sector based characteristics which need to be address in the model of risk. According to him, the key difference in between private and public sector lays in responsibility and accountability of managers. Private sector organizations are responsible to their shareholders, who, in a voluntary way, contributed capital for the establishment and continuity of the organization. On the other side, authorities and agencies in public sector operate based on funds collected from public, mainly in an un-voluntary way (taxes for example). In contrast with this view, authors like (Spira & Page, 2003) suggest that there is no material difference in between private and public sector when it comes to risk management. All standards and principles apply much or less the same regardless the sector. According to (Hansson, 2005, p. 12) another difference between risk management in private sector and public sector relates to the measures taken for the management of identified risks.

Most of the studies in risk management area has been conducted with a specific sector or organization such a project risk, risk in agriculture, financial sector risk, specific local public authorities and agencies. Within the scope of this paper, studies regarding risk management in public sector will be considered. Leading countries for their commitment toward risk management in public sector are mainly European countries, but Canada and Australia as well has a notable and well-recognized commitment to risk management.

Maybe most recognized and influential standard on risk management is ISO31000: 2009. Nonetheless, countries like Australia or Canada have provided very useful and comprehensive risk backgrounds for public sector applications. Australian standard (AS/NZS 4360:1995) later one re-published with some new versions, offers a very detailed explanation of what risk means for public sector and steps to be taken for an effective management of it. Latest version is that of 2009, titled ‘AS/NZS ISO 31000:2009 - Joint Australian New Zealand International Standard Risk management / Principles and guidelines’ which suspended AS/NZS 4360:2004. This is a 25 pages document and offers detailed guidelines on risk management (Standards Australia/Standards New Zealand, 2009).

‘Managing Risk Across the Public Sector: Toward Good Practice’ (Cameron J., 2003), (Cameron J., 2004) and (Pearson, 2007) are three important performance audit reports from Victorian Auditor-General’s Office that have help improvement of risk management in Victorian’s public sector organizations. Similar reports were published by Queensland Government ‘A Guide to risk management’ (Queensland Treasury, 2011)

USA as well has offered sound reports and publications on risk management in public sector. Risk management became even more important after 11/2001 catastrophic event, which became a bitter lesson for all. Among most relevant publications are (Walker, 2005) and (Jenkins Jr, 2007). Similar researches and publications are published by UK and Canadian governments with many useful case studies in their local authorities and agencies. There are as well a couple of publications from international organizations such as OECD or Independent scholars.

Concluding remarks and future researches

The aim of this paper was to provide a short but comprehensive literature review on risk management in public sector. Purposefully, this research was focused on risk applications in public sector due to an increase in the emergency for deeper researches in this field. There is a treasury in literature concerning risk management in general and its applications in private sector (mainly banking and financial sector). Especially, introduction of ISO 31000:2009 standard simplified risk analyses providing a general widely accepted language on risk management. Most of studies applying risk principles and standards in public organizations are leaded by some countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, UK and USA. There is a commitment of governments in all G20 countries for risk management in public sector, nonetheless – excluding countries mentioned above – not many publications are available regarding their risk practices and approaches in the public sector organizations.

The key finding of this research was that risk management is neither an optional nor a volunteer tool in the whole management of an organization; it is a must for every type of organization if they want to assure the achievement of their
strategic goals and objectives. Risk is a threat or an opportunity, which cannot be eliminated completely and requires an effective management. Accordingly, our risk attitudes and risk perceptions may be influenced by a number of factors – even if we are not aware of such an influence. Additionally, managing risk in public sector, due to high level of regulation, bureaucracy, and wide range of involved stakeholders, can be a more challenging process than risk management in private sector.

There is a need for increased awareness regarding risk management in public sector worldwide, especially for emerging and developing countries. Scholars, by referring to ISO 31000 standard and other sound guides and reports, can establish risk models for specific public authorities and agencies in their countries. Through their work, they should aim to promote and support risk management in their country. Contribution can be done in designing an effective country based risk management strategy. Most of the countries nowadays fail to establish a national risk management plan and strategy, or even in case they have one, they are unable to implement it in an effective way.

Ongoing studies on roles and responsibilities within specific organizations would be very useful in tailoring effective risk management frameworks and procedures for the organization. By knowing who does what, it is easier to address any issue in risk management and people involved in the system are more committed to accurately perform their tasks. In case of failure, they know that it will be easy to discover their responsibility. Additionally, scholars and experts in the field may develop simple and comprehensive guidelines and checklists so it will be easier for local authorities to get involved in organizational risk management.

Lastly, by-product of this paper, we believe that governments worldwide should invest more in research on risk management within their public sector. A highly recommend approach would be stretching ties between government and higher education institutions and research centres. A public-private partnership in risk management would assure a more qualitative commitment towards risk management in public sector. Nonetheless, in order for this to happen, first an increased awareness on the importance of risk management in public sector organizations is needed. As a concluding note, most emerging researches should aim mainly to promote and support risk management in public sector and invite central and local governments for more commitment.

References

Parenting Styles: Interaction with Hyperactivity

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Abstract

Hyperactivity is a mental health disorder that causes drastic fluctuation level of concentration and hyperactivity (Snyder, 2006). People with hyperactivity have difficulty concentrating, sitting position, in dedicating attention, stay organized, following instructions, memorizing the details and management of impulsiveness (Smith, 2016). Participants were from primary school students in Kosovo, N=200 Children age 9-11 and N=200 parents, they completed the following instruments, PSDQ questionnaire; (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) this instruments was for measuring parenting styles, and Children behavioral checklist version for parents (Achenbach and Rescorla, 2007). The results shown that hyperactivity of children was positively correlated with authoritarian and tolerant parenting styles. In the survey results show that 74.0% of children participate in extra-curricular activities, and 26.0% did not participate in extra-curricular activities. Regression analysis explain 32% of variance for hyperactivity factor as a depended variable predicted by Gender and authoritarian parenting style. Also male has higher mean of hyperactivity than female and results was significantly different with p=.030*

Conclusion is that parents who set strict rules authoritarian parents and tolerant parents can have a hyperactive children. Usually there is no need for special treatment for parents, already they have to be empathic with their children, collaboration with peers, relatives and parent-child cooperation which will give positive effect.

Keywords: Hyperactivity, parenting styles, Kosovo

Introduction

Hyperactivity disorder is a mental health disorder that causes drastic fluctuation level of concentration and hyperactivity (Snyder, 2006). People with hyperactivity have difficulty concentrating; sitting position, in dedicating attention, stay organized, following instructions, memorizing the details and management of impulsiveness (Smith, 2016). The symptoms that those children shows are easily confused with signs that shows a puckish boy or a girl, and that's why parents neglect their manners, thinking that those signs are transitory.

Based on Pediatric American Academy, hyperactivity affects 4-12 percent of pupils in USA. Symptomes are shown usually before 7 year old. Studies shown that a lot of girls and boys are diagnosed with hyperactivity, and often there is a strong family history of men others provided (Motamedi, 2016)

But, based on a study made by Control and Prevent Center of diseases in USA, the number of persons affected by hyperactivity, is 4/6% of American society, from age 5-17, approximately 4.5 milion), and boys are more affected compared to girls. The cause of occurrence of hyperactivity is still unknown, and a lot of studies has shown that this form of disorder has neurological basis (L.Quilin, 2012).
Regarding parental styles researchers have discovered important interaction between parenting styles and the effect these styles have on children. During 1960 psychologist conducted a study in more than 100 children of preschool age. Using parental interview and other research methods, she identified 4 parent’s important dimensions: Disciplinary Strategies, Warmth and nurturance, Communication styles and Expectation of maturity and control.

According to Baumrind (1991), parents have conviction and status oriented, and expect their orders to be heard without explanation.

Authoritative parents: Just as authoritarian parents, those with authoritative style establish rules and guidance, that their children should attend. However this parental style is more democratic (Baumrind, 1991).

Tolerant Parents, have fewer requests to their childrens. Those parents rarely discipline their children, because they relatively low expectation of maturity and self control.

**Research Question**

P.1 How Interconnect parental styles with hyperactivity at 9 to 11 year old children?

**Methodology**

This study is quantitative study using self report questionnaires and included children and parents in the study.

**Sample**

Participants were primary school students in Kosovo, N=200 Children age 9-11, 53.6 % female and 46.4% male and N=200 parents, male and female. From different municipalities in Kosovo.

**Instrument**

Participants completed the following instruments, PSDQ questionnaire; (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) this instruments was for measuring parenting styles, and Children behavioral checklist version for parents (Achenbach and Rescorla, 2007), both questionnaires was with a Likert scale and demographic data questionnaire.

**Procedures**

Parents had 1 day to complete the questionnaire and than through children they send back it. Every child completed questionnaire individually, and had 40 minutes to complete it. Students who did the researches read loudly the questions were in questionnaire, showing examples, to prevent difficulties while reading them. In addition, they had 5 minutes break to prevent straining. To ensure confidence, childrens name is not shown in questionnaire, that’s why the same codes are recorded for child and parents questionnaire. An envelope is attached for teachers, to return questionnaires to researchers of this study.

**Results**

Results will present the main findings of the study by using the adequate concluding analyses to give an answer to the research hypothesis, and to give an explanation to the aim of the research. The internal consistence of the questionnaire of questionnaires was at the accepted level to trust the sustainability of measures.

**Table 1: Alpha’s coefficients for Questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hyperactivity scale</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale of Parenting styles questionnaires</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result presented in the Table 1 show that the internal consistence of the questionnaire is acceptable and it makes understand that the items within the certain grades have sustainability and they measure what they designed for.
Table 2. Correlation between parenting styles and hyperactivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Authoritative</th>
<th>Authoritarian</th>
<th>Tolerant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.433**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant</td>
<td>-.381**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.673**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperactivity</td>
<td>-.145*</td>
<td>.202**</td>
<td>.175*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows positive interaction between hyperactivity and autritarian and tolerant parenting styles, and negative interaction between hyperactivity and authoritative parenting style.

Regression analysis explain 32% of variance for hyperactivity factor as a depended variable predicted by gender and authoritarian parenting style ate the level of $\beta = 1.027$, $p=.01$.

Table 3. Gender differences among children with hyperactivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Stress</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>p=.030*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3, show a significant differences between male and female of hyperactivity, male showed higher level of hyperactivity, the male $M=5.5$ with $SD=2.9$ and female $M=4.6$ with $SD=2.7$ and $p=.030^*$. It was interesting because t-test showed that children who was engaged in the extracurricular activities has low level of hyperactivity with $M= 4.7$ and $SD=2.7$ and children who did not attend extracurricular activities has higher level of hyperactivity with $M=5.9$ and $SD=2.9$ with $p=.014^*$. Also children with poor results in school has higher results in hyperactivity.

In te sample of parents it was no significant differences between male and female parents of parenting styles.

Discussions

Based on the search that we have conducted, conclusion is that parents who set strict rules authoritarian parents and tolerant parents can have hyperactive children. Usually there is no need for special treatment for parents, already they have to be empathic with their children, collaboration with peers, relatives and parent-child cooperation which will give positive effect.

Our data show that parental styles correlate with hyperactivity of their children and it is important to have this information.

Answerinto reseaech question results show significant interaction between parenting styles of parents and hyperactivity of their children. It is very important to know that children who are engaged in the ekstracurricular activities are less hyperactive than children who do not participate in the ekstracurricular activities, and also male are more hyperactivity than female.

In the research done by, Juan Luis Linares, J. Antoni Ramos-Quiroga (2015), results showed that higher rigidity and lower emotional connection were significantly associated with hyperactivity family functioning. Regarding parental bonding, the results showed significant differences only in the care dimension, with the hyperactivity group reporting lower care than the control group. The results suggest that hyperactivity families present dysfunctional family functioning with a rigid, separated typology, and parental bonding based on control without affection.

In the study done by Hamid Alizadeh Caroline Andries (2014), the results indicate that there are significant relationships between ADHD and parenting styles same with study done in Kosovo. That is, there is a negative relationship between having an ADHD child and applying authoritative parenting style, whereas the relationship is positive for the authoritarian style. It differs just in the tolerant parenting style because in study done in Kosovo has positive correlation with hyperactivity.
and in the study of Iranian sample they do not find any significant relationship between having an ADHD child and applying a permissive parenting style.

References


Dual Diagnosis as a Tool for Therapists and Social Workers

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Abstract

The problem of dual diagnosis described as the first in Poland Lehmann in 1993. He noticed that for people with dual diagnosis is needed different diagnostic and therapeutic-specific approach and that social services (Lehman, 2000; Lehman 1993; Lehman, Myers 1994). Clinical experience suggests the need for a clear separation of this group of patients from both patients and the mentally ill odwykowo. T HAT approach allows to carry out homogeneous diagnostic psychiatric patients. Such ayodrębnienie It is dictated by the difficulties of diagnostic and therapeutic (Siegfried 1998; Sciacca 1991; Lehman, 1998). One clinical term for such a diverse group of patients do not permit a homogeneous diagnostic tests and determine the needs, problems and medical treatment and social services. Interest in this group of patients is not only due to cognitive reasons, but also due to the increasing number of people with dual diagnosis, more effective treatment and social assistance. Another reason is the rapidly growing number of people with PD. This group represents a challenge for physicians, social workers (Crome, Myton 2004; Lehman 2000; Alaja, Sepia1998). Clinical studies confirm the phenomenon of interactivity in which a mentally ill person is at high risk of developing mood-dependent dependence, particularly alcohol and those who are at high risk for mental illness (Lehman 2000). Dual diagnosis is the term defining the clinical coexistence in the same person from one side of a mental disorder, and disorders related to psychoactive substances, mostly drugs and / or alcohol (Abel-Saleh 2004; Crome, Myton 2004). The population of patients with dual diagnosis is large and varies widely in type and severity of the mental illness, the type of psychoactive agents and specific disorders resulting from the adoption of psychoactive substances, psychological and social skills which is obtained support and other factors (Lehman 1996; Ridgely 1987), such as schizophrenia. Severe mental illness (severe mental illness) as a concept which takes into account the clinical diagnosis (diagnosis) the degree of impairment of (disability) and duration of disorder (duration). This criterion includes serious mental breakdowns such as schizophrenia, bipolar affective disorder, depression. These disorders seriously impair people-to-people contact, self-care. Treatment of people with dual diagnosis is a problem because it results from the combination of two extremely different ways of dealing with mental illness and addiction.

Keywords: double diagnosis, social work, therapy, social psychology, psychiatry

Introduction

In 1997, for the first time was describe the possibility of the development of mental illness as a result of substance use, as well as on the ground of mental disorders opportunities addiction These measures (Mc Lella et al. 1997).

The problem of dual diagnosis described as the first in Poland Lehmann in 1993. He noticed that for people with dual diagnosis is needed different diagnostic and therapeutic-specific approach and that social services (Lehman, 2000; Lehman 1993; Lehman, Myers 1994).

Clinical experience suggests the need for a clear separation of this group of patients from both patients and the mentally ill odwykowo. T HAT approach allows to carry out homogeneous diagnostic psychiatric patients. Such ayodrębnienie It is dictated by the difficulties of diagnostic and therapeutic (Siegfried 1998; Sciacca 1991; Lehman, 1998).
One clinical term for such a diverse group of patients do not permit a homogeneous diagnostic tests and determine the needs, problems and medical treatment and social services.

Interest in this group of patients is not only due to cognitive reasons, but also due to the increasing number of people with dual diagnosis, more effective treatment and social assistance. Another reason is the rapidly growing number of people with PD. This group represents a challenge for physicians, social workers (Crome, Myton 2004; Lehman 2000; Alaja, Sepia1998).

Clinical studies confirm the phenomenon of interactivity in which a mentally ill person is at high risk of developing mood-dependent dependence, particularly alcohol and those who are at high risk for mental illness (Lehman 2000).

Dual diagnosis is the term defining the clinical coexistence in the same person from one side of a mental disorder, and disorders related to psychoactive substances, mostly drugs and / or alcohol (Abel-Saleh 2004; Crome, Myton 2004).

The population of patients with dual diagnosis is large and varies widely in type and severity of the mental illness, the type of psychoactive agents and specific disorders resulting from the adoption of psychoactive substances, psychological and social skills which is obtained support and other factors (Lehman 1996; Ridgely 1987), such as schizophrenia.

Severe mental illness (severe mental illness) as a concept which takes into account the clinical diagnosis (diagnosis) the degree of impairment of (disability) and duration of disorder (duration).

This criterion includes serious mental breakdowns such as schizophrenia, bipolar affective disorder, depression. These disorders seriously impair people-to-people contact, self-care.

Treatment of people with dual diagnosis is a problem because it results from the combination of two extremely different ways of dealing with mental illness and addiction.

Therapeutic programs intended for patients with severe mental illness should take into account zy Double diagnosis. Co-occurrence of two diseases is a common phenomenon at the same time and is no exception to. It is important that this fact be taken into account and should not be a surprise to physicians dealing with people with a problem. Me psychic, moreover, in all pro Grams of mental health after You should make the appropriate changes.

Teams specialized in the treatment of one d Disorders are insufficient because they remain Bind many patients without diagnosis, treatment and recovery. In addition, many of the elements These therapeutic programs will not dopaFor the specific problems of patients with po Double recognition.

However, many physicians, patients, and their family members are confronted with very difficult but temporary problems, and for obvious reasons they show discouragement, doubt or despair. Often they do not have sufficient knowledge about the availability of effective treatments and long-term recovery.

Therefore, it is necessary to realize the existence of these phenomena, which will cause the launch of appropriate education. Maybe hope is also a very important element in the process of recovery.

Eevery ill person has a chance to recover No, but the task of doctors is to give him realistic and optimistic information, taking into account the possibility of long-term improvement O health (Corrigan, Salzer 2004; Deegan, 1996.; Roe, D., Chopra, Rudnick, 2004).

Co-occurrence of psychiatric disorders and the use of SP can be characterized by various dependencies

1. The psychological craving is the cause and the SP reaching for a more or less conscious attempt to self-heal;
2. The acquisition of SP produces a psychopathic syndrome and can contribute to the development of a mental illness;
3. The co-occurring disorders are primary, no causal;
4. The present are non-specific genetic and other biological factors and social changes that underlie both disorders (Aries-Furga, et al Steinbarth 2004; Abou-Saleh 2004; Lehman 2000; Księżpolska 2006)

Patients with double diagnosis are more likely to suffer from somnolence than those who are addicted without accompanying mental disorders. (Buckley 2006; Salads 1990; Jones 2004).
Difficulties in the treatment of people with double diagnosis

There are three basic groups of problems that make it difficult to treat patients with schizophrenia and addiction/psychoactive substances: (1) Economic and social problems. Patients with double diagnosis require much more financial expense than treatment for addicts only. Problems arising from the patient himself. These problems are related to or arising from the occurrence of negative symptoms, cognitive deficits (Bażyński 2002) (2) Problems on the pathway patient - therapist (doctor). There are few integrated dual-use patients. The great majority are treated in a traditional way, the treatment strategies are not comprehensive, more focused on the treatment of individual symptoms. The use of confrontational techniques, a model for hindering participation in the treatment of patients dependent on coexisting schizophrenia (Hoff 1999).

It is definitely difficult to assess the co-occurrence of psychiatric disorders and the addiction / abuse of psychoactive substances in children and adolescents. This difficulty consists of a specific clinical picture combined with adolescence, specific symptoms of schizophrenia and psychoactive drugs. Somatic complications resulting from the interaction with psychoactive agents are broadly described in the literature of the subject. Wright, Walker2001; McEvoy, Kitch n 2000; Neiman, Haapaniemi 2000)

There is a need to create centers with a separate treatment model, which in their therapeutic program will introduce therapy for people with psychoactive substance abuse problems as well as those associated with mental disorders related to personality traits. Co-occurrence of abuse of psychoactive substances and mental disorders is associated with many factors. The type of psychoactive substances used, the time it takes, and the personality traits of the person and the type of mental disorder are of decisive importance. One of the most important elements of the diagnosis is the attempt to assess the relationship between substance abuse and psychopathology. Used for therapeutic interventions in patients with mental disorders associated with psychoactive substance include rehabilitation and treatment of various forms of interaction p [psychosocial inclusive, which aims NAFO Eradication or elimination of causes or symptoms of diseases and disorders. Rehabilitation includes procedures to help you acquire skills and support Wound patients in overcoming difficulties you Those who are suffering from illness or disorder.

Getting back to health means overcoming the disease and returning to a satisfying and fulfilling life, not just mere symptomatic disorder (Bellack 2006; New Freedom Commission on Mental Health 2003). It also improves on taking significant personal life activities and interpersonal relationships as well. Forming an individual sense of hope and autonomy.

Depression and abuse of psychoactive substances

There is a serious connection between depression and the abuse of psychoactive substances, especially alcohol and heroin. The use of alcohol and heroin significantly aggravates depression and its severity has been demonstrated by the MMPI test

In the treatment of patients with dual diagnosis of psychoactive substance abuse with depressive disorders, latent psychopathological symptoms appear in the final phase of detoxification. This state mobilizes to develop a treatment program utilizing patient knowledge, orientation and insight to integrate personality elements and social functioning. In this regard, it is necessary to include a social worker.

Depending on the depth of depression, a detailed program is required to involve psychiatrists, addiction treatment psychologists and social worker. The whole program is personalized and tailored to the patient's level and capabilities. Behavioral methods, therapeutic interventions directed at the emotional sphere are at this stage validated.

Abuse of psychoactive substances and anxiety

The symptoms of anxiety are not alien to people abusing psychoactive substances. Overexposed anxiety can be the primary or secondary consequence of their abuse. It is possible to observe a close interaction between the use of psychoactive substances because it experiences strong anxiety, and abuse enhances the symptoms of anxiety. Detoxification is necessary to start therapy. With a low level of anxiety addiction therapists are able to cope. If anxiety has pathologic signs, the therapeutic procedure is different. There is a holistic approach to addressing addiction and mental health.
Abnormal personality (sociopathy) and abuse of psychoactive substances

It should be noted that in the current classification of DSM III and later sociopathy is not taken into account, and the concept of antisocial personality has been introduced with the need to appear before the age of 15 certain characteristics. Out of 17 features, at least three must appear before the age of 15. These characteristics include: frequent truancy, lack of adaptation to school conditions, criminal activity, escape from home, aggressive attitude. When a person reaches the age of 18, three or four of the following symptoms may occur: inability to work, recurrent criminal behavior, failure in marriage, physical abuse, impotence, lying, carelessness. These symptoms should persist for 5 years after age 15 in the absence of identified mental retardation, schizophrenia or other mental illness.

The antisocial personality was found in MMPI studies in substance abuse abusers and co-occurring criminal behavior. Consequently, in a therapeutic program outside of therapy focused on the abuse of psychoactive substances, it focuses on antisocial behavior and behavior.

Persons with antisocial (sociopathic) personality abuse of psychoactive substances can be treated in addiction treatment clinics with a special focus on the socialization process. The patient is responsible for the treatment process. Therapists should use supervision. For this type of patient it is necessary to conclude a very clear, unequivocal contract specifying not only the plan of the activity, but its active participation.

In this program, the program of reintegration of patients into the rhythm of normal social life is also of great importance. It is justified by the patient’s life history. Typically, these patients are exposed to antisocial behavior from their youth.

Schizophrenia and abuse of psychoactive substances

Schizophrenia belongs to a group of mental disorders that can damage the cognitive processes: disorganization of the personality and isolation from the environment. Symptoms of schizophrenia include psychotic states that involve a reduced organization of mental functions. In the course of acute psychosis, the patient loses contact with reality, producing psychopathological symptoms, thinking disorders and speech. As a result, problems in working at work, interpersonal contacts, self care are revealed. (Miriń 1999).

The motivation for taking psychoactive substances for a person suffering from schizophrenia is related to the very subjective sense of the benefits and comfort they give. In general, schizophrenics choose the kind of substance to get the maximum minimize or eliminate symptoms of the disease and to provide intense emotional experience, reduce the effects of medication (.Dixon L, G Haas, 1991; .Dixon L, G Haas, 2001)

Studies often confirm the association between schizophrenia and psychoactive substance abuse. (Allerman Erdlen 1990) This creates a special therapeutic program for these patients because they require a specific treatment that combines psychiatric treatment and psychoactive substance abuse. Detoxification, which is a necessary part of therapy in the case of mentally ill people, is not entirely possible. This is due to the need for medication during schizophrenia. It is also necessary to control coordinated treatment, as patients can often include other drugs. Outpatient treatment can be performed by a trained social worker or social worker. Patients with schizophrenia and at the same time abusive patients do not belong to those who undergo therapy are unstable in treatment. It is also difficult to obtain beneficial therapeutic relationships. To some extent, this results in too much rejection by the psychiatric health care system. Patients who come back to use psychoactive substances are significantly affected by mental illness. It follows that such patients require appropriate help, a specific health care system and the program.

In schizophrenia a lot of emphasis is placed on building relationships of intimacy, tolerance of rejection, lack of directives. In addiction, borders become important and ii terap confrontational conduct. (Mellibruda J Sobolewska Mellibruda-2006)

In every human being there are biological and genetically transmitted tendencies to create strong emotional bonds with other people. If for some reason occur, especially in the early stages of human development, in later life may be interfering with the development of emotional, there will be an emotional disorder, but the need for them to remain. (LA Pervin, John, OP., 2005; Fonagy P, T. Leigh, 1996).

Within personal models of thinking and relationships, I and others throughout the course of my life create a bonding system that aims to integrate the experience gained.
J. Bowlby believes that this model is created according to various kinds of rules from the earliest childhood and is interactive. The formation of proper attachment creates an inner conviction that you are a loved one, worthy of love, valid and acceptable, and that the world is full of friendly people open to the needs of others. Otherwise, based on experience, a belief is created that the environment is unworthy of trust. This is in the company of loved ones. Close conducive to the appearance of negative beliefs about the self-image, unworthy of love (Dozier, M., 1990).

Literature a lot of space is devoted to his mother and her relationship with the child and its availability. Relationships and availability would be relevant in the emergence of mental illness, particularly schizophrenia.

A. Ainsworth has identified three styles of behavior that define the bonds that are made between a child and a mother.

Safe style of attachment, evasive and anxiety-ambivalent. The safe style is most optimal for the development of the child, because of the sense of security, self-confidence and trust. This style is created in the relationship between the child and other people, between him and the object of attachment. These are personal cognitive structure ei a kind of cognitive framework through which to appear and processes occur perception of reality, events and relationships with others. Avoidance style does not provide a sense of security. In adult life this style does not provide a sense of security, arouses discomfort and danger. An anxiety-ambivalent style of attachment creates a sense of uncertainty in social relationships, not satisfying the need for closeness. (Marchwicki P., 2005)

In situations of danger, attachment becomes apparent in the search for safety, homeostasis by regulating the intensity of anxiety. Children who have failed to create a safe parenting style can try to attach themselves to other people who play an important role in their lives. It is not entirely sure whether adults prefer the style of attachment developed in childhood or whether they have a chance in favorable conditions to change in adulthood. The relationships that arise between a psychiatric patient, especially with a double diagnosis, and the staff members may try to understand in the context of attachment theory. People with dual diagnosis belong to difficult patients. Characteristics for them are: distrust, lack of cooperation, exposing personnel to the patient, interrupting therapy or drop from the disciplinary therapy (Marchwicki P. 1990).

Conducted observations have shown that the neurophysiological sensitivity of the central nervous system to psychoactive agents (psychostimulants) and its relevance to the disclosure of schizophrenia, induced psychosis, and spontaneous occurrence of psychopathological symptoms of the productive type even during abstinence. Psychotic symptoms may also appear in healthy people as a result of stimulants. Kokkinidis, Anisman 1987; Javitt 1981). People with schizophrenia are more likely to experience schizophrenia.

Efforts were made to assess psychotic symptoms in people with schizophrenia and at the same time addicted to psychoactive drugs. Attempts were made to demonstrate the existence of a subtype of schizophrenia directly related to addiction. Compared patients with schizophrenia and using psychoactive substances with those who did not use these remedies. The results indicate that schizophrenia using psychoactive substances have earlier revealed the first signs of the disease and had more, more frequent relapses and more frequent hospitalizations (Silver, Abboud E 1994).

The addiction process in people with schizophrenia is different from the mentally ill. A significant difference is particularly high susceptibility to psychoactive drugs. One reason is the exacerbation of psychotic symptoms and the adoption of psychoactive substances at that time. Causing the significant deterioration of interpersonal relationships. It looks different in abusive people. Their relationships are improving considerably, especially among young people. (Drake, Oscher 1990; Wolford 1999)

The program can be implemented at an elevated hospital ward linked to an environmental unit, day ward, and clinic.

This program should be flexible employing staff with expertise in treating such patients. Each patient should be individually evaluated and possibly have a separate plan and program of treatment that should not be excessive, fixed with the patient. The pharmacological treatment should be supervised. In each case a contract is required in detail.

**Treatment stages:**

(1) Interview and diagnostics The basis for initiating any therapy is to perform a diagnostic interview. If there are difficulties then you can get help from a social worker, your immediate family.
(2) Adoption for detoxification Depending on the severity of the disease is determined detoxification program with the determination of doses of psychotrophic drugs. With severe psychopathological symptoms, close supervision of staff is required. The time of this stage is not determined in advance. This is a very individual procedure.

(3) Treatment program and their implementation. At the end of the detoxification process allows you to establish pharmacotherapy. Behavioral therapy sessions, individual and group therapy and occupational therapy sessions are also started. The patient is enough in touch to get started Collaboration in everyday activities. Increased competence, stability, ability to use their mental ability to function better.

(4) Stabilization of mental and physical condition. This is an important stage of therapy, because the patient already has social relationships, he works according to his abilities, he is dealing with the requirements. The patient receives reinforcement and supports the desired behavior. Stabilization of health opens the possibility of preparing a rehabilitation plan conditional on the patient's entry into the social environment. Success at this stage depends not only on the patient itself, although it is most important here, but also from the facility the patient will take to further care and a social worker, family assistant. Next step after the discharge from the ward is not the easiest. The patient remains in custody, but much more time outside the rehabilitation center. The patient is required to be subjected to analysis of body secretions (wet) on myocardial rósc psychoactive substances (drugs). Significance is the effect of the social worker, who together with the patient prepares a contract that clearly defines the scope of action. A social worker may maintain contact with a therapeutic center and, in the event of a relapse, mobilizes the patient to seek treatment. The rehabilitation stage provides stabilization in a non-psychiatric ward for patients. Such a solution is advantageous for patients with dual diagnosis and the therapeutic community in which the patient can achieve a sense of normalcy and support (Gestley, Alterman, Melellan, Woody 1990).

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Effect of Using Twitter in Teaching Parasitology in King Abduaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

The evolution of Social Web, particularly Social Media makes users interaction with Internet massive ideal proceeding. Web technologies have completely improved the Internet dynamics and allowing users to originate texts, images or video as well as to share and participate through huge geographical limits. This research trial explores the Saudi girls Parasitology student' behavior, understanding and effectiveness toward using Twitter in supporting learning and teaching aims. A main target was to raise discussion among students and promote learning via supporting student time on goal. Our innovative attempt followed guidelines lay in the Learning and Teaching such as Communicative Action Theory to increase the student education experience through strong connections and enlarge content sharing between girl students, for the sake of building social collaborative learning community. By using this method, we found different girl student comprehension of using Twitter, some have very positive views to be as a tool for supporting lectures while some views consider twitter have small interest to the students own learning.

Keywords: Twitter, Parasitology, Saudi Arabia, Social Media, Communicative Action theory,

Introduction

The evolution of Social Web makes huge paradigm shift and nowadays life is impossible without the technologies such as computer, smart phone, tablet PC and others, in all cultures people have grown so familiar to use these tools for their social activities that it is difficult to imagine life without them. The social networking tools such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Google+ and blogs permits the online communication and also collaborates the work between participants. By participating in the social networks, now the computer users all over the world are cooperating in a new method of learning which allowed to make reshaping for all information and culture as well as to inform how initiate and cooperate content between individuals groups and societies (Bianco, 2009; Somerville and Brar, 2010; Kassens-Noor 2012). Learning by using computer mediated communication (CMC) in the world allows students and their teachers to enjoy their jobs outside the classrooms (Wakefield et al., 2011; Reed, 2013).

In 1991, Lave and Wenger dowel the term "Communities of Practice" and gave its definition related to those people who hold the process of collective learning using shared domain of human effort (Wenger, 2006), which mean that Communities of Practice “CoP” is a community where learning include everyone (Wakefield et al., 2011). Learning by using computers affected the teacher’s communication planning in classroom and required many to rethink in way of teaching (Neo & Neo, 2004). Wakefield and Warren (2012) found that tools as blogs and microblogs permits teachers to induce free-flowing life-like conversations outside class community which help the learning shape making it more authentic and real. They declare that this makes learners as part of 21st century community by using technology for learning, the viewpoints are exchanged, collaboration are noticed, explanation are posted and experiences are participated (Wakefield et al., 2011).

Reed (2013) reported that although there are many websites and blogs still debating and encouraging the utilizing of Twitter in education, few published research related to how much social media assists education and learners and increase the student experience (Junco et al., 2011; Kassens-Noor 2012). However, research explains the student’s integrating using various tools depending on individual choice to create their own personal learning environments (Dabbagh & Kitsantas 2011; Hall 2009). Twitter allows teachers to readily examine how it may increase the innovative teaching process that promote classroom communication (Parry, 2008) and allow the instructors to know those students that their voices not heard (Rankin, 2009). Twitter users share the brief updates of 140 characters, interchange cosine direct messages with
others, remarked and repost enjoyable tweets from others, participate in pictures, video, and Web links. International community of users permits participants to remain joined with their existing followers and entice more followers (Wakefield & Warren, 2012).

According to Reed (2013) who mentioned that Anderson and Haddard (2005) found that comparing face-to-face learning, females experienced better understood deep education, when they get learning online. The participants said that they were greater capable to be their sound audible online than in the classroom which was better realized thoroughly education (Palloff and Pratt, 2007). However, this demand has since been misbelieve by other researchers (Gunawardena, 1995; Tu, 2002) who dispute that quality of computer mediated communication (CMC) can be knew similar to or stronger than communication in face-to-face classrooms where social signs such as body language and facial expressions are existing. Social existence has been positively correlated with comprehend learning and course satisfaction (Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997; Richardson & Swan, 2003; Lowenthal, 2009). Other factor linked with social aspect is recognized interaction (Gunawardena, 1995; Kim et al., 2011). Some learners may be inconvenient with social communication, while others may not, but request to exceed against determined standard for individual cause (Wakefield & Warren, 2012). When learners attract in public interaction, that behavior supports the effort feeling of being there jointly with other learners – sense of being part of social community. Contravention and inability to share ends the efficiency of communicative actions possessed by students. Teachers, moderators, and participants in the computer mediated communications (CMCs) all assist assimilation social existence (Gunawardena, 1995; Tu, 2002).

The literature appears confusing results on males and females learning research in computer-mediated environments. Some studies have preferable enlarge education in males, others have favored females, while still others record no statistically significant sex variation. For instance, Barrett and Lally (1999) reported that males in an online course were very socially effective and recorded more than females. By contrast, Anderson and Haddard (2005) found that females felt they educated more deeply online when contrasted with face-to-face method. A research on 1997 reported that gender played no role and both sexes showed similar use of online learning environment (Ory et al., 1997). A Twitter study as learning environment should give light on its usefulness to assist communicative actions prepared towards education and support the field better understand if there are variations in the role discourse plays for males and females in online setting. In United States, the demographic studies mentioned that 55% of Twitter users are female (Quantcast, 2010) and 56% of Facebook users are women who becoming more involved in using technology and social media, at least in non-educational case (Smith, 2010; Wakefield et al., 2011).

This article displayed to explore the Parasitology girls student’s attitudes, understandings and relations in using Twitter application in two semesters for supporting learning and teaching the parasitic information in King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. There were many objectives for this trial, firstly to improve learning for Parasitology subjects, to motivate ability of students for getting information, to use Social Media in useful ways, to inform Saudi community about parasites and parasitic diseases and finally to introduce new method for getting marks.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Creating Twitter Account:

An account named “We_Love_Para” was created and it was under the responsibility of the course teacher Prof. Dr. Najia A. Al-Zanbagi (Para is a short name of Parasitology). The girls students were asked to tweet using this account after every course Parasitology lectures which were scheduled in two days per a week for one semester of the year. This account was continued for every teaching semesters and was effective by the course girls students till the second term of 2016. The Parasitology course account “We_Love_Para” still active up to now.

Strategy for Tweeting:

Every girl student in the course was worked individually, and after the course lecture was finished, all students were asked to tweet using our Arabic language. Students should tweet about the subject explained in that day under the supervision of the course teacher who received and revised these tweets via WhatsApp application. The course teacher was firstly started tweets in the designed subject then followed by the student’s tweets. The Arabic tweets of subject information should be new and useful and preferred to be accompanied by photo or film (Figure 1). This activity was considered as additional activity in the course, there was limited time for tweeting as well as there were marks according to which student tweets first.
Effectiveness Announcement:

At the end of every semester, an educational exhibition was held in the main hall of Science College, King Abdulaziz University, Girls campus to present all efforts done by the course girl students. Exhibition announcement including the activity name and the date and times was distributed in the Girls campus (Figure 2). During the event, every student had to show the visitors her effort and general evaluation was done from the exhibition visitors and the course teacher.

RESULTS

At period of two semesters which were the first of 2015 and the second of 2016, the Twitter application was used as an extra activity for girl students in Parasitology course. In 1st semester of 2014/2015, the total student number was 9 students, while in in the 2nd semester 2015/2016, they were only two students. The first tweet was on 16th September 2014, the tweets were completed until 14th March 2016 using 149 photos and 30 educational films. Other semesters of 2015 and 2016, the course not registered by students.

The total tweets was 375 tweets during that period and the @Student1 was the most student made tweets as 20.3%, while some students showed no activity in tweets (Table 1, Figure 3). Those students use this activity will get 20% out of 100% in the final evaluation.

Regarding the effect of using this activity in the student’s grade in the course of Parasitology, it was clear that no correlation between the student tweets number and her grade in the final evaluation of Parasitology course, that some student who showed no activity in tweeting, they got good evaluation. For those students who practiced in using Twitter, mostly it raised their final evaluation in the course as well as it gave them more experience and they became more active and confident (Table 1, Figure 3)

In the point of the categories of Re-tweets from people in Twitter for the Parasitology students tweets, the highest number was in the range >4 re-tweets which was 109 (41.1%), while the liked-tweets was 215 (62.9%). The minimum number was in category of <9 that was 2 (0.8%), and no liked-tweets in that category (Table 2, Figure 4). Regarding the most tweets had more re-tweeted and liked-tweet was for that related to the information of animal relationships such as commensalism, symbiosis and parasitism (Figure 5).

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

Although the trial of using this social application (Twitter) in teaching scientific subject in Biology Department was considered innovative technique in teaching, only 66.7% of the Parasitology students (n=9) used Twitter as an extra activity in the course, the rest of them showed no response toward this type of activity. Even though some students did not tweet during the period of studying the subjects of Parasitology, they are lucky to get grade C or C+, and that because the marks of the activity corresponding only 20% of the total.

For using this activity just for two times during the years 2015 and 2016, that because the Parasitology course is considered as elective course for the students specialized in Zoology. The feedback from the followers of the account We_Love_Para was encouraging to continue in this activity in the future as well as the account is still active. They mentioned that it is useful account to know new information about the parasitic diseases and how to prevent themselves to be in contact with the sources of the parasitological infections. This Academic trial is considered superior all over the world, so we couldn't find other results to compare with them.

From our point of view, we found that Twitter application was useful academic social activity and considered as excellent tool for improving subjects learning as mentioned by Basu (2013). Also, we noticed that Twitter application could be highly useful and informative if it used well and correct as declared by Deloatch (2015).

In Conclusion the learning for Parasitology course was improved and most the Parasitology students were enthusiastic and well motivated. By using Twitter application for extra activity encourage that the Social Media could be used usefully. In addition, there was positive feedback in the Saudi community and some student’s level whose their marks were clearly increased. Finally and incredibly good scientific experience was gained for both the Parasitology girl students and their teacher as well.
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Fig 1: Twitter tweets for Parasitology students showing using Arabic language in the semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016

Fig 2: The educational exhibition banner for Parasitology girl students showing their effort during the semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students Twitter Accounts</th>
<th>No. of Tweets</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Students Results</th>
<th>Students Twitter Accounts</th>
<th>No. of Tweets</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Students Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>@Student1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>C+ (75)</td>
<td>@Student8</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>@Student2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>B+ (85)</td>
<td>@Student9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>D (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@Student3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>D (60)</td>
<td>@ Teach_pers</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@Student4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td>@ Teach_pers</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>@Student5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>C+ (75)</td>
<td>@Others</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>@Student6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>D (60)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>@Student7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>C (70)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Twitter accounts for Parasitology girl students showing the % of tweets in Twitter application and their results in the semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016
Fig 3: Twitter accounts for Parasitology girl students showing % of tweets in Twitter application and their results in the semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Re-tweets</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Categories of Liked-tweets</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
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<tr>
<td>&gt;4 = 109</td>
<td>41.1</td>
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<td>62.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 - 6 = 145</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>4 - 6 = 125</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - 9 = 9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7 - 9 = 2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;9 = 2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>&lt;9 = 0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total = 265</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>Total = 342</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Categories of Re-tweets and Liked-tweets from people in Twitter application for the Parasitological tweets in the course account in semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016

Fig 4: Categories of Re-tweets and liked-tweets (1: (>4), 2: (4 -6), 3: (7-9), 4: (<9)) from people in Twitter application for the Parasitology tweets the course account in semesters 1st 2015 and 2nd 2016

Fig 5: Three tweets were the most re-tweeted and liked-tweets by the others people in Twitter application which related to the categories of animal relationships
Cultural Relations and Political Considerations: The British Council in Eastern Europe during the 1980s

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Abstract

Established between the Two World Wars in 1934, the British Council was charged to undertake Britain’s cultural relations with other countries. However, its direct involvement and adjustment to Britain’s sudden political decisions, on the international scene, is an indication on the inter-relationship between the British cultural section and the other sections of British foreign policy despite the structural separation of the British Council from British Embassies abroad and the autonomous status this cultural agency was believed to enjoy.

Keywords: Cultural Relations – Political Considerations – British Council – Eastern Europe – Cultural Diplomacy.

Introduction

Ideology has played an increasingly important role in international relations as an excuse and justification for action. For instance by the end of the 1930’s, the Allies went to war in defence of western civilization and afterwards divided into ideologically separate blocs. Between the two world wars every major European power embarked on a programme of national advertisement. France, Germany and Italy simply multiplied the activities of “cultural bodies” they established in the 19th century. In 1925, the Soviet Union founded the “All Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries” (VOKS) and in 1934, Britain established the British Committee which became the British Council to consolidate her world position and protect her interests.

The object of the present paper is to consider some of the main uses of cultural relations then to examine the British Council relations with Eastern Europe during the 1980’s as the British foreign policy under Margaret Thatcher moved eastwards where new opportunities were offered. To what extent could the British Council cultivate a good image of capitalist Britain in communist Eastern Europe?

Before considering the uses of cultural relations, it is worth defining cultural relations and referring to cultural diplomacy to clarify the difference between the two concepts.

I- Cultural Relations/Cultural Diplomacy:

Cultural relations consist in cultivating cooperation between educational and cultural institutions and people to link different communities, through culture, so that communication and understanding in cultural fields, artistic, intellectual and social – are achieved. The purpose is to reach and maintain understanding and promote cooperation between different nations for their mutual advantage. Unlike cultural diplomacy which presents a beautified picture of each country, cultural relations – far from being selective – try to give a truthful image of a given country's culture.

Cultural relations are basically different from cultural diplomacy though they are very often thought to be “synonymous”. Indeed, the sphere of cultural relations is wider: they operate beyond the performance of governments and their bodies since they can be initiated and supervised by public institutions as well as by private ones.

Cultural relations do not seem to serve time-bound objectives. Their aim is to promote an enduring understanding by trying to dispel misunderstanding or prejudices vis-à-vis the host countries through favourable images or manifestations. These are viewed by governments as being free from political control. Indeed, when diplomatic relations between two countries are broken off and hostility between their governments grows, cultural relations can continue between their peoples –

through non-governmental bodies. For instance, in the 1960's Algeria broke off her diplomacy relations with Britain. Yet, the British Council – a cultural body – carried on its activities in Algeria.

Cultural relations have a broader range than cultural diplomacy though they involve the methods of the latter. Their budget is made out of government grants as well as out of gains and revenues from international sources. In fact, it is only in practice that cultural relations appear to be different from cultural diplomacy. Both resort to the use of culture to establish interaction between different nations. But, whereas the hope of the first one is not necessarily to reach unilateral benefits, the second one's aim is characterized by presenting culture to impress other countries in order to meet certain diplomatic ends.

Thus, it is the kind of use of culture that makes a clear cut difference between cultural relations and cultural diplomacy. For instance, a government can shift from cultural relations by using cultural diplomacy for the sake of direct political and economic purposes.

II- The Main Uses of Cultural Relations:

Governments' main arguments for financing cultural relations comprise 'peace', 'international understanding', 'commerce' and 'conventional diplomacy'. These, in fact, embody the most important uses of cultural relations.

a- Cultural Relations and Peace:

Peace has always been regarded as a blessing and conversely, war as something that causes suffering, a scourge. Therefore, cultural relations may be reviewed as a means of maintaining peace among nations. Yet, although the latter's general conviction that war should be avoided, only few efforts to advance peace are made. Understandably, peace is mostly sought by ordinary citizens. For instance, during the late 1940's, the World Peace Council allegedly gathered 550 million signatures. Probably, most of those who signed wanted and wished peace founded on mutual respect for distinct political systems. The world is always in need of a strong factor which would provide a favourable climate for peace between different countries. But few universities in the world include departments of peace studies and peace is rarely a school subject.

The cultural sphere can be the appropriate one to promote peace. Indeed, cultural ties between nations remain the most crucial links in international relations for their immeasurable benefits. How can cultural relations be called upon to promote peace? By their national focus on specific activities to introduce people to one other, by the transfer of experience and profitable skills and by presenting the value of peaceful activities, cultural relations provide a favourable atmosphere which may allow the flourishing of peace.

Thus, the consequences of the Second World War led European countries to fervently advocate peace. In this context, it was stated that “the Germans turned to cultural communications after World War II as a necessary part of recreating the national image after the Nazi debacle”. In 1984, for example, the State Minister of Federal Germany confirmed the German decision to serve peace. Keeping in mind the German feeling of the guilt towards the world as suggested in the above cited quotation, the German foreign cultural policy was expected to preserve peace. Indeed, the German approach was expressed mainly through the manifested cooperation in the cultural field. In fact, Germany gave a special importance to peace in her cultural relations, probably also for other reasons than guilt. Another example lies in the United States of America. When urging the Americans to adopt the People to People Programme in 1956, Eisenhower stated that the way to exploit the general desire for peace was to convince ordinary people “to lead their governments – if necessary to evade governments”. Individuals from all over the world with whom ideas could be shared represented a force. Indeed, by promoting a kind of warmth between people from different countries, the feeling of jeopardy could be reduced, through

1 Ibid, p. 35.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid.
cultural relations because the latter – as stated by the Italian writer W. R. Pendergast – constitute an alternative channel of information and impressions and relieve mass insecurities by symbols of hope and understanding.\(^1\) Therefore, the hope has been expressed in various instances that peace can be served and achieved through cultural relations, as means of promoting understanding.

\textbf{b- Cultural Relations and International Understanding:}

Understanding is, indeed, a prominent objective of cultural relations while prejudice stands as one of the obstacles. Nothing is more efficient than providing contrary evidence to succeed in fighting stereotypes. Cultural programmes are, as already suggested meant to give a favourable image, to prevent unwelcome reactions or interpretations, particularly those supported by ideologies, since these may be viewed as “representing the greatest obstacle to the sincere combatting of stereotypes. Ideologies are in general nothing but prejudices refined as a system for influence and ultimately for domination”.\(^2\)

For example, at a universal or multilateral level, the material used in education of the young is the first thing to be checked by certain international organizations so that stepping stones – stereotypes – can be greatly reduced. This is part of the efforts displayed at multilateral level in Brunswick by the Georg Eckert Institute – whose work is connected to UNESCO and the Council of Europe – which aims at rectifying and improving knowledge and understanding between nations. On the other hand, the International Society for Educational Information – located in Japan – specifically checks foreign text-books about Japan.

Moreover, the direct bilateral promotion of cultural information and technical activities allow different peoples to know each other better. Cultural bodies promote cultural programmes that assist and foster positive understanding. Among other devices used by cultural agencies in the sending of people from their country to serve abroad and the bringing of foreigners to their own soil for studies or training. Indeed, “people exchange” between different countries remains the best means of accelerating understanding between individuals belonging to different cultures. This approach is practical because people move in both directions to see for themselves what each nation is and what it has to offer in terms of knowledge and scientific achievement especially when they cooperate and work together, since doing things together allows people to communicate more to promote favourable mutual images.

It is for such a reason in part, that most of the cultural agencies’ funds are spent on sending teachers, lecturers and advisers overseas to offer their expertise to foreign countries and on bringing people on their own soil for professional visits, training and studies. By cultivating friendship between people belonging to different cultures, a bridge is thus built, through which other kinds of general ties can spring, commercial ones in particular.

\textbf{b- Cultural Relations as a Support for Conventional Diplomacy:}

During the 20th century, cultural relations have acquired a significant role in international affairs.\(^3\) Many countries have recognized them as the third dimension which accompanies politics and trade in relation between states. In 1964, Senator Fulbright, after whom one of the most imaginative exchange schemes is named, stated in his Foreword to The Fourth Dimension of Foreign Policy that “[c]ultural relations have become an intrinsic part of the way governments and nations relate to one another and of the way institutions and peoples form an understanding of one another across frontiers”. (Coombs, 164) In 1966, cultural relations were referred to, for the first time, by the term ‘third pillar of foreign policy’ by the then German Foreign Minister, Willy Brandt.\(^4\) Besides, Senator Fulbright further explained in his Foreword to The Fourth Dimension of Foreign Policy that,

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item \(^2\) Quoted in J. Mitchell, op.cit, p. 18.
\item \(^3\) P. H. Coombs, op. cit, p. ix.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
Foreign policy cannot be based on military posture and diplomatic activities alone in today’s world. The shape of the world a generation from now will be influenced far more by how well we communicate the values of our society to others than by our military or diplomatic superiority. (Coombs, 1964, p. ix)

The British had implicitly expressed the same point of view in a Foreign Office report as early as 1938. As this suggested:

Of the three elements which go to make up British influence – political, economic and culture – the first two had long been recognized as fundamental and both our political and our commercial influence had been carefully promoted and protected. The third element, our cultural influence, was regarded either as something vaguely creditable but of little practical use or alternatively considerations that it ought never to be degraded to political ends. (Foreign Office, 1938, p. 7)

Indeed, organized activities – such as manifestations of culture, art exhibitions, musical or theatrical performances – by cultural agencies can produce a direct positive impact or work indirectly through the reputation generated by more routine operations – as is the case with languages classes and library services for example. Though the latter are realized at an informal level, they serve conventional diplomacy and bilateral relations in general.

Although the cultural section is small within a country’s embassy, its efficiency greatly affects the other sections which depend on the dynamism of cultural diplomacy. It happens that cultural relations manage to achieve results in the breaking down of barriers between countries. As a good example, one can cite Britain’s support for the Bolivar bicentenary of 1983 in Venezuela which was effectively stage-managed since it was meant to re-establish a positive impression after the tension which followed the Falklands Campaign of 1982 and indeed, as suggested by J. Mitchell:

The United Kingdom’s [cultural] support for the Bolivar bicentenary of 1983 in Venezuela did much to restore friendly feeling after the strain that followed the Falklands campaign of the previous year.¹

Among such significant cultural activities, the organization of sport events between teams belonging to different cultures can be cited as an effective means of creating positive impressions among them, a fact that contributes to the promotion of cultural relations which in their turn can support Conventional Diplomacy. Indeed, sport in its non-commercial form, can be viewed as coming within the wide definition of cultural relations. In this context, one can recall one of the greatest breakthroughs in history, the Ping-Pong diplomacy of 1971. An American table-tennis team on an Asian tour coped well with a competing team from China, which had invited it for a visit.² Chou En-lai, who received the American guests, made a speech in terms of friendship going beyond Ping-Pong. This, in fact, was followed by Henry Kissinger’s exploratory visit to Peking and subsequently by President Nixon’s. Consequently, a positive alteration was witnessed in the relations between the USA and China.³ Kissinger suggestively pointed out that “[o]ne of the most remarkable gifts of the Chinese is to make the meticulously planned appear spontaneous”,⁴ a comment which covers more than practical preparations. The same thing can be said about the English Queen’s speech opening the Commonwealth games.

¹ J. Mitchell, op.cit, p. 16.
² Idem.
³ Idem.
⁴ Idem.
As regards France, this country has always been particularly conscious of the diplomatic advantages that could be drawn from the spread and promotion of its own culture. Accordingly, for a long time, her ambassadors were taught before leaving France, “Faites aimer la France” – “Make them love France.”¹ They were asked to use their talents to acquaint peoples and make them aware of France’s potentialities and grandeur.

**d- Cultural Relations as a Bridge for Commerce:**

European countries in general and Britain in particular could not however ignore the commercial benefits that could result from cultural expansion. Indeed, commercial contracts have been shown to be likely to be derived from cultural relations between two given countries. Indeed, if we know someone else’s language and literature, and appreciate his country and its art, we are likely, for instance, to prefer buying goods from his country rather than from a less well known source.²

Britain can be viewed as a country where, in its cultural relations with other nations, the commercial component prevails in such a way that the British Council sometimes appears to act more like a commercial agency than as a cultural body – when what it does extends beyond the cultural field proper to encompass the promotion of book-export, art, and the English language for example.³ Indeed, Britain has been persuaded that the ‘British Council’ is the qualified organization which really proves and reinforces these advantages concretely by the diversity and the flexibility this cultural body’s work has known.

As a matter of fact several British official reports, during the fifties and sixties, successively focused on and emphasized the trade gains to be derived from cultural work. In 1954, Lord Drogheda said : “Although the method all through is strictly non-political, at the end of process a considerable political and commercial benefit is likely to be received”.⁴ This fact has been relativized by British officials as being part of a general trend in international cultural activity : “Many nations”, it has been noted, “undertake cultural programs precisely for the result they are expected to produce. In several cases these results are highly specific: The British hope to increase sales abroad, …”.⁵

Moreover, the Chairman of the Review Committee on Overseas Representation, Sir Duncan went so far as to say, in 1969 :

> As Britain turns from politico-military relations towards other ways of making her presence known to other countries, especially outside Western Europe and the North Atlantic area, it will be necessary to develop more fully the other forms of contact with governments and peoples…. The British Council (and BBC) will enable Britain to make her as a future trading and cultural partner of major importance, rather than in the role of a leading world power.⁶

As is apparent in the above quotations the British commercial spirit has not been absent from the encouragement of the cultural work which British services have undertaken abroad, particularly in terms of “people exchange”.

On the other hand, while French cultural relations, for instance, have been led independently from economic and information services activities, France has not disregarded cultural relations’ commercial benefits.⁷ As early as 1919, the French rapporteur for the Commission on the budget of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Raiberti, stated that “intellectual and

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³ J. Mitchell, op.cit, p. 21.
⁷ P. H. Coombs, op. cit, p. 80.
moral expansion was the best way to prepare for economic expansion. In other words, better cultural relations with other countries lead to better economic links. The French authorities were not the only ones, in fact, to acknowledge this link explicitly. This statement echoes the substance of a 1964 article on British Council policy entitled “British Council Survey and Annual Review”. In this article, this agency is presented as “an organization whose world-wide activities [have been] promoting good will for Britain and paving the way for British overseas trade in the post-war era.”

Indeed, cultural agencies have been very often asked to operate for foreign countries as intermediaries expected to find and select Technical Advisers, Professors and Lecturers in subjects encompassing a wide field of economic life, such as Industrial Chemistry, Metallurgy, in addition to traditional Naval Construction, as well as academic subjects such as Astronomy, Cyneachology, Geology, Physics, Mathematics and Organic Chemistry, for instance. From all these subjects trade relations might indirectly be positively affected.

Thus, cultural activities or programmes can create more constructive basis for political and economic relations as well as they could serve as a basis for the leading of one’s foreign policy.

III- The British Council in Eastern Europe: A Change in Focus

The British Council had naturally established offices not only in Commonwealth countries, but in countries which do not belong to the Third World being aware that some of these – if not all – can represent some importance – either political or economic - to Britain. A striking example during the 1980’s onwards has been the British Council relations with the Soviet bloc countries.

Since the first seeds of perestroika and glasnost started – in 1985 – showing their consequences in Eastern bloc as we knew it, an automatic change in the whole focus of both the British Council and all the other related institutions including the financial, the economic and the industrial institutions has been noticeable ; these institutions have since been looking Eastwards rather than Southwards – rather than toward North Africa for example, where people were ready to pay high sums of money for British Council services.

This policy, in fact, was in line with Thatcher’s move toward the East. Moreover, the new impetus given by a leader like Gorbachev and his Foreign Minister Shevardnadze to East-West dealing, particularly in matters of arms control paved the way for the new British-Soviet relations. In July 1986, Mr. Shevardnadze’s visit to Britain meant that both the Soviet Union and Britain wanted to put an end to their previous problems and the indifference that had colored their relations before. It also announced Britain as a channel between Moscow and Washington.

In addition to the specifically Anglo-Soviet agreements – for example the Economic and Industrial Cooperation Programme for 1986-90, signed in 1986 – the first half of 1987 witnessed a series of visits between leaders from London and Moscow. In January, after six years’ continuous activity, the Soviet blockage of BBC Russian-language broadcasts knew an end. In February, a new long-term finance and credit agreement was worked out in order to stimulate British export of capital goods. This month also saw rather investigative talks on the frustration of world terrorism.

Yet, Thatcher’s official visit to Moscow from 28 March to 2 April stood as the most important one ; the summit engaged with Gorbachev was marked by 1 hours of talks which mostly covered East-West arms control issues. As a result, the two leaders agreed on the setting up of the London-Moscow “hot line”, on more diplomatic exchanges, on cooperation in space, as well as on educational and cultural exchange.

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2 This article was published in the War Time Trading Bulletin in 1944.
3 R. E. Mc Murry, M. Lee, op. cit, p. 162.
5 Idem.
6 Idem.
7 Idem.
8 Idem.
9 Idem.
10 Idem.
Accordingly, the British Council multiplied its efforts and extended its work to cover not only the ex-USSR but previously inaccessible areas in this part of the world. Indeed, to put forward mixed economics, in 1989, the British Council’s fellowship programmes in USSR, Poland and Hungary covered business studies, law, economics and finance. Consequently, an important part of the Council’s increased government grant designated for Eastern Europe during the period 1989-90 was significantly spent on management training in the ex-Soviet Union. The aim behind was meet the needs of the new commercial and other managers in the countries of Eastern Europe. The Council also opened 13 new teachers’ resource centres throughout Eastern and Central Europe and the countries of the former Soviet Union (in 1993-94), and was to assist more than 27,000 English language teachers in the state system. In addition to its supply of 13 countries in the area with training and professional advice, the British Council extended its work to Georgia, Belarus, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan from its offices in Russia and Turkey. By the end of the 1980’s, looking eastwards became a matter of scrutinizing the East rather than just looking towards it.

In fact, the political shift towards the East witnessed in British Foreign policy at that time, compromised the British Council’s activities in other parts of the world because the latter had to follow its government’s new priorities even though its funds were not increased. Yet, in North Africa for example, thousands of people kept hoping for such cooperativeness despite the high fees the British Council used to impose in French-speaking countries. In fact, during that period (the second half of the 1980’s), the Council closed down quite a few of its offices in Africa – for example in Algeria – basically in countries which they apparently were thought to have become of less importance to Britain than the new ones. Apparently, therefore, the British Council had to look twice at its expenses and this must have consisted in closing down offices in parts of the world and opening up others in other areas which it was thought would be more lucrative – in the political sense rather than in the economic sense – though in the long-term of course politics and economics were both to have importance.

Conclusion:

The British Council’s well known large establishment in Commonwealth countries – where unlimited British political, economic and cultural interests lie – and the sudden dynamism which its activities knew in Eastern Europe, during the second half of the 1980’s in particular, as a consequence of Britain’s new attunement to the East, was a remarkable reflection of the linkage between the political and cultural spheres in Britain’s Foreign policy. Thus, the British Council cultural work could not avoid the pressure of political considerations to maintain a significant distance from cultural diplomacy.

References:


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2 Idem.
3 The British Government wanted to contribute to the rebuilding of eastern countries’ economies and the British Council helped it.
4 Idem.
Computers, Internet and Smartphone Attitudes Among Romanian University Students

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Elena Cocoradă
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Abstract

Higher education institutions encourage the use of computers and of the internet for accessing content, assignments, exam results and collaborative learning work. Our study focuses on the university students’ attitudes towards the use of computers, internet and smartphones in relationship with the field of studies, age, gender, academic performance. The research is a descriptive and correlational one. The participants were 685 female and male university students, enrolled in Sciences and Humanities, distributed in two studies which conducted at a distance of four years. The instruments used were the following: CARS, (Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987), the IAS (Nickel and Pinto (1986), CAS (Compeau, & Higgins, 1995), some scales of MTUAS (Rosen, Whaling, Carrier, Cheever, & Rokkum, 2013) and of USLS (Rung, Wranke, and Mattheos, 2014). The results showed significant differences between male and female students concerning the use and attitudes towards computers, internet and smartphones. But the self-efficacy is the same with males and females, conventional and nonconventional students, respectively. The positive and negative attitudes and task switching are equal for the two genders, and the academic performance is associated with a part of the activities performed on Facebook. The findings are discussed in connection with the learning situations, the multitasking tendencies and the use of technologies for social and private activities.

Keywords: Computers, Internet and Smartphone Attitudes Among Romanian University Students

1. Introduction

1.1 Attitude characteristics

Attitude was defined by Allport as a mental state of training, organized by experience, which directs and dynamically influences the individual's response to all the objects and situations with which it is related. In this approach, an attitude appears as a unity of cognitive, affective and behavioural elements (1935). In the context of our research, the attitudes include anxiety or confidence, anger, fear or good mood, preference or rejection, tendency to use or avoid attitudinal objects, statements of likes or dislikes about some activities or objects.

1.2 The research context

In Romania, high school and university students represent a substantial part of the contributors to the increase in the use of computers, internet and smartphones. On the average, students spend more than an hour of their free time on the computer, males – 67 minutes and females – 58 minutes. Only 10% of the people aged 16 to 34 have not used a computer (National Institute of Statistics, 2013).

In the latest years, the rate of smartphone penetration in our country is 158% per total population and this device is used more for accessing the internet and social networking sites. The most popular social networking site is Facebook with over 8.8 mil users, among whom approximately 32.8% are young people in the age range 13-24 years (Forrester Research, 2016), thus representing a significant part of the students' population.

Our study focuses on the university students’ attitudes concerning the use of computers, internet and smartphones in relationship with the field of studies, age, gender, academic performance. The research was conducted in two steps: the first study in 2012-2013 (focused on the computer and the internet), and the second study in 2016 (focused on the smartphone and its apps).
2. Study 1

2.1 Short literature review

Over the recent period, more and more universities encourage the use of the computers and the internet to access courses, syllabi, assignments, readings, grades or remote laboratories. Especially for distance learning, but for face-to-face education as well, electronic platforms were built that deliver content and tools for learning. The usage of these tools is marked by the students' confidence and favourable evaluation, or by the opposite, anxiety or rejection.

In different cultures, the first studies on the attitudes towards computer showed that females and elderly people, more than males and the youth, have a negative perception and experience negative feelings towards the computer and the internet, expressed in avoidance and distress. Male students have more computer/technology experience than female ones (e.g. Cooper, 2006) and more positive perceptions towards computers and the web (e.g. Weil, & Rosen, 1995; Liaw, 2002). The findings are not all convergent: in Turkey, research revealed that males appeared to be more computer anxious than their female co-twins (e.g. Deryakulu & Calişkan, 2012). Lower levels of computer anxiety were directly related to math anxiety, higher computer experience levels and mechanical interest (e.g. Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987, Marcoulides, Cavus, Marcoulides, & Gunbatar, 2009).

The results of various research studies showed a significant positive correlation between attitudes towards computers and towards the web (e.g. Liaw, 2002; Rotsztein, 2003). Recent studies confirm that gender and personality traits would moderate the online social networking behaviour, also having a significant impact on the adoption of different types of mobile apps (e.g. Muscanell & Guadagno, 2012; Xu, Frey, Fleisch, & Ilic, 2016). The frequent use of the internet is associated in the case of students with a minimal deficiency in their lives, socially, academically or life-style wise.

2.2 Research methodology

Objective and hypothesis

The first research study aims at analysing university students' attitudes towards the computers and the internet in connection with their age, gender, field of studies and academic performance. Our hypotheses were (1) the anxiety towards computers and the internet is lower for males, young students and those enrolled in Sciences; (2) self-efficacy is lower for females, older students and those enrolled in Humanities; (3) computer anxiety and self-efficacy are negatively correlated, and (4) computer and internet anxiety are negatively correlated with academic performance.

Participants

Our first research comprised 318 students, female (76%) and male, with a mean age of 23 years (SD = 6.1). Among these, 48% are enrolled in Humanities and the others in Sciences. Regular or conventional students (aged under 25) represent 77%, the others being over 25 years old. 97.5 % own a computer, but the number of years dedicated to the study of ICT varies: 51.8% participants studied ICT between 4 and 6 years, 12% did not study at all, but learned by themselves. The mean number of the years of study for ICT subjects is 4.4 for the entire sample. The time span for using the computer varies from 1 to 21 years, the mean being 9.9 years.

Instruments

The following instruments were used: the Computer Anxiety Rating Scale (CARS), the Internet Attitude Scale (IAS) and the Computer Self-Efficacy Scale (CSE). The Computer Anxiety Rating Scale is a self-report inventory elaborated by Heinssen, Glass, & Knight (1987) with 19 items and was used here with a four-option Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree). The total scores ranged from 19 to 76. Low scores indicate a low level of computer anxiety.

The Internet Attitude Scale (IAS) is a tool to assess the attitude towards the internet, consisting of 18 items used with a five-point Likert scale (alpha Cronbach=0.80 for 18 items). Low scores indicate a low level of internet anxiety.

The Computer Self-Efficacy Scale elaborated in 1995 by Compeau and Higgins, is a 10 items tool which assesses the self-efficacy in the computer field on a ten points Likert scale (1=strongly distrustful and 10=strongly trustful). We have grouped the items into two factors: Assisted self-efficacy and Independent self-efficacy (Cocomadă & Pălaşan, 2014). Low scores indicate a low level of self-efficacy towards the computer. A socio-demographic questionnaire was used.
2.3 Results

Gender and age differences regarding computer and internet anxiety are significant, but the ones related to self-efficacy with males and females, with conventional and non-conventional students, respectively, do not reach the threshold of statistical significance. The anxiety towards the computer and the internet are lower for males and young students, but self-efficacy is not lower for female and older students compared with male and younger students (Table 1).

Table 1 Gender and age differences concerning computer and internet anxiety, and self-efficacy towards the computer

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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>OS</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Female=243, male=74, YS- Younger students<25 years =246, OS- Old students>25 years =71

*** p< .001, ** p< .01

The specialization introduces statistically significant differences: the students in Sciences are less anxious, have more favourable attitudes towards the internet compared to those from the Humanities (t = 44.2, p<.0001, t = 26.03, p<.0001, respectively). The students in Humanities have a greater sense of efficacy than those in Sciences (r = 2.96, p <.01). The way students learned to use the computers, alone or at school, does not introduce significant differences in the three variables studied (Table 2).

Table 2 Differences concerning computer and internet anxiety, and self-efficacy towards the computer depending on specialization and way of learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Cohen’s d</th>
<th>Way of learning</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Cohen’s d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>44.2***</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>45.26</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>12.06</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>47.40</td>
<td>8.09</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet attitude</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>26.03***</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>49.36</td>
<td>8.09</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Sciences (S) = 166, Humanities (H)= 152; Informal = 185, Formal =133.

*** p<.001, ** p< .01

Computer and internet anxiety are directly and strongly associated (r = 0.87), and both are associated with age (r = 0.42), the coefficients being significant at high level. Computer and internet anxiety are negatively associated with academic performance for ICT subjects (r = -0.29, p <0.001, r = -0.26, p < 0.001, respectively). There are no significant associations of the two types of anxiety with the students’ GPA (Table 3).

Table 3 Correlations between academic performance and computer and internet anxiety, and self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Computer anxiety</th>
<th>Internet anxiety</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number of years of ICT study</th>
<th>ICT grade for the previous semester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.875***</td>
<td>0.419***</td>
<td>-0.131'</td>
<td>-0.338***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.875***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.419***</td>
<td>-0.118'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.419***</td>
<td>0.422'</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years of ICT study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.131'</td>
<td>-0.118'</td>
<td>-0.338***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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2. 4 Discussion

Our findings revealed a significant positive correlation between computer attitudes and web attitudes, confirming other studies (e.g., Liaw, 2002). According to our assumption, the anxiety towards the computer and the internet is lower in the case of males and young students, but the self-efficacy is not lower for female and older students. The higher anxiety level present with female students can be explained by their strong emotional response, the perceptions of threat in evaluative situations, or by less experience with computer. Students in the Science profile are less anxious, have more favourable attitudes towards the internet than those in the Humanities, confirming the positive impact of skills and interests over anxiety (Marcoulides et al., 2009). The students from the Humanist profile, however, have a greater sense of efficacy than those in the Science profile, which is probably explained by the lower difficulty of the ICT subjects found in the curriculum for the Humanist field.

The age heterogeneity of our sample permits us to underline the influence of the age: older students are more anxious compared to younger ones. In contrast with others studies, in our sample there are not differences in point of self efficacy believes between older and younger students. The way they learned how to use the computer, alone or at school, does not indicate significant differences on this sample. The students with the highest computer and internet anxiety have lower academic performance with respect to ICT subjects, but we could not identify correlations with the GPA. So, our findings confirm only a part of past studies, highlighting the importance of cultural context and the research decade.

3 Study 2

3.1 Short literature review

Some findings concerning the ownership of the smartphone showed the tendency for the owners to be younger, male and have a higher level of education. As users, females prefer the texting function, while male and older students prefer information seeking (e.g., Mayudia et al., 2013). The participants in the research who preferred to task switch showed greater usage of smartphones, greater general Facebook usage, more internet searching, greater e-mail use, more media sharing, more text messaging, more video gaming and more phone calling.

Except for television viewing, Facebook users showed use of nearly all technologies (e.g. Rosen et al., 2013). Some findings showed that the students used the phones much less for education purposes and much more for leisure (e.g. Lepp, Barkley, & Karpinski, 2015).

The results of smartphone and Facebook usage in education are mixed: some studies show that students use Facebook less for educational purposes and much more for communicating with friends, no direct link being detected between the use of social networks and the students' academic performance (Hew, 2011). Other studies revealed that some dimensions of Facebook usage are correlated with the students' performances (e.g. Wohn & LaRose, 2014) or reported a negative correlation between Facebook usage and student performances (e.g. Junco, 2012).

Some studies confirm that gender and personality traits have a significant impact on the adoption of smartphone apps or Facebook activities (Gosling, Augustine, Vazire, Holtzman, & Gaddis, 2011; Xu et al., 2016).

Concerning the anxiety without technology, an emerging problem of modern times, the studies showed that both males and females were found to be nomophobic in a group of students, with males more than females. The subjects tend to be anxious when they have no network coverage, lose their mobile phone, run out of battery or credit (e.g. Dixit, et al., 2010).

3.2 Research methodology

Objective and hypothesis

The research aimed at analysing university students' attitudes towards new technologies. Our hypotheses were: (1) the attitudes of the participants towards the technology are positive and negative (mixed), (2) the anxiety without technology is higher in the case of males and younger students; (3) smartphone applications are differently used by female and male
students, and differently by students in Sciences and Humanities and (4) there is an association between the attitudes towards technology and academic performance.

Participants

Our research comprised 420 female (70%) and male students, with an average age of 22.4 years (SD = 5.1). Of these, 57% are enrolled in the humanist profile, the others in the Science profile. Conventional students (aged under 25) account for 70%, while others are older than 25 years.

Instruments

The instruments used are Media and Technology Usage and Attitudes Scale – MTUAS (Rosen et al., 2013), Part B of the Use of Smartphones for Learning Purposes Scale-USLS (Rung, Wranke, and Mattheos, 2014). This part explores only the use of the smartphone for learning purposes, including the use of social media for learning.

From MTUAS, only part three was used in this research, including the four factors labelled Anxiety without technology, Positive attitude, Negative attitude and Task switching. The scale called Anxiety without technology includes three items related to the people’s having no access to a phone or the internet, and as a consequence, to technological dependence (Rosen et al., 2013). A socio-demographic questionnaire was used.

3.3 Results

97.5% of the participants own a smartphone, while 51.8% of the participants studied ICT at school between 4 and 6 years, 12% did not study it at all, the average of the years of study dedicated to ICT subjects on the whole sample being 4.4 years. The time they used the computer varies from one year to 21 years, the average for the sample being 9.9 years. The smartphone usage time is 5.08 (SD = 3.7), with no significant differences between female and male students.

The participants, females and males, report negative and positive attitudes, the dependence on new technology and the switch between tasks being equal for both genders. The specialization introduces statistically significant differences in the negative attitudes towards technology, which are more pronounced in the case of the students in Sciences, while task switching is more common in the Humanities at a marginal significance level 0.07 (Table 4).

Table 4 Gender and specialization differences concerning the attitudes towards technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Cohen's d</th>
<th>Faculty profile</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Cohen's d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety without technology</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9.30</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.1*</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>9.48</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitudes</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7.99</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8.06</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitudes towards technology</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>10.39</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task switching</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>14.37</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p<0.05 level (2-tailed), ** p<.01 level (2-tailed).

Depending on age, there are no statistically significant differences in the attitudes towards new technologies. Students more addicted to new technologies have more positive attitudes towards them (r = .33, p <.01) and switch more frequently between tasks (r = .22, p <.001). Students with more negative attitudes are less dependent on new technologies (r = .22, p <.001).

Male student and students enrolled in the Science profile declare that they use the smartphone for learning more compared to females and the students from humanist profile (t = 3.54, p <.01). Smartphone applications are differently used by the two genders and the two profiles, the differences being significant only for three applications (Table 5).

Table 5 Gender differences concerning the usage of smartphone applications
Gender | Mean | Std. Dev. | t | Cohen's d
---|---|---|---|---
Listen to music? | | | | |
M | 0.90 | 0.30 | 1.86 | 0.20
F | 0.83 | 0.38 | Marginal sig. 0.06 | |
Editing photos? | | | | |
M | 0.39 | 0.49 | 4.66*** | 0.49
F | 0.63 | 0.48 | | |
Sync with the PC? | | | | |
M | 0.56 | 0.49 | 1.99* | 0.22
F | 0.45 | 0.50 | | |
Learning Smartphone Total | | | | |
M | 3.02 | 0.75 | 3.54** | 0.65
F | 2.73 | 0.76 | | |

Note: M = 121, F = 299; p<0.05 level (2-tailed), ** p<0.01 level (2-tailed), *** p<0.001 level

The lowest scores for using smartphone applications are related to creating animations and drawings, editing movies, while the highest are related to conversations with friends, shooting, listening to music. With respect to Facebook activities, there are statistically significant gender differences only with respect to checking pages from school or from work (Meanfemales = 6.8, Meanmales = 6.3, t = 1.78, p = 0.06), to where they check them, to reading posts (Meanfemales = 7.12, Meanmales = 6.75, t = 1.67, p = 0.08) and liking posts and photos (Meanfemales = 6.82, Meanmales = 6.31, t = 2.1, p = 0.05). Females tend to be more active, but there are no differences regarding these activities from the perspectives of the studied profile. Some activities carried by the participants correlate negatively and weakly, but significantly with the GPA: looking for profiles of other users (r = -0.13, p = 0.01) and looking for friends on Facebook (r = -0.125, p < 0.01).

3. 4 Discussions

Most of the investigated students own a smartphone, confirming the idea of this device being owned by more highly educated people. On this sample, the smartphone is equally present in females and males, younger and older students. Negative and positive attitudes and dependence on listed technology are reported to the same extent by both female and male students, so the first hypothesis is confirmed. Depending on age, there are no statistically significant differences in the attitudes towards the use of this device. Negative attitudes towards new technologies are more prominent for Science students, while task switching is more common in Humanities students. Contrary to the data obtained from other studies (e.g. Mayudia et al., 2013), in our sample, the students who switch tasks do not report that they would use the smartphone more frequently, but they use only video games more often. According to other studies (e.g. Dixit et al., 2010) in our study, the anxiety without technology is higher in male students.

Smartphone applications are differently used by female and male students: the former edit more photos, while the latter listen to music and synchronize their phone with the PC. Male students and students enrolled in the Science profile say they use more the smartphone for learning, compared to girls and Humanities students. Difficult cognitive applications are less used (e.g. creating animations and drawings, film editing), the most common ones being related to facilitating communication (conversation with friends, shooting, listening to music).

Female students are more active on Facebook, as they check their personal page more often at school and / or at work, read more posts, and like posts and photos. There are no differences regarding these activities from the perspectives of the faculty profile. Although they declare that they use the smartphone for learning, the leisure activities are better represented, confirming other findings (e.g. Lepp et al., 2015).

Unlike other studies (e.g., Hew, 2011), we found that academic performance expressed through the GPA is decreasing for students browsing other Facebook users' profiles or searching for their friends. This indirectly confirms the hypothesis of the relationship between loneliness and the use of this application, confirming other studies (e.g. Junco, 2012).

The findings of these studies must be used with cautions because the samples are accidental and the data is self-reported. For future research, we propose to use more variables or a qualitative approach. Comparing attitudes dynamics at various ages, including adults employees can provide interesting data that can be used in effective educational interventions or training.
4 General conclusions and implications

Using the internet and the computer has definite benefits as far as learning is concerned: lower costs, enhancement of teaching and learning, increase in the access to good quality courses etc. Smartphones and social networking facilitate access to information, communication, reduce boredom and loneliness. But the negative effects are also present.

Our findings distance themselves from the findings obtained in other cultures and in the previous decades: although the anxiety towards the computer and the internet are not equal among genders, being lower in the case of males and younger students, the self-efficacy towards them is equal. So the self-efficacy can be a premise for reducing the anxiety towards these devices. From a psychological perspective, the equivalence of the self-efficacy level for female and male students confirms the assumption of the multidimensional nature of this construct and. From a pedagogical perspective, the equal level of attitudes is probably favoured by the learning objectives and opportunities offered by the educational system.

The more favourable attitudes towards the internet and the lesser anxiety for students in the Science profile reconfirm the positive impact of competencies, developing an argument for an optimistic assumption. Male students and students enrolled in Sciences report they use the smartphone for learning more, compared to the ones enrolled in Humanities. However, applications that require significant cognitive demand are less used by all participants (e.g. creating animations and drawings, editing movies), the most commonly used being the social and leisure time ones (conversations with friends, shooting, listening to music). Editing photos and synchronising the smart phone with the PC are used more by the male students. Task switching, an activity incriminated for reducing learning efficiency, is present in the investigated sample more frequently in the case of Humanities students, but it does not correlate with academic performance.

The explosion of social networks has not only positive effects that meet basic needs (group acceptance and impression management), but for some activities it can reduce academic performance. The need to reduce computer anxiety is also supported by its negative association with academic performance in ICT subjects. Both types of results indicate the need to know the students’ attitudes and behaviours, and to intervene in order to reduce excesses and increase positive effects. Both categories of results highlight the negative effects of the computer, the internet and the smartphone, but their benefits cannot be totally denied. These benefits only occur for students and teachers if the level of anxiety and addiction to the computer, the internet and the smartphone can stimulate learning and well-being.

References


